

# **CSE 451: Operating Systems**

## **Winter 2026**

### **Module 11**

### **Memory Management**

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# Goals of memory management

- Allocate **memory** resources among competing processes, maximizing memory utilization and system throughput
- Provide **memory** isolation between processes
  - We have come to view “addressability” and “protection” as inextricably linked, even though they’re really orthogonal
- Provide a convenient abstraction of **memory** for programming (and for compilers, etc.)

# Tools of memory management

- Base and limit registers
  - Swapping
  - Paging (and page tables and TLB's)
  - Segmentation (and segment tables)
  - Page faults => page fault handling => virtual memory
  - The policies that govern the use of these mechanisms
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- We will cover all of these soon, but first a few terms we need to loosely define...

# Today's server, desktop, laptop, tablet, and phone systems

- The basic abstraction that the OS provides for memory management is **virtual memory** (VM)
  - **Efficient use of hardware (real memory)**
    - VM enables programs to execute without requiring their entire address space to be resident in physical memory
    - Many programs don't need all of their code or data at once (or ever – branches they never take, or data they never read/write)
    - No need to allocate memory for it, OS should adjust amount allocated based on **run-time** behavior
  - **Program flexibility**
    - Programs can execute on machines with less RAM than they "need"
      - On the other hand, paging is really slow, so must be minimized!
  - **Protection**
    - Virtual memory **isolates** address spaces from each other
    - One process cannot name addresses visible to others; each process has its own isolated address space

# VM requires hardware and OS support

- MMU's (Memory Management Unit)
- TLB's (Translation Lookaside Buffer)
- Page tables
- page fault handling, ...
- Sometimes accompanied by swapping, or limited segmentation

# A trip down Memory Lane ...

- Why?
  - Because it's instructive
  - Because embedded processors (98% or more of all processors) typically don't have virtual memory
  - Because some aspects are pertinent to allocating portions of a virtual address space – e.g., malloc()
- First, there was one job-at-a-time batch programming
  - programs used physical addresses directly
  - OS loads job (perhaps using a relocating loader to “offset” branch addresses), runs it, unloads it
  - what if the program wouldn't fit into memory?
    - manual overlays!
- An embedded system may have only one program!

- Then came **Swapping**
  - save a program's entire state (including its memory image) to disk
  - allows another program to be run
  - first program can be swapped back in and re-started right where it was
  - The first timesharing system, MIT's "Compatible Time Sharing System" (CTSS) (circa 1961), was a uni-programmed swapping system
    - only one memory-resident user
    - upon request completion or quantum expiration, a swap took place
    - slow ... but it worked!
- A later system, MULTICS (circa 1967) furthered OS development

- Then came **Multiprogramming**
  - multiple processes/jobs in memory at once
    - to overlap I/O and computation between processes/jobs, easing the task of the application programmer
  - memory management requirements:
    - **protection**: restrict which addresses processes can use, so they can't stomp on each other
    - **fast translation**: memory lookups must be fast, in spite of the protection scheme
    - **fast context switching**: when switching between jobs, updating memory hardware (protection and translation) must be quick



# Virtual addresses for multiprogramming

- To make it easier to manage memory of multiple processes, make processes use **virtual addresses**
  - **virtual addresses** are independent of location in **physical memory** (RAM) where referenced data lives
    - OS determines location in physical memory
  - instructions issued by CPU reference virtual addresses
    - e.g., pointers, arguments to load/store instructions, PC ...
  - **virtual addresses** are translated by hardware into **physical addresses** (with some setup from OS)

- The set of virtual addresses a process can reference is its **address space**
  - many different possible mechanisms for translating virtual addresses to physical addresses
    - we'll take a historical walk through them, ending up with our current techniques
- **Note: We are not yet talking about paging**
  - Only that the program issues addresses in a virtual address space, and these must be **translated** to reference memory (the physical address space)
  - For now, think of the program as having a contiguous virtual address space that starts at 0, and a contiguous physical address space that starts somewhere else

