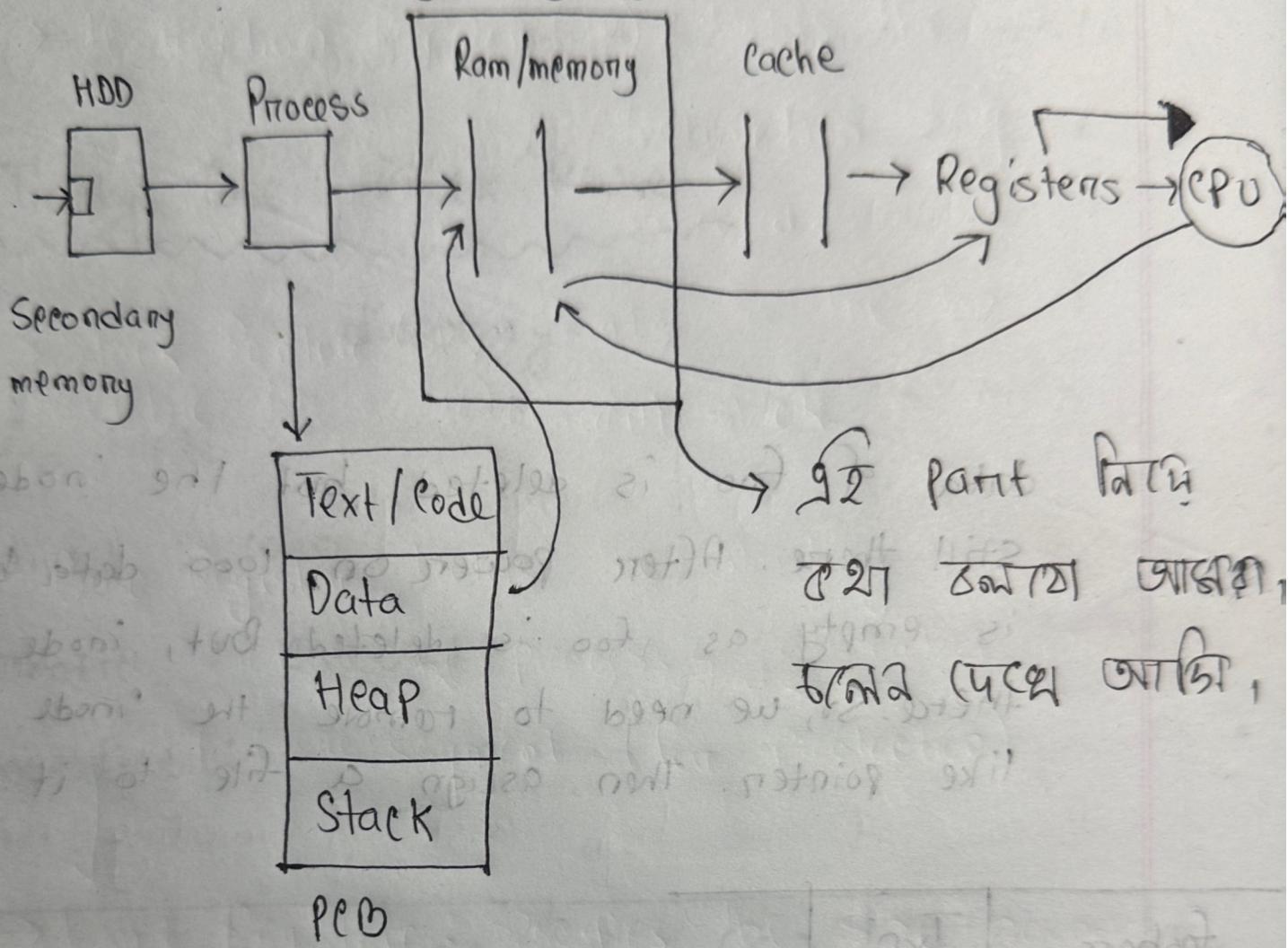


Video : 01

Memory Management



memory টেকে RAM faster.

যায়ে RAM টেকে Registers faster.

RAM টেকে যাস্তা cache faster.

* How Main Memory & CPU registers interact
and run a process by CPU

Registers

A register is a small, high speed storage location inside the CPU. Much faster than the main memory (RAM). Stores temporary data the CPU is currently working on. Size is usually in bits or words, 32 bit or 4 byte.

Some types of registers includes

i) General Purpose Registers used to hold data, operands or intermediate results.

Examples: R0, R1, R2 ... in simple CPUs

ii) Special purpose Registers. These control

→ Program Counter (PC): Holds the address of the next instruction to be executed.

→ Instruction Register (IR) : Holds the content of instruction being decoded / executed.

→ Stack Pointer (SP) : Points to either top or bottom of the current stack in memory.

Base Register : Holds the starting address of the process's allocated memory segment. (For protection)

→ Limit Register : Specifies the size (boundary) of the process memory segment.

→ Processor Status Word (PSW) : Holds status bits (e.g. mode bit → user/kernel, condition flag like zero, carry, sign, overflow).

