

0301304 FUNDAMENTAL OF OPERATIONG SYSTEM

UNIT	MODULES	WEIGHTAGE
1	INTRODUCTION TO OPERATING SYSTEM	20 %
2	PROCESS MANAGEMENT	20 %
3	PROCESS COMMUNICATION AND SYNCHRONIZATION	20 %
4	MEMORY MANAGEMENT	20 %
5	FILE MANAGEMENT , DISK MANAGEMENT , SECURITY AND PROTECTION	20 %

UNIT – 4 Memory Management

- Basic Memory Management
 - Introduction
 - Basic Concepts
 - Static and Dynamic Allocation
 - Logical and Physical Addresses
 - Fixed and Variable Memory Partitioning
 - Fragmentation
 - Swapping
 - Contiguous Memory Allocation
 - Compaction
 - Memory Allocation Techniques

UNIT – 4 Memory Management

- Paging Concept
- Segmentation
- Virtual Memory
 - Introduction
 - Need for virtual Memory
 - Demand Paging
 - Page Replacement Algorithm
 - FIFO
 - LRU
 - Thrashing

UNIT – 4 Basic Mamory Management

- The multi programming concept of an OS gives rise to another issue known as **memory management**.
- Memory, as a resource, **needs to be partitioned and allocated to the ready processes**, such that both **processor and memory** can be utilized efficiently.
- The **division of memory for processes needs proper management**, including its efficient allocation and protection.
- **There are two types of memory management :**
 - **Real memory (Main Memory)**
 - **Secondary memory**

UNIT – 4 Basic Mamory Management

- Memory allocation is generally performed through two methods:
 - **Static Allocation**
 - **Dynamic Allocation**
- **Static Allocation**
 - The allocation is done **before the execution** of a process.
- **Dynamic Allocation**
 - If memory allocation is **deferred (at later time) till the process starts executing**, it is known as Dynamic Allocation.

UNIT – 4 Basic Mamory Management

- **Static Allocation**

- There are two instances when this type of allocation is performed:
 - When the **location of the process in the memory is known at compile time**, the compiler generates an **absolute code for the process**.
 - When the **location of the process in the memory is NOT known at compile time**, the compiler does **not produce an actual memory address but generate a relocatable code** (Relocatable code is software whose execution address can be changed), that is, the addresses that are relative to some known point.

UNIT – 4 Basic Mamory Management

- **Dynamic Memory Allocation**
 - In Multi-Programming, **Modern OS adopt dynamic memory allocation method.**
 - In this method, two types of addresses are generated.
 - **Logical Addresses**
 - **Physical Addresses**

UNIT – 4 Basic Mamory Management

- **Logical Addresses**

- In dynamic allocation, the **place of allocation of the process is not known at the compile time and load time.**
- The processor, at compile time, generate some address, known as ***logical addresses***.
- The **set of all logical addresses** generated by the compilation of the process is **known as logical address space.**

UNIT – 4 Basic Mamory Management

- **Physical Addresses**

- Logical addresses **need to be converted into absolute addresses** at the time of execution of the process.
- The absolute addresses are known as **physical addresses**.
- The set of physical addresses generated, corresponding to the logical addresses during process execution, is known as **physical address space**.
- *When a process is compiled, the CPU generates a logical address, which is then converted into a physical address by the memory management component to map it to the physical memory.*

UNIT – 4 Basic Mamory Management

- **Swapping**

- There are some instance in multi programming **when there is no memory for executing a new process.**
- In this case, **if a process is taken out of memoy, there will be space for a new process.**

UNIT – 4 Basic Mamory Management

- **Swapping**

- It raise some question :

- Where will this process reside?
 - Which process will be taken out?
 - Where in the memory will process be brought back?

UNIT – 4 Basic Mamory Management

- **Swapping**

- It raise some question :

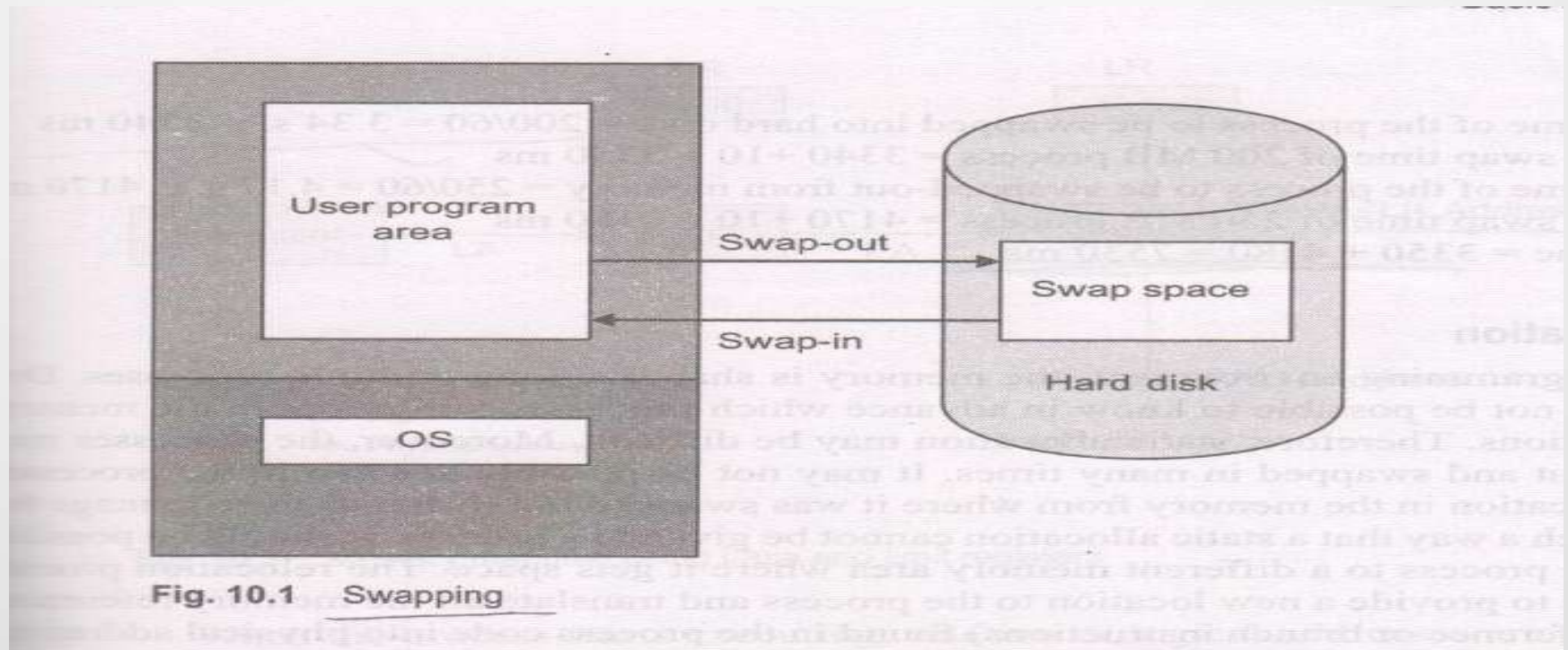
- **Where will this process reside?**

- Secondary storage (generally Hard disk) known as backing store.
 - The action of taking out a process from memory is called **swap-out**. The process is known as a **swapped-out process**.
 - The action of bringing back the swapped-out process into memory is called **swap-in**.

UNIT – 4 Basic Memory Management

- **Swapping**

- A separate space in the hard disk as **swap space**, is reserved for swapped out processes.



UNIT – 4 Basic Mamory Management

- **Swapping**

- It raise some question :

- **Which process will be taken out?**

- In **round robin process-scheduling**, the processes are executed, according to the their time quantum. **If the time quantum expires and a process has not finished its execution, it can be swapped – out.**
 - In priority – driven scheduling, if a higer – priority process wishes to execute, **lower – priority process in memory will be swapped out.**
 - The **blocked processes**, which are waiting for an I/O, **can be Swapped out.**

UNIT – 4 Basic Mamory Management

- **Swapping**

- It raise some question :

- **Where in the memory will process be brought back?**

- There are two options to swap

- The **first option** is to swap – in the process at the **same location**, if there is compile time or load time binding.
 - **Other option** is to place the swapped -in process **any where** there is space. Need to relocation.

