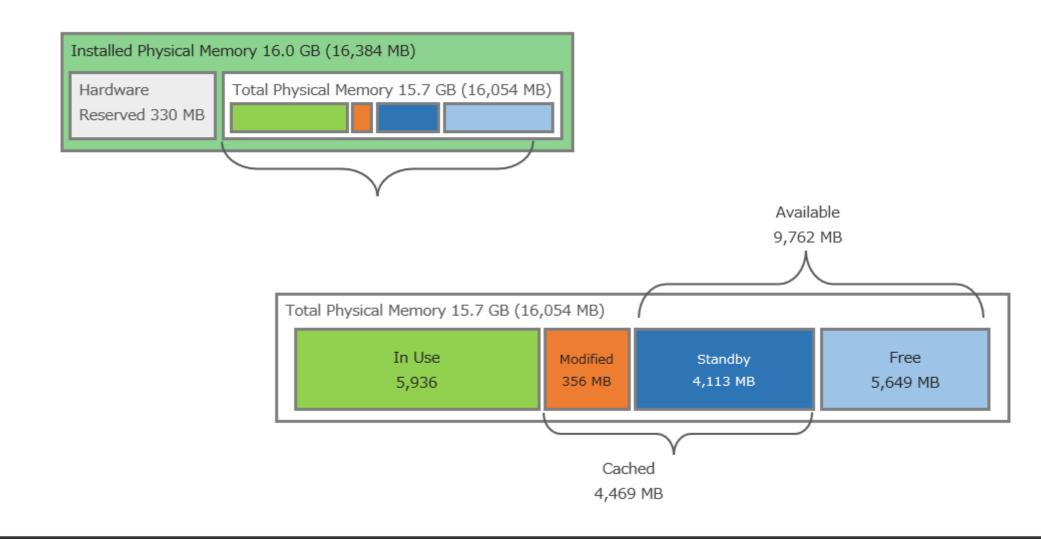




Introduction to Memory Management

Memory Management is one of the Core Responsibilities of the Linux Kernel. It serves as the foundation for Multitasking, Application Execution, and System Stability. The Kernel Abstracts the Physical RAM into Manageable and Protected Virtual Memory spaces for each Process, allowing Efficient use and Isolation of Memory Resources.

Introduction to Memory Management



Introduction to Memory Management

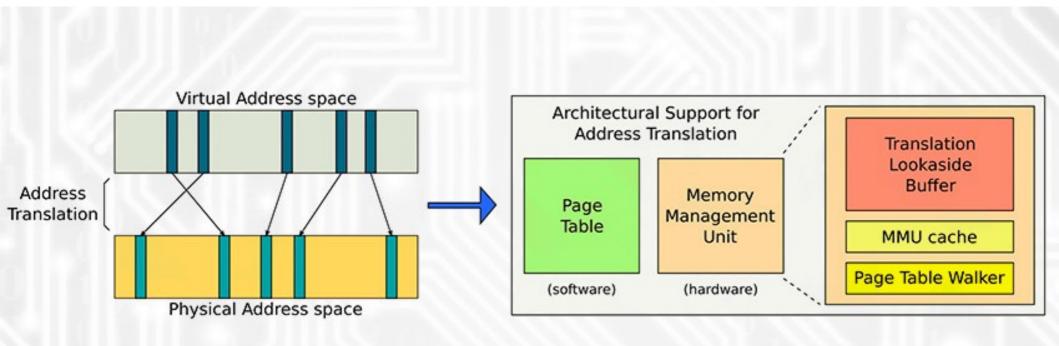
This Abstraction not only improves Security by Preventing Processes from Accessing each other's Data but also allows the System to Simulate more Memory than physically available through Techniques like Swapping and Demand Paging. As a result, memory management Ensures that System Resources are used Optimally, Processes are Kept in Check, and the Overall Performance of the Operating System remains Stable.