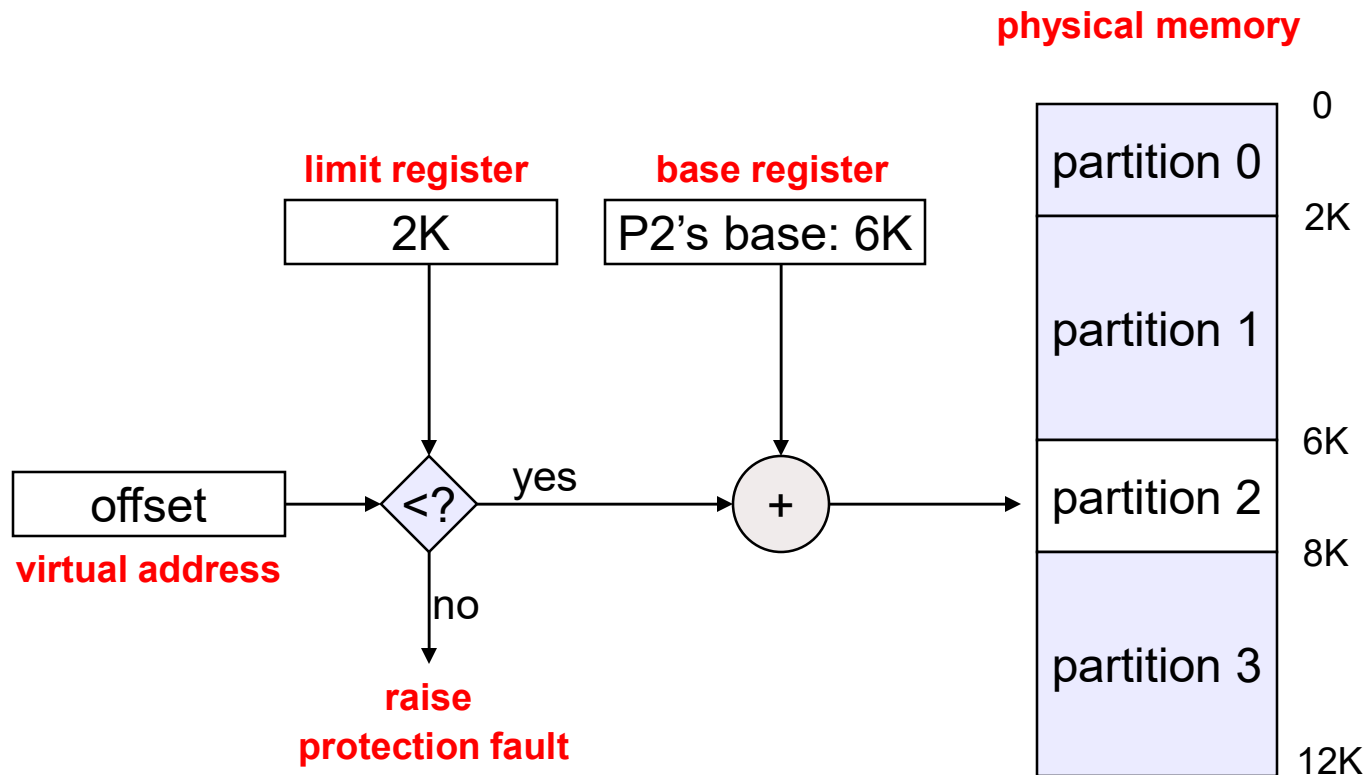
# Some important terms to remember

- Virtual Memory
  - Virtual Address
  - Address Space
- 
- And now onto some oldish virtual memory model techniques...

# Old technique #1: Fixed partitions

- Physical memory is broken up into fixed partitions
  - partitions may have different sizes, but partitioning never changes
  - hardware requirement: **base register**, **limit register**
    - $\text{physical address} = \text{virtual address} + \text{base register}$
    - base register loaded by OS when it switches to a process
  - how do we provide protection?
    - if  $(\text{physical address} > \text{base} + \text{limit})$  then... ?
- Advantages
  - Simple
- Problems
  - **internal fragmentation**: the available partition is larger than what was requested
  - **external fragmentation**: two small partitions left, but one big job – what sizes should the partitions be??

