Basic Memory Management

Outline

- □ Memory management requirements
- □ Basic memory management
- □ Fixed Partitions
- Dynamic Partitions

In an ideal world...

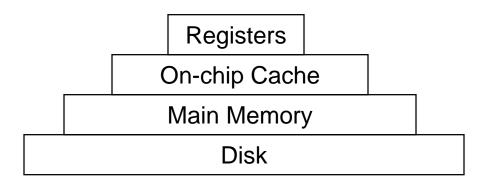
- □ The ideal world has memory that is
 - Very large
 - Very fast
 - Non-volatile (doesn't go away when power is turned off)
- □ The real world has memory that is:
 - Very large
 - Very fast
 - Affordable!
 - ⇒Pick any two...
- Memory management goal: make the real world look as much like the ideal world as possible.

Introduction

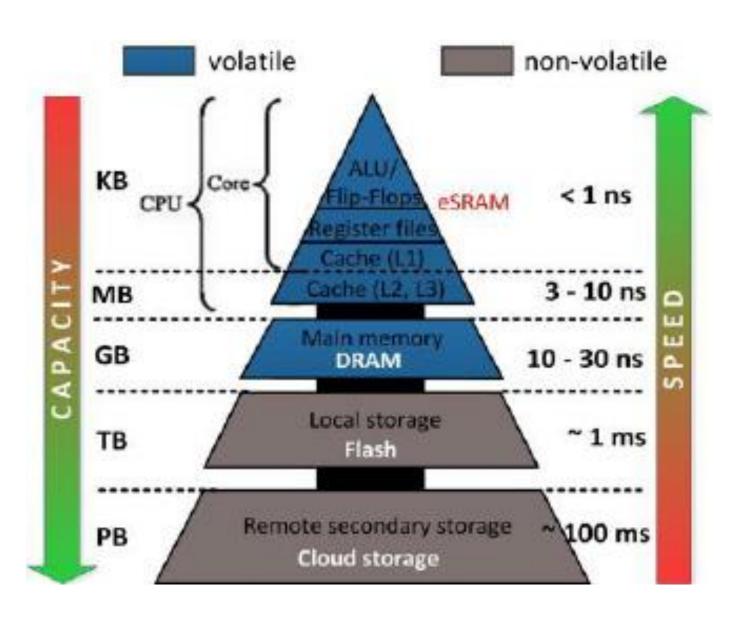
- □ Our machines today have lots of more memory than the IBM 7094 leading edge machine of the 1960's
- Cost of memory had dropped dramatically
- □ Bill Gates (former chair of Microsoft) once said "640K should be enough"