UNIT – 4 Basic Mamory Management

- **Swapping Time**

- A time take to acces the hard disk.

- **Example :**

- A process of size 200 MB needs to be swapped into the hard disk. But there is no space in memory. A process of size 250 MB is lying idle in memory and therefore, it can be swapped out.

How much swap time is required to swap-in and swap-out the processes if:

- Average latency time of hard disk = 10 ms
 - Transfer rate of hard disk = 60MB / s

UNIT – 4 Basic Mamory Management

- **Solution :**

- The transfer time of the process to be **swapped-in** to hard disk = $200 / 60 = 3.34 \text{ s} = 3340 \text{ ms}$
- The swap time of 200 MB process = $3340 + 10 = 3350 \text{ ms}$
- The transfer time of the process to be **swapped-out** form memory = $250 / 60 = 4.17 \text{ s} = 4170 \text{ ms}$
- The swap time of 250 MB process = $4170 + 10 = 4180 \text{ ms}$
- **Total swap time** = $3350 + 4180 = 7530 \text{ ms}$

UNIT – 4 Basic Mamory Management

- **Fixed and Variable Memory Partitioning**
 - **Fixed Partitioning**
 - In this method of **partitioning**, the **memory is partitioned at the time of system generation.**
 - **Variable Partitioning**
 - In this method, partitioning is not performed at the system generation time.
 - The partition **are created at runtime**, by the OS

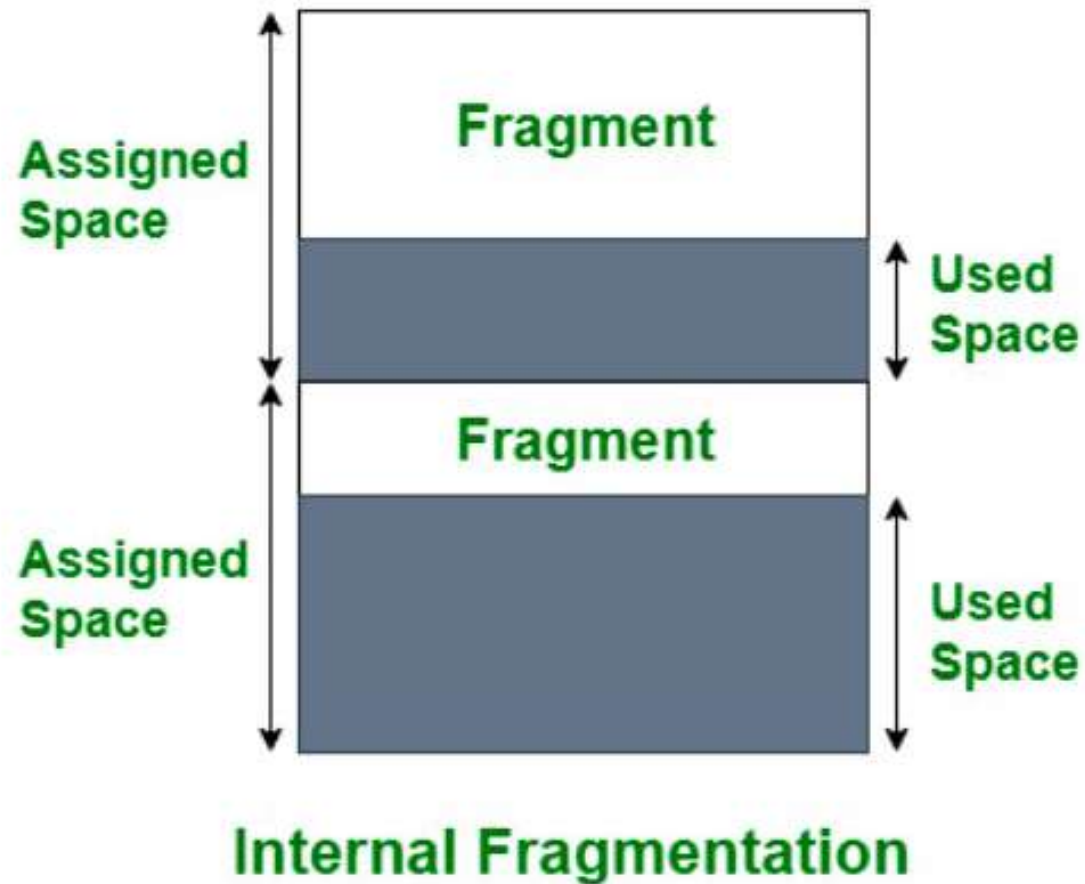
UNIT – 4 Basic Memory Management

- **Fragmentation**

- **Internal Fragmentation**

- When a process is allocated to partition, it may be possible that its size is less than the size of partition.
 - It leave a space after allocation, which is unusable by any other process, this wastage of memory, internal to a partition is known as **internal Fragmentation**.

UNIT – 4 Basic Memory Management



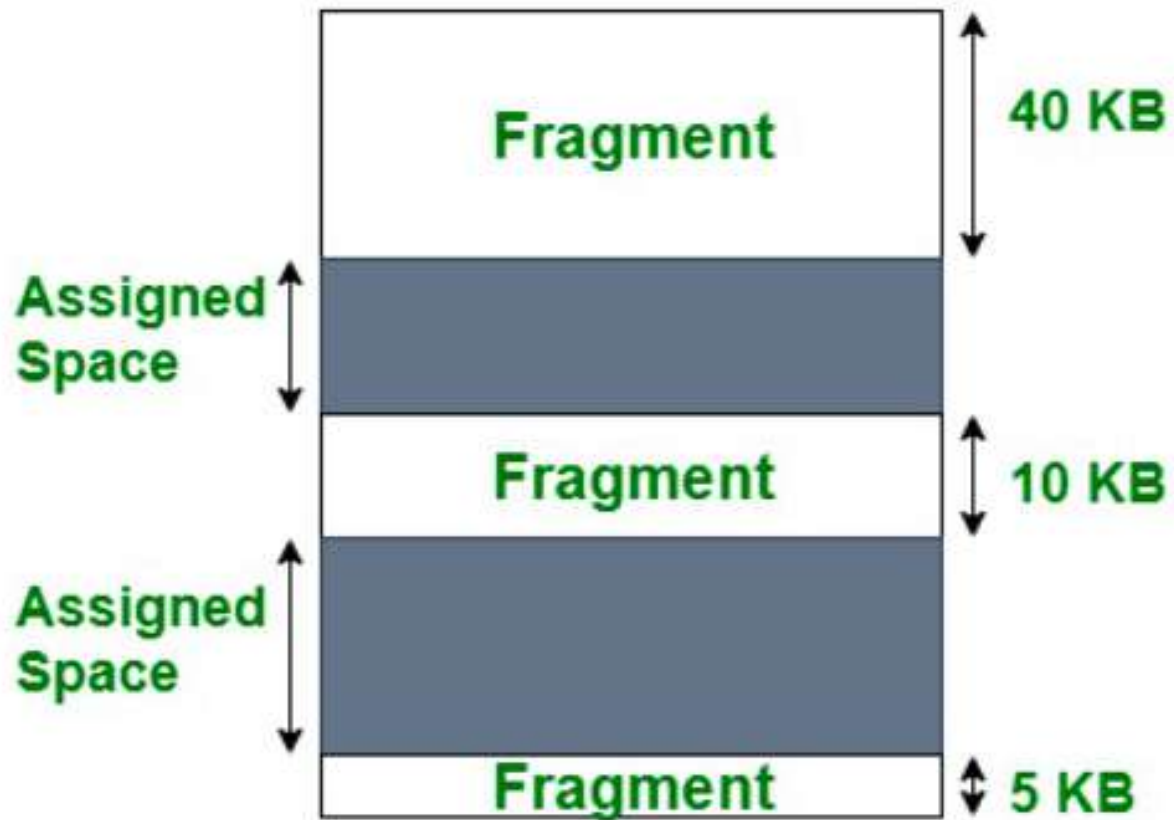
UNIT – 4 Basic Mamory Management

- **Fragmentation**

- **External Fragmentation**

- When allocating and de-allocating memory to the processes in partitions through various method.
 - It may possible that there are small spaces left in various partitions throughout the memory.
 - This memory space is known as **External Fragmentation**.