iii) I/O and Control Registers

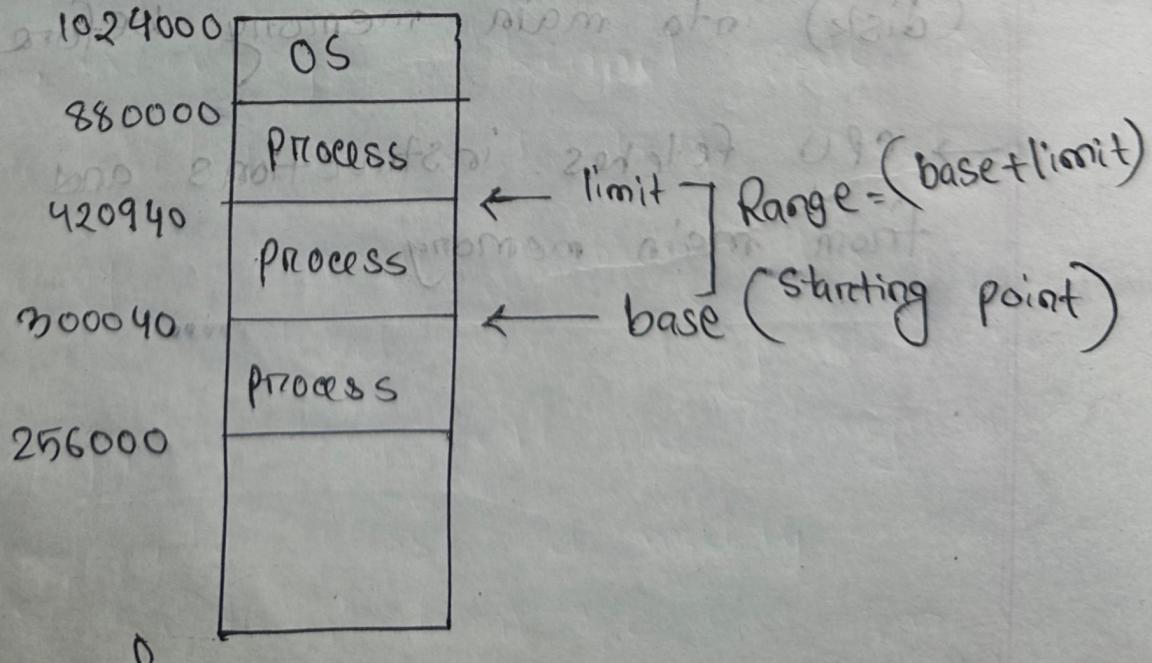
Main Memory

- main memory is the large storage area directly accessible by the CPU.
- It stores both program instructions and data while a process is running.
- It is volatile → contents are lost when power is off.
- Example : RAM
- Stores active programs and the data they are working on.
- Each program loaded from secondary storage (disk) into main memory before execution.
- CPU fetches instructions and operands direct from main memory.

We will be focusing on the main memory since that is where the main information are stored and CPU registers just fetch from them and run.

executable file (inode) → called exec() → loader
→ PCB created ← allocation
PCB added to ready queue

Schedule
dispatch



→ each process has a separate memory space.

Separate per process memory state space protects the processes from each other and is fundamental to having multiple processes loaded in memory for concurrent execution. To separate memory spaces, we need the ability to determine the range of legal addresses that the process may access and to ensure that the process can access only these legal addresses. We can provide this protection by using two registers, usually a base and a limit.

→ Protection of memory space is accomplished by having the CPU hardware compare every address generated in user mode with the registers. Any attempt by a program executing in user mode to access operating-system memory or other part users' memory results in a trap to the operating system, which treats the attempt as a fatal error.

→ The base and limit registers can be loaded only by the operating system, which uses a special privileged instruction. Since privileged instructions can be executed only in kernel mode, and since only the operating system executes in kernel mode, only the operating system can load the base and limit registers.

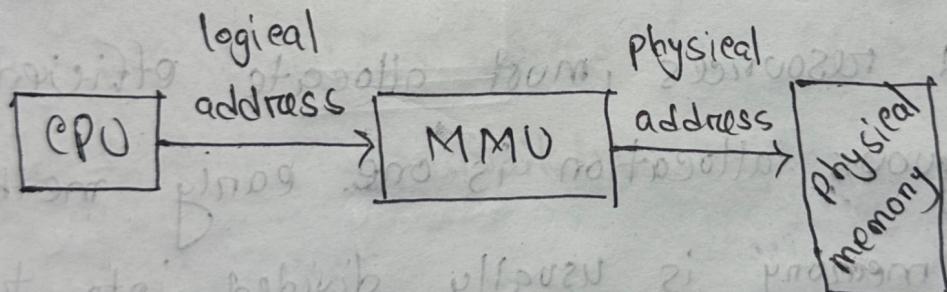
This scheme allows the operating system to change the value of the registers but prevents user programs from changing the registers contents.

→ The OS, executing in kernel mode is given unrestricted access to both operating system memory and user's memory. This provision allows the OS to load user's programs into user's memory, to dump out those programs in case of errors, to access and modify parameters of system calls, to perform I/O and from user

memory and to provide many other services.

→ Usually a program resides on a disk as a binary executable file. To run the program must be brought into memory and placed within the context of process, where it becomes eligible for execution on an available CPU.

Logical VS Physical address Space



→ Binding addresses at either compile or load time generates identical logical and physical addresses. However, the execution time address-binding scheme results in differing logical & physical addresses. We usually refer the L.A as Virtual address. The user program never accesses the real physical addresses.

Contiguous Memory Allocation

→ OS allocates P.M. No fragmentation.

Non Contiguous memory Allocation; Paging

The basic method for implementing paging

→ main memory must accommodate both OS and User processes.

→ limited resources, must allocate efficiently.

