

Unit I

Introduction

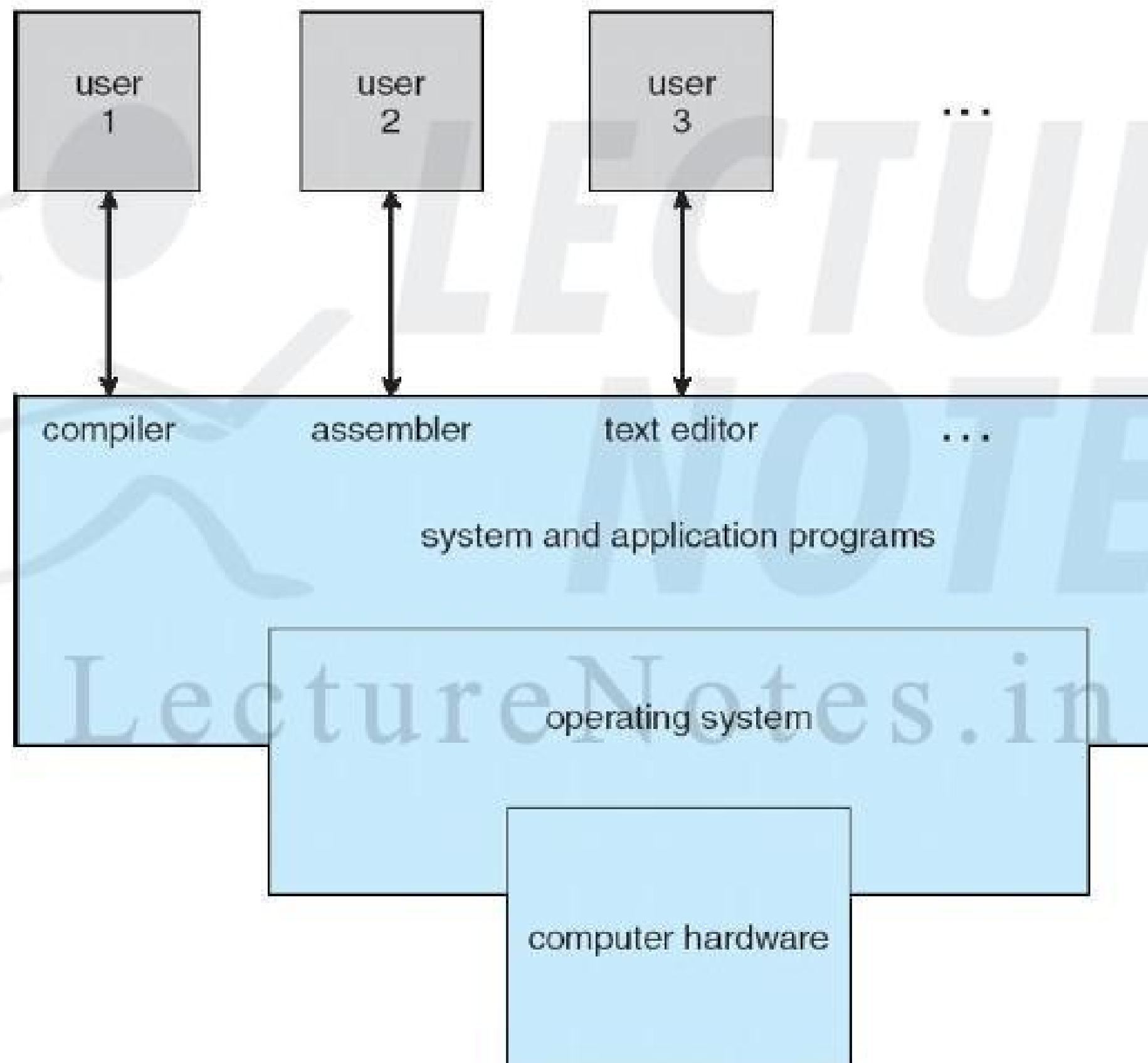
Memory Management

Virtual Memory

Introduction

- A computer system can be divided into four main components: the hardware, the operating system, application programs and the user.
- **Hardware**- the Central Processing Unit, memory and the I/O devices – provide the computing resources.
- **Application Programs**- word processor, spreadsheet, compiler, web browser – these programs use the resources to solve user problems.
- **Operating System**- Controls the hardware and coordinates its use among application programs and users.
- **Users**- People, machines, other computers.