External Fragmentation



External Fragmentation

INTERNAL FRAGMENTATION VERSUS EXTERNAL FRAGMENTATION

INTERNAL FRAGMENTATION

A form of fragmentation that arises when there are sections of memory remaining because of allocating large blocks of memory for a process than required

Memory block assigned to a process is large - the remaining portion is left unused as it cannot be assigned to another process

Solution is to assign partitions which are large enough for the processes

EXTERNAL FRAGMENTATION

A form of fragmentation that arises when there is enough memory available to allocate for the process but that available memory is not contiguous

Memory space is enough to reside a process, but it is not contiguous. Therefore, that space cannot be used for allocation

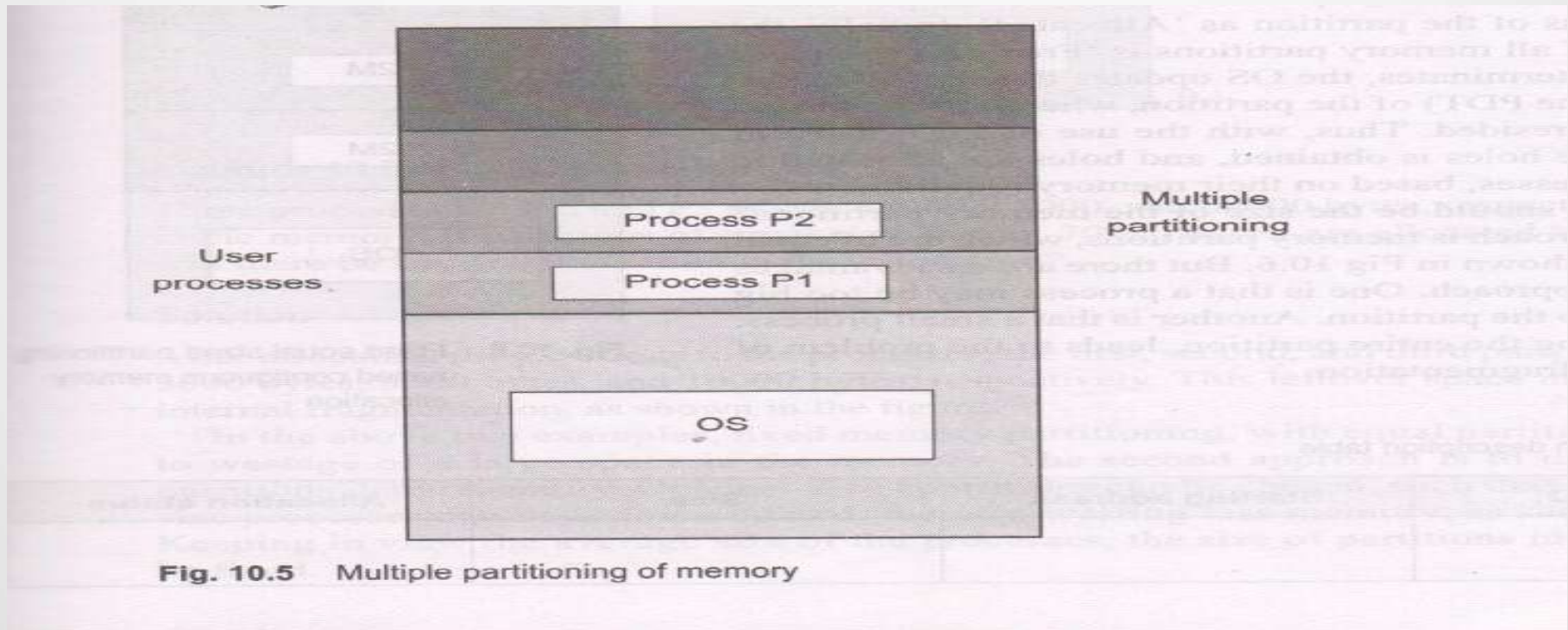
Compaction or shuffle memory content is the solution to overcome this

UNIT – 4 Continuous Memory Allocation

- In older systems, **memory allocation is done by allocating a single contiguous area** in memory to the processes.
- But in multi-programming system, memory was divided **into two partitions**.
 - **One for the Os**
 - **Other for the User process**

UNIT – 4 Continuous Memory Allocation

- In Multi-user systems, more processes are accommodated by having multiple partitions in the memory.



UNIT – 4 Contiguous Memory Allocation

- Here process is allocated a contiguous memory in a single partition.
- Thus the memory partition, which fits the process, is searched and allocated.
- **The memory partition which is free to allocate, is known as a *hole*.**
- When the process terminates, the occupied memory becomes free and the hole is available again.
- As soon as a process terminates, a hole becomes free, and is allocated to a waiting process.

UNIT – 4 Compaction

- **Compaction help to control memory wastage, occurring in dynamic partitioning.**
- The OS observes the number of holes in the memory and compacts them after a period, so that a contiguous memory can be allocated for a new process.
- The **compaction is done by shuffling the memory** contents, such that all occupied memory region is moved in one direction, and all unoccupied memory region in the other direction.
- This results in contiguous free holes, as a single large hole.

UNIT – 4 Compaction

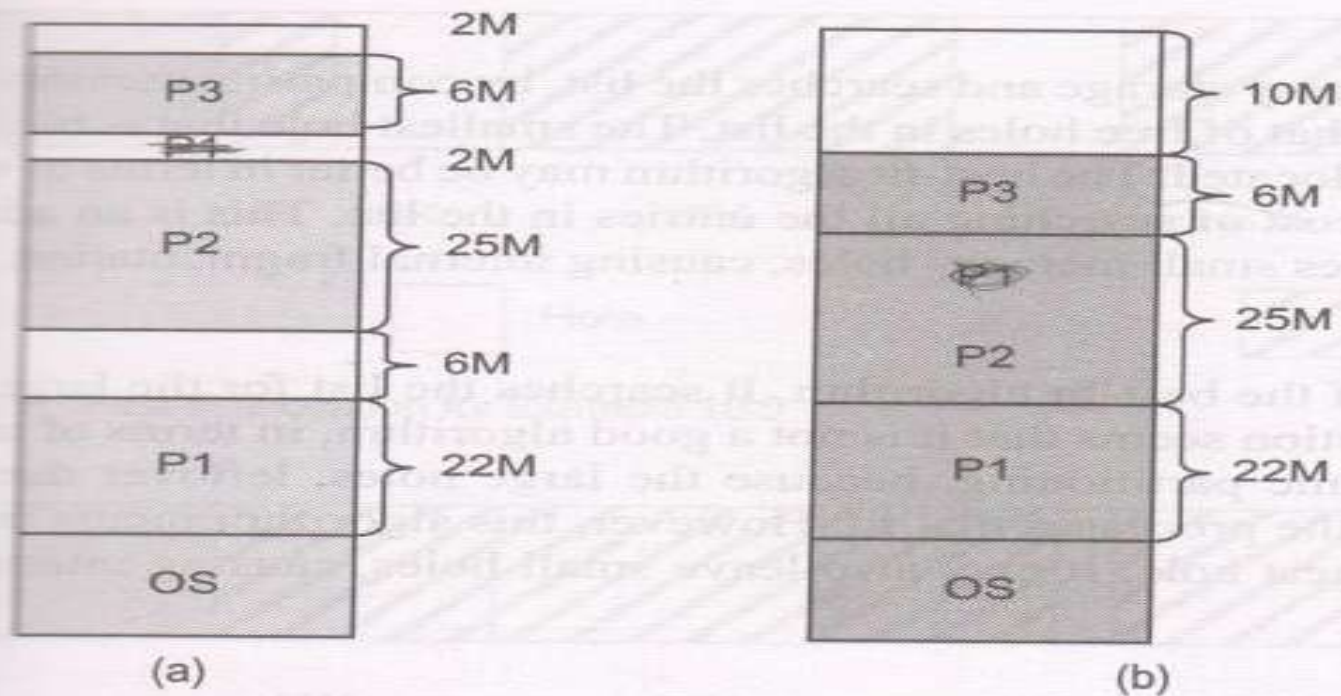


Fig. 10.9 Compaction

UNIT – 4 Memory Allocation Techniques

- Memory allocation techniques are algorithms that satisfy the memory needs of a process:
- They decide which hole from the list of free holes must be allocated to the process.
- Thus it is also known as partition selection algorithms.
- There are primarily three techniques for memory allocation
 - First-fit Allocation
 - Best-fit Allocation
 - Worst-fit allocation

UNIT – 4 Memory Allocation Techniques

- **First-Fit Allocation**

- This algorithm searches the list of free holes and allocates the first hole in the list that is big enough to accommodate the desired process.
- Searching is stopped when it finds the first fit hole.