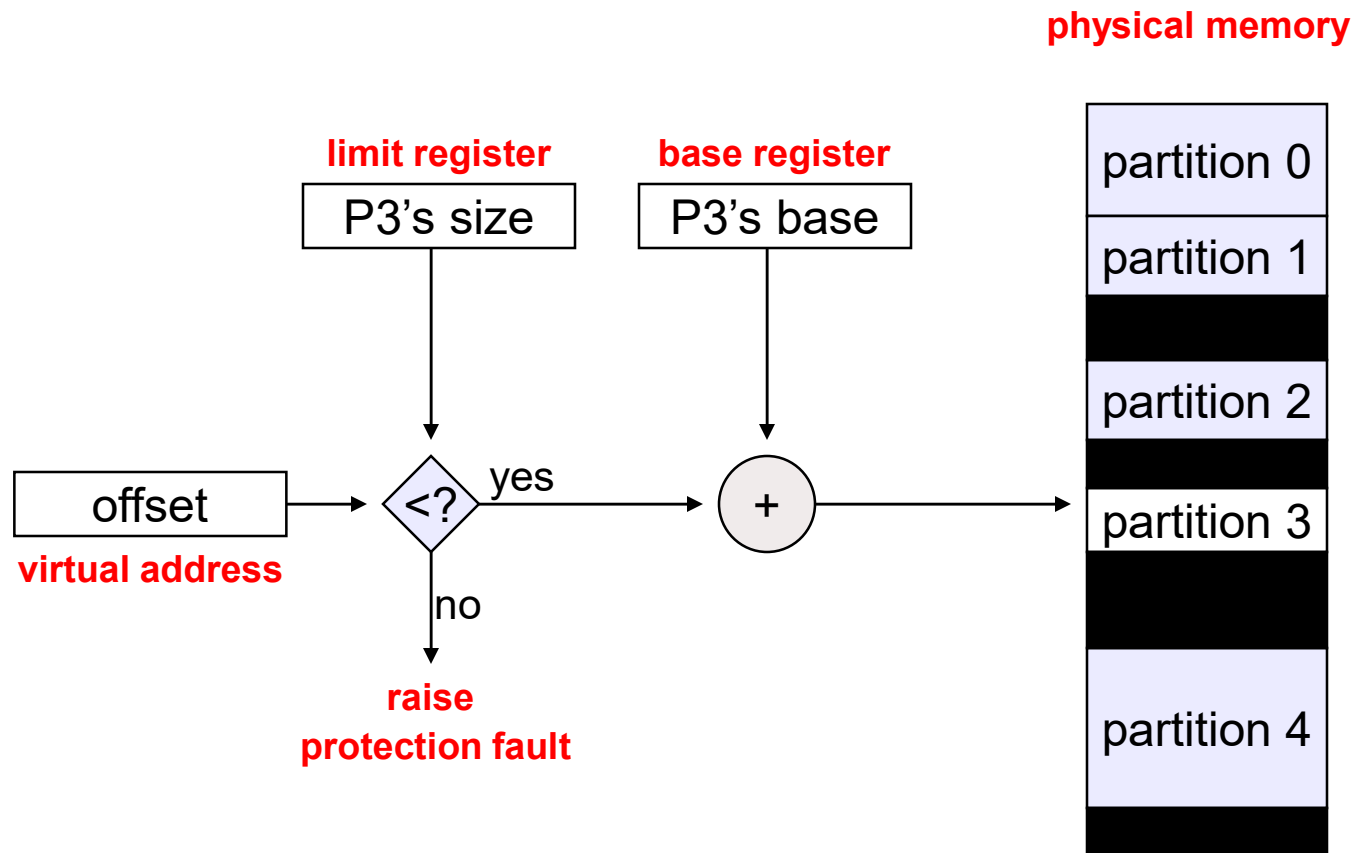
# Mechanics of fixed partitions



## Old technique #2: Variable partitions

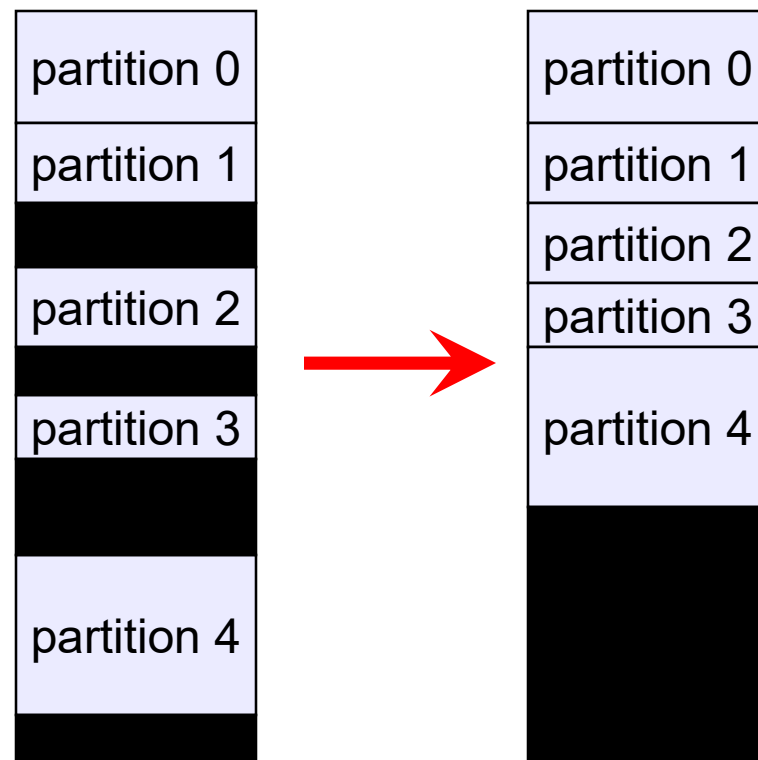
- Obvious next step: physical memory is broken up into partitions dynamically – partitions are tailored to programs
  - hardware requirements: **base register**, **limit register**
  - physical address = virtual address + base register
  - how do we provide protection?
    - if (physical address > base + limit) then... ?
- Advantages
  - no internal fragmentation
    - simply allocate partition size to be just big enough for process (assuming we know what that is!)
- Problems
  - **external fragmentation**
    - as we load and unload jobs, holes are left scattered throughout physical memory
    - slightly different than the external fragmentation for fixed partition systems

# Mechanics of variable partitions



# Dealing with fragmentation

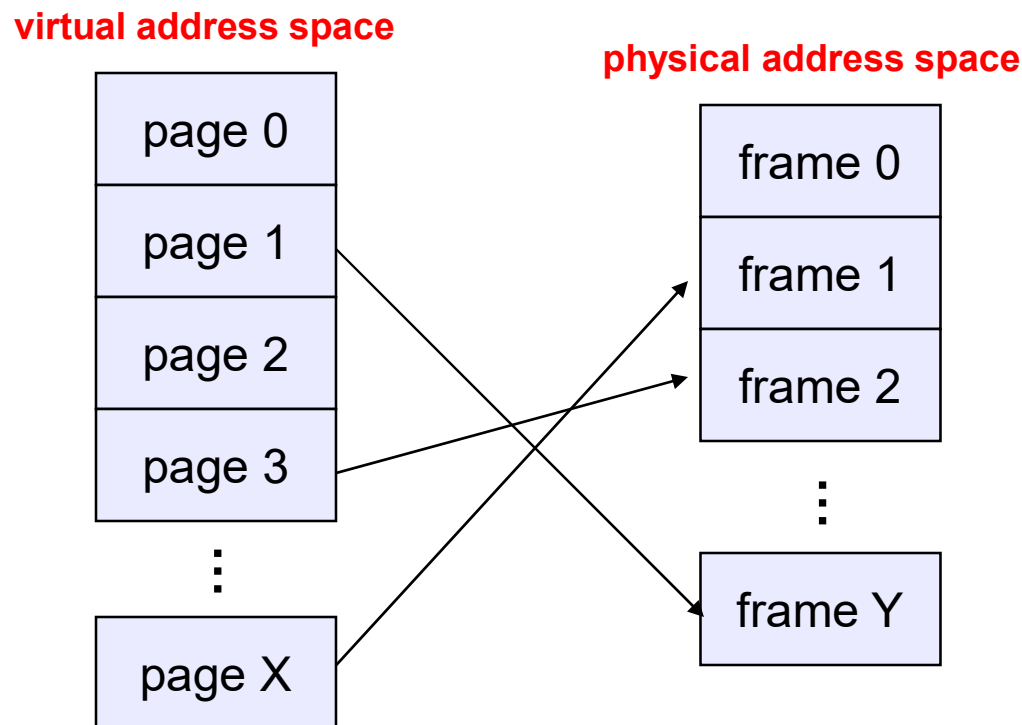
- Compact memory by copying
  - Swap a program out
  - Re-load it, adjacent to another
  - Adjust its base register
  - “Lather, rinse, repeat”
  - Ugh





# Modern technique: Paging

- Solve the external fragmentation problem by using fixed sized units in both physical and virtual memory
- Mitigate the internal fragmentation problem by making the units small



# Life is easy ...

- For the programmer ...
  - Processes view memory as a contiguous address space from bytes 0 through N – a **virtual address space**
  - N is independent of the actual hardware
  - In reality, virtual pages are scattered across physical memory frames – not contiguous as earlier
    - Virtual-to-physical mapping
    - This mapping is **invisible** to the program
- For the memory manager ...
  - Efficient use of memory, because very little internal fragmentation
  - No external fragmentation at all
    - No need to copy big chunks of memory around to coalesce free space

- For the protection system
  - One process cannot “name” another process’s memory – there is complete isolation
    - The virtual address 0xDEADBEEF maps to different physical addresses for different processes