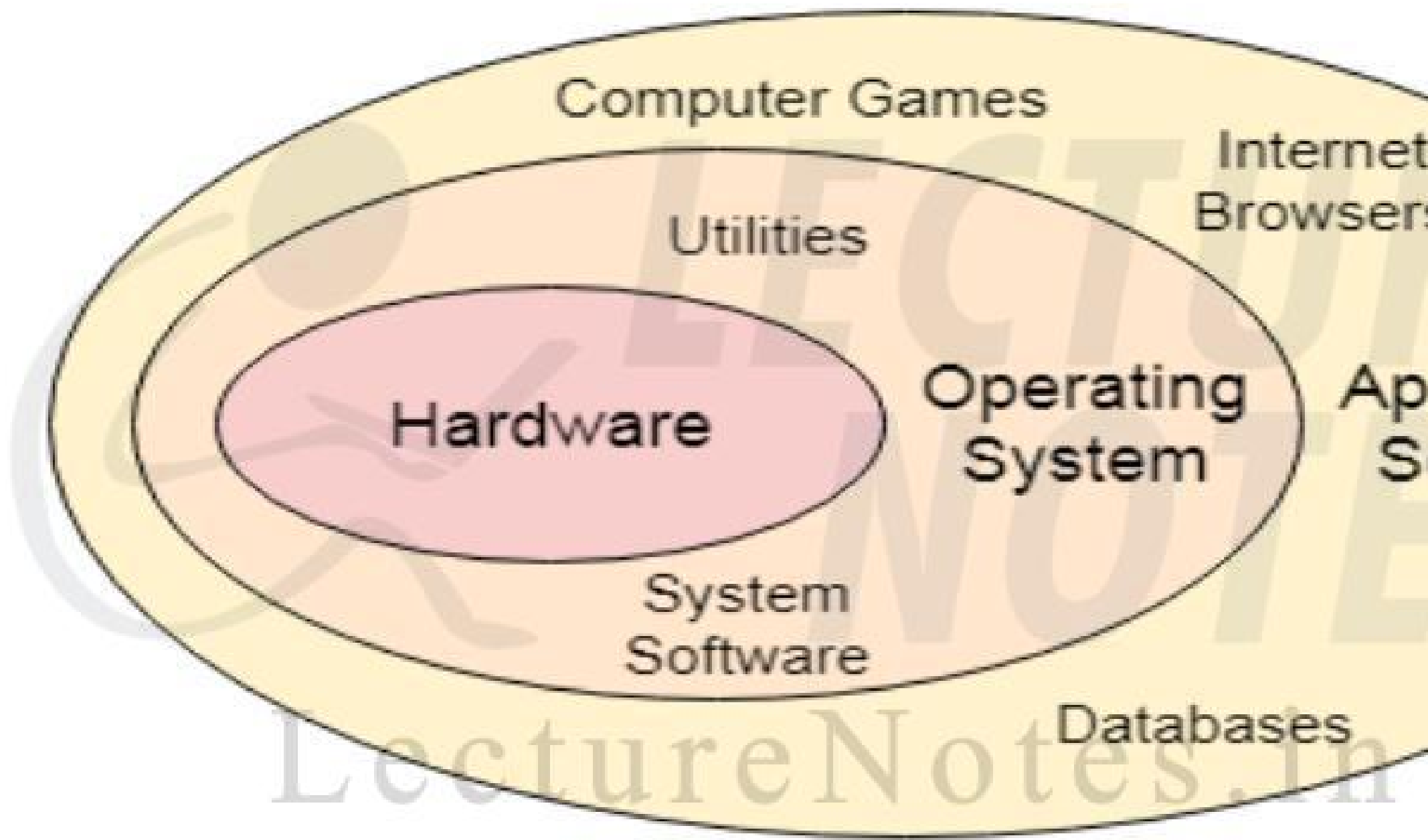
Four Components of Computer System



- Operating System has two views
 1. **User View** which focuses on
 1. **Ease of use / Convenience**
 2. **Maximize user's work**
 3. **Good Performance**
 2. **System View** which focuses on
 1. **Resource Allocator**
 2. **Control Program**

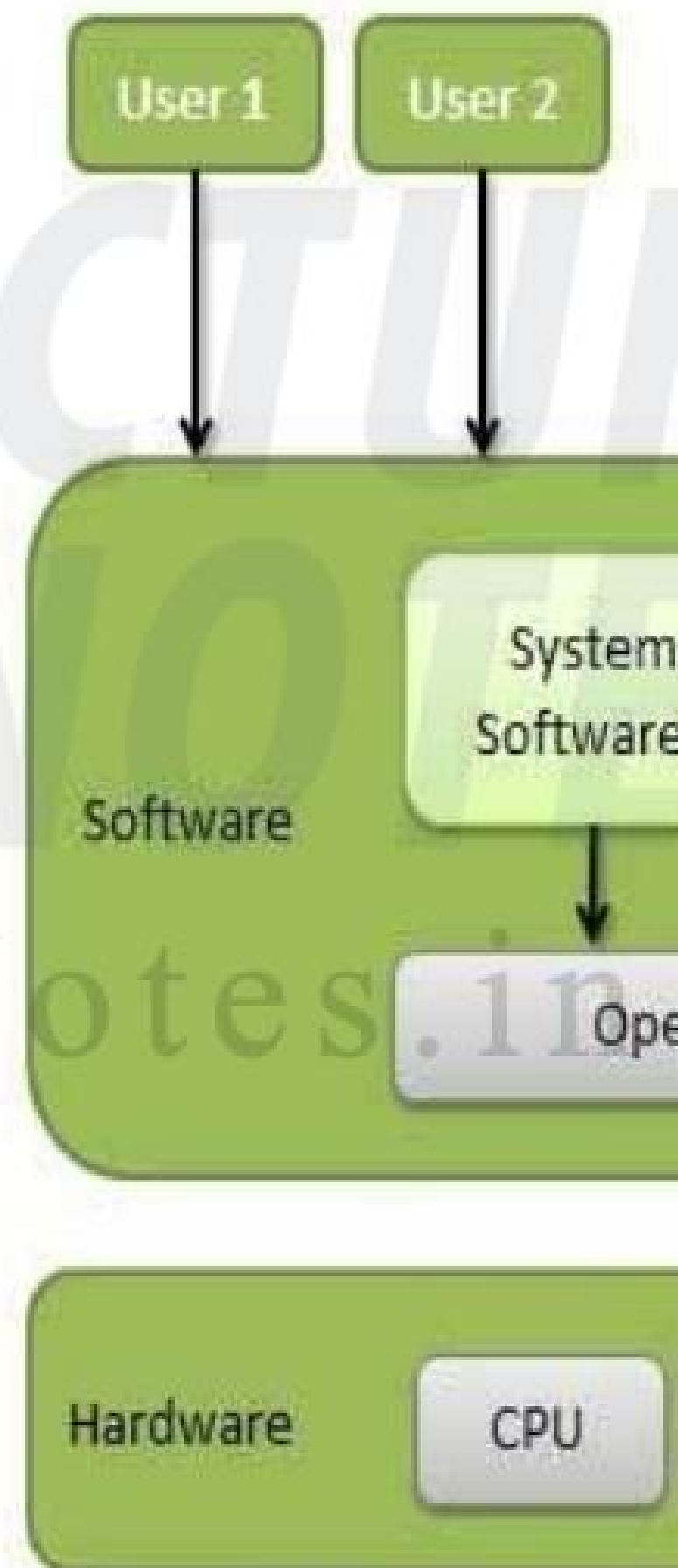
What is an Operating System

- " An operating system (OS) is a collection of software that manages computer hardware resources and provides common services for computer programs. "
- " An Operating System (OS) is an interface between a computer user and computer hardware. It is a software which performs basic tasks like file management, memory management, process management, input and output, and controlling peripheral devices. "
- Some popular Operating Systems include Windows, iOS, DOS, Android, etc.



What is an Operating System

- An operating system is a program that acts as an interface between the user and the computer hardware and controls the execution of all kinds of programs.



What is an Operating System

- OS is a **resource allocator**
 - Manages all resources
 - Decides between conflicting requests for efficient and fair resource use
- OS is a **control program**
 - Controls execution of programs, prevents errors and improper use of the computer

Loading the OS - Computer Up

- **Bootstrap Program** is loaded at power-up.
 - Typically stored in ROM or Hard disk, generally known as **firmware**.
 - Initializes all aspects of system.
 - Loads operating system kernel and starts its execution.

Functions of OS

- Following are some of important functions of operating System:
- Memory Management
- Processor Management
- Device Management
- File Management
- Security
- Control over system performance
- Job accounting
- Error detecting aids
- Coordination between other software

Memory Management

- Memory management refers to management of Main Memory or Main Memory. Main memory is a collection of words or bytes where each word or byte has a unique address.
- Main memory provides a fast storage that can be accessed directly by the CPU. For a program to be executed, it must be in the main memory. An Operating System performs the following activities for memory management:
 - a) Keeps tracks of primary memory, i.e., what is in use by whom, what part are not in use.
 - b) In multiprogramming, the OS decides which process gets memory when and how much.
 - c) Allocates the memory when a process requests it.
 - d) De-allocates the memory when a process finishes its execution or has been terminated.

Processor Management

- In multiprogramming environment, the OS decides which process gets the processor and for how much time. This function is called **process scheduling**. An OS does the following activities for processor management –
 - a) Keeps tracks of processor and starts the program responsible for this task as **traffic controller**.
 - b) Allocates the processor (CPU) to the process.
 - c) De-allocates processor when a process is no longer required.

