

* INTRO To OS&ESD:

Unit 1 : General purpose OS :

Unit 2 : Real time OS;

Unit 3 : Embedded System Design.

UNIT 1: General purpose OS ; means OS used for laptops , like Macos , windows etc.

Chapter 1 : Introduction:

→ What is an Operating System?

A special piece of software that Abstracts and Arbitrates the use of computer system is called as Operating System.

Abstract means makes computer resource / hardware look simpler for the user / user applicatn.

Arbitrate means makes computer resources manageable.

→ Operating System:

- * Directs the operational Resources - control use of CPU, memory & peripherals.
- * Enforces working policies - fair access of resources limits to resource usage .

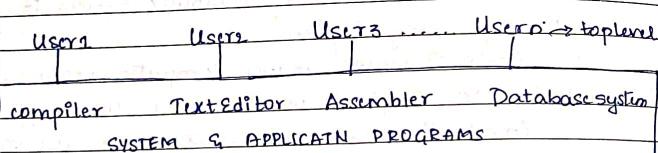
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- * Mitigates the complexity of difficult tasks.
 - * Abstracts hardware details.

② Operating system.....

"A program that acts as an intermediary between a user of a computer & the computer hardware"

* Operating System goals:

- Executes user programs and make solving user problems easier.
- Make the computer system convenient to use.
- Use the computer hardware in an efficient manner.



→ User perspective OS dev?;

Users want convenience, ease of use & good performance, don't care about resource utilization

→ System perspective OS :

- * OS is a resource allocator
- manages all resources
- Decides b/w conflicting requests for efficient & fair resource use

* OS is a control program

→ controls execution of programs to prevent errors & improper use of the computer.

* The one program running @ all times on the computer is the "Kernel".

↳ OS is the mediator between Sys & Application programs (Compiler, Text Editor, etc) and computer hardware.

Abstraction and Arbitration:

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→ (Resource Management)

* Why OS are needed?

- OS is required for
 - Hardware Abstraction: Turns hardware into something that applicatns can use
 - Resource Management: Manage system's resources

OS ABSTRACTION:

```
#include <stdio.h>
```

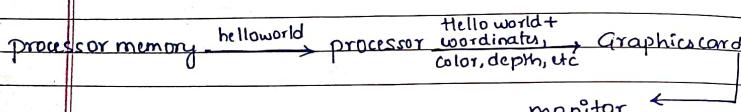
```
int main()
```

```
char str[7] = "Hello world\n";
```

```
printf("%s", str);
```

```
y
```

→ Str Hello world should be printed on monitor



→ String basically we write into memory (RAM). From RAM it has to be displayed onto monitor.

→ Before it gets displayed on monitor it has to undergo some stages

→ First string has to be copied into processor. This happens by executing some instructions.

→ From processor it has to be copied into video buffer of graphics card. While copying along with string some attributes related to string also copied like color, xy coordinates, depth etc.

→ Graphics card in turn reads from video buffer and displayed onto the monitor.

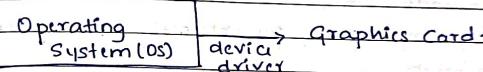
App

printf ("%s", str);

sys call

(write to stdout)

Monitor



→ OS provides easy way to program apps

→ " " Reusable functionality (Ex: printf written once we can use n times)

→ OS provides portability (If hardware is changed without any change we can use same program).

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(Arbitration)

OS AS A RESOURCE MANAGER:

- OS must manage CPU, memory, network, disk etc
- Resource management → allows multiple apps to share resource
 - protects apps from each other
 - Improves performance by efficient utilization of resources.

OS Types:

Application Specific

- Embedded OS
 - e.g. Contiki OS, for extremely memory constraint environments

Mobile OS

- Android, iOS, Ubuntu Touch, Windows Touch

RTOS

- QNX, VxWorks, RTLinux

For Servers

- Redhat, Ubuntu, Windows Server

Desktops

- Mac OS, Windows, Ubuntu

OS

Services and Structures:

SERVICES:

User and other system programs
 GUI | batch | command line
 user interface

System calls						
program execn	I/O operatn	file systems	communi catn	resource allocn	memory mgmt	protecr & security

error detectn

protect & security

services

operating system
hardware

→ 3 types of user interfaces

① GUI : Graphical User Interface ; usually find in windows Environment

② batch Interface: there a file will written

③ Command line interface : usually find in Linux environment

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→ Services provided by OS can be
in view of users &
in view of system point of View
Services

User point of view (5)
→ program executn
→ allow to create, run, load
terminate the program
→ File manipulatn, P10
I/O operations,
→ communicatn
→ Resource allocatn
→ accounting
→ Error detectn

* Services are implemented using system calls

* System calls: are programming interface to the services provided by the OS.

System calls are accessed by users by using API (Application programming interfaces).

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Ex: a. Win32 API for Windows
b. POSIX API for POSIX-based systems (all versions of UNIX, Linux, & macOS X)
c. Java API for Java Virtual Machine (JVM)

* System call sequence to copy the contents of one file to another file.

source file → destination file

Example sys call sequence

Acquire input file name

Write prompt to screen

Accept ilp

Acquire olp file name

Write prompt to screen

Accept ilp

Open the ilp file

If file doesn't exist, abort

Create output file

If file exist, abort

lop

Read from ilp file

Write to olp

Until read fail

Close olp file

Write completion message to screen

Terminate normally

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* Operating Modes of System / Computer System

2 modes

1. User Mode

2. Kernel Mode

1 User Mode: User related applications are run in user mode.

It is non-privileged mode.

2 Kernel mode: OS related applications are executed.

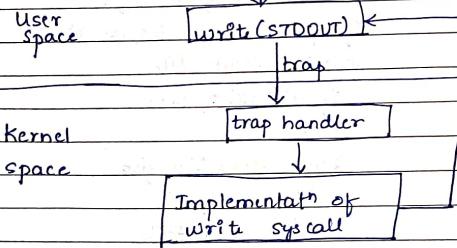
It has more privileges than user mode.