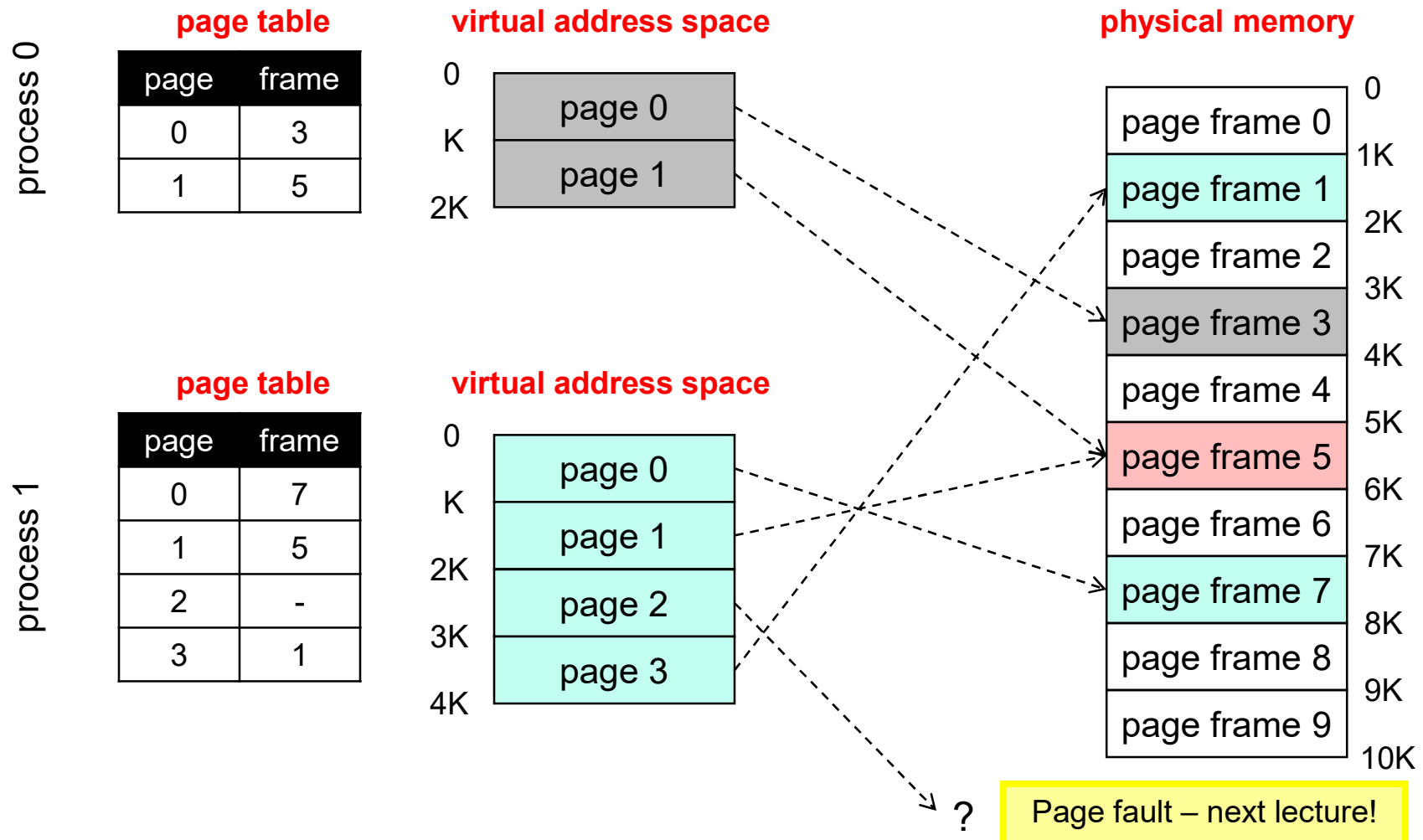
Note: Assume for now that all pages of the address space are resident in memory – no “page faults”

- But how do we accomplish this translation from a virtual address to a physical address?