- **Next -fit Allocation**

- Searching is resumed from that location. The first hole is counted from this last location. In this case, it become the next-fit allocation.
- First - Fit allocation does not take care of the memory wastage.

UNIT – 4 Memory Allocation Techniques

- **Best – Fit Allocation**

- This algorithm takes care of memory storage and searches the list, by comparing memory size of the process to be allocated with that of free holes in the list.
- **The smallest hole that is big enough to accommodate the process is allocated.**
- It is better in terms of memory wastage but it incurs cost of searching.

UNIT – 4 Memory Allocation Techniques

- **Worst– Fit Allocation**

- This algorithm is just reverse of the best-fit algorithm.
- It search the list for the largest hole.
- It is not good algorithm, in terms of memory, but it may be help ful in dynamic partitioning.

UNIT – 4 Memory Allocation Techniques

- Example :
- Consider the memory allocation scenario as next slide. Allocate memory for additional requests of 4k and 10k (in this order).
- Compare the memory allocation, using
 - First – fit Allocation
 - Best – fit Allocation
 - Worst – fit Allocations

UNIT – 4 Memory Allocation Techniques

- Problem :

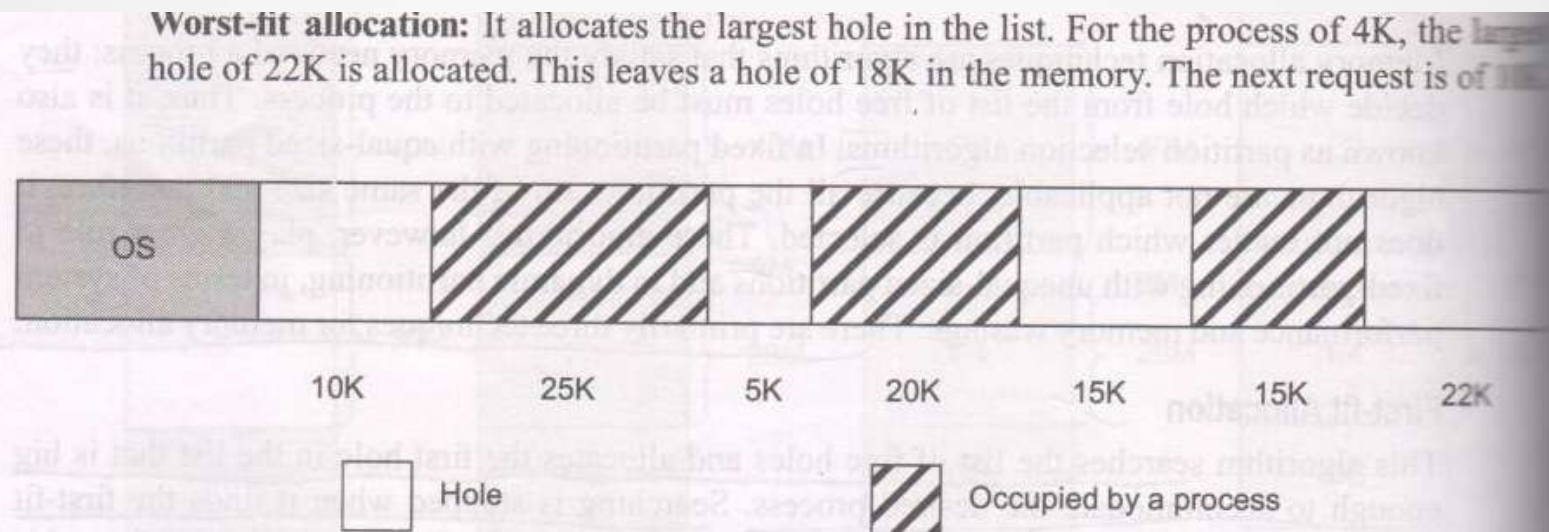


Fig. 10.10 Example memory allocation scenario

UNIT – 4 Paging Concept

- The first **non-contiguous** memory allocation method is paging.
- In this memory is divided into equal size partitions.
- The partitions are relatively smaller, compared to the contiguous method. They are known as **frames**.
- The logical memory of a process is also divided into small chunks or blocks of the same size as frame. These chunks are **called pages** of a process.
- Paging is a logical concept that divides the **logical address space** of a process into fixed size **pages**, and is implemented in **physical memory** through **frame**.

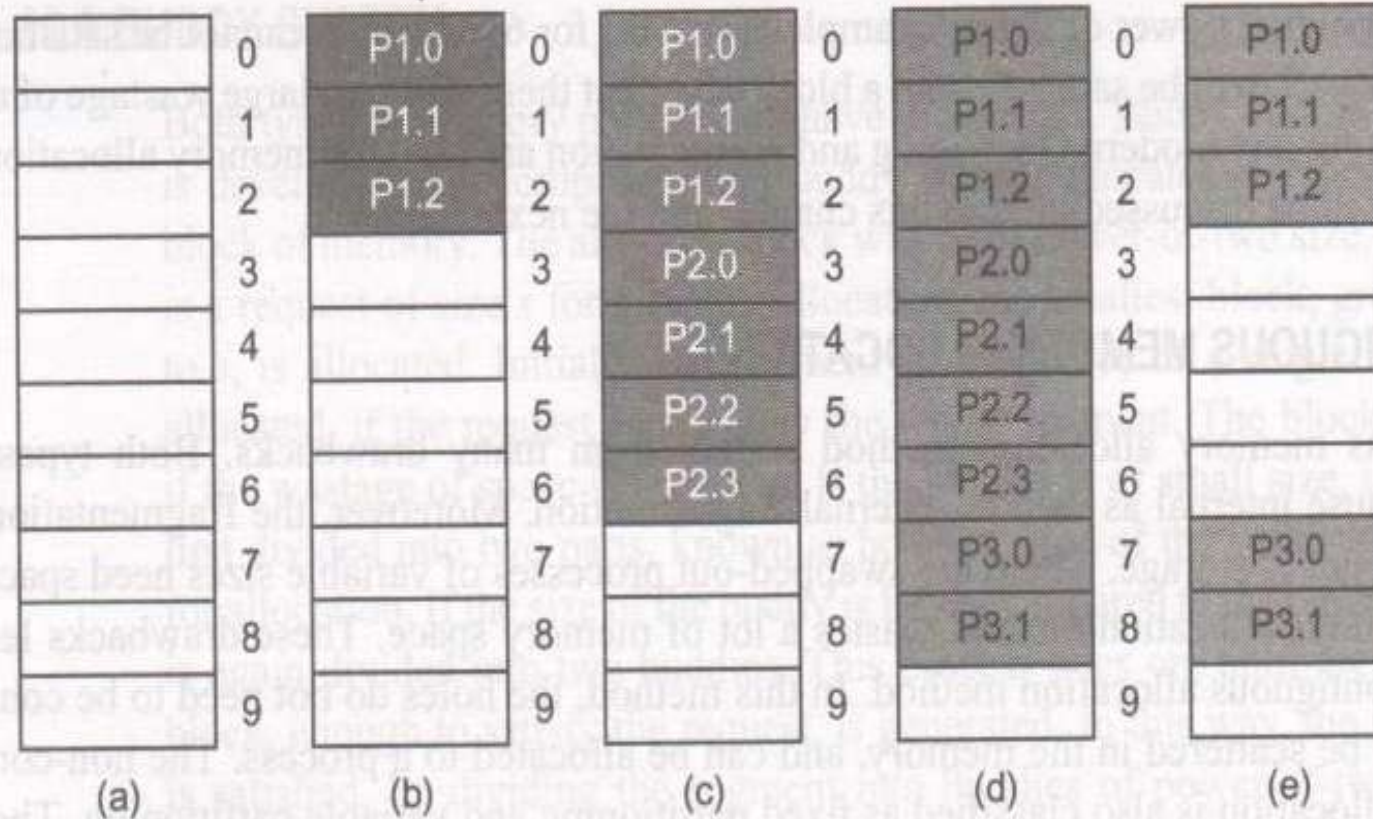
UNIT – 4 Paging Concept example

- There are 10 free frames in the memory.
- There are 4 processes P1, P2 ,P3, P4 consisting of 3, 4, 2, 5 pages respectively.
- For P1 (fig 10.15(b))
- For P2 (fig 10.15(c))
- For P3 (fig 10.15(d))
- Now only one frame is free in the memory, where P4 required 5 frames.
- After some time P2 finishes its execution and therefore, release memory. These five frames, through non contiguous are allocated to P4 (fig 10.15(e ,f)).