Device Management

- An Operating System manages device communication via their respective drivers. It does the following activities for device management –
 - a) Keeps tracks of all devices. The process responsible for this task is known as the **I/O controller**.
 - b) Decides which process gets the device and when and for how much time.
 - c) Allocates the device in the efficient manner.
 - d) De-allocates devices.

File Management

- A file system is normally organized in directories for easy navigation and use. Directories may contain files and other directories.
- An Operating System does the following for file management –
 - a) Keeps track of information, location, etc. The collective facilities are often referred to as **file system**.
 - b) Decides who gets the resources.
 - c) Allocates the resources.
 - d) De-allocates the resources.

Other Activities

- Following are some of the important activities that an Operating System performs –
- **Security** – By means of password and similar techniques, it prevents unauthorized access to system data.
- **Control over system performance** – Regulates the time between request for a service and response from the system.
- **Job accounting** – Keeping track of time and resources used by various jobs and users.
- **Error detecting aids** – Production of dump of system messages, and other debugging and error detection facilities.
- **Coordination between other softwares** – Coordination and assignment of compilers, interpreters, assemblers and other software to the various computer systems.

Types of OS

- Operating systems are there from first computer generation and they are evolving with time.
 1. Simple Batch OS
 2. Multi-programmed Batch OS
 3. Time Sharing OS
 4. Personal Computer OS/ Desktop OS
 5. Parallel System/ Multiprocessor OS
 6. Distributed Systems
 7. Real Time System

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Mainframe System

- They were the first system many commercial and applications where bulk data was involved.
1. Batch systems
 2. Multi programmed Systems
 3. Time-Sharing Systems

Batch OS

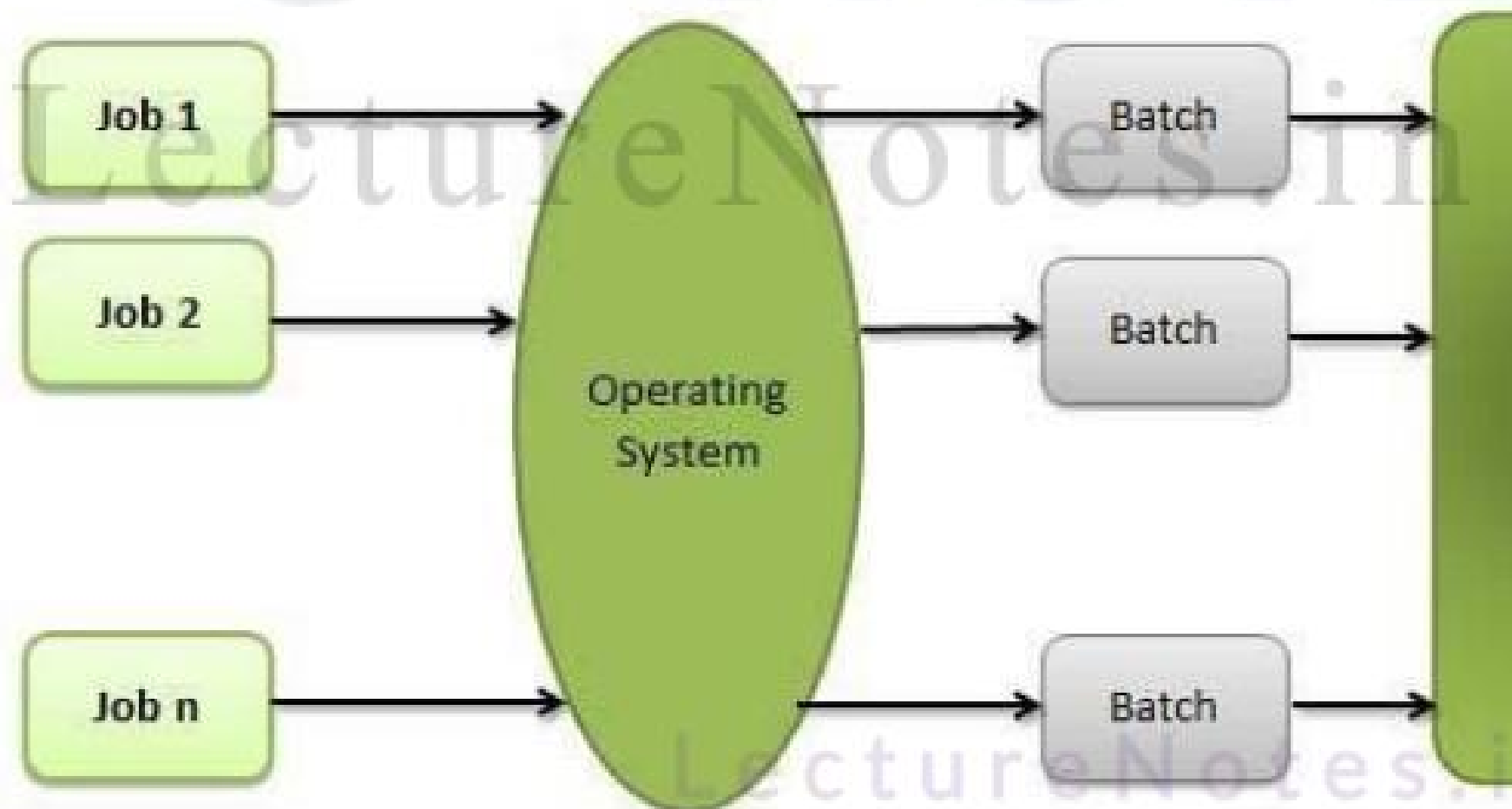
- The users of a batch operating system do not interact with the computer.
- Each user prepares his job (Program + Control Information) on an office machine like punch cards and submits it to the computer operator.
- To speed up processing, jobs with similar needs are batched together and processed as a group. For eg : Fortran Batch, Cobol Batch.

Batch OS

- The programmers leave their programs with the operator and the operator then sorts the programs with similar requirements
- The problems with Batch Systems are
 - a) Memory Limitation
 - b) CPU is often idle, because the speed of mechanical I/O devices is slower than the speed of the CPU
 - c) Difficult to provide the desired priority

Batch OS

- In this type of system, there is **no direct interaction and the computer.**
- The user has to submit a job (written on cards or tape) operator.
- Then computer operator places a batch of several jobs
- Jobs are batched together by type of languages and re



Batch OS

- Then a special program, the monitor, manages the execution of each program in the batch.
- The monitor is always in the memory and always in execution.
- Batch System can be **Simple Batch System** or **programmed Batch System**.

Advantages of Batch Systems

- In a batch, job executes one after another so that activities like loading compiler.
- During batch execution, there is no manual

Simple Batch System

- Early computers used to take one job at a time, no interactive input in the middle of the process and no interrupting either.
- The jobs were prepared commands for the computer to execute on its side and these jobs were written on cards, control cards, which the computer used to read through card readers.
- After processing the job, the computer would print out the data through line-printer machines or punch cards.