Virtual Memory Concepts

Virtual Memory is a layer of Abstraction between the Physical Hardware and User Applications. In Linux, each Process is given the illusion of having its own Dedicated, Contiguous Block of Memory. Behind the scenes, this Virtual Address space is Mapped to Physical Memory through Page Tables and managed by the Memory Management Unit (MMU).

Virtual Memory Concepts



Virtual Memory Concepts

Virtual Memory enables Crucial features such as Memory Isolation between processes, Shared Libraries,, and more. It also allows the Kernel to Swap Inactive Pages to Disk when RAM is limited, thereby enabling the execution of programs that collectively use more memory than the System physically has. This Mechanism is Essential for Modern Multitasking Operating Systems.

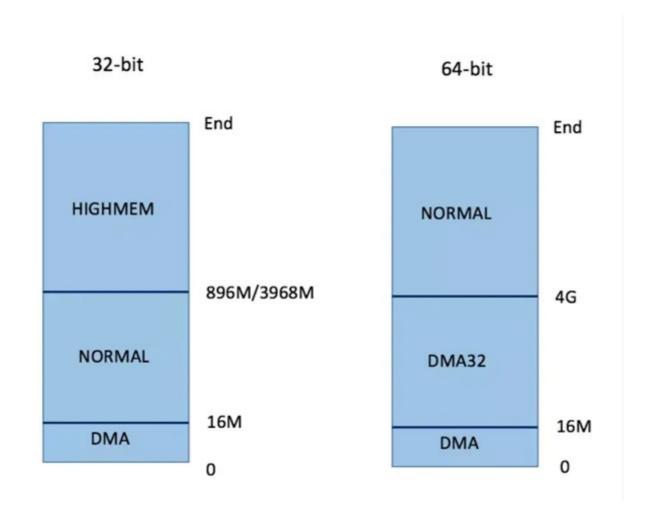


Memory Zones and Pages

To efficiently handle **Diverse Memory Needs** and **Hardware Constraints**, the **Linux Kernel** divides **Physical Memory** into **Logical Regions** called **Zones**.

- 1) **ZONE_DMA** (for Legacy Devices requiring Low Memory Addresses)
- 2) **ZONE_NORMAL** (directly **Mapped Memory** for the **Kernel**)
- 3) **ZONE_HIGHMEM** (used in **32-bit Systems** when **Addressable RAM** exceeds **Kernel Mapped Space**).