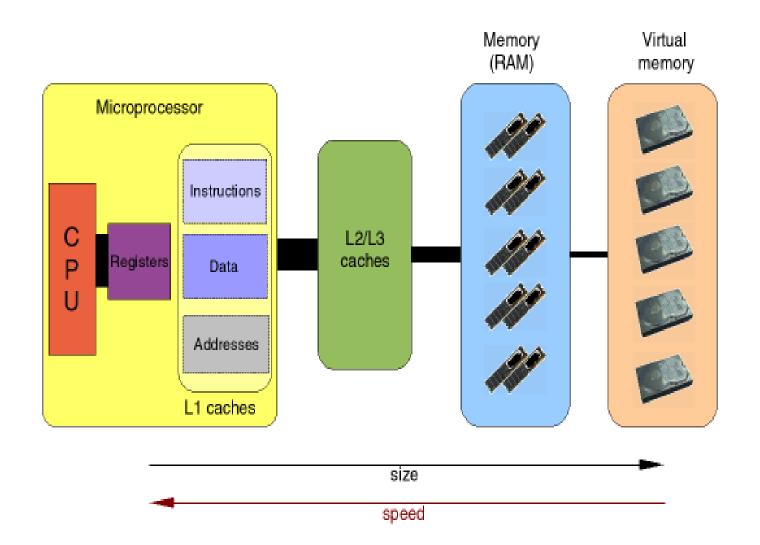
Introduction

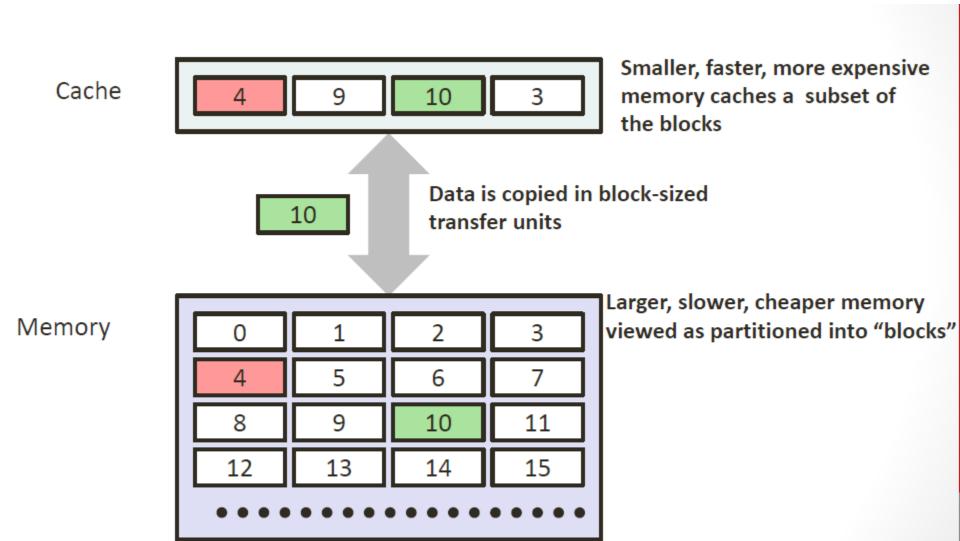
- Software tends to expand to fill the memory available
 - The 1 terabyte of memory the researchers already want more.
- Operating systems must manage memory



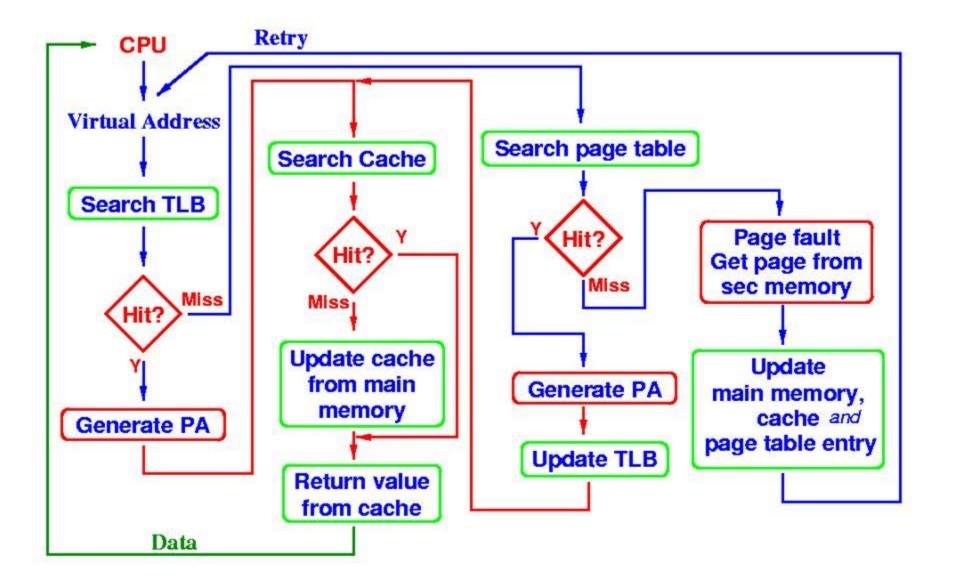
- □ A CPU waiting for data from main memory is not desired.
- □Remedy: Add fast memory between the CPU and main memory called a cache.