Whenever system calls have to be executed, system has to go for kernel mode.

∴ Always there will be continuous switching from user mode to kernel mode.

printf("%s", str);

↓ libc invocation



* System Call Vs Procedure Call

System Call

→ Uses a trap instruction

→ System shifts from user

space to kernel space

→ TRAP always jumps to

a fixed address

Procedure Call

→ Uses a CALL instruction

→ Stays in user space (or

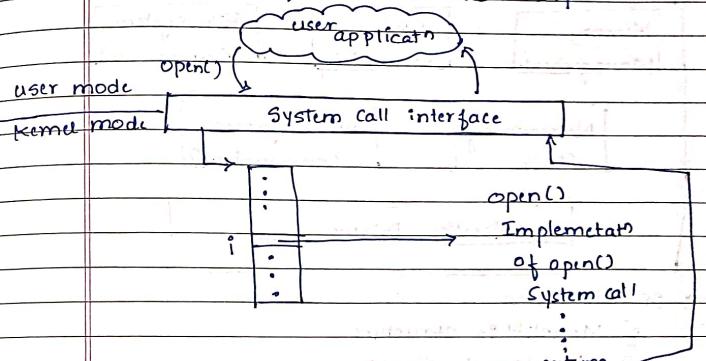
kernel space), no shift

→ Relocatable address

* System Call Interface:

It is intermediate between the User Space Apps and System Calls.

API - System call - OS Relationship



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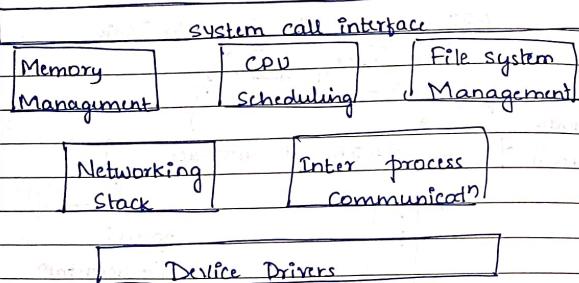
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* Types of System calls

- Process control
- File management
- Device management
- Information Maintenance
- Communication
- Protection

* OS STRUCTURES:

What goes into an OS?

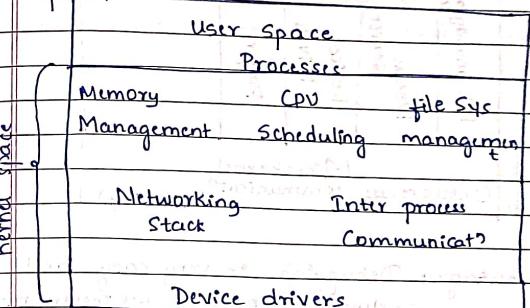


→ OS Structures:

- 1] Monolithic structure
- 2] Microkernel Structure.

Monolithic Structure: A single structure. All kernel, user space all are placed in same structure.

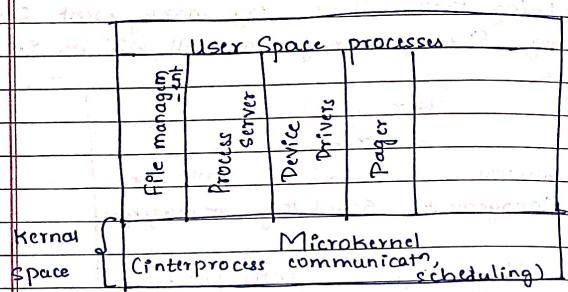
In user space we have only user space process remaining that all memory management, CPU scheduling, file sys management all will be in kernel space.



Advantage: We don't need to have very well defined interfaces to deal with diff components of OS

But debugging may be the issue

Microkernel structure: In this core kernel related things are in the kernel space all the other modules will be in userspace.



Advantages: Debugging is very easy and during run time whichever module are recorded they can be loaded.

Microkernel Pros

- highly modular
- interactions bt components strictly through well defined interfaces (no backdoors).
- Kernel has basic inter process communication & scheduling. Everything else in user space.

* Program Optimization:

→ Constraints: Time, memory, power

COMPILEATION:

W.r.t embedded system
→ compilation - translation + optimization
of high level language to Assembly level language

Compilation flow:

high level code
(HLL)

↓
Parsing symbol table

A table is generated where variable, memory is being mapped

Machine-independent Optimizations

→ General optimization technique.

Machine-dependent Optimizations

→ Machine architecture specific optimization technique

↓
Assembly

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* W of the following correspond to architecture specific optimization technique?

Register reuse ✓

Instructn selectn ✓

Instructn sequencing ✓

Expression Simplificatn X

OPTIMIZATION TECHNIQUES:

① * Arm specificatn optimizatn technique : using cond codes

② * Expression Simplificatn optimizatn technique

→ w.r.t constant folding :

for ($i=0, i<8f1; i++$)

lead to an constant

w should not be in for loop

→ Algebraic expression:

$$a \times b + a \times c$$

We can reduce this by taking a as common

$$a(b+c)$$

→ Strength redctn

In $a * n$: we should not use multiplcatn operatn as it consumes more tymo so use $a \times 2$ ^{reduce} to $a \ll 1$

→ Deadcode Executn.

Deadcode means a part of code is never executed but will be a part of your code

Ex: #define DEBUG 0

if (DEBUG) dbg (ps); → This kind will never execute. We should minimize these deadcode.

③ Procedure inlining: Instead of writing a func write the statement as it is.

This eliminates procedure linkage overhead

Procedures

→ - save memory

Inline-procedure

• Save time

Correct Statements w.r.t code Optimizatn

* Using inline functions compared to functions saves time

* Using functions compared to inline functions saves memory.

* Dead code elimination saves memory.

* Moving constants out of loop saves time

CHAPTER 2

2. PROCESS MANAGEMENT

BASICS OF PROCESS:

PROCESS : Program in executing is called as process
 → executing instance of the program
 Process is also called as task, jobs.