Simple Batch System

- So, the simple batch operating system is designed to speed up the process by grouping jobs which are similar in nature into one job and execute them as a single unit. It does not send back output of each job to the programmer.
- So simple batch systems lack the interaction between the programmer and the system while it's running or working on.

Multi-programmed Batch

- In multi-programmed batched operating system reads jobs from disk drive and a list of jobs are already being stored through readers.
- The operating system then pull and store as it can in the memory. Then from the memory operating system start working on a job.
- Now, whenever a job reaches a situation to be waiting for one or more tasks to be like use of any IO devices, the operating system pull another job from the memory and starts

Multi-programmed Batch

- Whenever this job also starts for example it need to use the same processor which is already in use by its previous job the operating systems pulls another job into the processor.
- This is how, a multi-programmed batch systems harness the power of the processor and memory.

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Differences:

Simple Batched Systems	Multi-programmed
In this system, processes are processed one after another.	In this system, multiple processes can be executed at the same time.
As one process gets processed at a time, its performance is low.	Processes are executed in parallel fashion, thus performance is high.
CPU remains in idle states for long times.	CPU does not need to be idle.
Example: CP/M, MS DOS, PC DOS etc.	Example: Windows

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Spooling

- **Simultaneous Peripheral Operation**
 - Performing multiple I/O parallelly.
- In spooling data is stored first onto disk. CPU interacts with disk digitally via Memory.
- I/O devices are relatively slow compared to CPU.
- Spooling is capable of overlapping I/O for one job with CPU operation of another job.

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Spooling

- **Advantages**

1. No Interaction of I/O with CPU
2. CPU utilization is more as it

- **Disadvantages**

1. In starting, spooling was uniprogramming.

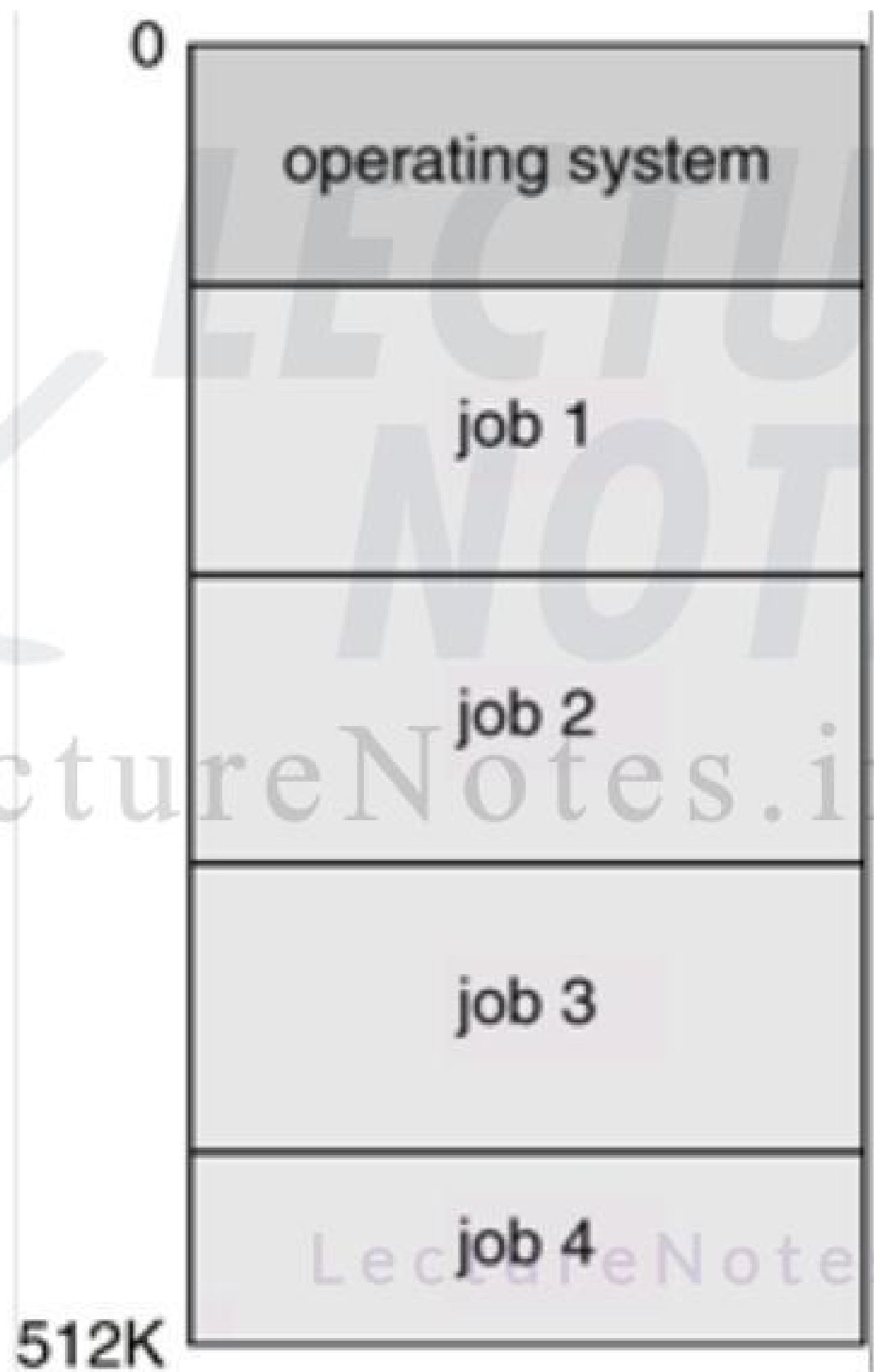
Multiprogramming OS

- The most important aspect of job scheduling is the ability to multiprogram.
- **A multiprogramming system is one in which more than one job resides in memory at any time and CPU is switched among them so that it always has one to execute.**
- Multiprogramming is an extension of batch processing where the CPU is kept active.

Multiprogramming OS

- The operating system keeps several jobs in memory simultaneously. The set of jobs currently in memory is a subset of jobs kept in job pool.
- The OS picks and begin to execute the jobs in the memory. When a job has to wait for I/O operation, memory is switched to another job. When a job finishes I/O operation and waits for CPU back. So, CPU always has jobs to execute, never sit idle.

Memory Layout for Multiprogramming System



Multi-programmed OS

- **Advantages**
- High and efficient CPU utilization
- User feels that many programs are running on the allotted CPU almost simultaneously
- **Disadvantages**
- CPU scheduling is required.
- To accommodate many jobs in memory, memory management is required.

Time Sharing OS

- Time-sharing is a technique which enables multiple users, located at various terminals, to use a particular computer system at the same time.
- Time-sharing or multitasking is a logical extension of multiprogramming. Processor's time which is shared among multiple users simultaneously is termed as time sharing.
- The main difference between Multiprogrammed Batch Systems and Time-Sharing Systems is that in Multiprogrammed batch systems, the objective is to maximize processor use, whereas in Time-Sharing Systems, the objective is to minimize response time.