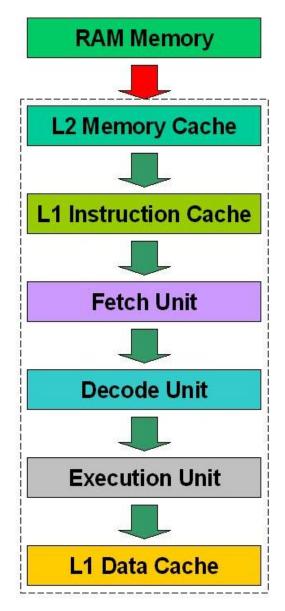


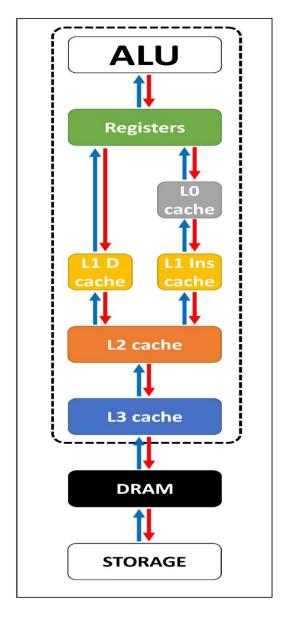


Memory Hierarchy - Operation



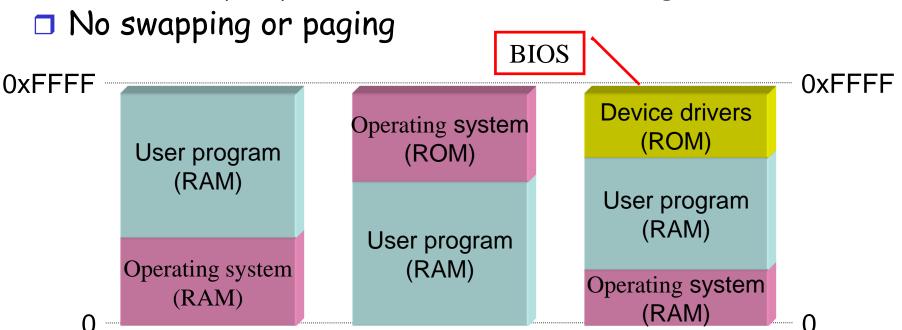
- □ What is the memory hierarchy?
 - Different levels of memory
 - Some are small & fast
 - Others are large & slow
- □ What levels are usually included?
 - Cache: small amount of fast, expensive memory
 - L1 (level 1) cache: usually on the CPU chip
 - L2 & L3 cache: off-chip, made of SRAM in old machines
 - Main memory: medium-speed, medium price memory (DRAM)
 - Disk: many gigabytes of slow, cheap, non-volatile storage
- Memory manager handles the memory hierarchy





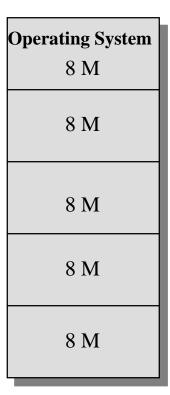
Basic memory management

- Components include
 - Operating system (perhaps with device drivers)
 - Single process
- ☐ Goal: lay these out in memory
 - Memory protection may not be an issue (only one program)
 - Flexibility may still be useful (allow OS changes, etc.)



Fixed Partitioning

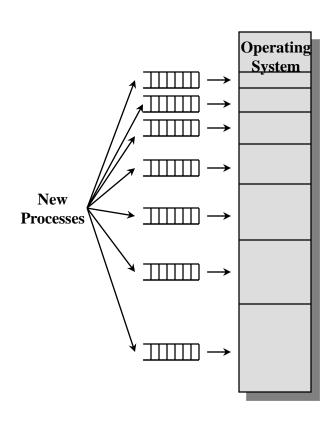
- □ Main memory use is inefficient.
- Any program, no matter how small, occupies an entire partition.
 - This is internal fragmentation.