We have disk, CPU and main memory

→ The program/applications will be stored in the disk/secondary memory. To convert them into process they have to be launched to main memory (RAM).

So when program will be executed they will be part of main memory

so "process" are the executing instances of the application/program

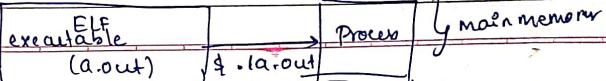
There may be multiple instances of the same program

Ex:

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
    char str[] = "Hello world\n";
    printf ("%s", str);
}
```

both are
of disk

↓
gcc hello.c



(4) Loop unrolling:

for($i=0$; $i<4$; $i++$)

$$a[i] = b[i] * c[i];$$

here for loop has to undergo 4 times
 increment also should happen. It consumes
 tym so we unroll the loop & write

$$a[0] = b[0] * c[0];$$

$$a[1] = b[1] * c[1];$$

$$a[2] = b[2] * c[2];$$

$$a[3] = b[3] * c[3];$$

we can save tym

But sometimes we don't prefer full unrolling

Ex: If we want to try unrolling only 2tym

for($i=0$; $i<2$; $i++$)

$$a[i*2] = b[i*2] + c[i*2];$$

$$a[i*2+1] = b[i*2+1] + c[i*2+1];$$

} ↓

Saves no of iterations & tym but
 costs memory.

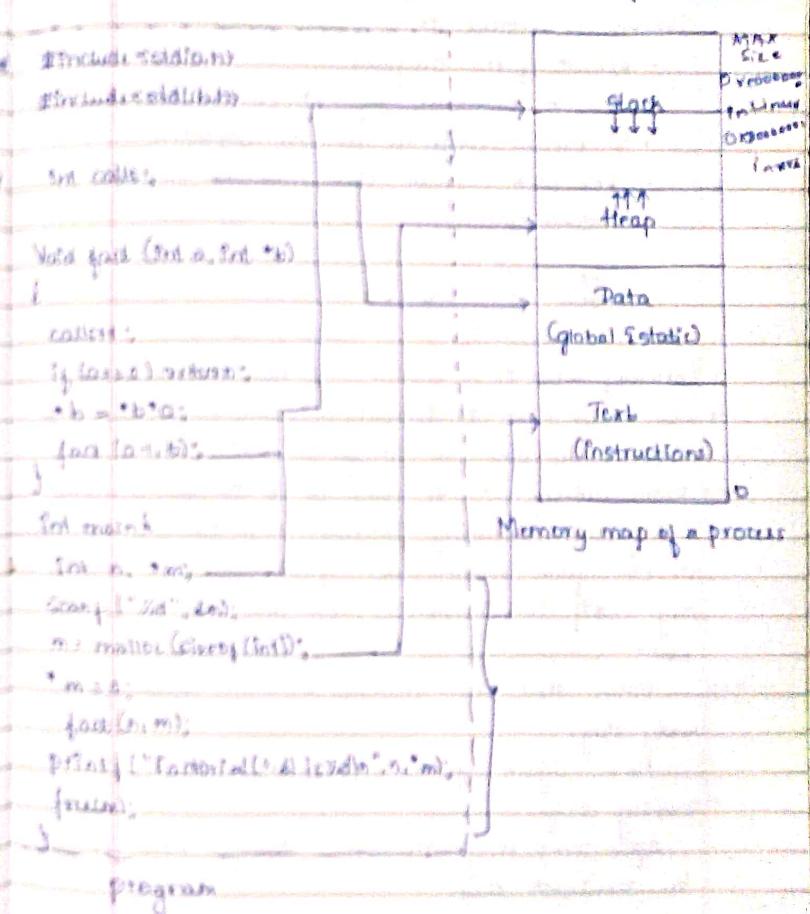
(5) Loop fusion and distribution:

means combining of two loops into 1:
 distributing the loop.

In this 10

- > program is compiled using gcc command. Upon compilation it generates two executable file. 1st is binary executable & 2nd is object code or .o file.
- > Both files are stored in secondary memory.
- > The address space used to run the program is divided into main memory and external memory.
- > When we run a process it will have more disk space than main and kernel space.
- > In user space there are
 - > Stack
 - > Data
 - > Text
 - > Shared
 - > Global
 - > Heap
- > Stack & Shared are in the kernel space.
- > Data, Text, Global, and Heap are in the user space of process.
- > Stack contains registers, list of open files, related processes, etc.

Process Memory Map In User Space



Process is related to

- Execution of the program
- has to be part of RAM (main memory)
- To execute process we use commands
- For each program there may be multiple instances (processes)

STAGES OF PROCESS

- Initially when it is created → new process stage
- new process when it is ready to execute → ready stage
- From ready stage it can go to "run" stage
- From running "it" may go to "it" go to ready stage upon occurring interrupt (high priority interrupt) or else from running stage if it waits for any I/O device or event

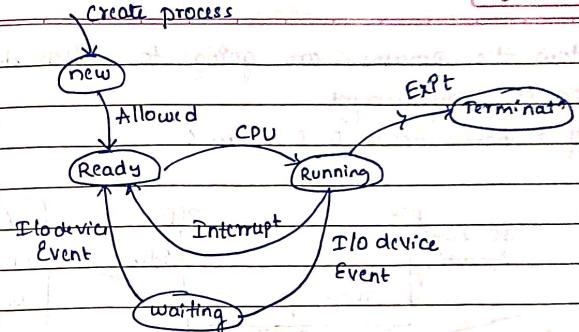
When that event/I/O device occurs it again goes to ready stage.

Now again getting access to CPU it goes to running stage.

After completing all events through exit it goes to termination stage.

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PROCESS CONTROL BLOCK (TASK CONTROL BLOCK) (PCB)

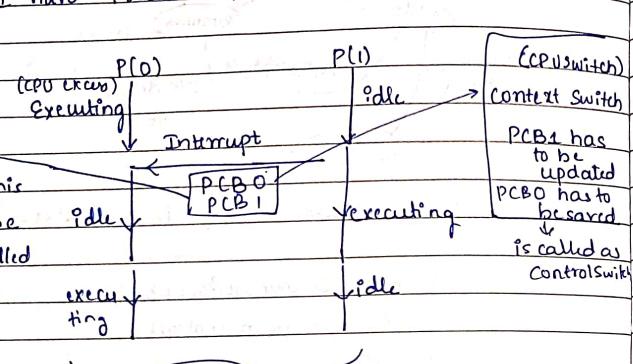
Process ID (number of each block)
PC (program control)
State
Memory list
I/O
Accounts

All the accepts related to process will be part of Process control block.

→ OS is going to represent the process in terms of PCB

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- * How the processes are going to switch depending on CPU requirement.
- If I have Process 0 & Process 1



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PROCESS SCHEDULERS:

process Scheduling Queues:

- ① Job queue: Initially when the processes are created they are placed in job queue.

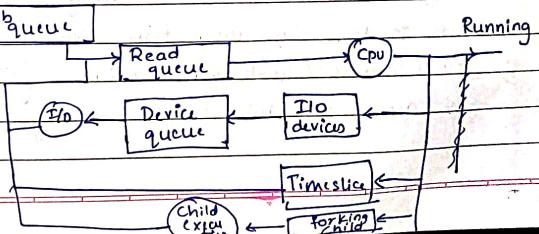
In job queue j processes will not be ready for executn.

- ② Ready queue: When processes are ready for executn & they are in need of CPU they are placed in Ready queue.

- ③ Device queue: Processes which r ready for executn & if they are in need of I/O devices, such processes are placed in device queue.