UNIT – 4 Paging Concept example

- Suppose after some time P1 release page 1, P4 release page 2 and P3 releases page 1 (fig 10.15(g))
- Now P5 is introduced in the system with 5 pages, but only 3 pages to be accommodated in the memory (fig 10.15(h))

UNIT – 4 Paging Concept example



UNIT – 4 Paging Concept example

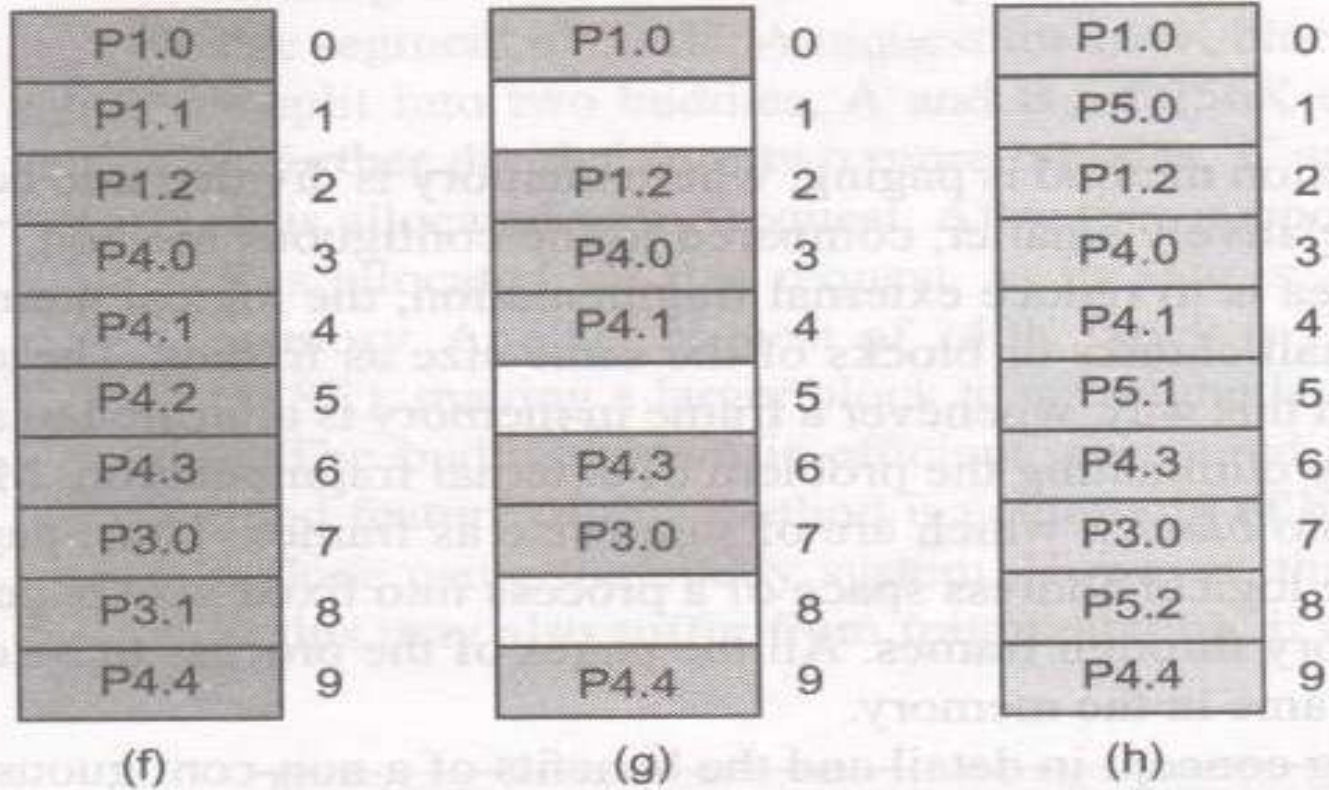
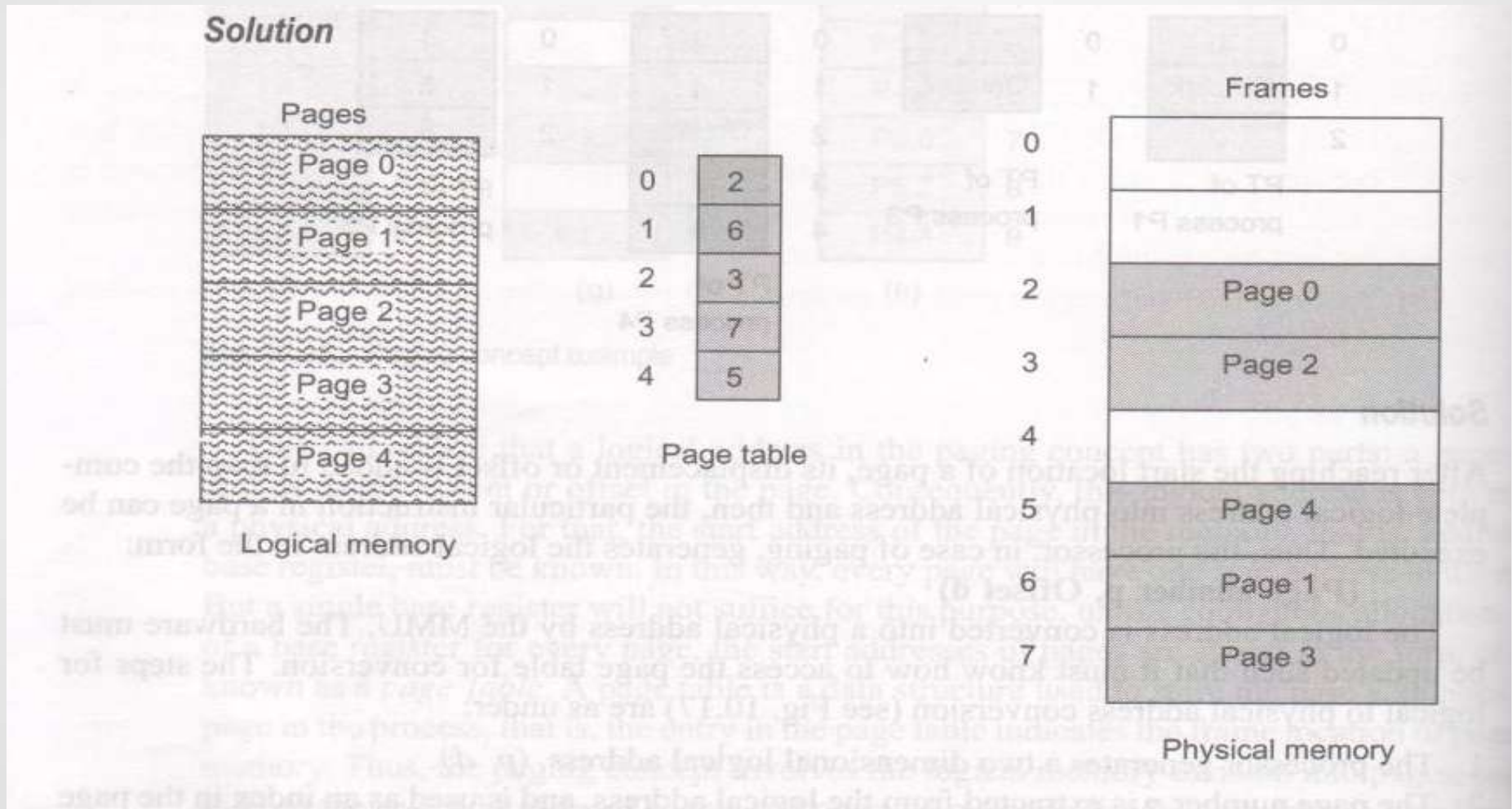


Fig. 10.15 Paging concept example

UNIT – 4 Paging Concept example

- A program's logical memory has been divided into 5 pages and these pages are allocated frames 2, 6, 3, 7 and 5.
- Show the mapping of logical memory to physical memory.