→ Contiguous allocation is one early method

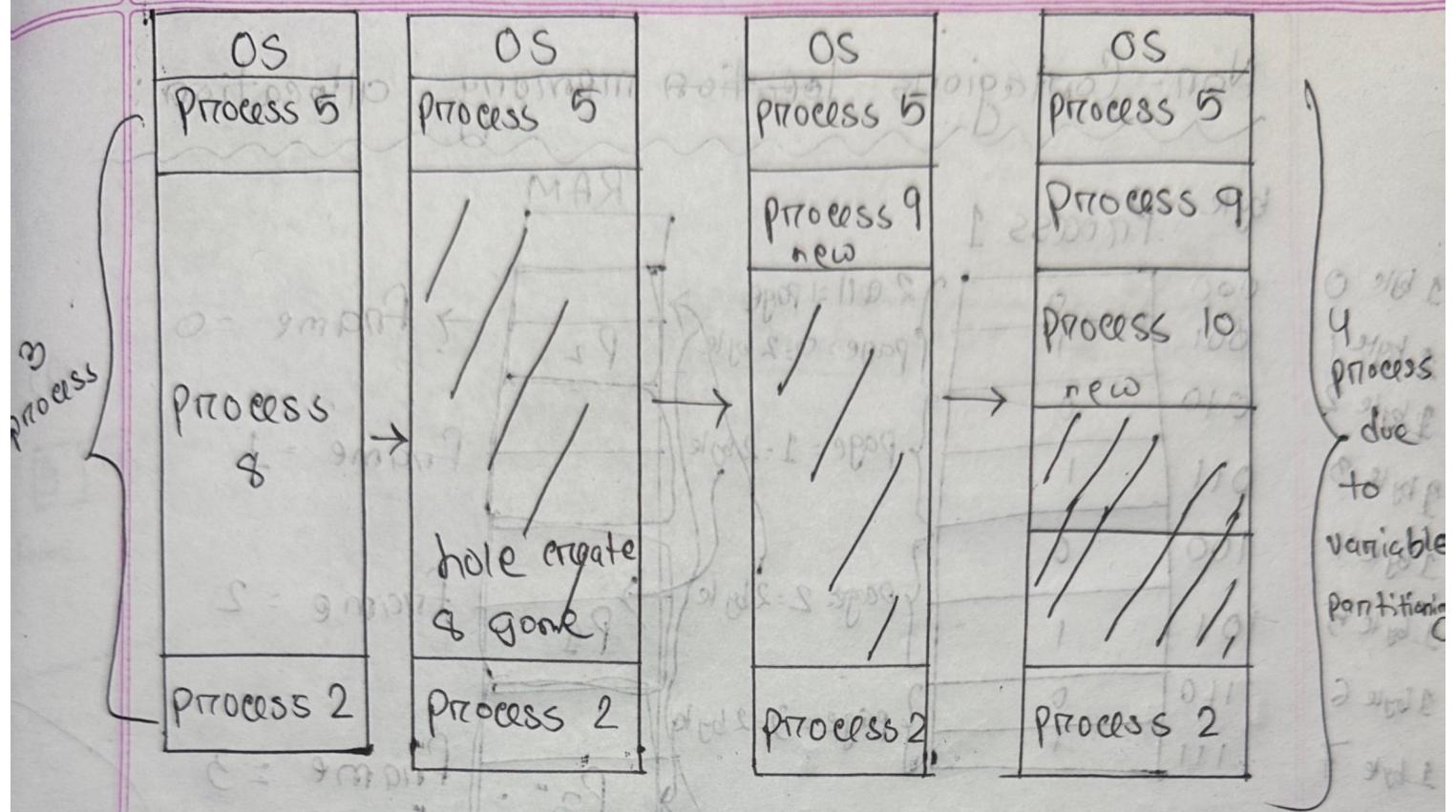
→ main memory is usually divided into two partitions:

* resident OS usually held in low memory

with interrupt vectors

* user processes then held in high memory

* each process contained in single contiguous section of memory.



fixed partition = loss

variable Partition - sizes for efficiency

hole = block of available memory.

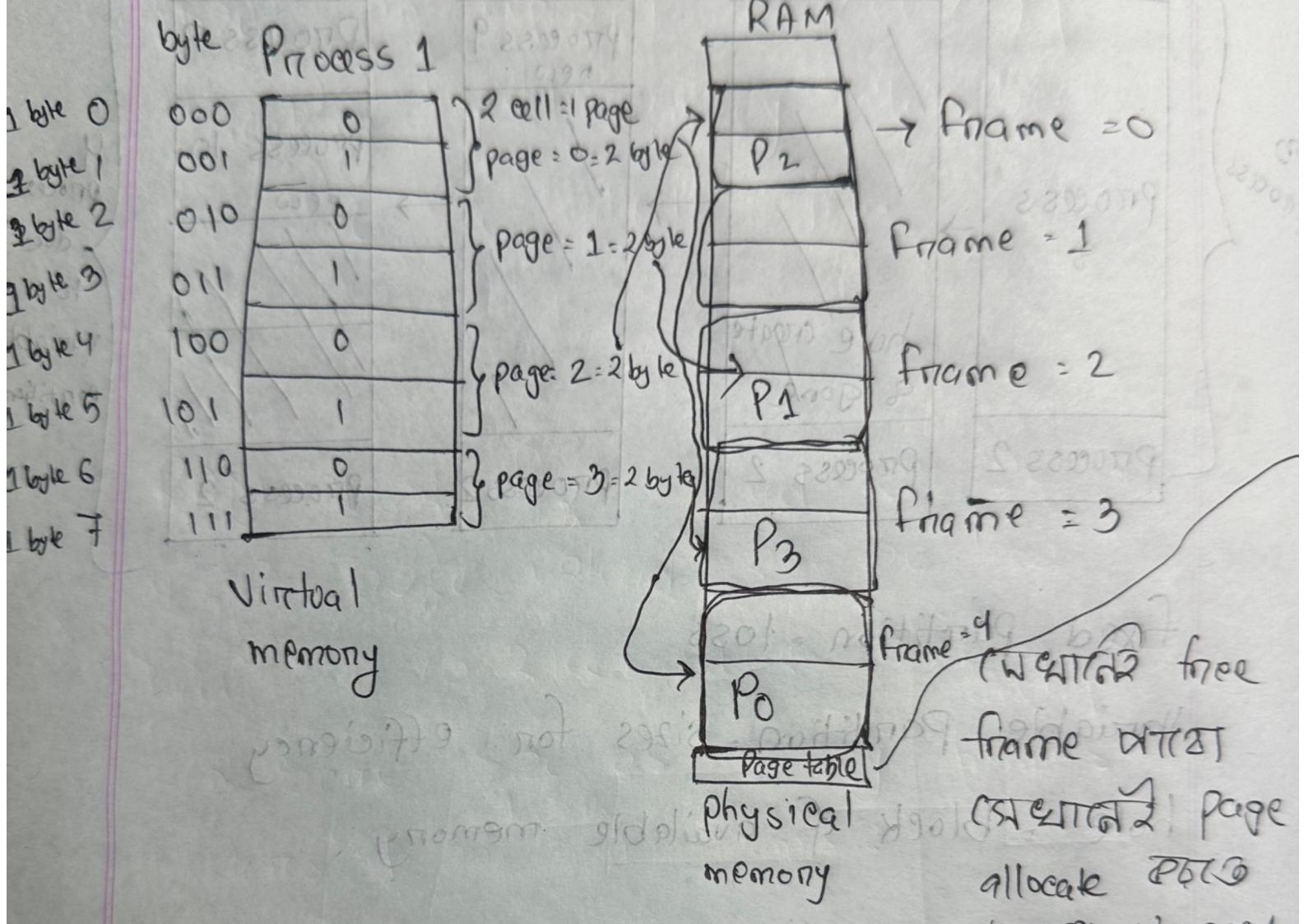
best fit = speed slow but memory optimized

first fit = average efficiency but great speed.

worst fit = slower still if longest contiguous

problem of job block (if)

Non-Contiguous location memory allocation:

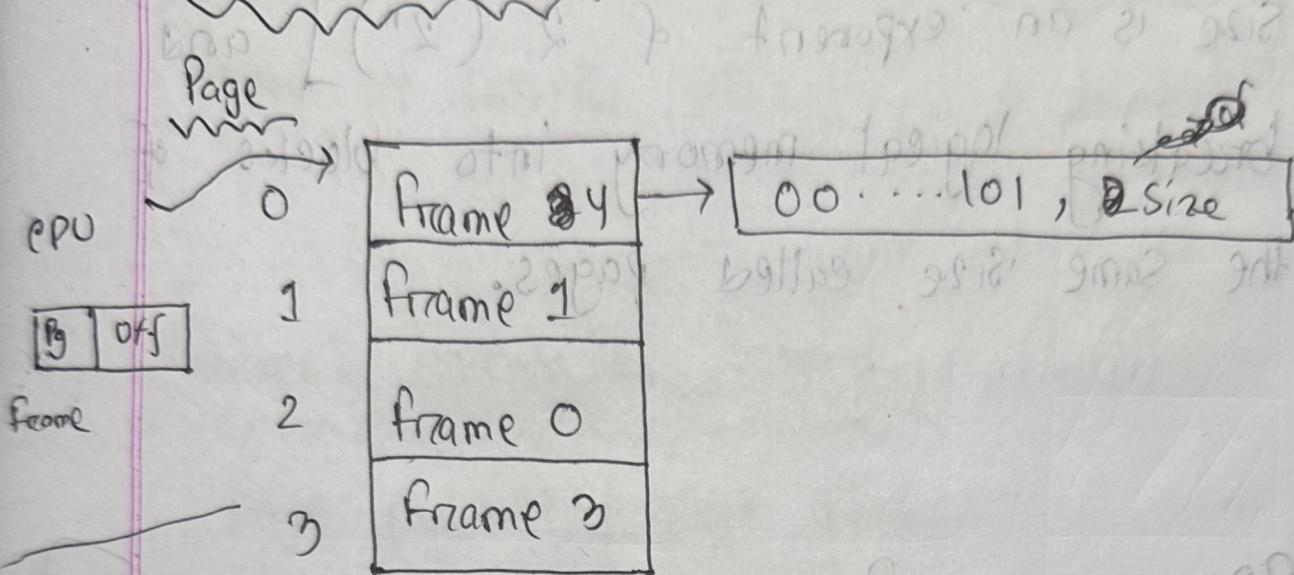


Every Page has 2 info

i) Page no = (Page 0, Page 1 etc)

ii) Page offset = Page index to identify cell.

Page Table



Page table is saved in RAM. Named PTB

Page table base register

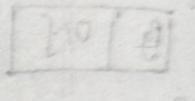
also has a size!

PCB → RAM → Store

PAGING

The basic method for implementing paging involves breaking physical memory into fixed sized blocks called frames [General convention is

divide it in a way that each frame size is an exponent of 2 (2^n) and breaking logical memory into blocks of the same size called pages.



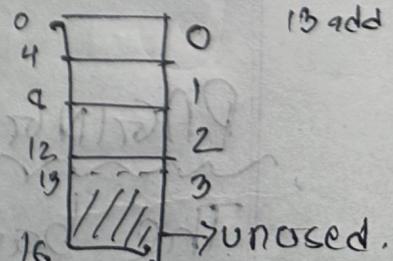
RAM ରେ ମାତ୍ର ଫିଲ୍ୟୁ ଉପଲ୍ବଦ୍ଧ ହୋଇଥାଏ ଯାଏ, ଯାଏ

ପ୍ରକାଶିତ ଡାଟା ଉପଲ୍ବଦ୍ଧ ହୋଇଥାଏ ୨୦୧୦ ଓ ଯାଏ
ଫିଲ୍ୟୁରୁ ହାର୍ଡ୍‌ଡାଇଵ୍ସ୍ ରେ ରେକର୍ଡ୍ କରିବାକୁ ବାକିରୀ କରିବାକୁ

କାହାରେ କାହାରେ କାହାରେ କାହାରେ କାହାରେ କାହାରେ କାହାରେ
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PAGING

→ Internal fragmentation



How paging works in a simplified explanation:

আগে মা পঁয়ালি তাই,

Address Translation Scheme

Page number	Page offset
m-n	n.

Virtual address space: $8 \Rightarrow 2^3 \Rightarrow 3$ bit $\Rightarrow m$

$$2^1 = n-1 \\ \vdots \\ n$$

offset - 0 & 1

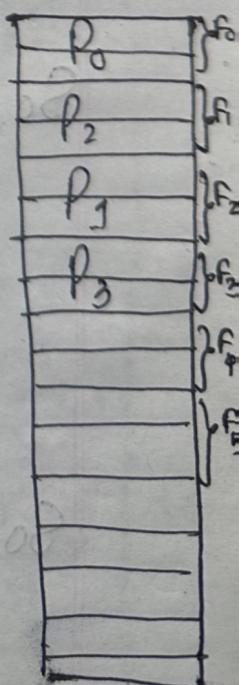
so, value 2

\therefore offset = n

Go to Page 0, off 0.

Page Table

0	F ₀
1	F ₂
2	F ₁
3	F ₃



Virtual/Logical
memory

page	off
1	1

Different value from bus and answer to find

- i) total address bit $\frac{1}{2} \text{ to } \frac{1}{2} \text{ bits}$
- ii) Virtual address space $\frac{1}{2} \text{ to } \frac{1}{2} \text{ bits}$
- iii) Per page size $\frac{1}{2} \text{ to } \frac{1}{2} \text{ bits}$