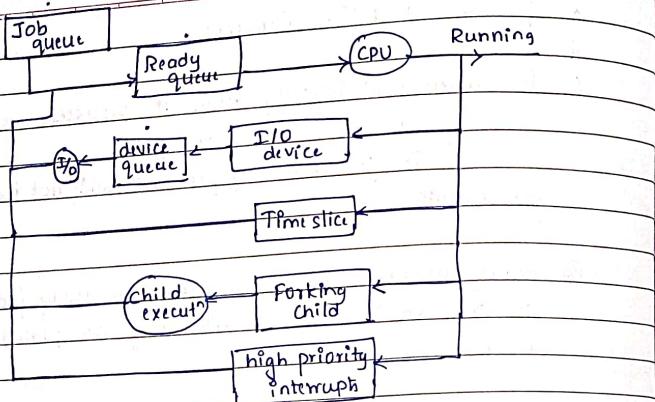
processes are going to switch between these kinds of queues.

representation of process Scheduling



* How are iOS & Android similar?
* How are they different?

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Forking child means a sub process in the same process

SCHEDULERS:

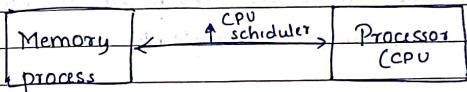
- 3 types of schedulers that a process is going to deal with are:
- i) Long term scheduler: The process w is in Job queue has to be sent to ready queue → This work is done by long term schedulers.
- ii) CPU Scheduler/Short term Scheduler: going to give the access of CPU to the ready queue process

When some processes are not required, they are ready queue such processes can be sent back to job queue by medium term Scheduler

3 Medium term Scheduler: Swap process between ready queue and job queue. Jobqueue ↔ Ready queue

* Job queue is imp in deciding "degree of multiprogramming". because job queue is going to place process into ready queue

-:- CPU / Short term scheduling :-

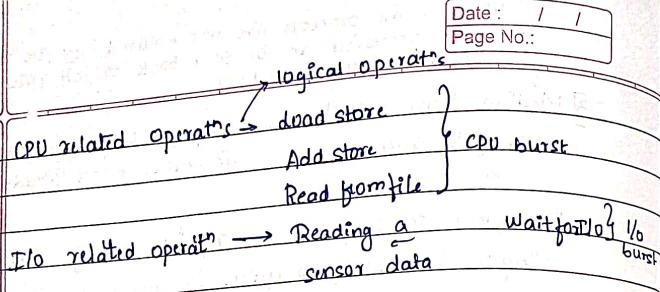


→ CPU scheduling is basis for multiprogrammed OS.

process Executn cycle:

- CPU burst: when process is doing CPU related operations spent is called CPU burst.
- I/O burst (wait): whenever process is doing I/O related operations spent is called I/O burst.

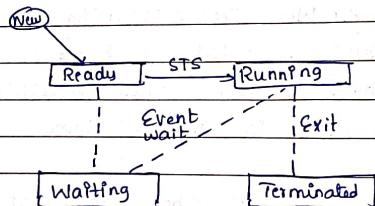
A process can do either I/O related operations or CPU related operations.



* Types of Processes :-

- CPU bound processes : This process will have long duration CPU burst compared to I/O burst.
Ex: Simulation, compilation.
- I/O bound processes : This process will have long duration I/O burst compared to CPU burst.
Ex: Data base applicatn.

o CPU Scheduler (STS) (short term scheduler).



* Scheduling types :

1. Running to wait state
2. Running to ready "
3. Wait to ready state
4. Exit

1 and 4 scheduling condns are Non preemptive or cooperative.

- 2, 3 scheduling condns are preemptive scheduling
- In preemptive Scheduling : the resource will be deallocated. → Ex: Windows 95, Mac OS
- In nonpreemptive scheduling : Resource will not be deallocated
↳ Ex: Windows 3

* DISPATCHER :

- ↳ A module that handing CPU to the process
- ↳ Dispatcher module gives control of CPU to process
- func's of dispatcher are:
 - i] context switch : saving the ^{current} previous process (P_{LB}) & updating new process (P_{CB})
 - ii] switch to user mode
 - iii] jump to location to start the executn for current process

Dispatch latency : Time interval between exiting one process from running to ready state & making process w/ in ready state to start its executn this is called dispatch latency

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- This dispatch latency has to be as minimum as possible.
- The func's performed by dispatcher should be very fast.

* SCHEDULING CRITERIA:

- Why Scheduling criteria?
- As we know we have many scheduling types (Algorithm). These Algorithms performance is different for different processes so in order to understand how these Algorithms performance, we need to study scheduling criteria

→ Scheduling criteria:

- ① CPU Utilization: OS has to ensure that CPU is allocated to any of process during interval of execution. CPU should not be idle.
- ② Throughput: OS will be executing diff processes. ↳ no. of process completed per unit time.
- ③ Turnaround Time: Total time spent by the processor in the ready state, in running state or execute or waiting for a I/O.

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- ④ Waiting Time: Whenever process requests for I/O device. It enters into waiting time state. The time spent in waiting state is called waiting time.
- ⑤ Response time: time interval bt the request sent by the process and the first response of OS.