Memory Zones and Pages

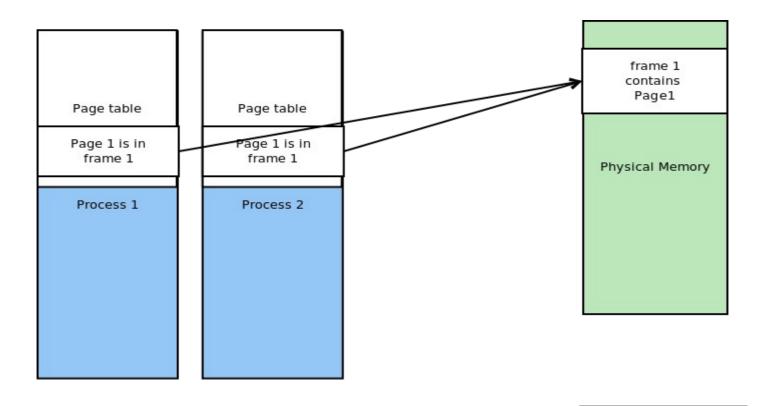


Memory Zones and Pages

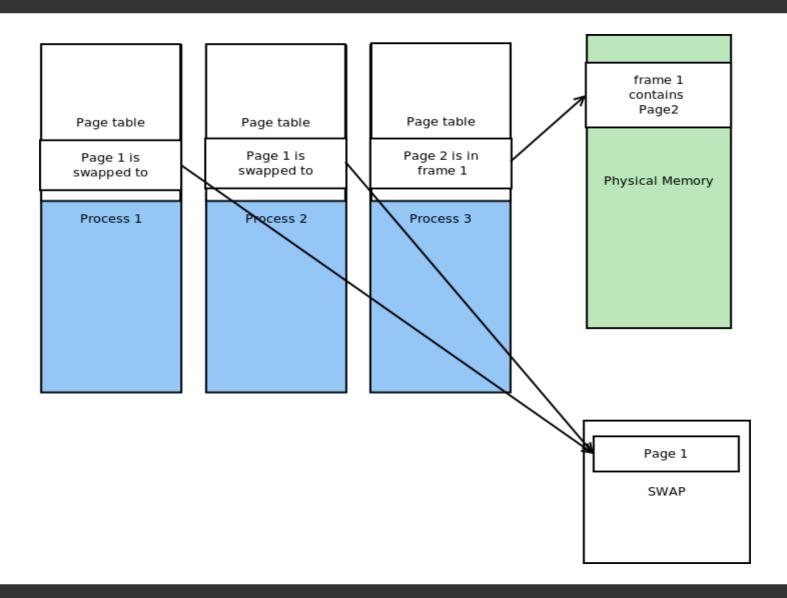
Memory is further subdivided into Pages, which are Typically 4KB in size. Each page is tracked by a Struct Page, which holds Metadata about the page's Status, Usage, and Ownership. These Zones help the Kernel make informed decisions about Memory Allocation, especially under pressure.



Page Frame Management is the Kernel's way of keeping Track of which physical memory pages (also known as Page Frames) are Free, Used, or Available for Reclamation. The Linux Kernel maintains lists of Free Pages, as well as Active and Inactive page lists for each Zone.



SWAP



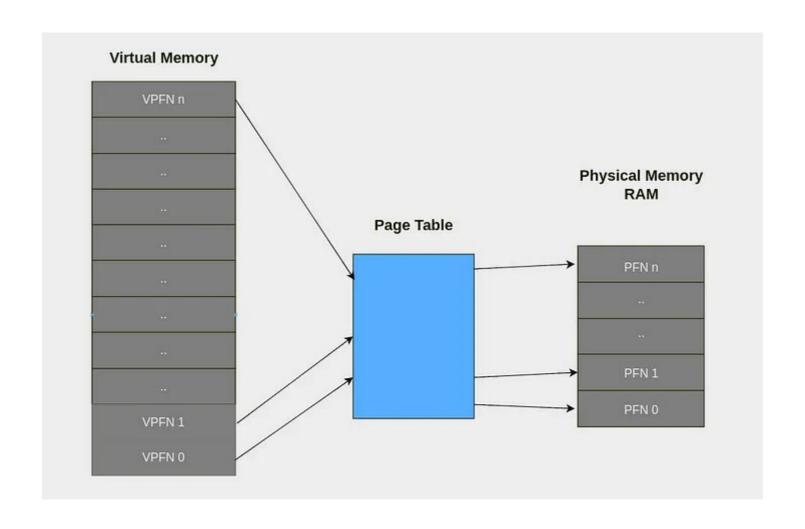
When a page is Allocated, it is removed from the free list and assigned to a Process or the Kernel. When memory becomes Scarce, the Kernel's Page reclaim Algorithm kicks in, Scanning and Freeing Inactive pages or writing them to swap. Sophisticated Mechanisms like Least Recently Used (LRU) Caching, Page Reference Counting, and Page Coloring help improve Cache Efficiency and Reduce Fragmentation. Effective Page Frame Management is key to maintaining Performance and Stability in Memory Intensive Workloads.



Demand Paging & Page Faults

Linux uses a Memory Optimization technique called Demand Paging, where Memory Pages are not loaded into RAM until they are Actually Accessed. When a process tries to access a page that hasn't been mapped into Physical Memory yet, the CPU triggers a Page Fault. The Kernel then handles this fault by locating the data (from the Executable File, Shared Library, or Swap space), loading it into a Free Page Frame, and updating the Page Table.