* Maths

a process takes $= 16 \text{ KB} = 2^{14} \text{ m} = 14$

Page size $= 1 \text{ KB} = 2^{10}$

Page no $\Rightarrow p = 16$
 $= 2^4 \rightarrow \text{bit}$

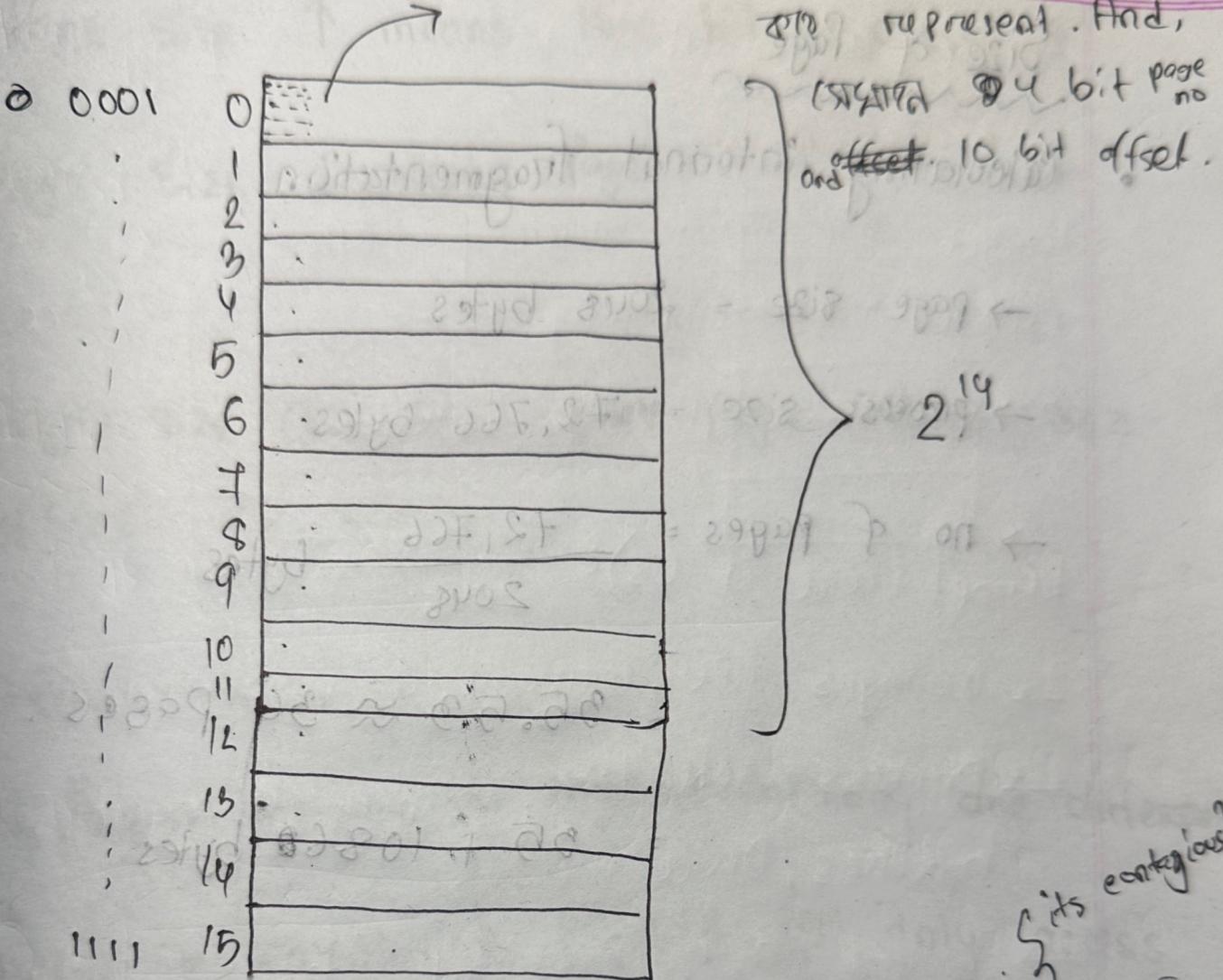
$$\text{So, no of Pages} = \frac{2^{14}}{2^{10}}$$

$$\text{offset} = 14 - 4$$

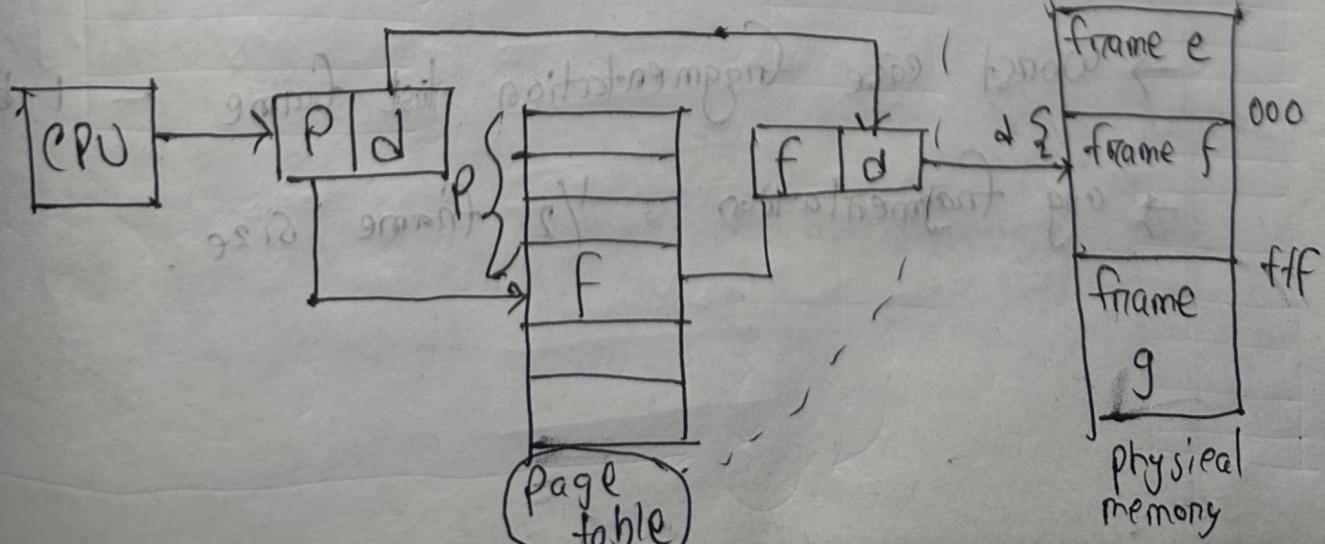
$$= 10$$

$= 16 \text{ pages}$

So, page offset



Paging Hardware



Size of Page

Calculating internal fragmentation

$$\rightarrow \text{page size} = 2048 \text{ bytes}$$

$$\rightarrow \text{process size} = 72,766 \text{ bytes}$$

$$\rightarrow \text{no of pages} = \frac{72,766}{2048} \text{ bytes}$$

$$= 35.53 \approx 36 \text{ pages}$$

$$= 35 + 1086 \text{ bytes}$$

$$\rightarrow \text{internal fragmentation} = 2048 - 1086 \\ = 962 \text{ bytes}$$

$$\rightarrow \text{worst case fragmentation} = \text{last frame} - 1 \text{ byte}$$

$$\rightarrow \text{avg fragmentation} : 1/2 \text{ frame size}$$

Page size \uparrow means Page bit \downarrow offset \uparrow

Page size \downarrow means Page bit \uparrow offset \downarrow

for i.e. (MA) program runs on 16 bits
will go to 16 bits in physical form. address

Page size হ্রেজান অনেক page মাত্রা আব
offset কর এমনো,

: (20 70 270) 130794

After this.