→ Optimized Criteria:

- ① CPU utilization should be maximum
 - ② Throughput should be maximum
 - ③ Turnaround time should be minimum
 - ④ Waiting time should be minimum
 - ⑤ Response time should be minimum
- } for better performance of scheduling algorithms.

BASIC DEFN:

- ① Arrival time (AT): The time interval @ w process enters ready queue.
- ② Burst time / Executn time (BT): Time spent by process in executing CPU related operat's
- ③ Turnaround time (TAT):
$$TAT = BT + Wait time$$
- ④ Completion time(CT) time interval @ w process completes the task and exits the system

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⑤ Wait time (WT) = time interval process waiting in ready queue or for I/O
 $WT = TAT - BT$

⑥ Response time (RT) = time interval bt request sent by process and first response of the os.
 $RT = \text{Time @ w process gets CPU} - \text{Arrival time}$

SCHEDULING ALGORITHMS - ① FCFS:

① FCFS : First come First serve

→ This is non preemptive scheduling algorithm.
 → follows FIFO queue.

Exercise 1

processes	AT	BT
P ₁	0	5
P ₂	4	3
P ₃	3	2

AWT : Avg wait time : We have to find AWT to know the performance.

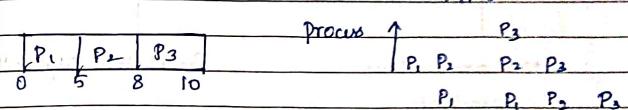
Soln: We have to plot a gantt chart
 gantt chart : time vs Process

Gantt chart will help in determining execution time & wait time

At t=0, P₁ allocates with resource & at t=5 it completes execution (task)

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FIFO



At 5 P₁ completes and P₂ will be allocated and till 8 it completes the task.

At 8 P₃ allocates and completes task @ 10.
 $WT - P_1 = 0-0 = 0 = \text{time @ w the resource is allocated} - \text{Arrival time} = WT$
 $P_2 = 5-1 = 4$
 $P_3 = 8-3 = 5$

$$\text{Avg Wait time AWT} = \frac{\text{Wait}(P_1+P_2+P_3)}{3} = \frac{0+4+5}{3} = 3\frac{1}{3}$$

→ Advantages and disadvantages of FCFS:

Advantages : Easy to understand & easy to implement
 No extra hardware required to implement this algorithm.

Disadvantages : * Avg wait time is normally high compared to others algorithms.

* When the diff process (CPU bound & I/O bound processes), it lead to convoy effect.

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② Scheduling Algorithm : Shortest Job first Scheduling → SJF Algorithm

Non preemptive
Algorithm

Non preemptive: If all processes arrive @ same time interval then SJF Non preemptive algorithm is applied.

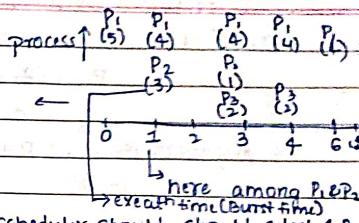
Preemptive: If the processes arrive @ different intervals of time then SJF Preemptive algorithm is applied.

→ also called as Shortest Remaining time first Algorithm.

Preemptive Algorithm

P ₁	P ₂	P ₃	P ₁
0	1	3 4	6 10

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ASPI At time t=1, as P₃ burst time is less (3) than P₁ burst time (4) acc to preemptive algorithm P₃ is allowed to get access of CPU by preempting P₁. CPU is allocated to P₂, hence P₁ will stop its execution and will be waiting in ready queue and P₂ is allocated with CPU resource @ t=1.

P₂ will continue to execute till t=3

@ t=3, we have P₁, P₂, P₃, CPU scheduler has to select one process by employing preemptive algorithm so @ t=3, P₂ is selected and hence P₃ will continue to execute till 4 & stop @ 4.

@ t=4, as P₃ has less burst time, it will start execution till t=6,

@ t=6, we have only P₁ that will execute and complete @ t=10.

In this case, we have ignored context switch time

Preemptive version of SJF

process	AT	BT
P ₁	0	5
P ₂	1	3
P ₃	3	2

Here we need to calculate AW_T - Avg Wait time
soh: We have to start with gantt chart

↓
Time vs process.

→ time @ w resource is allocated - Arrival time

$$\text{Wait time: } P_1 = 0-0 + 6-1 = 5$$

$$P_2 = 7-1 = 0$$

$$P_3 = 4-3 = 1$$

$$\text{Avg wait time} = \frac{P_1 + P_2 + P_3}{3} = \frac{5+0+1}{3} = 2$$