Time Sharing OS

- Multiple jobs are executed by the CPU by switching them, but the switches occur so frequently.
- Thus, the user can receive an immediate response. For example, in a transaction processing, the processor executes each user program in a short burst or quantum of computation.
- That is, if n users are present, then each user receives $1/n$ quantum.
- When the user submits the command, the response is received in few seconds at most.

Time Sharing OS

- The operating system uses CPU scheduling and memory management to provide each user with a small portion of a time slice.
- Computer systems that were designed primarily as batch systems have been modified to time-sharing systems.
- Advantages of Timesharing operating systems are
 - Provides the advantage of quick response.
 - Avoids duplication of software.
 - Reduces CPU idle time.
- Disadvantages of Time-sharing operating systems are
 - Problem of reliability.
 - Question of security and integrity of user programs.
 - Problem of data communication.

Personal Computer System

- Earlier, CPUs and PCs lacked the features to protect an operating system from user errors. These operating systems therefore were neither **multiuser** nor **multitasking**.
- However, the goals of these operating systems changed with time; instead of maximizing peripheral utilization, the systems opted for user convenience and responsiveness.
- These systems are called **Desktop Systems** and include PCs running Microsoft Windows and the Apple Macintosh.

Personal Computer System

- Operating systems for these computers have evolved in several ways from the development of operating systems for **mainframes**.
- **Microcomputers** were immediately able to utilize the technology developed for larger operating systems.
- On the other hand, the hardware costs for microcomputers are sufficiently **low** that individuals have sole use of a computer, and CPU utilization is no longer a concern.
- Thus, some of the design decisions made in operating systems for mainframes may not be appropriate for personal systems.

Parallel Systems

- Parallel OS are used to interface multiple networked computers to complete a task in parallel.
- The architecture of the software is cloud based platform, which allows it to coordinate distributed loads between multiple nodes on a network.
- Parallel OS are able to use software of the different resources of the computer running in parallel, such as memory,

Parallel Systems

- It also allows a user to directly interact with the computers in the network.
- It works by dividing sets of calculations into smaller parts and distributing them across multiple machines on a network.
- Scientists, researchers and industries choose to use parallel OS because of its effectiveness. It costs far less money to run a parallel computer network than it would to develop or build a supercomputer for the same purpose.

Distributed Systems

- Distributed systems use multiple centers to serve multiple real-time applications users. Data processing jobs are distributed to processors accordingly.
- The processors communicate with one another through various communication lines (such as speed buses or telephone lines).
- These are referred to as **loosely coupled** distributed systems. Processors in a distributed system may vary in size and function. The processors are referred to as sites, nodes, and so on.

Distributed Systems

- **The advantages of distributed systems as follows –**
- With resource sharing facility, a user may be able to use the resources available at another.
- Speedup the exchange of data with other sites via electronic mail.
- If one site fails in a distributed system, the remaining sites can potentially continue to operate.
- Better service to the customers.
- Reduction of the load on the host computer.
- Reduction of delays in data processing.

Distributed Systems

- The motivation behind developing distributed operating systems is the availability of powerful and inexpensive microprocessors and advances in communication technology.
- These advancements in technology have made it easier to design and develop distributed systems comprising of multiple computers that are inter connected by communication networks. One of the major benefit of distributed systems is its low price/performance ratio.

Advantages Distributed Operating System

- As there are multiple systems involved, user at one site can utilize the resources of systems at other sites for resource sharing and task execution.
- Fast processing.
- Less load on the Host Machine.

Distributed Systems

- Following are the two types of distributed opera
- **Client-Server Systems**
- There is a specific server and specific clients connected to the server.
- The client request for service and server response.
- It focuses on - Sharing the information.
- The data is stored in a centralized server.
- When several clients request for the services simultaneously, the server can get bottlenecked.
- The client-server are expensive to implement.
- Client-Server is more stable and scalable.

Distributed Systems

- **Peer- to-peer Systems**
- Clients and server are not distinguished, as client and server.
- Each node can request for services and provide the services.
- It focuses on – Connectivity.
- Each peer has its own data.
- As the services are provided by several nodes distributed in the peer-to-peer system, a bottlenecked.
- Peer-to-peer are less expensive to implement.
- Peer-to-Peer suffers if the number of peers in the system.

Real Time Systems

- A real-time system is defined as a data processing system in which the time interval required to process inputs is so small that it controls the environment.
- The time taken by the system to respond to the display of required updated information is termed as the **response time**. So in this method, the response time is very less as compared to online processing.
- Real-time systems are used when there are strict requirements on the operation of a process. Real-time systems can be used as a dedicated application.

Real Time Systems

- A real-time operating system must have fixed time constraints, otherwise the system is not a real-time system.
- For example, Scientific experiments, medical systems, industrial control systems, weapons, robots, air traffic control systems, etc.
- **There are two types of real-time operating systems.**
 1. Hard real-time systems
 2. Soft real-time systems

Real Time Systems

- **Hard real-time systems**

- Hard real-time systems guarantee that critical tasks meet their deadlines on time.
- In hard real-time systems, secondary storage is not used, as it is often missing and the data is stored in ROM.
- In these systems, virtual memory is almost never used.