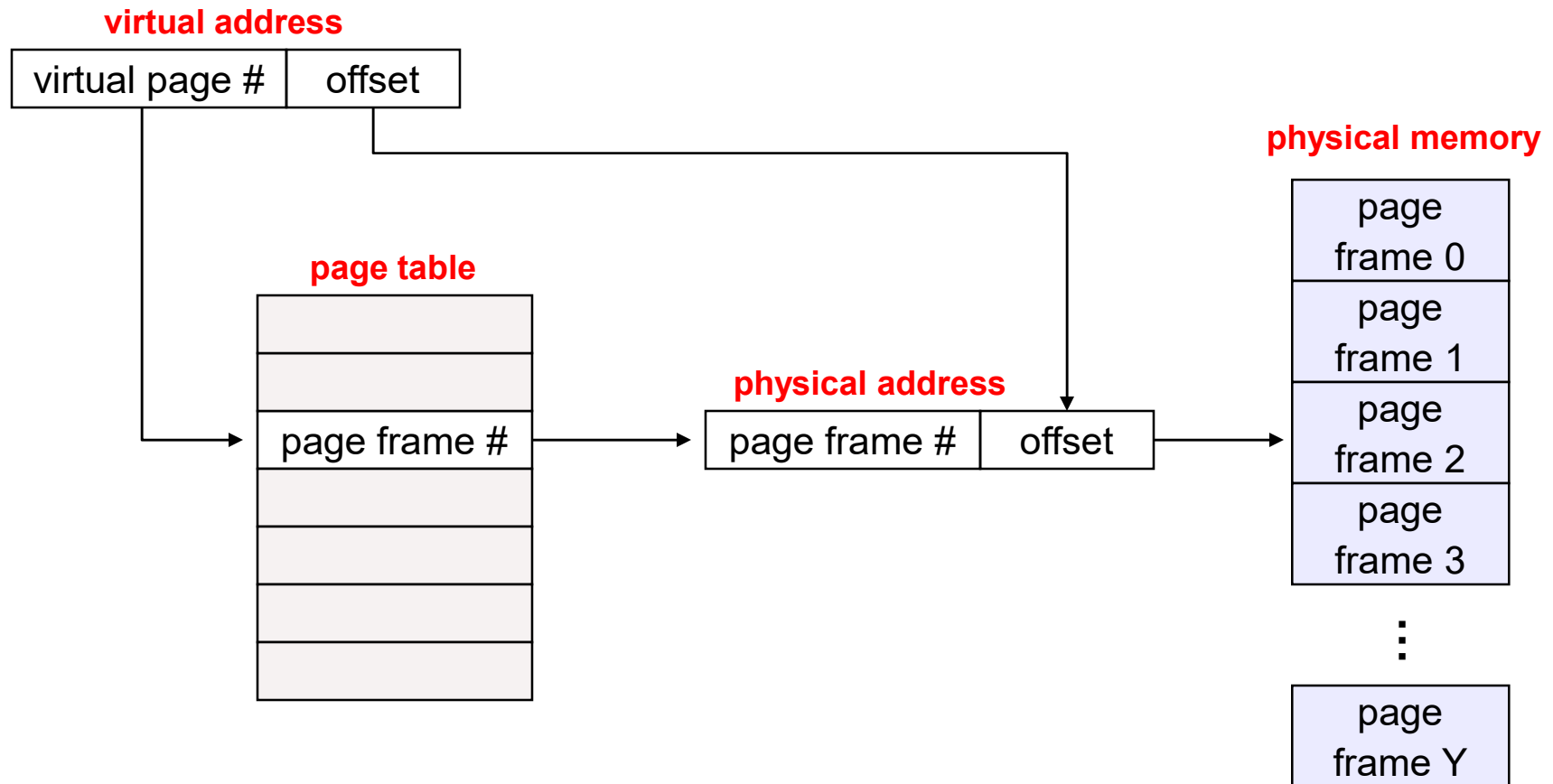
# Address translation

- To go from a virtual address to a physical address, we add a level of indirection called a **Page Table**
- Translating virtual addresses
  - a virtual address has two parts: **virtual page number** & **offset**
  - virtual page number (VPN) is an index into a **page table**
  - page table entry contains **page frame number** (PFN)
  - physical address is **PFN::offset** (concatenated together)
- Page tables
  - managed by the OS
  - one **page table entry** (PTE) per page in virtual address space
    - i.e., one PTE per VPN
  - map virtual page number (VPN) to page frame number (PFN)
    - VPN is simply an index into the page table