$$\text{Avg wait time (preemptive SJF)} < \text{Avg wait time (FCFS)}$$

∴ preemptive SJF is much better

→ Advantages and disadvantages of preemptive SJF

- Advantages:
 - i] Less / Minimum AWAT compared to FCFS
 - ii] Non preemptive SJF is suitable for Batch processing OS.
 - iii] Easy to implement since we know execution time

Disadvantages : i] difficult to find remaining time of every process

↳ To overcome this we can use approximate time method.

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→ Here also we have preemptive & non preemptive
 ② Scheduling Algorithm: Priority based Scheduling Algorithm
 ↳ In this each and process will be assigned with priority number.

Based on priority, the CPU scheduler will select the process & assign resource.

priority no starts with 0 to 7/55 or 4095 (depends on system).

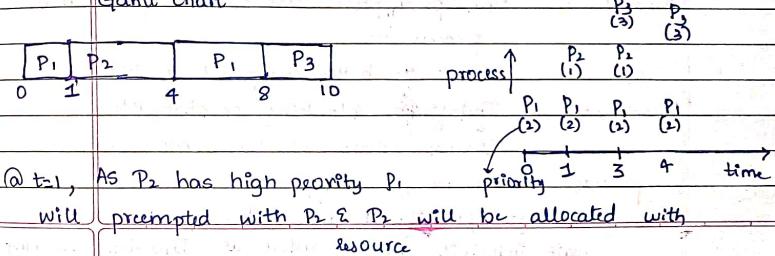
0 - highest priority } might be reversed
 7/55/4095 - lowest priority based on system.

Whenever 2 processes ^{rd same priority} arrive @ same interval will be executed in FCFS manner.

Exercise:	process	AT	BT	priority
	P ₁	0	5	2
	P ₂	1	3	1
	P ₃	3	2	3

↳ preemptive Scheduling

Gantt chart



At t=1, As P₂ has high priority P₁ will be preempted with P₂ & P₂ will be allocated with resource

- @ $t=3$, since P_2 has highest priority it will continue its execution till $t=4$
- @ $t=4$, P_2 is completed & it will exit.
Now P_1 & P_3 are there as P_1 has more priority it will start execution & completes @ $t=8$
- @ $t=8$, P_3 will be allocated & executed & completes @ $t=10$.

$$\text{Wait time: } P_1 = 0-0+4-1 = 3$$

$$P_2 = 1-1 = 0$$

$$P_3 = 8-3-5$$

$$\text{Avg wait time} = \frac{P_1 + P_2 + P_3}{3} = \frac{5+0+3}{3} = 2.67$$

$\Rightarrow AWT(\text{priority based}) < AWT(\text{FCFS})$

Advantages & disadvantages of priority based
Advantages: Non-preemptive are suitable for batch process OS

AWT is better compared to FCFS

Disadvantages: Indefinite blocking or starvation.
Occurs where we have more no. of processes & occurs @ diff time
high priority P makes low priority P to wait as Indefinite blocking

Indefinite blocking occurred in IBM 7904
 ↳ Soln for this problem is Aging
 Aging: is basically OS over a period of growth time
 It will try to ↑ the priority of low priority process

④ Scheduling Algorithms: Round Robin Scheduling

Round robin scheduling is designed for Time sharing system

Each and every process will be executed for a certain fixed period of time

Irrespective of arrival time, priority, burst time, every process will be executed for a certain period (interval) of time.

This fixed time is called as "Quantum time".

Once the execution completes, process will be preemptive and made to stay in ready queue (FIFO queue).

Example: Give Quantum time = 3, calculate AWT

process	AT	BT
P_1	0	5
P_2	1	3
P_3	3	2

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@ t=3, since P_2 has highest priority it will continue its executn till t=4

@ t=4, P_2 is completed & it will exit.

Now P_1 & P_3 are there as P_1 has more priority it will start executn & completes @ t=8

@ t=8, P_3 will be allocated & executed & completes @ 10.

$$\text{Wait time : } P_1 = 0-0+4-1 = 3$$

$$P_2 = 1-1 = 0$$

$$P_3 = 8-3 = 5$$

$$(\text{AWT}) \text{ Avg wait time} = \frac{P_1 + P_2 + P_3}{3} = \frac{5+0+3}{3} = \frac{8}{3} = 2.67$$

AWT(STP) < AWT(FCFS)

→ Advantages & disadvantages of priority based

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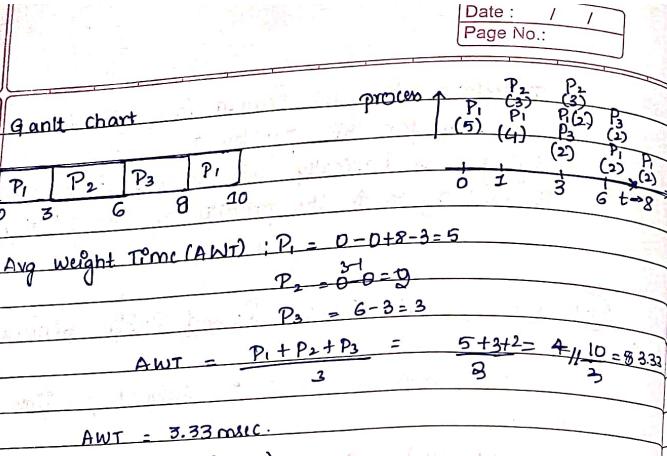
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AWT(RS) > AWT (FCFS)

- Convoy effect can be reduced by this algorithm
- We have to select Quatum time correctly.

* INTER PROCESS COMMUNICATION := (TPC)