↳ logical memory & physical memory are different

↳ by implementation process can only access
its own memory.

free frames

OS goes to Frame Table from where
we can get to know which frames are
occupied and which are free.

Video: 02

Some additional Details

When a computer boots, part of the OS is loaded into main memory (RAM) so it can execute. Not everything is loaded at once. The main parts typically include:

kernel (core of OS):

- manages CPU, memory, devices and processes
- process scheduler, memory manager, interrupt handlers, Device drivers
- loaded in a protected area of RAM (kernel space)

System Programs / Utilities (Sometimes loaded as needed)

- file system management routines, I/O routines, Network Services.

Data Structures for OS management: 09

→ PCB, free frame/block list, Page table, I/O buffer

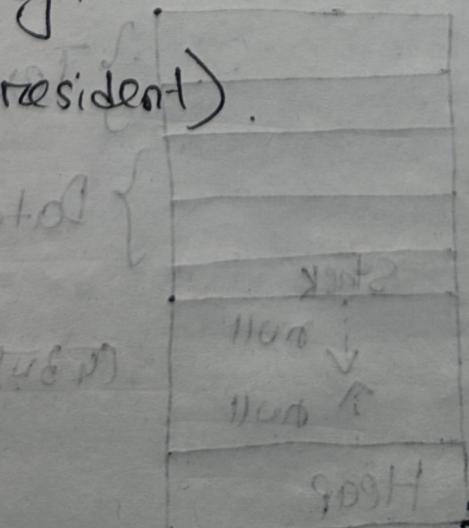
Interrupt Vector Table

→ located at a fixed place in memory, holds addresses of interrupt service routines.

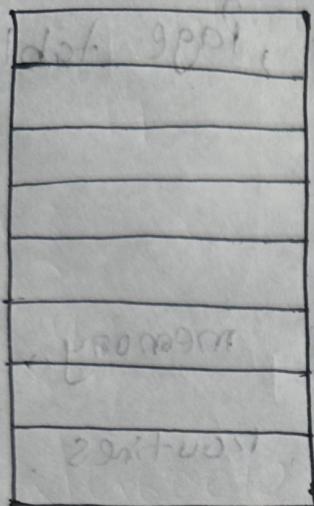
Modernd OS (Paged Kernel)

→ The OS kernel itself can be paged like a regular process..

→ Its code and data are divided into pages, which can be swapped in/out of main memory if needed (though some critical kernel pages always stay resident).

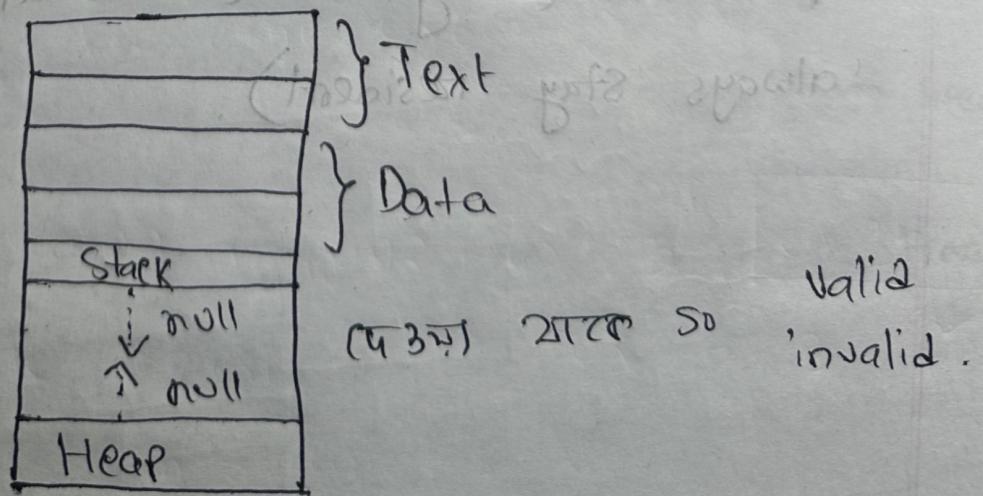


PCB



How the page table differentiate between each part of the process. → one page, only 1 segment

How does the dynamic allocation for heap and growing stack is allocated inside the page table.



Page table Entries (PTEs) and Flags

each page table entry has flag bits:

R/W bit → is it writable?

X bit (Nx or executable) → can it be executed?

U/S bit → user vs kernel accessible

P (Present) bit → is it in RAM?

The OS sets these flags differently for different regions:

Text (code): read + execute, not write

Data/heap/stack: read + write, not execute

Guard Pages (like stack limit): not present → page fault if

touched.

flushed since last touch

modified | clean

Now lets look at how dynamic memory allocation for a instruction inside your code may look like:

Code :

$*p = 42$

$\hookrightarrow [0x600123]$, eax \rightarrow heap address

CPU : "Need VA 0x600123."

MMU : Split \rightarrow Page = 0x600

offset - 0x123

TLB miss \rightarrow page table walk.

PTE says : VA page 0x600 \rightarrow PFN 42, RW

MMU : Translate \rightarrow PA = frame 42 + 0x123 = $0xA5123$

CPU : Send write request to PA = 0xA5123

Cache / memory system \rightarrow writes value

Execution continues.

↓
actual
RAM
byte
address

Implementation of Page Table

- Page table is kept in main memory.
- Page table base register (PTBR) points to the page table.
(address of PT)
- Page table length register (PTLR) indicates size of the page table.
- The two memory access problem can be solved by the use of a special fast-lookup hardware cache called associative memory or translation lookaside buffers (TLBs).