UNIT – 4 Paging Concept example



UNIT – 4 Segmentation

- A programmer writes programs not in terms of pages, but modules, to reduce the problem complexity.
- There may be modules : main program, procedures, stacks, data etc.
- **It would be better if memory management is also implemented in terms of these modules.**
- **Segmentation is a memory management technique that supports the concept of modules. The modules in this technique are called segments.**
- The segments are logical divisions of a program, and they may be of different sizes, whereas pages in the paging concept are physical divisions of program and are of equal size.

UNIT – 4 Segmentation

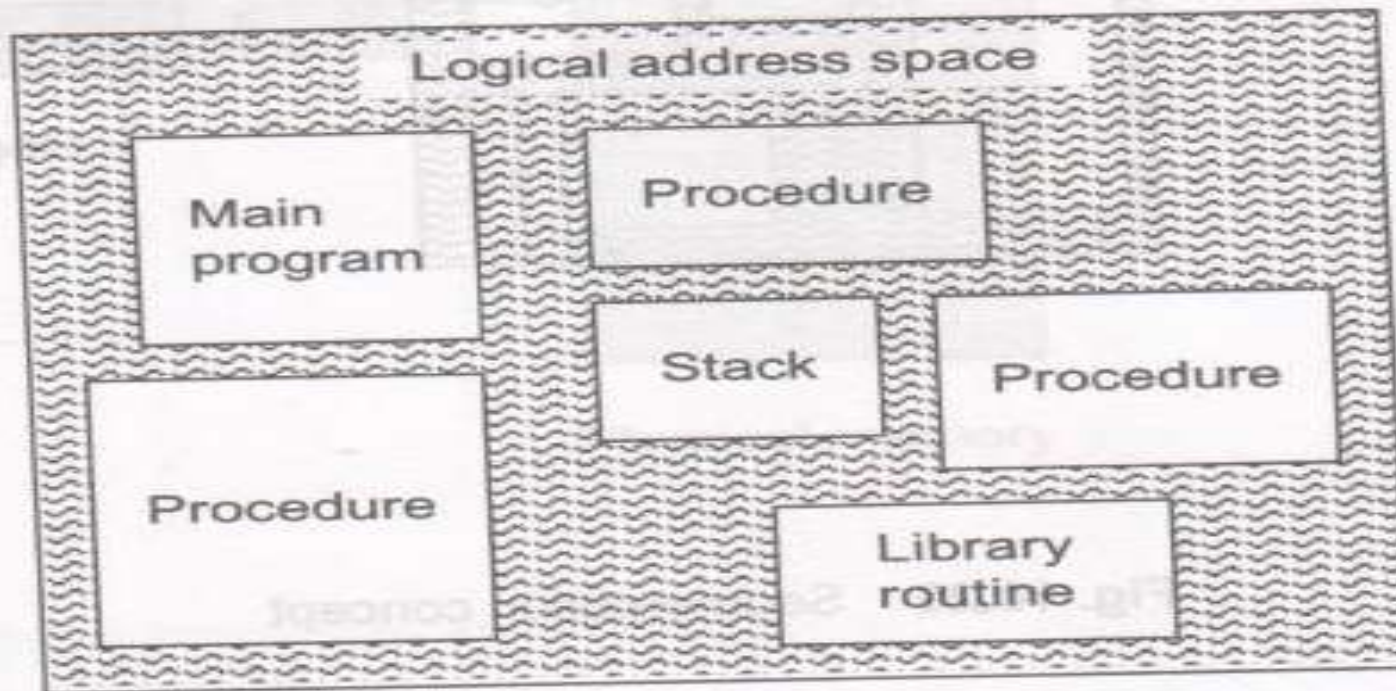


Fig. 10.28 Logical address space divided into segments

UNIT – 4 Segmentation

- Segmentation has two advantages:
 - Segmentation has logical memory which is **closer to a programmers way of thinking**
 - The segmentation need **not be of the same size** as compared to pages.

UNIT – 4 Segmentation

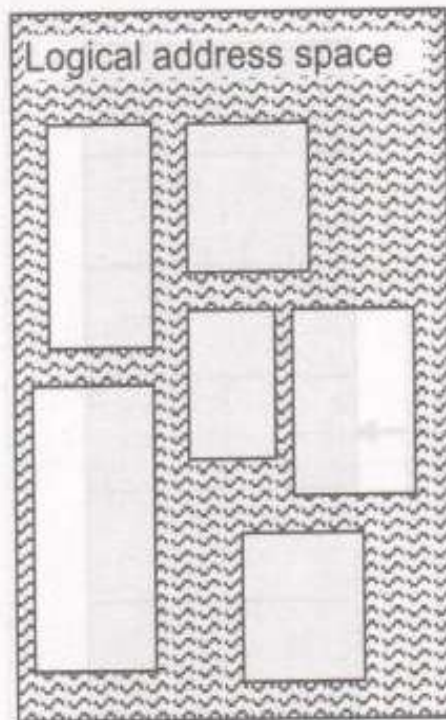
- Segmentation logical addresses:
 - Logical address of segment has two part
 - **The segment name (or Segment Number)**
 - **Its offset**
 - It has three major segment
 - Code segment
 - Data segment
 - Stack segment

UNIT – 4 Segmentation

- To convert logical address of segment in to physical address use **Segment tabel**.
- **Example :**

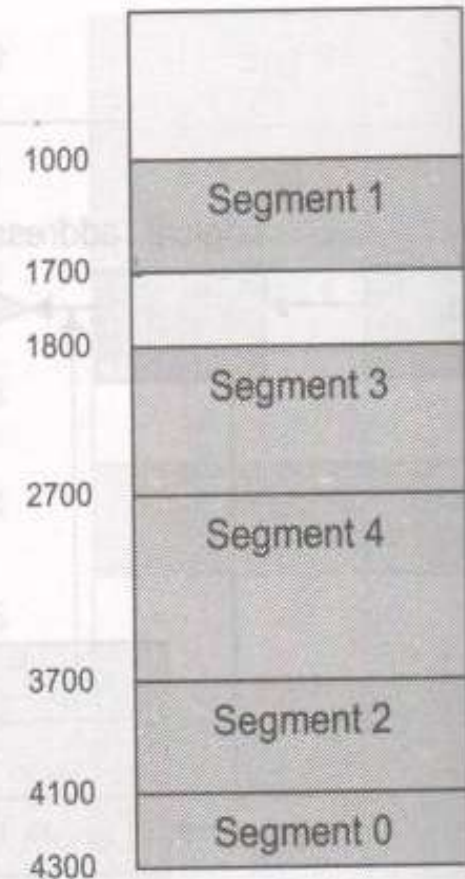
Segment Number	Length/ limit	Base Address
0	200	4100
1	700	1000
2	400	3700
3	900	1800
4	1000	2700

UNIT – 4 Segmentation



	Base	Length
0	4100	200
1	1000	700
2	3700	400
3	1800	900
4	2700	1000

Segment table



Physical memory

UNIT – 4 Virtual Memory

- Virtual memory is used **when process size is too large to fit in the real memory**, therefore virtual memory is created.
- In virtual memory, **combined approach of paging and segmentation is used.**
- Virtual memory implementation **is complex as compared with real memory.**
- It needs the assistance of hardware support known as **paging hardware.**
- Also OS have a module known as **virtual memory handler (VM Handler).**

UNIT – 4 Need of Virtual Memory

- **Paging and segmentation are two basic memory management techniques** that require an entire process to reside in the main memory before its execution.
- The increase in the degree of multi-programming means that **more number of processes should be accommodated in the memory.**
- But the degree of **multi programming is limited with the size of the memory.** This limitation may lead to several problems.