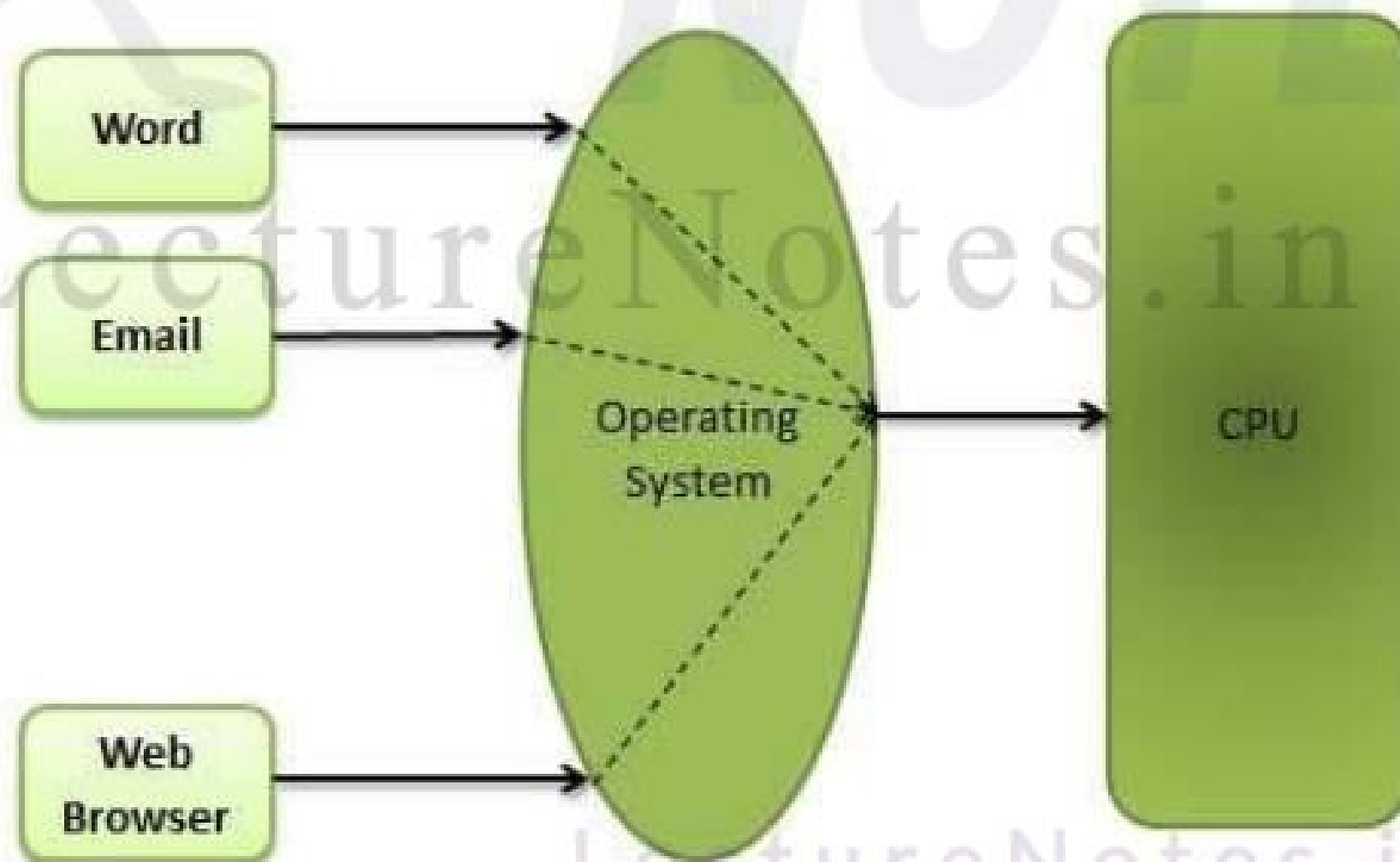
- **Soft real-time systems**

- Soft real-time systems are less restrictive.
- A critical real-time task gets priority over other tasks and retains the priority until it completes.
- Soft real-time systems have limited utility than hard real-time systems.
- For example, multimedia, virtual reality, Advanced Process Control. Projects like undersea exploration and plane

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Multitasking OS

- Multitasking is when multiple jobs are executed by the CPU simultaneously. The OS switches between them so frequently that the users interact with each program while it is running.



Multitasking OS

- **An OS does the following activities related to multitasking –**
- The user gives instructions to the operating program directly, and receives an immediate response.
- The OS handles multitasking in the way that it can execute multiple operations/programs simultaneously.
- Multitasking Operating Systems are also known as time-sharing systems.
- These Operating Systems were developed to support the interactive use of a computer system at a remote location.
- A time-shared operating system uses the concepts of time-sharing, scheduling and multiprogramming to provide each user with a small portion of a time-shared CPU.
- Each user has at least one separate program running on the system.

Multitasking OS

- A program that is loaded into memory and commonly referred to as a **process**.
- When a process executes, it typically executes for a very short time before it either finishes or requests I/O.
- Since interactive I/O typically runs at slower speeds and can take a long time to complete. During this time, the CPU is utilized by another process.
- The operating system allows the users to share the computer simultaneously. Since each action in a time-shared system tends to be short, only a small amount of memory is needed for each user.
- As the system switches CPU rapidly from one user to the next, each user is given the impression of having his/her own CPU, whereas actually one CPU is shared among many users.

LectureNotes.in Single User OS

- A single user operating system provides a simple interface to be used on one computer by only one user. It is simple.
- **Single user, single task:** A single task is performed by one user at a time. Example- Palm OS for Palm handheld computers.
- **Single user, multi-task:** Several programs can run at the same time by a single user. Example- Microsoft Windows.
- **Examples:** Windows 95, Windows NT, Windows Workstation and Windows 2000 professional.

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Multi User OS

- A multi-user operating system has been designed for more than one user to access the system at the same or different time. It is called a multi-user operating system.
- **Time sharing systems:** These systems are multi-user systems in which CPU time is shared among the users. The division is made on the basis of a schedule. Most batch processing systems for the mainframe computer are considered as 'multi user'.
- **Examples:** Unix, Linux and mainframe operating systems like the IBM AS400.

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OS - Services

- An Operating System provides services to both the programs.
- It provides programs an environment to execute
- It provides users the services to execute the program in a convenient manner.
- Following are a few common services provided by the system –
 - a) Program execution
 - b) I/O operations
 - c) File System manipulation
 - d) Communication
 - e) Error Detection
 - f) Resource Allocation
 - g) Protection

Program Execution

- Operating systems handle many activities from user programs to programs like printer spooler, name server, file server, etc.
- Each of these activities is encapsulated in a process.
- A process includes the complete execution context (code to execute, data to manipulate, registers, OS resources, etc.).

Program Execution

- Following are the major activities of system with respect to program ma
 1. Loads a program into memory.
 2. Executes the program.
 3. Handles program's execution.
 4. Provides a mechanism for process synchronization.
 5. Provides a mechanism for process communication.
 6. Provides a mechanism for deadloc

I/O Operation

- An I/O subsystem comprises of I/O devices, their corresponding driver software, the peculiarities of specific hardware, and the users.
- An Operating System manages the communication between user and device.
 1. I/O operation means read or write data with any file or any specific I/O device.
 2. Operating system provides the access to the required I/O device when required.

File System Manipulation

- A file represents a collection of related
- Computers can store files on the disk (storage), for long-term storage purposes
- Examples of storage media include magnetic disk and optical disk drives like Each of these media has its own properties capacity, data transfer rate and data access
- A file system is normally organized into for easy navigation and usage. These directories contain files and other directions.

File System Manipulation

- Following are the major activities of an operating system with respect to file management.
 1. Program needs to read a file or write a file.
 2. The operating system gives the permission for operation on file.
 3. Permission varies from read-only, read-write, and write-only.
 4. Operating System provides an interface to create/delete files.
 5. Operating System provides an interface to create/delete directories.
 6. Operating System provides an interface to backup of file system.

Communication

- In case of distributed systems which are a collection of processors that do not share memory, peripheral devices, or a clock, the operating system manages communication between all the processes.
- Multiple processes communicate with each other through communication lines or a network.
- The OS handles routing and connection strategies, and the problems of control and security.

Communication

- Following are the major activities of system with respect to communication:
 1. Two processes often require data transferred between them
 2. Both the processes can be on one or on different computers, but are connected through a computer network.
 3. Communication may be implemented by two methods, either by Shared Memory or Message Passing.

Error Handling

- Errors can occur anytime and an error may occur in CPU, in I/O or the memory hardware.
- Following are the major activities of an operating system with respect to error handling –
 1. The OS constantly checks for errors.
 2. The OS takes an appropriate action to ensure correct and consistent operation.