Demand Paging & Page Faults

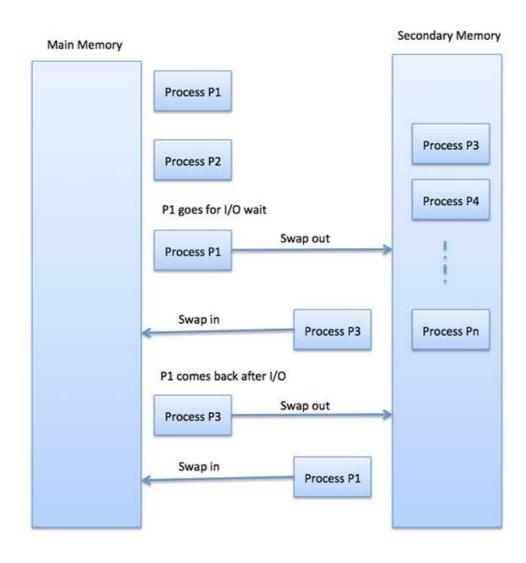


Demand Paging & Page Faults

This Mechanism allows the System to Save Memory and Load Times by only loading necessary parts of a program. While most Page Faults are handled transparently, frequent or "Hard" page faults —especially those involving swap—can Slow the System Down. Understanding Demand Paging is Essential for grasping how Linux Balances Performance and Resource Efficiency.



When **Physical Memory** becomes **Scarce**, the **Linux Kernel** may move less frequently used pages to **Swap Space**, typically located on **Disk**. This process, known as swapping, frees up RAM for more active processes but comes at the cost of performance, as **Disk Access** is much **Slower** than **RAM**.

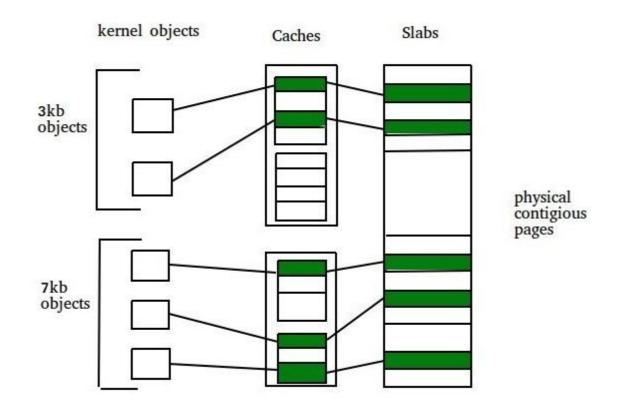


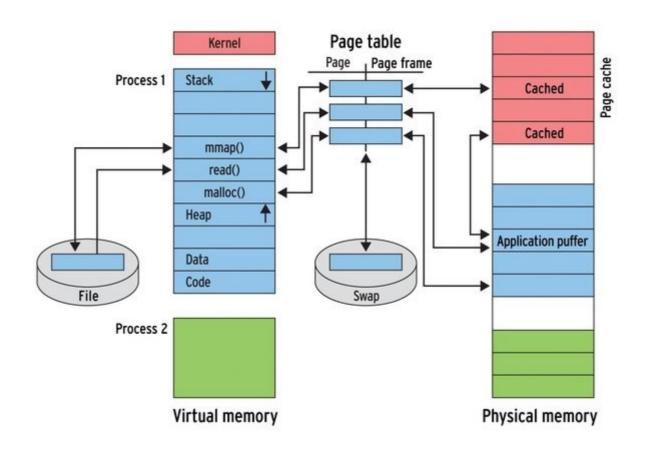


If the System runs out of both RAM and Swap, it invokes the Out of Memory (OOM) Killer. The OOM Killer analyzes Running Processes and Terminates one or more deemed expendable —usually based on Memory Usage and Importance— to Reclaim Memory and keep the System from Crashing. Although undesirable, this mechanism is a necessary safety net to ensure System Survival under Extreme Memory Pressure.