Effective Access Time

Hit ratio = α

$$\alpha = 80\%$$

$$\epsilon = 20 \text{ ns}$$

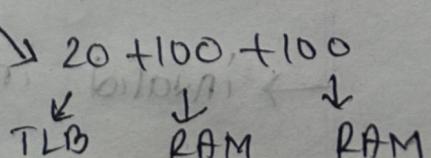
miss ratio = $1 - \alpha$

TLB search

TLB $\leftarrow 20 + 100$

$$EAT = .80 \times 120 + .20 \times 220$$

\downarrow hit \downarrow miss



$$= 140 \text{ ns}$$

$$\alpha = 99$$

$$\epsilon = 20 \text{ ns} \text{ (TLB search)}$$

$$\text{memory access} = 100 \text{ ns}$$

$$EAT = .99 \times 120 + .01 \times 220$$

$$= 121 \text{ ns}$$

Memory Protection

Valid and invalid bit attached to each entry in the page table:

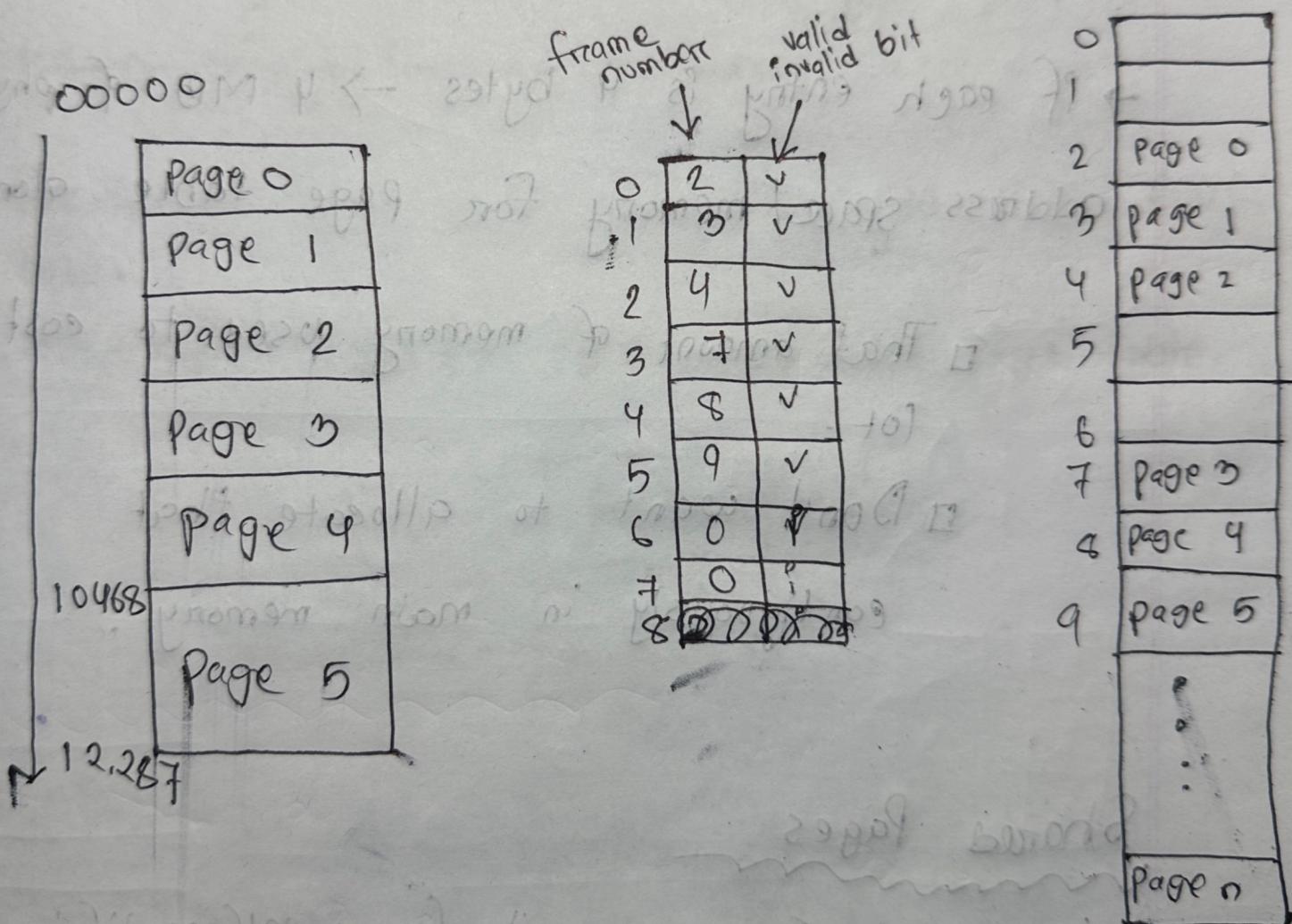
→ valid indicates that the associated page is in the process logical address space, and is thus a legal page

→ invalid indicates that the page is not in the

Process' logical address space is mapped to physical space.

→ OR use Page Table Length Register (PTLR).

Any violations result in a trap to the kernel.



Structure of Page Table

→ logical address 32 bit

→ page size 4 kB (2^{12})

→ page table would have 1 million entries ($2^{32}/2^{12}$)

→ if each entry is 4 bytes → 4 MB of physical

address space / memory for page table alone.

□ That amount of memory used to cost a lot.

□ Don't want to allocate that contiguously in main memory.

Shared Pages

→ one copy of read-only (non self modifying) code

shared among processes.

→ similarly to multiple threads sharing the same process space.

→ also useful for inter-process communication
if sharing of read-write pages is allowed.