# Paging (K-byte pages)



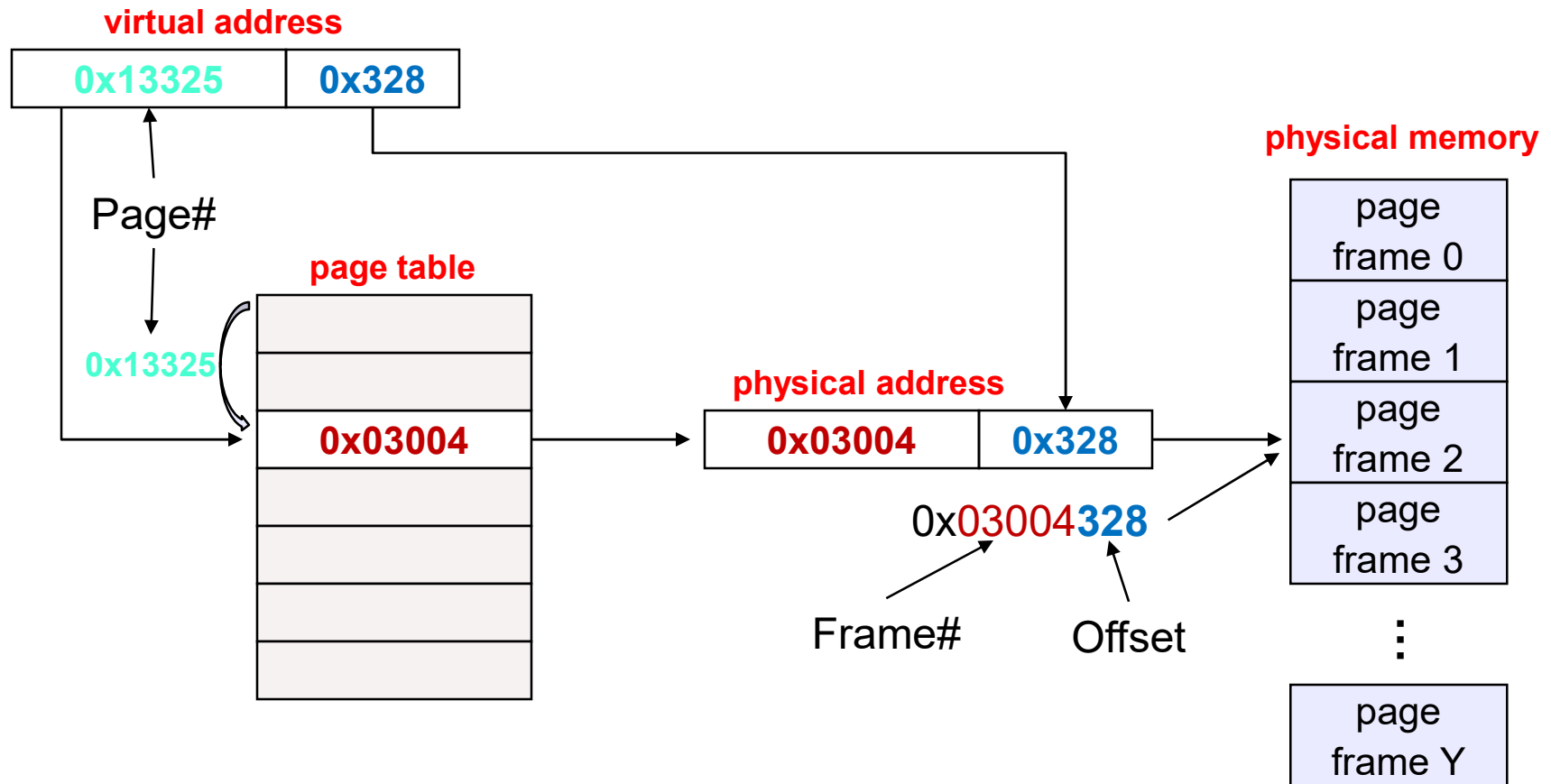
# Mechanics of address translation



# Example of address translation

- Assume 32 bit addresses
  - assume page size is 4KB (4096 bytes, or  $2^{12}$  bytes)
  - VPN is 20 bits long ( $2^{20}$  VPNs), offset is 12 bits long
- Let's translate virtual address 0x13325328
  - VPN is 0x13325, and offset is 0x328
  - assume page table entry 0x13325 contains value 0x03004
    - page frame number is 0x03004
    - VPN 0x13325 maps to PFN 0x03004
  - physical address = PFN::offset = 0x03004328

# Translating 0x13325328

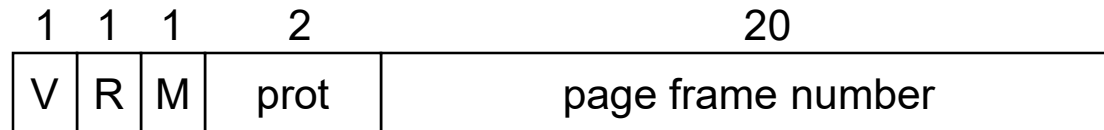




# Page Table Entries – an opportunity!

- As long as there's a PTE lookup per memory reference, we might as well add some functionality
  - We can add **protection**
    - A virtual page can be read-only, and result in a fault if a store to it is attempted
    - Some pages may not map to anything – a fault will occur if a reference is attempted
    - What other type of protection would be good?  
Maybe execute-only?
  - We can add some **“accounting information”**
    - Can't do anything fancy, since address translation must be fast
    - Can keep track of whether or not a virtual page is being used, though
      - This will help the paging algorithm, once we get to paging

# Generic Page Table Entry (PTE)



- PTE's control mapping (a generic/stylized version)
  - the **valid bit** says whether or not the PTE can be used
    - says whether or not a virtual address is valid
    - it is checked each time a virtual address is used
  - the **referenced bit** says whether the page has been accessed
    - it is set when a page has been read or written to
  - the **modified bit** says whether or not the page is dirty
    - it is set when a write to the page has occurred
  - the **protection bits** control which operations are allowed
    - read, write, execute
  - the **page frame number** determines the physical page
    - physical page start address = PFN

# Paging advantages

- Easy to allocate physical memory
  - physical memory is allocated from free list of frames
    - to allocate a frame, just remove it from the free list
  - external fragmentation is not a problem
    - managing variable-sized allocations is a huge pain in the neck
      - “buddy system”
- Leads naturally to virtual memory
  - entire program need not be memory resident
  - take page faults using “valid” bit
  - all “chunks” are the same size (page size)
  - but paging was originally introduced to deal with external fragmentation, not to allow programs to be partially resident (here is the subtle distinction between virtual addressing and virtual memory)

# Paging disadvantages

- Can still have internal fragmentation
  - Process may not use memory in exact multiples of pages
  - But minor because of small page size relative to address space size
- Memory reference overhead
  - 2 references per address lookup (page table, then memory)
  - Solution: use a hardware cache to absorb page table lookups
    - translation lookaside buffer (TLB) – next class
- Memory required to hold page tables can be large
  - need one PTE per page in virtual address space
  - 32 bit AS with 4KB pages =  $2^{20}$  PTEs = 1,048,576 PTEs
  - 4 bytes/PTE = **4MB per page table**
    - OS's have separate page tables per process
    - 25 processes = 100MB of page tables
  - Solution: page the page tables (!!!)
    - (ow, my brain hurts...more later)

# Segmentation

(We will be back to paging soon!)

- Paging
  - mitigates various memory allocation complexities (e.g., fragmentation)
  - view an address space as a linear array of bytes
  - divide it into pages of equal size (e.g., 4KB)
  - use a page table to map virtual pages to physical page frames
    - page (*logical*) => page frame (*physical*)
  - One problem with paging is that is not very logical (i.e., programmer friendly)
- Segmentation
  - partition an address space into *logical* units
    - stack, code, heap, subroutines, ...
  - a virtual address is **<segment #, offset>**