Placement Algorithm with Partitions

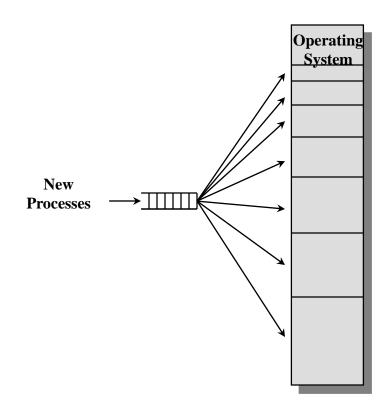
- □ Equal-size partitions
 - Since all partitions are of equal size, it does not matter which partition is used
- Unequal-size partitions
 - Each process can be assigned to the smallest partition within which it will fit
 - There is a queue for each partition
 - Processes are assigned in such a way as to minimize wasted memory within a partition

One Process Queue per Partition



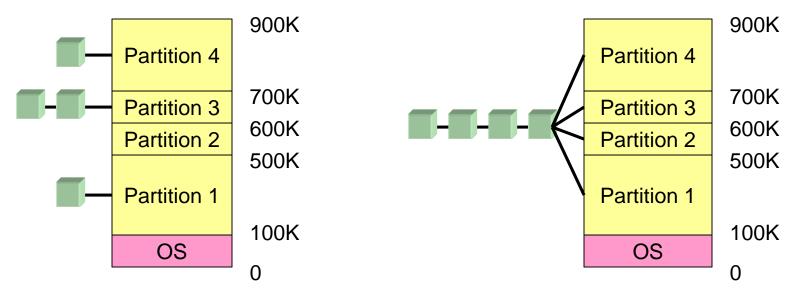
One Common Process Queue

When its time to load a process into main memory the smallest available partition that will hold the process is selected



Fixed partitions: multiple programs

- □ Fixed memory partitions
 - Divide memory into fixed spaces
 - Assign a process to a space when it's free
- Mechanisms
 - Separate input queues for each partition
 - Single input queue: better ability to optimize CPU usage

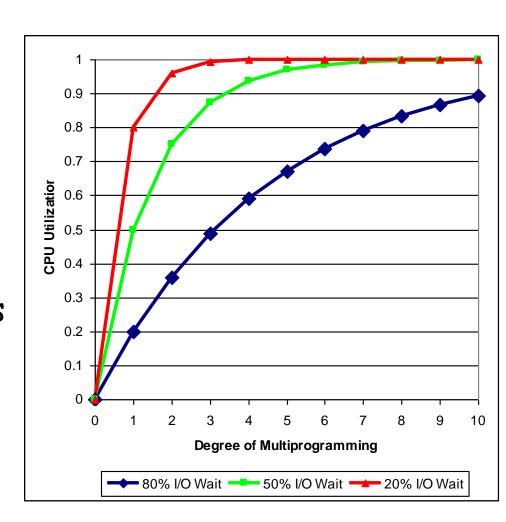


How many programs is enough?

- Several memory partitions (fixed or variable size)
- Lots of processes wanting to use the CPU
- □ Tradeoff
 - More processes utilize the CPU better
 - Fewer processes use less memory (cheaper!)
- How many processes do we need to keep the CPU fully utilized?
 - This will help determine how much memory we need
 - Is this still relevant with memory costing \$100/16GB?

Modeling multiprogramming

- More I/O wait means less processor utilization
 - At 20% I/O wait, 3-4 processes fully utilize CPU
 - At 80% I/O wait, even 10 processes aren't enough
- □ This means that the OS should have more processes if they're I/O bound
- More processes => memory management & protection more important!