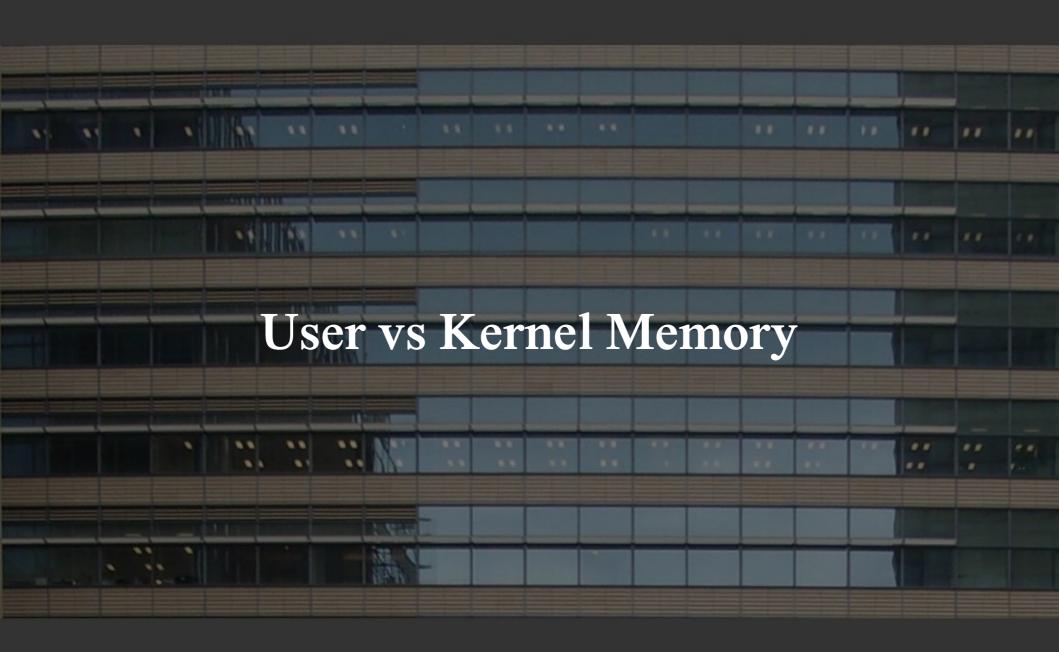


The Linux Kernel frequently Allocates and Deallocates Small Memory Objects, such as File Descriptors, Inodes, or Task Structures. To manage these efficiently, it uses the Slab Allocator —a Caching System that Preallocates Memory Chunks of Fixed Sizes. This avoids Fragmentation and Reduces the Overhead of repeated allocation.





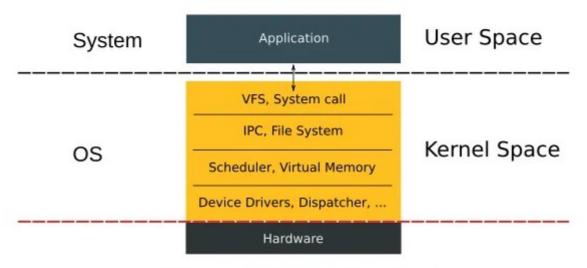
The Kernel maintains various Caches for different Object Types, which are reused instead of being repeatedly allocated and freed. Slab, Slub, and Slob are different allocator implementations available in the Kernel, each optimized for different Scenarios. These Caching Techniques significantly boost Performance and Stability in high load environments by minimizing Dynamic Memory Management Overhead.



User vs Kernel Memory

In Linux, Memory is divided between User Space and **Kernel Space**. User space is where **Regular Applications** run; it is **Isolated** and **Protected** to prevent one process from interfering with another or with the **Kernel** itself.

User vs Kernel Memory



Monolothic Kernel

User vs Kernel Memory

Kernel Space is reserved for Privileged Code, such as Device Drivers, File Systems, and the Core Kernel. It has Unrestricted Access to Hardware and the Entire System's Memory. The distinction ensures both Security and Stability.

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