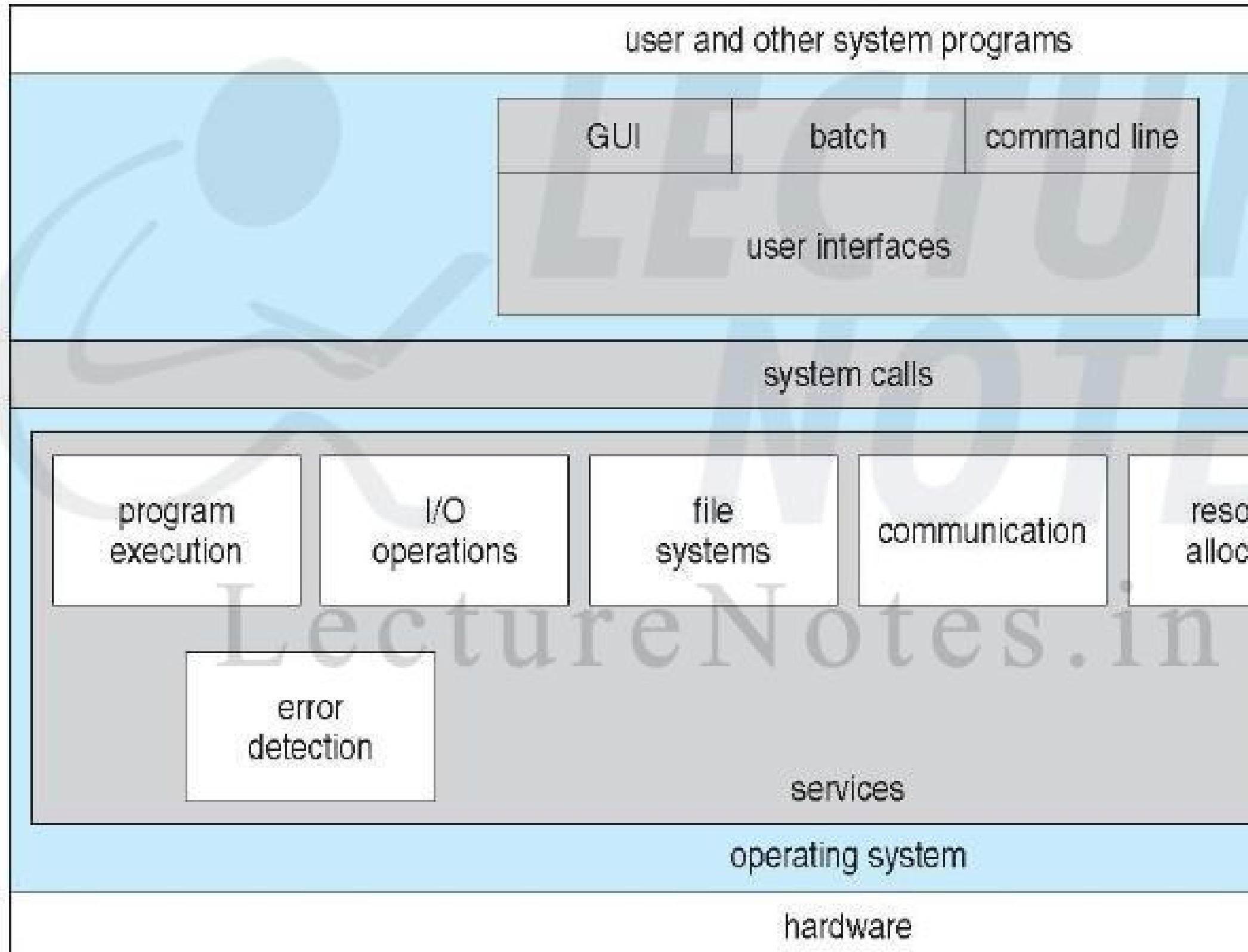
Resource Management

- In case of multi-user or multi-task environment, resources such as memory, CPU cycles and files should be allocated to each user or job.
- Following are the major activities of an operating system with respect to resource management –
 1. The OS manages all kinds of resources using schedulers.
 2. CPU scheduling algorithms are used for better utilization of CPU.

Protection

- Protection refers to a mechanism or process that controls the access of programs, processes, and users to the resources defined by a system.
- Following are the major activities of an operating system with respect to protection –
 1. The OS ensures that all access to system resources is controlled.
 2. The OS ensures that external I/O is protected from invalid access attempts.
 3. The OS provides authentication for each user by means of passwords.

A View of Operating System Services



Properties of OS

- **Batch Processing** : Batch processing is a technique in which an Operating System collects the programs and data into a batch before processing starts, keeps a number of jobs in memory and executes them. When a job completes its execution, its memory is released and the output for the job goes to an output spool for later printing or processing.
- **Multitasking**: Multitasking is when multiple jobs are executed on the CPU simultaneously by switching between them so frequently that the users may interact with the system while it is running.
- **Multiprogramming**: Sharing the processor, where multiple programs reside in memory at the same time, is known as **multiprogramming**. Multiprogramming assumes a shared processor. Multiprogramming increases CPU utilization by organizing jobs so that the CPU always has one to execute.

Properties of OS(contd.)

- **Interactivity:** Interactivity refers to the ability to interact with a computer system. An Operating System provides the user an interface to interact with and manages input devices to take inputs from the user and output devices to show outputs to the user.
- **Real Time System:** Real-time systems are dedicated, embedded systems. An operating system for such systems, Operating Systems typically react to sensor data. The Operating system must respond to events within fixed periods of time for correct performance.

Properties of OS(contd.)

- **Distributed Environment:** A distributed environment refers to multiple independent processors in a computer system. The computation logics among several physical processors do not share memory. Instead, each processor has its own local memory.
- **Spooling:** Spooling is an acronym for simultaneous peripheral operations on line. Spooling is putting data of various I/O jobs in a buffer. It is a special area in memory or hard disk accessible to I/O devices.

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Memory Management

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Background

- **Main Memory** refers to a physical memory internal memory to the computer. This is used to distinguish it from external devices such as disk drives. Main memory is also known as RAM. The computer is able to change data that is in main memory. Therefore, every program that we execute and every file we access must be loaded from a storage device into main memory.
- Memory consists of a large array of words, each of which has an address associated with it. The primary function of the CPU is to fetch instructions from the memory. The program counter of the CPU is used to keep track of the current instruction. Now further, these instructions cause loading or storing to specific memory locations.

Background

- **Memory management** is the function of an operating system which handles or manages memory and moves processes back and forth between main memory and disk during execution.
- Memory management keeps track of the location of memory, regardless of whether it is allocated to some process or it is free. It checks whether memory is to be allocated to a process and which process will get memory at what time. Whenever some memory gets freed, it identifies it and correspondingly it updates the status of memory.

Basic Hardware

- **Address binding** is the process of mapping one address space to another address space.
- An address generated by CPU is considered to be a logical address whereas an address that is used by the memory unit—that is, the one located in the memory address register (MAR) of the CPU—is referred to as the physical address.
- The logical address undergoes translation by the **MMU (Memory Management Unit)** in particular. The process is to find the appropriate physical address location of code/data in RAM.