Multiprogrammed system performance

- □ Arrival and work requirements of 4 jobs
- □ CPU utilization for 1-4 jobs with 80% I/O wait
- Sequence of events as jobs arrive and finish
 - Numbers show amount of CPU time jobs get in each interval
 - More processes => better utilization, less time per process

Job	Arrival	CPU									
	time	needed						1	2	3	4
1	10:00	4					CPU idle	0.80	0.64	0.51	0.41
2	10:10	3							0.36	+	0.59
3	10:15	2					CPU/process	0.20	0.18	0.16	0.15
4	10:20	2				_					-
0		Time	10	0 1	5 2	0	22 2	27.6	28.2	31.7	
1											
2											
2											
3											
4											

Dynamic Partitioning

- Partitions are of variable length and number
- Process is allocated exactly as much memory as required
- Eventually get holes in the memory. This is called external fragmentation
- Compaction is required to obtain a large block at the end of memory
 - Shift processes so they are contiguous and all free memory is in one block

Example Dynamic Partitioning

Operating System		Operating System		Operating System	
Process 1	320 K	Process 1	320 K	Process 1	320 K
Process 2	224 K		224 K	Process 4	128 K 96 K
Process 3	288 K	Process 3	288 K	Process 3	288 K
	64 K		64 K		64 K

Example Dynamic Partitioning

Operating System		Operating System	
	320 K	Process 2	224 k
			96 K
Process 4	128 K	Process 4	128 K
	96 K		96 K
Process 3	288 K	Process 3	288 K
	64 K		64 K

Dynamic Partitioning Placement Algorithm

- Operating system must decide which free block to allocate to a process
- □ Best-fit algorithm
 - Choose the block that is closest in size to the request
 - This has the worst overall performance
 - The smallest block is found for a process
 - The smallest amount of fragmentation is left;
 - Memory compaction must be done more often

Dynamic Partitioning Placement Algorithm

□ First-fit algorithm

 Starts scanning memory from the beginning and chooses the first available block that is large enough.

□ Next-fit

 Starts scanning memory from the location of the last placement and chooses the next available block that is large enough

Memory and multiprogramming

- Memory needs two things for multiprogramming
 - Relocation
 - Protection
- The OS cannot be certain where a program will be loaded in memory
 - Variables and procedures can't use absolute locations in memory
 - Several ways to guarantee this
- □ The OS must keep processes' memory separate
 - Protect a process from other processes reading or modifying its own memory
 - Protect a process from modifying its own memory in undesirable ways (such as writing to program code)

Registers Used during Execution

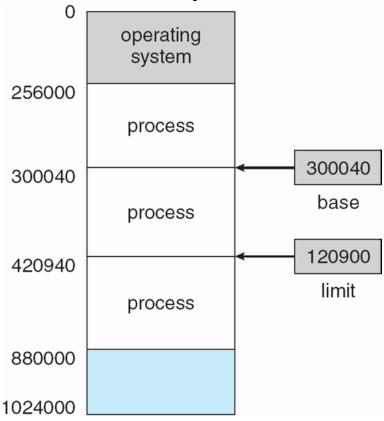
- □ Base register
 - Starting address for the process
- □ Bounds register
 - Ending location of the process
- These values are set when the process is loaded and when the process is swapped in

Registers Used during Execution

- □ 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

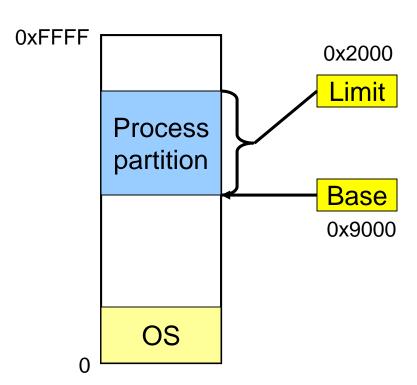
Base and Limit Registers

A pair of base and limit registers define the logical address space



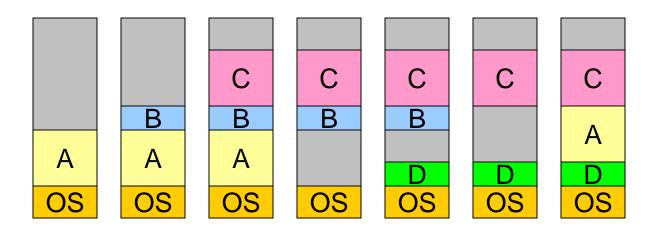
Base and limit registers

- Special CPU registers: base & limit
 - Access to the registers limited to system mode
 - Registers contain
 - Base: start of the process's memory partition
 - Limit: length of the process's memory partition
- Address generation
 - Physical address: location in actual memory
 - Logical address: location from the process's point of view
 - Physical address = base + logical address
 - Logical address larger than limit => error