UNIT – 4 Overlay

- The first solution was in the form of **Overlay, years ago.**
- **An overlay is a portion of a process.**
- **A program is first divided into many overlays and store in the disk.**
- **A program containing overlays is called an overlay structure program.**
- **This program consists of a set of overlay and a permanently resident portion known a root.**
- **As the root executes, the overlays are loaded as and whenever required.**

UNIT – 4 Overlay

- The required **overlays are swapped in the memory** and later on **swapped out** when the memory is full.
- Moreover, today, overlay is an obsolete technique.

UNIT – 4 Virtual Memory

- Due to Overlay is obsolete, it **gives rise to the concept of virtual memory in modern system.**
- **Virtual memory is a method that manage the exceded size of larger processes as compared to the available space in the memory.**
- It means the degree of multi-programming can be increased without worrying about the size of the memory.

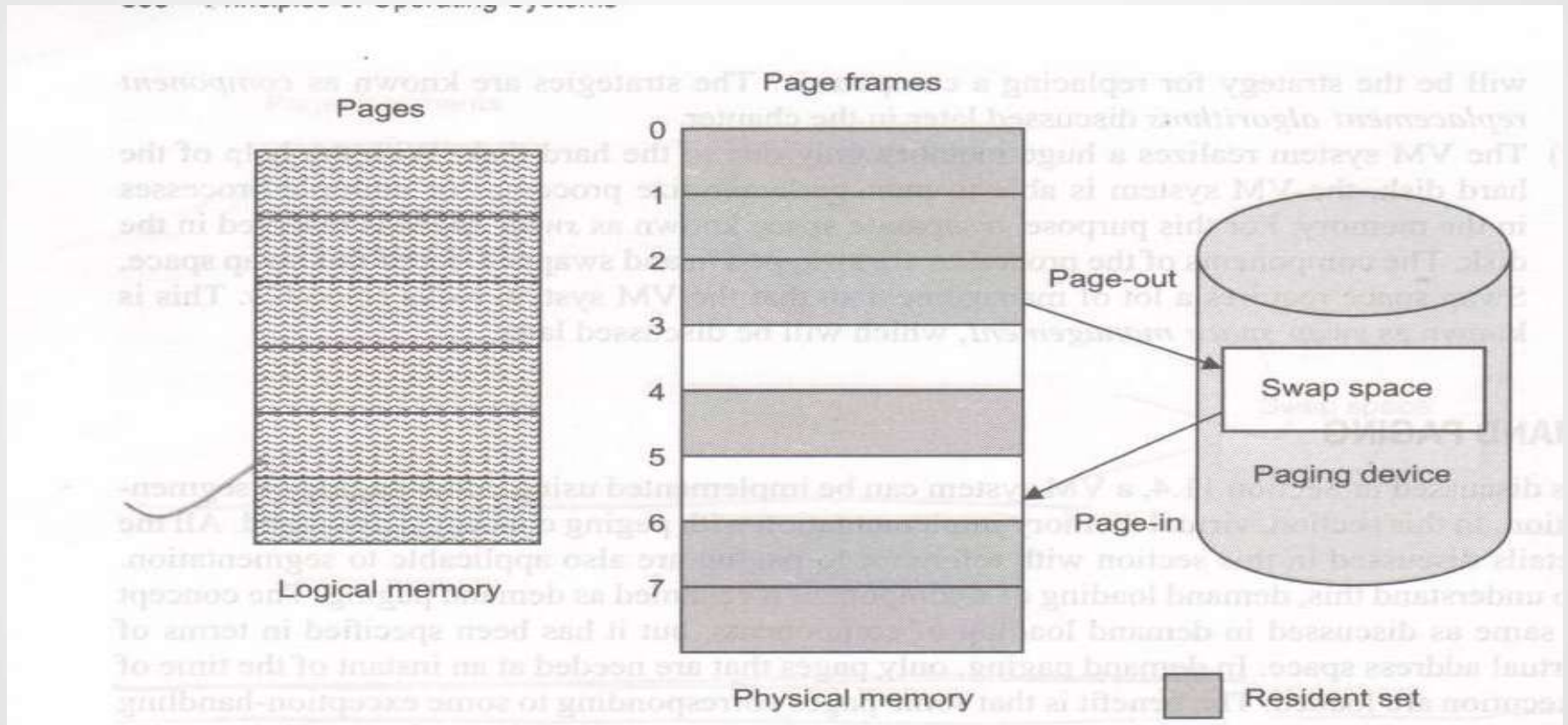
UNIT – 4 Virtual Memory – Demand Paging

- VM system can be implemented **using either Paging or segmentation.**
- In **Demand Paging, only pages that are needed at an instant of the time of execution are loaded.**
- The benefits is that some pages, corresponding to some exception – handling or error- handling code, which may not be executed, are not loaded.
- It results in efficient utilization of memory and efficient execution.

UNIT – 4 Virtual Memory – Demand Paging

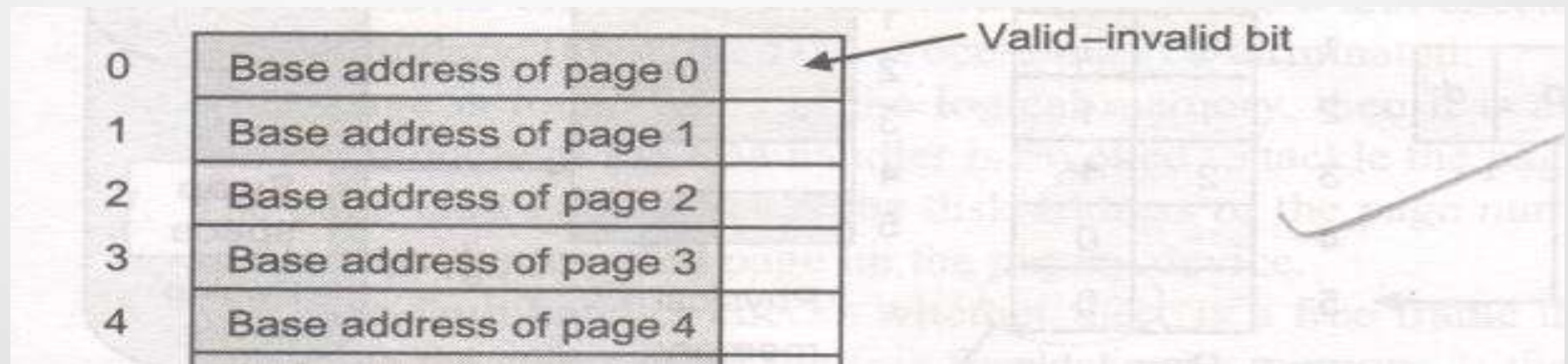
- **Demand Paging is same as Swapping.**
- Except that an entire process is not swapped in or swapped out.
- Here, a **Lazy swapper** is used that loads only those pages that are needed.
- So here insted of “swap -in” is called “page-in”
- And “swap – out” is called “page-out”

UNIT – 4 Virtual Memory – Demand Paging



UNIT – 4 Virtual Memory – Demand Paging

- Demand Paging has some issues
 - **(1)** how to recognize whether a page is present in the memory.
 - The page table with valid-invalid bit can be used for this purpose.
 - Valid bit -> “1” page is memory at the time
 - Invalid bit -> “0” page is either not valid or not present in the memory.



0	Base address of page 0	
1	Base address of page 1	
2	Base address of page 2	
3	Base address of page 3	
4	Base address of page 4	

UNIT – 4 Virtual Memory – Demand Paging

- Demand Paging has some issues
 - **(2)** it is a situation when a process execution does not get a page in the memory.
 - A situation will occur in demand paging when the page referenced is not present in the memory.
 - This is known as a **Page fault**.

UNIT – 4 Virtual Memory – Page Replacement Algorithms

- When a page fault occurs during the execution of a process, a page needs to be paged into the memory from the disk.
- However, it may be the case that **there is no free frame in the memory. In such case, an already existing page should be replaced so that there is room for a page that needs to be paged. This is known as a page replacement.**
- If the page replaced by a random approach, then it may affect the performance.
- Thus, instead of replacing any page, the use of pages in the memory is to be observed and a page should be replaced such that effect on performance is the least.