Definition: It is nothing but the process of communication of one process with another process
 → How one process communicate with other process.

(USU) Advantages of TPC:

- Used in information sharing
- Used in modularity
- " " computational speed
- Used convenience.

→ Used in info sharing : It can share files, I/O devices like printer & scanner from one process to another.

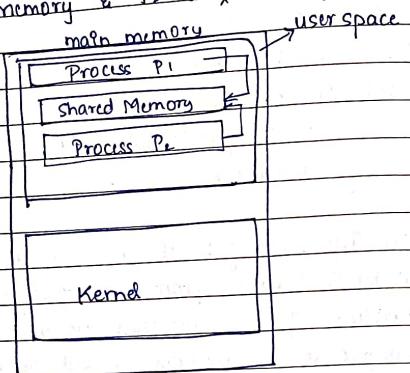
→ Modularity : If big processes are w can be divided ^(broken) into sub process as modules w will be able to perform processes is called modularity.

→ Computational speed : extension of modularity, used to increase computational speed.

→ Convenience to use.

Mechanisms used in TPC:

- 1) Shared Memory
- 2) Message Passing
- 3) Shared Memory: If all two processes say P₁ want to communicate with P₂, P₁ (writes) sends the data to shared memory & P₂ (reads) receives it from shared memory.

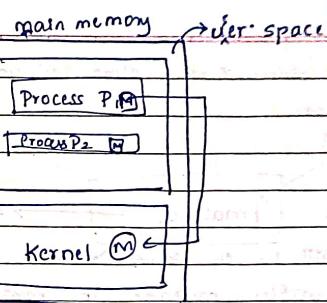


Message passing:

P₁ writes the data (message) to the kernel and P₂ reads from the kernel in this method.

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TYPES OF MESSAGE PASSING TECHNIQUE

→ Features of message passing

- 1) Naming
- 2) Synchronisation
- 3) Buffering

1) Naming: Whenever two process communicate they have to identify each other. This is done by naming. Naming can be done in 2 ways.

- 1) Direct communication
- 2) Indirect communication

1) Direct communication:

Send [P, message] P, Q are name of process.
Receive [Q, message]

2) Indirect communication: Here we use an intermediate called as mailbox



• Mailbox will be in kernel & kernel

P writes message in mailbox & receives it from mailbox

send(mailbox, message) } here we don't
receive(mailbox, message) use names

3) Synchronization can be done in 2 ways:

→ ① Blocked sender / blocked receiver (synchronous)

→ ② Unblocked sender / unblocked receiver (Asynchronous)

① In this if message is sent then it is blocked until it is received by another process. Suppose another process is busy it has to wait.

② This is Asynchronous: doesn't bother about the process sending & receiving.

4) Buffering: 3 types:

→ zero buffering (Capacity)

→ finite capacity

→ infinite capacity.

* Zero Capacity: As there is no buffering, sender has to wait until the message is received by receiver.

* Finite Capacity: have limited buffering

* Infinite " : no limitation for buffers.

CHAPTER 3

MEMORY MANAGEMENT

INTRODUCTION:

Computer sys: CPU + memory
How speed is the CPU and how large is the memory. These 2 factors decides what all the computer system can do.

Memory Criterion:

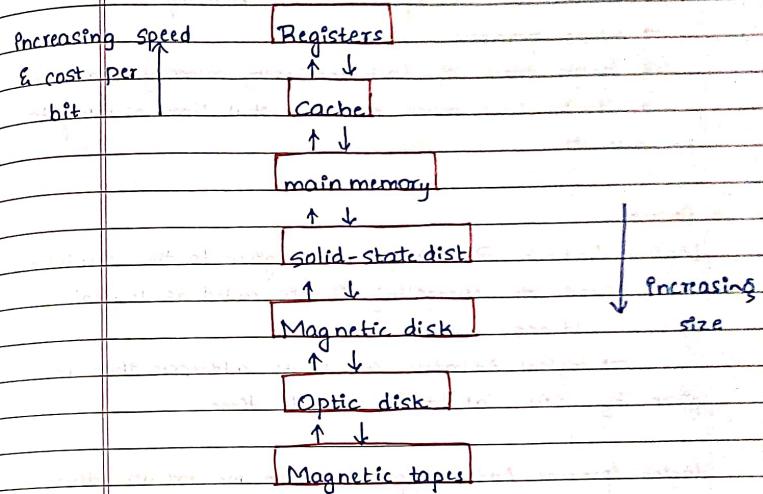
1. Size : we expect to be large
 2. Access time : time taken by the system to write or read the memory
It should be very less.
 3. per unit cost : we expect this should be very less
- Satisfying all 3 criterion in single is not possible.
As size ↑, access time ↑.

Locality of reference: If a program is in Secondary mem & if it has to be executed it has bring to main mem which is nearer to CPU & execute in quicker way is called locality of reference which help us to attain all the memory criterion.

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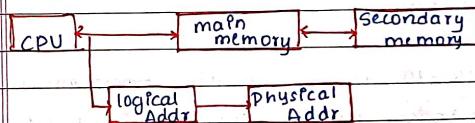
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Memory hierarchy



→ To transfer from the secondary memory to main memory

- * It has allocate memory
- * Address translatn



* What is Memory Management?

- Handles or manages primary memory.
- moves processes
- keeps track of each and every memory location
- Checks how much and @ what time memory to be allocated

* BASICS:

Logical Address: A address is given to the executable code on compiling it is called as logical address.

→ Logical Addresses are those addresses that are given by CPU at the compile time.