Logical address: 0x1204 Physical address: 0x1204+0x9000 = 0xA204

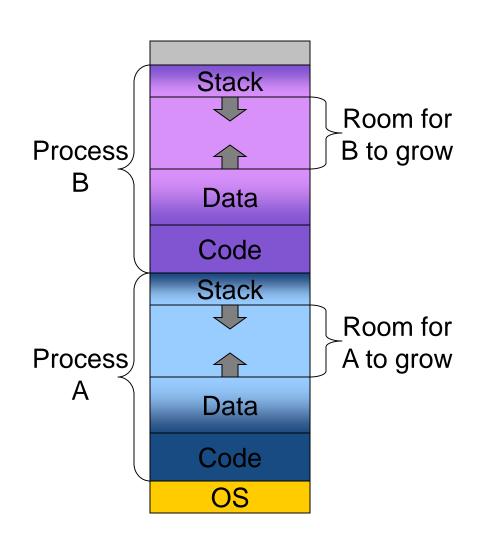
Swapping



- Memory allocation changes as
 - Processes come into memory
 - Processes leave memory
 - Swapped to disk
 - Complete execution
- □ Gray regions are unused memory

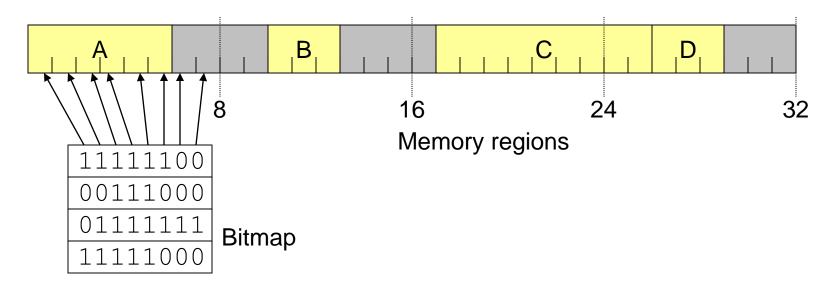
Swapping: leaving room to grow

- Need to allow for programs to grow
 - Allocate more memory for data
 - Larger stack
- Handled by allocating more space than is necessary at the start
 - Inefficient: wastes memory that's not currently in use
 - What if the process requests too much memory?



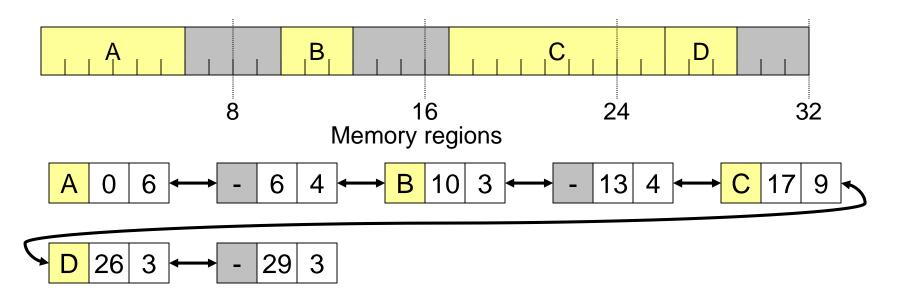
Tracking memory usage: bitmaps

- Keep track of free / allocated memory regions with a bitmap
 - One bit in map corresponds to a fixed-size region of memory
 - Bitmap is a constant size for a given amount of memory regardless of how much is allocated at a particular time
- Chunk size determines efficiency
 - At 1 bit per 4KB chunk, we need just 256 bits (32 bytes) per MB of memory
 - For smaller chunks, we need more memory for the bitmap
 - Can be difficult to find large contiguous free areas in bitmap