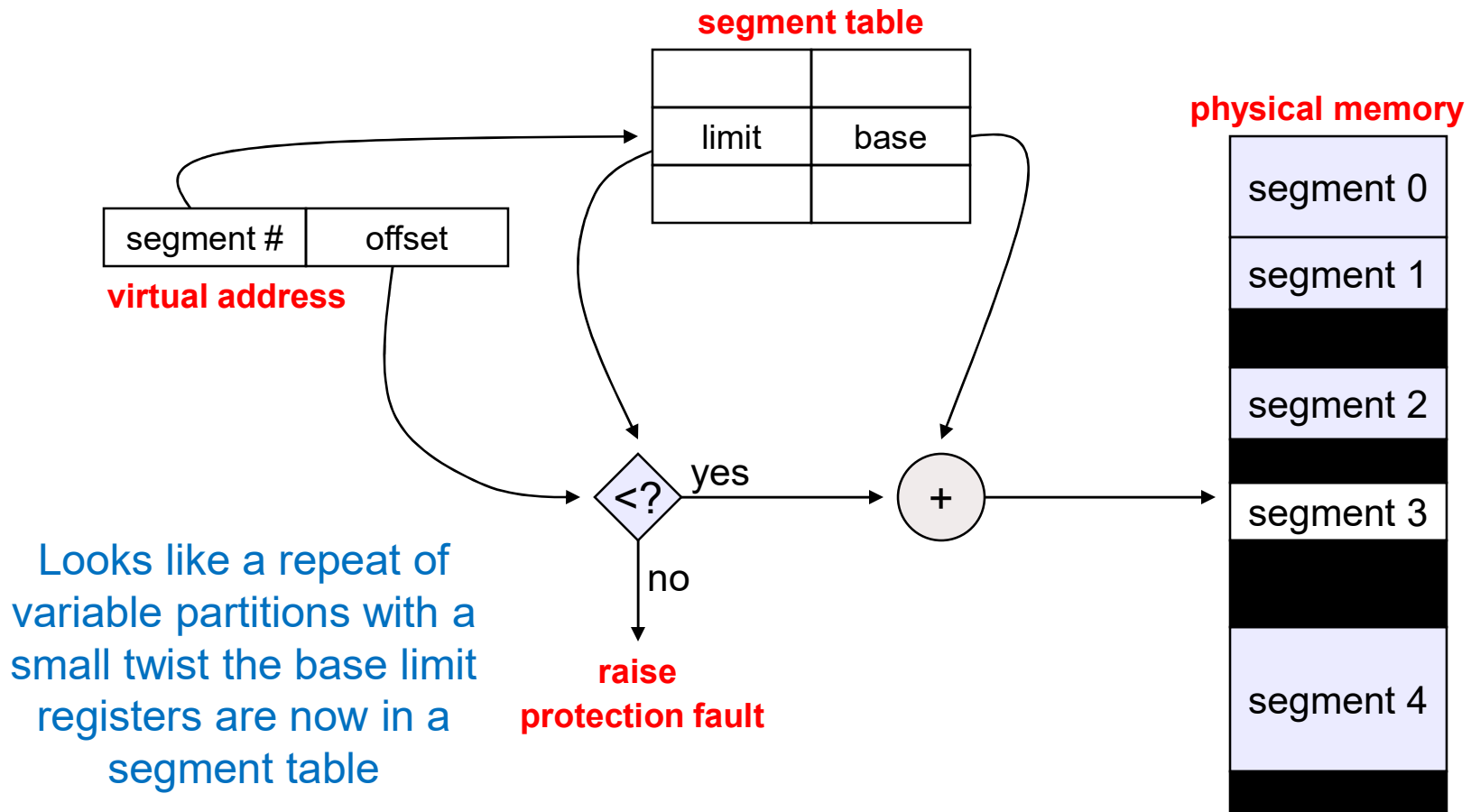
# What's the point?

- More “logical”
  - absent segmentation, a linker takes a bunch of independent modules that call each other and linearizes them
  - they are really independent; segmentation treats them as such
- Facilitates sharing and reuse
  - a segment is a natural unit of sharing – a subroutine or function
- A natural extension of variable-sized partitions
  - variable-sized partition = 1 segment/process
  - segmentation = many segments/process

# Hardware support

- Segment table
  - multiple base/limit pairs, **one per segment**
  - segments named by segment #, used as index into table
    - a virtual address is **<segment #, offset>**
  - offset of virtual address added to base address of segment to yield physical address

# Segment lookups



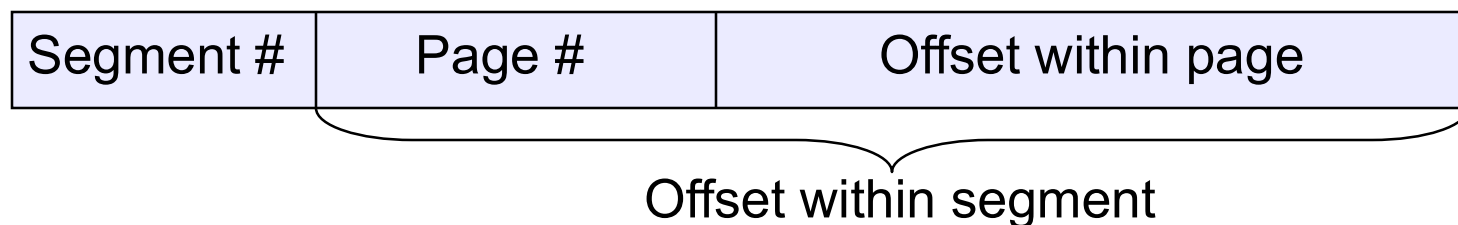


# Pros and cons

- Yes, it's "logical" and it facilitates sharing and reuse
- But it has all the horror of a variable partition system
  - except that linking is simpler, and the "chunks" that must be allocated are smaller than a "typical" linear address space
- What to do?

# Combining segmentation and paging

- Can combine these techniques
  - modern architectures support both segments and paging
- Use segments to manage logical units
  - segments vary in size, but are typically large (multiple pages)
- Use pages to partition segments into fixed-size chunks
  - each segment has its own page table
    - there is a page table per segment, rather than per user address space
  - memory allocation becomes easy once again
    - no contiguous allocation, no external fragmentation