UNIT – 4 Virtual Memory – Page Replacement Algorithms

- The page replacement increases the overhead because there are two page transfer
 - **Page – in & Page – out**
- This overhead can be reduced if it is known whether a page has been modified.
- **Any instance of time it is not necessary every page is modified and also some pages are read only.**
- In this **case simply be overwritten by** another page because its copy is already on the disk. So one page – transfer time can be reduced.
- This is implemented by including **M – bit or Dirty bit** with each page.

UNIT – 4 Virtual Memory – Page Replacement Algorithms

of replacing any page, the use of pages in replaced such that the effect on performan the best page to be replaced in the memory

	Valid–Invalid Bit	M-bit
Base address of page 0		
Base address of page 1		
Base address of page 2		
Base address of page 3		
Base address of page 4		
Base address of page 5		

Fig. 11.6 Page table with valid–invalid and M-bits

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UNIT – 4 Virtual Memory – Page Replacement Algorithms

- If the page is modified, then need to implement the page replacement algorithms.
- A page replacement algorithms must satisfy the following requirements:
 - The algorithms must not replace a page that may be referenced in the near future. **It is known as non-interference with the program's locality of reference.**
 - The PFR should not increase with an increase in the size of the memory.

UNIT – 4 Virtual Memory – Page Replacement Algorithms

- Types of Page Replacement Algorithms
 - **FIFO** (First in First out Page Replacement Algo)
 - **LRU** (Least Recently Used Page – Replacement Algo)

UNIT – 4 FIFO Page Replacement Algorithm

- According to FIFO, the oldest page among all the pages in the memory is chosen as the victim.
- **All the page in the memory in a FIFO queue. The page at the head of the queue will be page – out first and a new page will be inserted at the tail of the queue.**

UNIT – 4 FIFO Page Replacement Algorithm

Example 11.6

Calculate the number of page faults for the following reference string using FIFO algorithm with frame size as 3.

5 0 2 1 0 3 0 2 4 3 0 3 2 1 3 0 1 5

Solution

5	0	2	1	0	3	0	2	4	3	0	3	2	1	3	0	1	5
5	5	5	1	1	1	2	2	2	0	0	0	3	3	3			
	0	0	0	3	3	3	4	4	4	2	2	2	0	0			
		2	2	2	0	0	0	3	3	3	1	1	1	5			

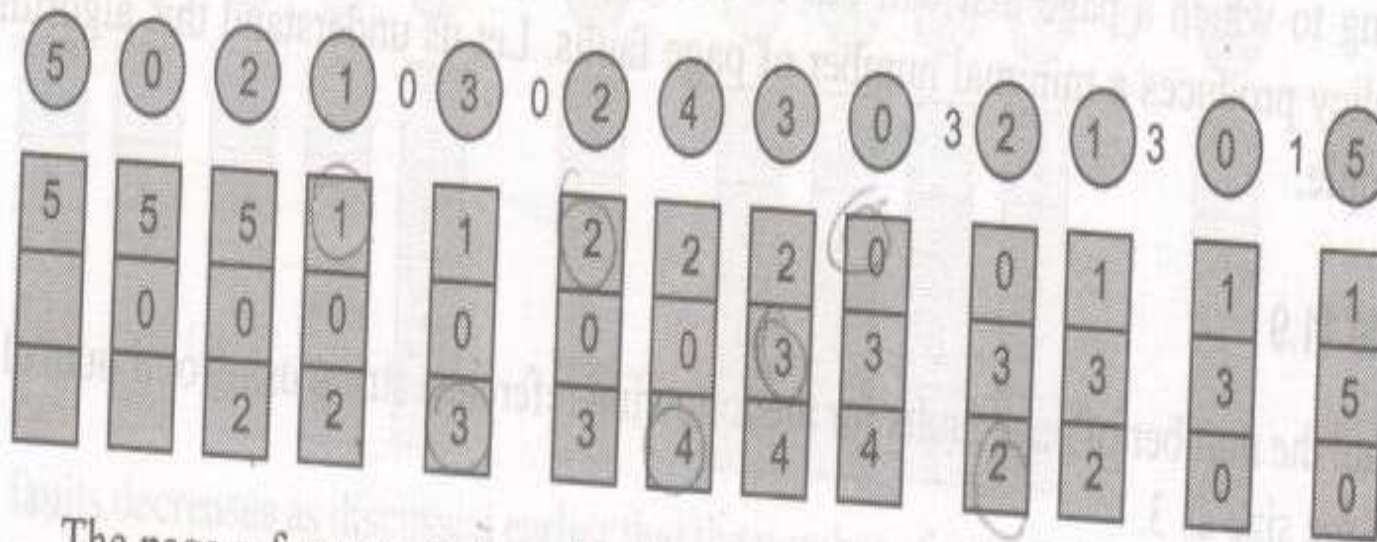
Initially, all the three frames are empty. Page number 5 is first referenced, and it is a page fault.

UNIT – 4 LRU Page Replacement Algorithm

- In LRU, a page that has not been referenced for a long time in the past may not be referenced for a long time in the future either.
- LRU page – replacement algorithm replaces a page that has not been used for the longest period of time in the past.

UNIT – 4 LRU Page Replacement Algorithm

Solution



The page references 5, 0, and 2 will result in a hit.

UNIT – 4 LRU Page Replacement Algorithm

- **Stack Implementation**

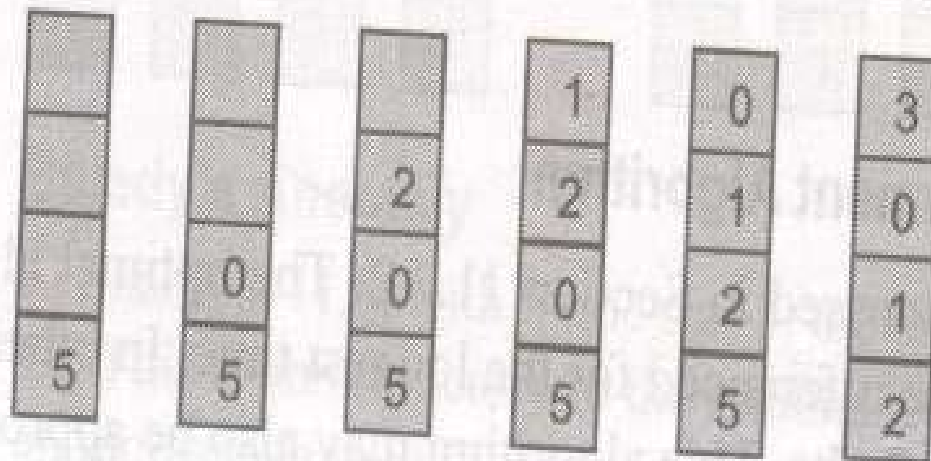
- To implement LRU, a linked list of all the pages in the memory can be maintained.
- The list can be structured as a stack such that **whenever a page is referenced, it is placed at the top of the stack.**
- This way, the **most recently used page will always be at the top** and consequently, the **least recently used page will be at the bottom** of the stack.
- This implementation requires removing one entry from the middle and placing it at the top of the stack.
- The stack needs to be updated with every memory reference, which incurs a cost.

UNIT – 4 LRU Page Replacement Algorithm

A page reference string is given by

5 0 2 1 0 3 0 2 4 3 0 3 2 1 3 0 1 5

The stack implementation that records the most recent referenced page reference at the bottom of the stack. The following figure shows the first reference of Page number 3 in the reference string.



Counter Implementation

UNIT – 4 Thrashing

- In the VM, if there is **no free frame in the memory** and all the **pages currently in the memory are referenced frequently**, then **an active page will be replaced** to bring in the desired pages.
- When an **active page is replaced**, it will be needed **again, right away** resulting in a page fault.
- After some time, the processes will try to replace the active pages of another process to get a free frame in the memory causing a large number of page fault.
- This is known as **high paging activity**, and high paging activity is known as **thrashing**.



UNIT 4 Completed