


**TCCS 422: OPERATING SYSTEMS**

**Memory Virtualization,  
Segmentation,  
Memory Paging**



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**FEEDBACK FROM 11/19**

- Assignment #2:
  - Can we have another example of optimizing TLP by moving locks around?
- Assignment #3:
  - What is the purpose of a Linux "proc" file?
- Memory Virtualization:
  - When would you need to use `brk()`, `sbrk()`?
  - **Legacy: The `brk()` and `sbrk()` functions are historical curiosities left over from earlier days before virtual memory management.**
  - Called internally by `malloc()`, `realloc()`, to adjust heap location

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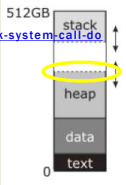
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**BRK(), SBRK()**

- From stackoverflow.com:
  - <https://stackoverflow.com/questions/6988487/what-does-the-brk-system-call-do>
- The "break", the address manipulated by `brk()` and `sbrk()`, is the dotted line at the top of the heap
- In traditional Unix (before shared libraries) the data segment was continuous with the heap.
- Before the program starts, the kernel would load the "text" and "data" blocks into RAM starting at address zero and set the break address to the end of the data segment.
- The first call to `malloc()` would use `sbrk()` to move the break up and create the heap in between the top of the data segment and the new, higher break address, as shown in the diagram, and subsequent use of `malloc()` would use it to make the heap bigger as necessary.



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**FEEDBACK - 2**

- Hard to track the details relevant for final exam
- All is of course important, but my notes weren't substantial enough for the midterm

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**OBJECTIVES**

- Quiz 4
- Program 2
- Program 3
- **Segments**
- Chapter 17 – Free Space Management
- **Paging**
- Chapter 18 – Introduction to Paging
- Chapter 19 – Translation Lookaside Buffer
- Chapter 20 – Paging Smaller Tables
- Chapter 21/22 – Beyond Physical Memory

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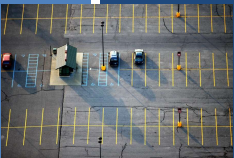
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**CHAPTER 17: FREE SPACE MANAGEMENT**

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## FREE SPACE MANAGEMENT

- Management of memory using
  
- Only fixed-sized units
  - Easy: keep a list
  - Memory request → return first free entry
    - Simple search
  
- With variable sized units
  - More challenging
  - Results from variable sized malloc requests
  - Leads to fragmentation

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## FRAGMENTATION

- Consider a 30-byte heap

30-byte heap: 

free	used	free	
0	10	20	30

- Request for 15-bytes

free list: head → 

addr:0 len:10	→	addr:20 len:10	→	NULL
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- Free space: 20 bytes
- No available contiguous chunk → return NULL

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## FRAGMENTATION - 2

- **External:** OS can compact
  - Example: Client asks for 100 bytes: malloc(100)
  - OS: No 100 byte contiguous chunk is available: returns NULL
  - Memory is externally fragmented - - Compaction can fix!
  
- **Internal:** lost space - OS can't compact
  - OS returns memory units that are too large
  - Example: Client asks for 100 bytes: malloc(100)
  - OS: Returns 125 byte chunk
  - Fragmentation is \*in\* the allocated chunk
  - Memory is lost, and unaccounted for - can't compact

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### MEMORY HEADERS - 2

hptr → size: 20  
ptr → magic: 1234567

The 20 bytes returned to caller

Specific Contents Of The Header

```
typedef struct _header_t {
    int size;
    int magic;
} header_t;
```

A Simple Header

- Contains size
- Pointers: for faster memory access
- Magic number: integrity checking

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### MEMORY HEADERS - 3

- Size of memory chunk is:
  - Header size + user malloc size
  - N bytes + sizeof(header)
- Easy to determine address of header

```
void free(void *ptr) {
    header_t *hptr = (void *)ptr - sizeof(header_t);
}
```