# How Intel combines segments and pages

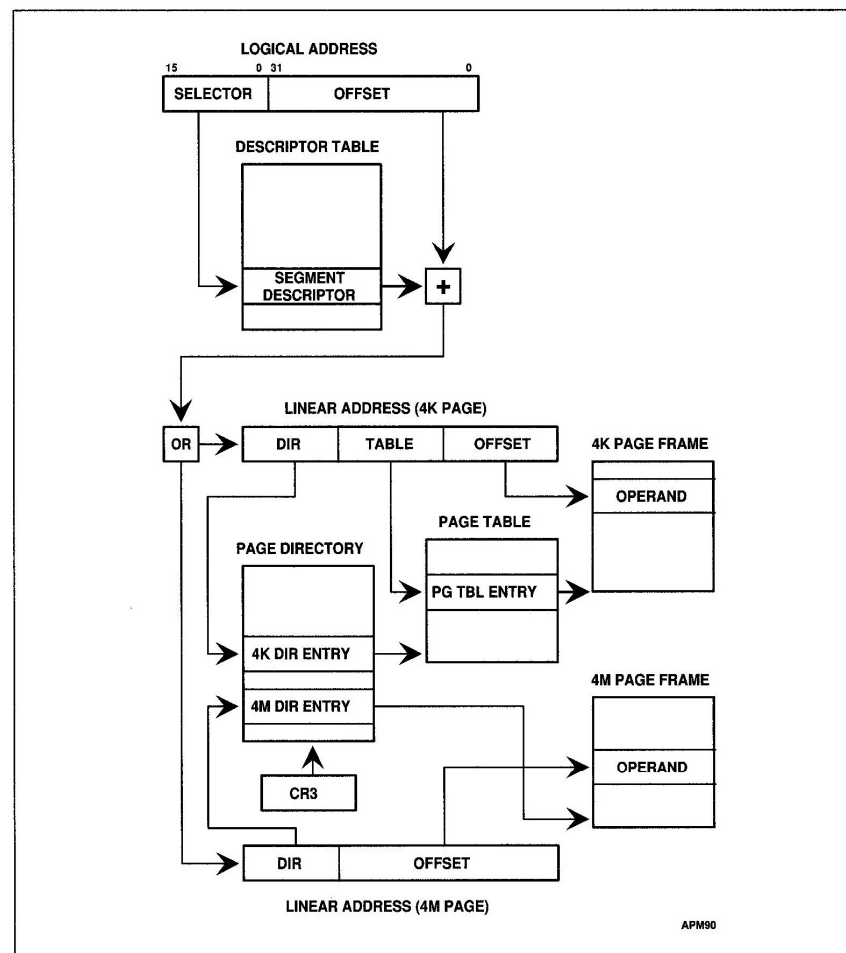


Figure 11-16. Combined Segment and Page Address Translation

# Mixing segments and pages

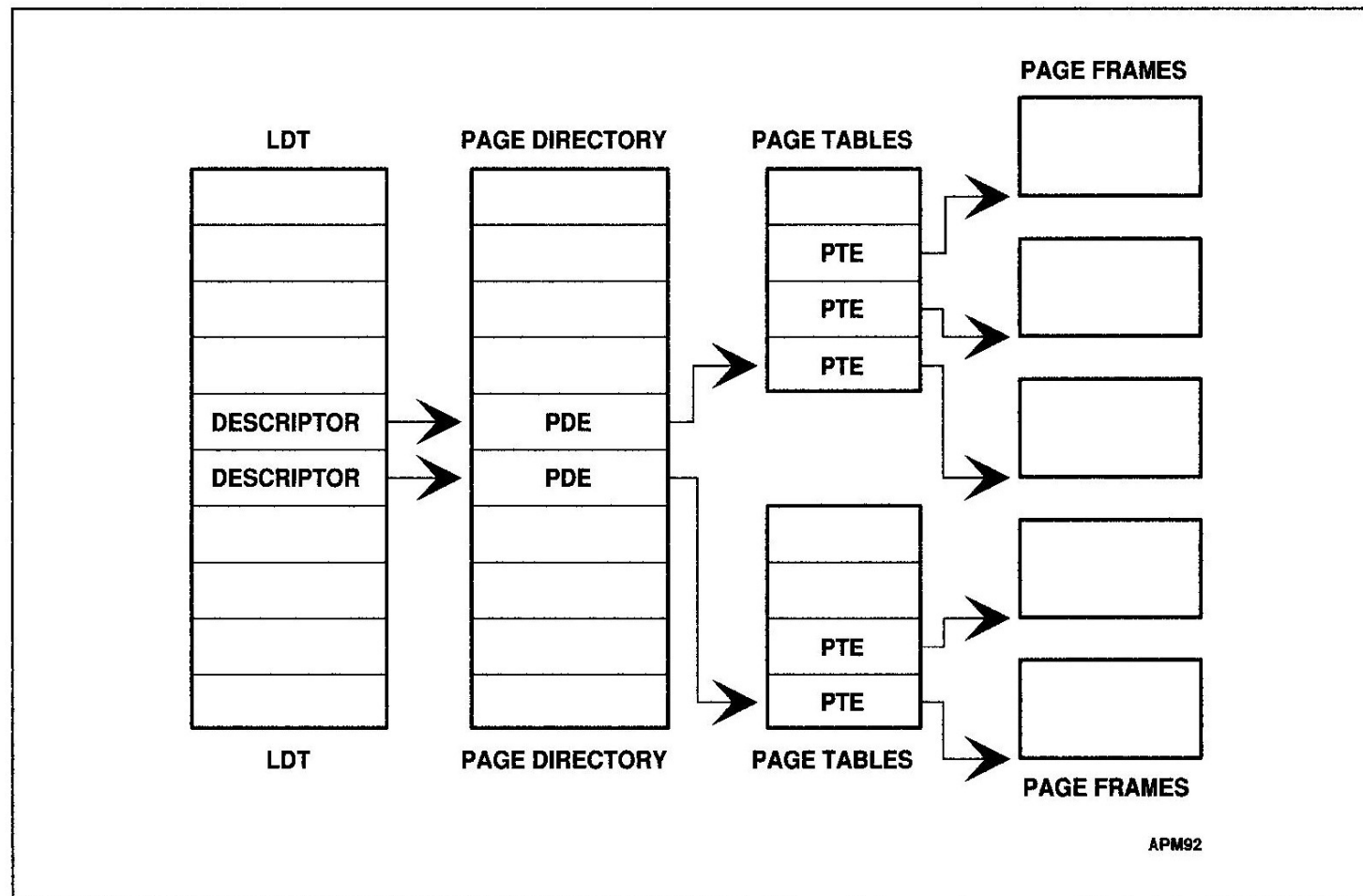


Figure 11-17. Each Segment Can Have Its Own Page Table

- Linux:
  - 1 kernel code segment, 1 kernel data segment
  - 1 user code segment, 1 user data segment
  - all of these segments are paged
- Note: this is a very limited/boring use of segments!