Tracking memory usage: linked lists

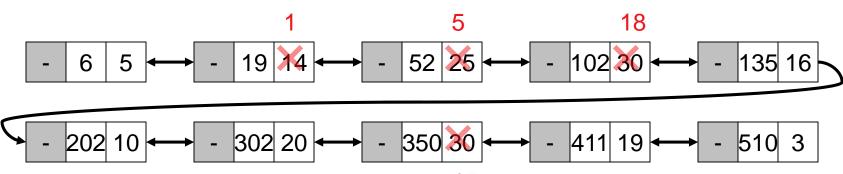
- Keep track of free / allocated memory regions with a linked list
 - Each entry in the list corresponds to a contiguous region of memory
 - Entry can indicate either allocated or free (and, optionally, owning process)
 - May have separate lists for free and allocated areas
- Efficient if chunks are large
 - Fixed-size representation for each region
 - More regions => more space needed for free lists



Allocating memory

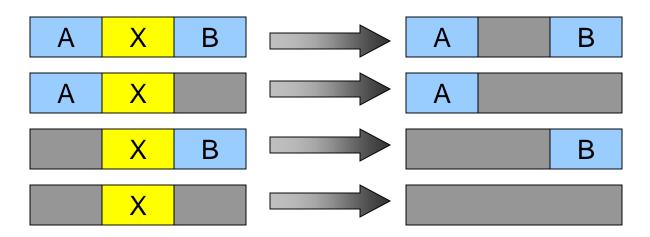
- Search through region list to find a large enough space
- Suppose there are several choices: which one to use?
 - First fit: the first suitable hole on the list
 - Next fit: the first suitable after the previously allocated hole
 - Best fit: the smallest hole that is larger than the desired region (wastes least space?)
 - Worst fit: the largest available hole (leaves largest fragment)
- Option: maintain separate queues for different-size holes

Allocate 20 blocks first fit Allocate 13 blocks best fit Allocate 12 blocks next fit Allocate 15 blocks worst fit



Freeing memory

- Allocation structures must be updated when memory is freed
- □ Easy with bitmaps: just set the appropriate bits in the bitmap
- Linked lists: modify adjacent elements as needed
 - Merge adjacent free regions into a single region
 - May involve merging two regions with the just-freed area



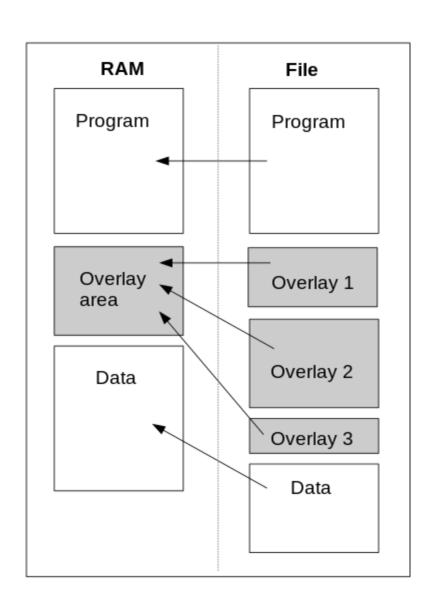
Limitations of swapping

- Problems with swapping
 - Process must fit into physical memory (impossible to run larger processes)
 - Memory becomes fragmented
 - · External fragmentation: lots of small free areas
 - · Compaction needed to reassemble larger free areas
 - Processes are either in memory or on disk: half and half doesn't do any good
- Overlays solved the first problem
 - Bring in pieces of the process over time (typically data)
 - Still doesn't solve the problem of fragmentation or partially resident processes

Overlays

- Keep in memory only those instructions and data that are needed at any given time.
- □ Needed when process is larger than amount of memory allocated to it.
- □ Implemented by user, no special support from the operating system.
- Programming design of overlay structure is complex.

Overlays



Summary

This section studied basic memory allocation techniques