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### THE FREE LIST

- Simple free list struct
- Use mmap to create free list
- 4kb heap, 4 byte header, one contiguous free chunk

```
// mmap() returns a pointer to a chunk of free space
node_t *head = mmap(NULL, 4096, PROT_READ|PROT_WRITE,
    MAP_ANON|MAP_PRIVATE, -1, 0);
head->size = 4096 - sizeof(node_t);
head->next = NULL;
```

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## FREE LIST - 2

- Create and initialize free-list "heap"
 

```

                // mmap() returns a pointer to a chunk of free space
                node_t *head = mmap(NULL, 4096, PROT_READ|PROT_WRITE,
                               MAP_ANON|MAP_PRIVATE, -1, 0);
                head->size = 4096 - sizeof(node_t);
                head->next = NULL;
            
```
- Heap layout:
 

[virtual address: 16KB]  
header: size field

head → size: 4088  
next: 0 header: next field(NULL is 0)

...

the rest of the 4KB chunk

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## FREE LIST: MALLOC() CALL

- Consider a request for a 100 bytes: `malloc(100)`
- Header block requires 8 bytes
  - 4 bytes for size, 4 bytes for magic number
- Split the heap – header goes with each block

A 4KB Heap With One Free Chunk

head → size: 4088  
next: 0

the rest of the 4KB chunk

A Heap : After One Allocation

ptr → size: 100  
magic: 1234567

First block is used

the 100 bytes now allocated

head → size: 3980  
next: 0

the free 3980 byte chunk

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## FREE LIST: FREE() CALL

- Addresses of chunks
- Start=16384
  - + 108 (end of 1<sup>st</sup> chunk)
  - + 108 (end of 2<sup>nd</sup> chunk)
  - + 108 (end of 3<sup>rd</sup> chunk)
  - = 16708

8 bytes header {

size: 100  
magic: 1234567

100 bytes still allocated

...

size: 100  
magic: 1234567

Free this block

100 bytes still allocated (but about to be freed)

...

size: 100  
magic: 1234567

100 bytes still allocated

head → size: 3764  
next: 0

The free 3764-byte chunk

Free Space With Three Chunks Allocated

[virtual address: 16KB]

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### MEMORY ALLOCATION STRATEGIES

- **Best fit**
  - Traverse free list
  - Identify all candidate free chunks
  - Note which is smallest (has best fit)
  - When splitting, “leftover” pieces are small (and potentially less useful – fragmented)
- **Worst fit**
  - Traverse free list
  - Identify largest free chunk
  - Split largest free chunk, leaving a still large free chunk

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### EXAMPLES

- Allocation request for 15 bytes

head → 10 → 30 → 20 → NULL

- Result of Best Fit

head → 10 → 30 → 5 → NULL

- Result of Worst Fit

head → 10 → 15 → 20 → NULL

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### MEMORY ALLOCATION STRATEGIES - 2

- **First fit**
  - Start search at beginning of free list
  - Find first chunk large enough for request
  - Split chunk, returning a “fit” chunk, saving the remainder
  - Avoids full free list traversal of best and worst fit
- **Next fit**
  - Similar to first fit, but start search at last search location
  - Maintain a pointer that “cycles” through the list
  - Helps balance chunk distribution vs. first fit
  - Find first chunk, that is large enough for the request, and split
  - Avoids full free list traversal

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### SEGREGATED LISTS

- For popular sized requests  
e.g. for kernel objects such as locks, inodes, etc.
- Manage as segregated free lists
- Provide object caches: stores pre-initialized objects
  
- How much memory should be dedicated for specialized requests (object caches)?
  
- If a given cache is low in memory, can request “slabs” of memory from the general allocator for caches.
- General allocator will reclaim slabs when not used

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### BUDDY ALLOCATION

- Binary buddy allocation
  - Divides free space by two to find a block that is big enough to accommodate the request; the next split is too small...
- Consider a 7KB request

64KB free space for 7KB request

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### BUDDY ALLOCATION - 2

- Buddy allocation: suffers from internal fragmentation
  
- Allocated fragments, typically too large
  
- Coalescing is simple
  - Two adjacent blocks are promoted up

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**CHAPTER 18:  
INTRODUCTION TO  
PAGING**