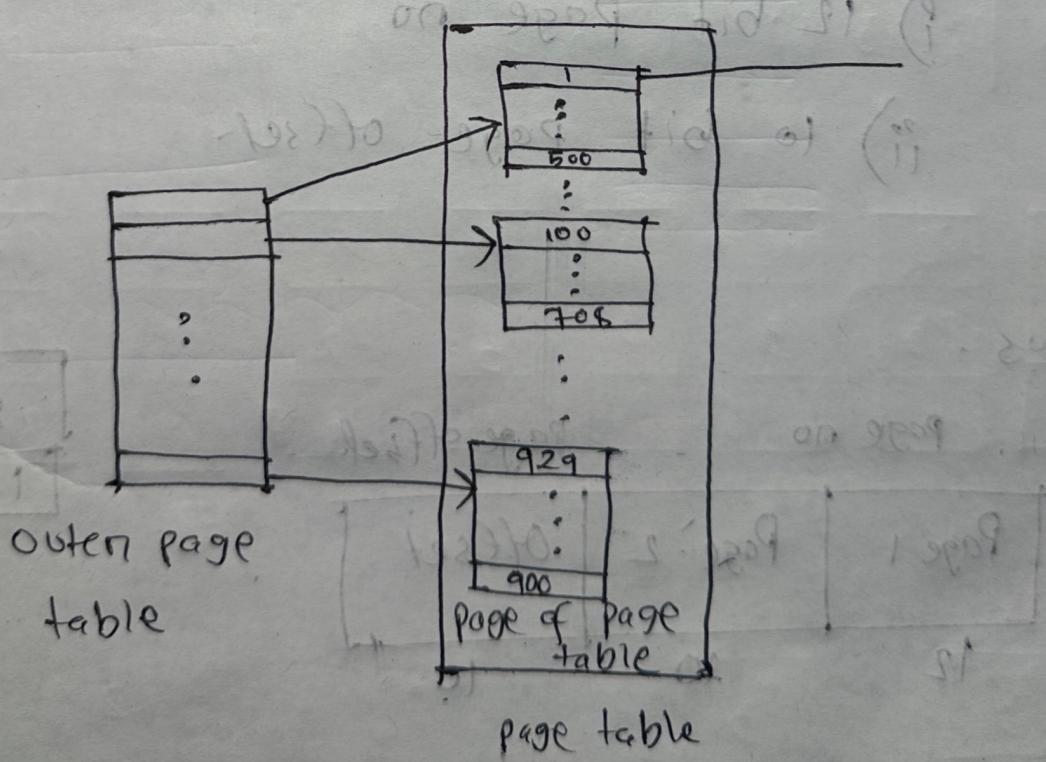
Hierarchical Page Table

→ Memory structures for paging can't get huge using straight forward methods.

→ Break up the 2.A space into multiple page tables.

→ a simple technique is a two-level page table.

→



Two level paging

A logical address of 32 bit machine with 1 k page size) is divided into.

→ a Page of 22 bits

→ offset of 10 bits

i) 12 bit Page no

ii) 10 bit page offset

Thus -

Page no

Page offset

Page 1	Page 2	Offset
12	10	10

22	10
12	10

Video 03

Virtual memory

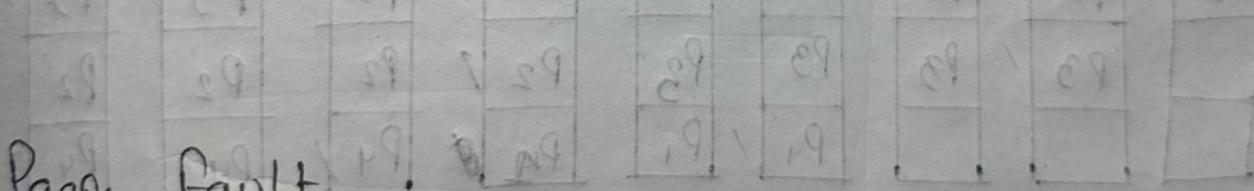
The term virtual memory refers to something which appears to be present but actually it is not.

Demand Paging

Bringing a page into memory only when it is needed

- less I/O needed
- less memory needed
- faster response

- more user



Page Fault

A page fault occurs when a process tries to access a page that is not currently in main memory.

Cause: demand paging, page replacement, invalid access / protection

Page Replacement

3 Algo.

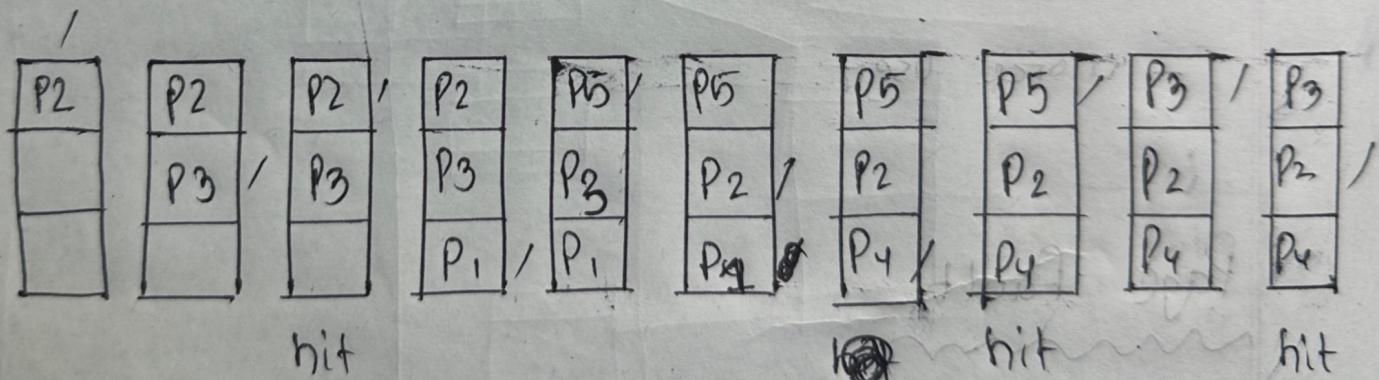
- i) First in first out (FIFO)

- ii) LRU (Least Recently Used)

- iii) OPT (Optimal)

FIFO

time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Page	P1	P3	P2	P1	P5	P2	P4	P5	P3	P2	P5	P2



P_3	P_3
P_5	P_5
P_4	P_2

LRU

time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Page	P2	P3	P2	P1	P5	P2	P4	P5	P6	P2	P5	P2

P2	P3	P3	P3	P3							
P3		P3	P3		P5						
				P1		P1	P4		P2	P2	P2
							P4				

hit

hit

hit

hit

hit

Recently used
use 22%.

hit ratio = 5/12. > FIFO.

Optimal

time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Page	P2	P3	P2	P1	P5	P2	P4	P5	P3	P2	P5	P2

replace the page that will be accessed at the furthest point in time.

P2	P2	P2	P2	P2	P2	P4	P4	P4	P4	P2	P2	P2
P3		P3	P3	P1	P5	P3						
						P5						

hit

hit

hit

hit

hit
ratio
= 6/12