Logical / Process Address Space: When we execute there will be mapping of data of code in memory map and this ^{layout} is called process Address space and the address.

Physical address: Actual memory location in the main memory.

→ Memory Allocation: means allocating process memory from Secondary memory into main memory.

* Memory Allocation Techniques:

Types

- 1) Single Partition allocation
- 2) Multiple- partition allocation

* Single Partition Allocation:

here Memory is 2 types:

low memory and high memory.

In low memory we will have OS

In high " only 1 process will be there

OS
Process
Free Space

* Multiple Partition Allocation:

here we have

low memory have OS

high memory will have n no of processes

OS
Process1
Process2
Free Space

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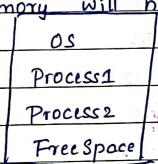


* Multiple Partition Allocation:

here we have

low memory have OS

high memory will have n no of processes



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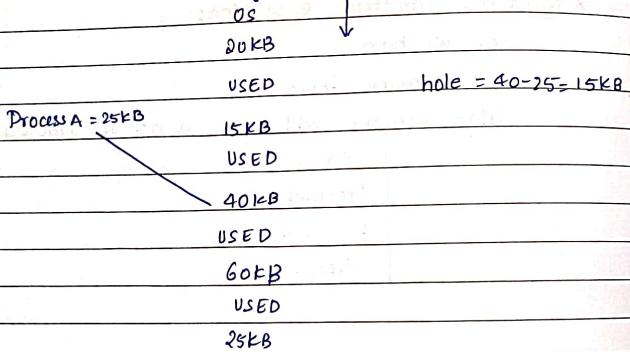
2 types:
Fixed Partition & Variable Partition.

- Fixed Partition : In this, memory is being partitioned into fixed slot. Each slot can be equal or unequal.
- Variable Partition : Whenever process requires it will be allocated. also called as dynamic partition.

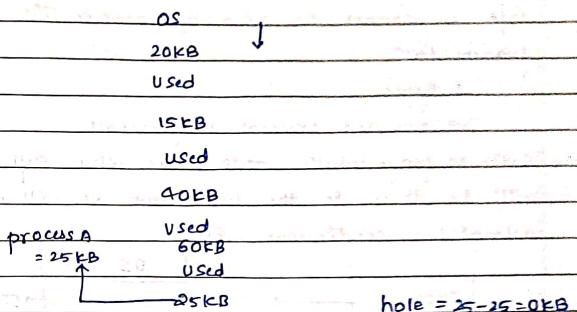
Memory Allocation Strategies:

(OS)

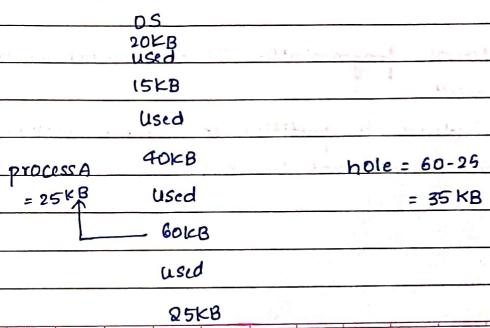
- ① First fit strategy: Here, Pt will start from first and then wherever sufficient space is there, Process will be allocated with memory.



- ② Best fit strategy: OS looks for whole list of holes and allocate memory w/ is best suitable.



- ③ Worst fit strategy: It is opposite to Best fit strategy.
(OS) It will look whole list of holes and allocate the largest memory size available



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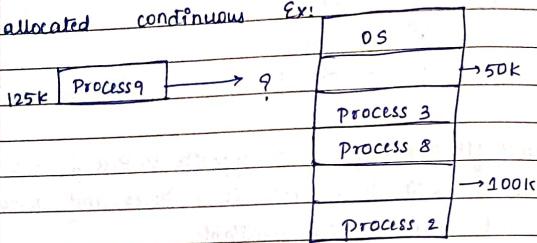
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Fragmentation: As the processes are loaded and reboot from the memory there will be very little memory space left which cannot be used by process. This is called as fragmentation.

2 types:

Internal and external fragmentation:

→ External fragmentation: This occurs when sufficient memory will be there in the table but it will not be allocated continuous. Ex:



→ Internal fragmentation: It occurs when we have fixed partitions.

Where in partition so memory will be left. Whole memory will not be used.

MEMORY MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUE :

I) SEGMENTATION:

→ Why Segmentation?

We have seen there is a fragmentation problem in previous sects

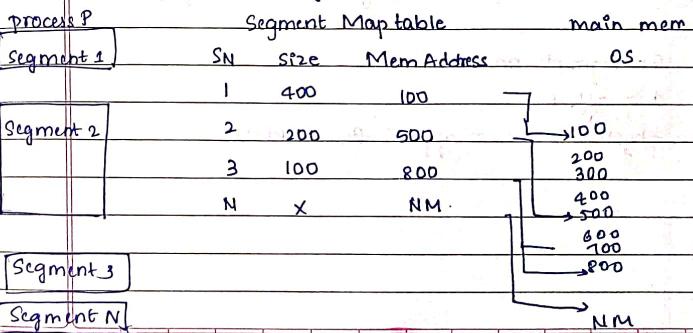
To overcome this we need a non contiguous techniques. These techniques are Segmentation and paging.

Segmentation is in w

→ Memory is divided into variable size parts

→ & each part is known as segment.

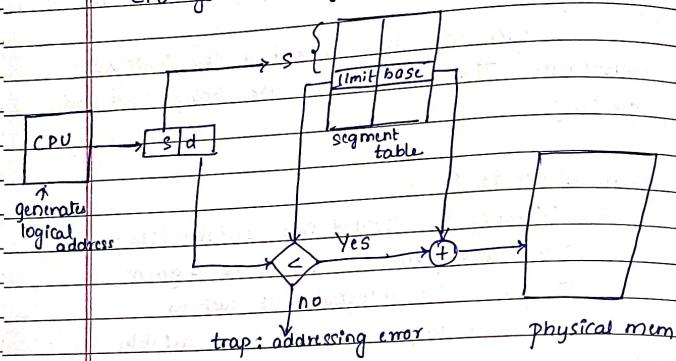
→ Segment is a logical unit such as main program, func., local variables



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Segment map table is used to convert logical address to physical address.

logical to physical address translatn
CPU generates logical address.



S = Segment no.

d = offset

physical address = offset + Base address

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2] PAGING:

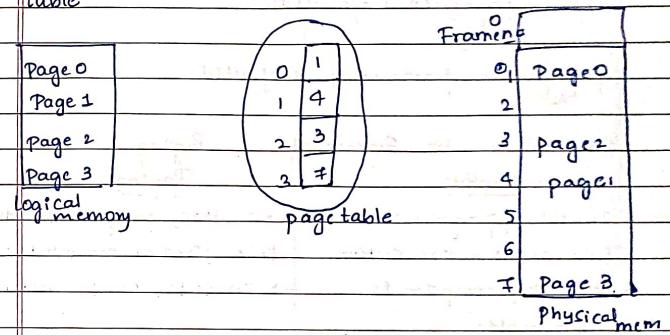
→ Why paging?

To overcome fragmentation problem.

paging is non contiguous memory allocation technique where physical memory is divided into frames of same size and logical memory is divided into equal sized pages.

Frame size = page size

To map frames & pages we have a page map table



Page translatn / logical physical to logical addr
translate