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**PAGING**

- Split up address space of process into *fixed sized pieces* called **pages**
- Alternative to *variable sized pieces* (Segmentation) which suffers from significant fragmentation
- Physical memory is split up into an array of fixed-size slots called **page frames**.
- Each process has a **page table** which translates virtual addresses to physical addresses

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**ADVANTAGES OF PAGING**

- **Flexibility**
  - Abstracts the process address space into pages
  - No need to track direction of HEAP / STACK growth
    - *Just add more pages...*
  - No need to store unused space
    - *As with segments...*
- **Simplicity**
  - Pages and page frames are the same size
  - Easy to allocate and keep a free list of pages

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## PAGING DESIGN QUESTIONS

- (1) Where are page tables stored?
- (2) What are the typical contents of the page table?
- (3) How big are page tables?
- (4) Does paging make the system too slow?

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## (1) WHERE ARE PAGE TABLES STORED?

- Example:
  - Consider a 32-bit process address space (up to 4GB)
  - With 4 KB pages
  - 20 bits for VPN ( $2^{20}$  pages)
  - 12 bits for the page offset ( $2^{12}$  unique bytes in a page)
- Page tables for each process are stored in RAM
  - Support potential storage of  $2^{20}$  translations = 1,048,576 pages per process
  - Each page has a page table entry size of 4 bytes

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## PAGE TABLE EXAMPLE

- With  $2^{20}$  slots in our page table for a single process
- Each slot dereferences a VPN
- Provides physical frame number
- Each slot requires 4 bytes (32 bits)
  - 20 for the PFN on a 4GB system with 4KB pages
  - 12 for the offset which is preserved
  - (note we have no status bits, so this is unrealistically small)
- How much memory to store page table for 1 process?
  - 4,194,304 bytes (or 4MB) to index one process

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VPN <sub>0</sub>
VPN <sub>1</sub>
VPN <sub>2</sub>
...
...
VPN <sub>1048576</sub>

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### PAGE TABLE ENTRY - 2

- Common flags:
- Valid Bit:** Indicating whether the particular translation is valid.
- Protection Bit:** Indicating whether the page could be read from, written to, or executed from
- Present Bit:** Indicating whether this page is in physical memory or on disk(swapped out)
- Dirty Bit:** Indicating whether the page has been modified since it was brought into memory
- Reference Bit(Accessed Bit):** Indicating that a page has been accessed

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### (3) HOW BIG ARE PAGE TABLES?

- Page tables are too big to store on the CPU
- Page tables are stored using physical memory
- Paging supports efficiently storing a sparsely populated address space
  - Reduced memory requirement  
Compared to base and bounds, and segments

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### (4) DOES PAGING MAKE THE SYSTEM TOO SLOW?

- Translation
- Issue #1:** Starting location of the page table is needed
  - HW Support: Page-table base register
    - stores active process
    - Facilitates translation
- Issue #2:** Each memory address translation for paging requires an extra memory reference
  - HW Support: TLBs (Chapter 19)

Stored in RAM →

**Page Table:**  
VP0 → PF3  
VP1 → PF7  
VP2 → PF5  
VP3 → PF2

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### PAGING MEMORY ACCESS

```
1. // Extract the VPN from the virtual address
2. VPN = (VirtualAddress & VPN_MASK) >> SHIFT
3.
4. // Form the address of the page-table entry (PTE)
5. PTEAddr = PTBR + (VPN * sizeof(PTE))
6.
7. // Fetch the PTE
8. PTE = AccessMemory(PTEAddr)
9.
10. // Check if process can access the page
11. if (PTE.Valid == False)
12.     RaiseException(SEGMENTATION_FAULT)
13. else if (CanAccess(PTE.ProtectBits) == False)
14.     RaiseException(PROTECTION_FAULT)
15. else
16.     // Access is OK: form physical address and fetch it
17.     offset = VirtualAddress & OFFSET_MASK
18.     PhysAddr = (PTE.PFN << PFN_SHIFT) | offset
19.     Register = AccessMemory(PhysAddr)
```

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## QUESTIONS



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