Basic Hardware

- **MMU(Memory Management Unit)**
The run time mapping between Virtual address(or Logical address) and Physical Address is done by hardware device called MMU.
- The set of all logical addresses generated by a program is called a **logical address space**. The set of corresponding physical addresses is called **physical address space**.

**BASIS FOR
COMPARISON**

**PREVIOUS YEAR QUESTION
LOGICAL ADDRESS**

PHYSICAL ADDRESS

Basic

It is the virtual address generated by CPU

The physical location in memory

Address Space

Set of all logical addresses generated by CPU in reference to a program is referred as Logical Address Space.

Set of all physical addresses mapped to logical addresses is referred as Physical Address Space.

Visibility

The user can view the logical address of a program.

The user cannot view the physical address.

Access

The user uses the logical address to access the physical address.

The user cannot access physical address directly.

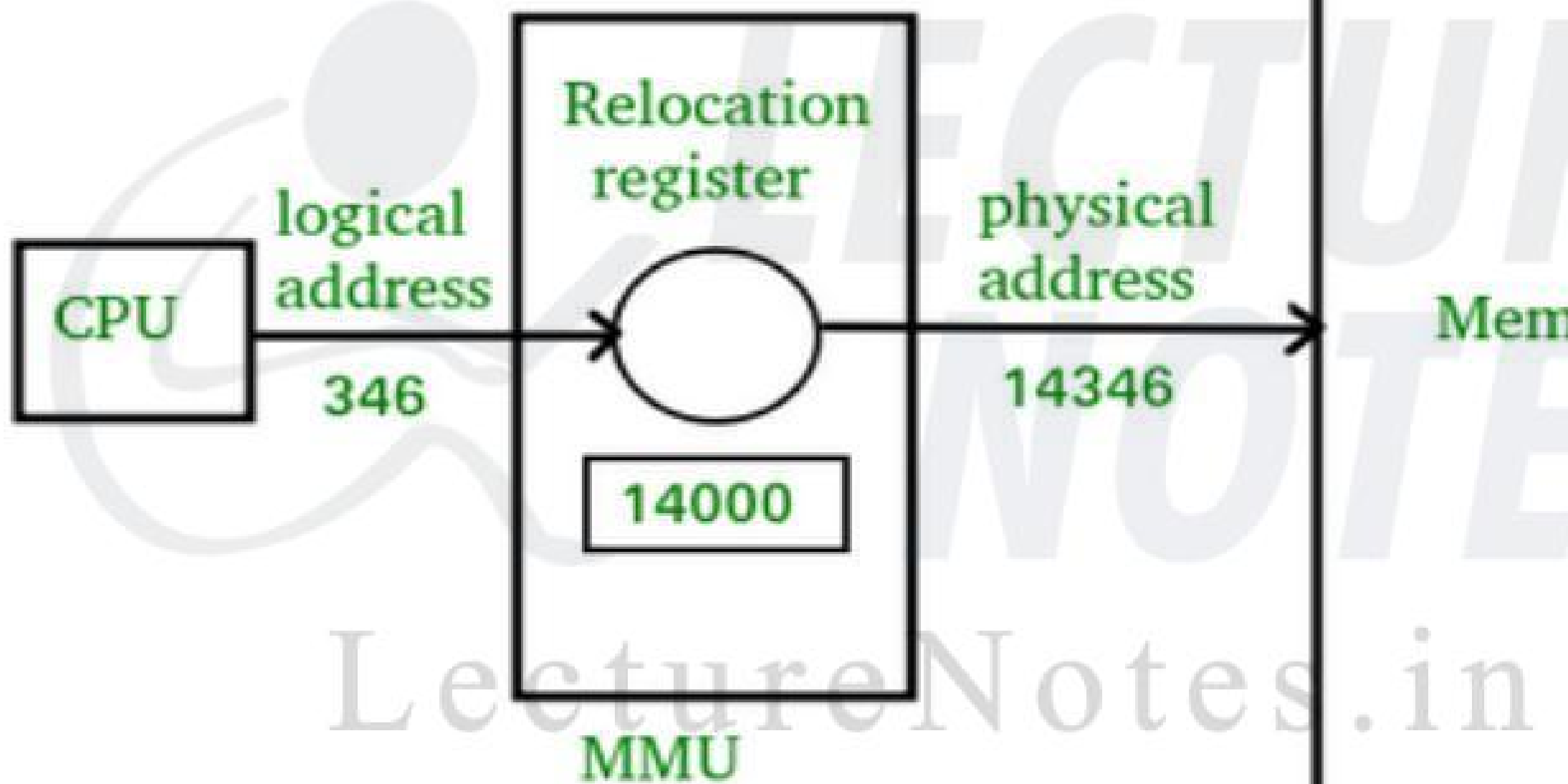
Generation

The Logical Address is generated by the CPU

Physical Address is generated by MMU

MMU scheme – LectureNotes.in

CPU-----MMU-----Memory



1. CPU will generate logical address for eg: 346
2. MMU will generate relocation register(base register) for eg:14000
3. In Memory physical address is located eg:($346+14000= 14346$)

Hardware Address Protection

- Protection of memory space is achieved by having the CPU hardware compare the address generated in user mode registers.
- Any attempt by a program executed in user mode to access operating system memory results in trap which treats the error as a fatal error.
- This scheme prevents a user program from modifying the code of operating system.

Address Binding

- **Address Binding can be done in different ways:**
- **Compile Time** – If you know compile time where process will be in memory then absolute address is generated. This absolute address is physical address is embedded to the program during compilation. The program is then executable as a process in memory. But if the generated address space is occupied by other process, then the program becomes necessary to recompile the program to change the address space.

Address Binding

- **Load time** – If it is not known a time where process will reside the address will be generated. The base address of process in main memory is added to the addresses by the loader to generate the absolute address. In this if the base address changes then we need to reload the program again.
- **Execution time**-If the process changes its location during its execution from one memory location to another, then binding must be done at runtime

Dynamic Loading & Dynamic Linking

- To obtain better memory space utilization, dynamic loading is used. With **Dynamic Loading**, a program is not loaded until it is called. The address of an unused routine is never loaded. It improves system performance.
- Also, at times one program is dependent on another program. In **Dynamic linking**, the system language libraries are not loaded into the program when it is required. With dynamic linking, a stub is included in the image for each reference. This stub is a small piece of code that indicates how to locate the appropriate resident library routine and how to load it.

Swapping

- A process needs to be in memory to execute. A process can however be swapped temporarily out of memory to a backing store, and then swapped back into memory for continued execution.
- Swapping concept comes in terms of process scheduling. Swapping is basically implemented in a Medium term scheduler. Medium term scheduler removes process from CPU for duration of time depending on the degree of multiprogramming.
- And after some time these processes are reintroduced into main memory. Process will again be resumed from the point it was interrupted. This scheme is called **Swapping**.

Swapping

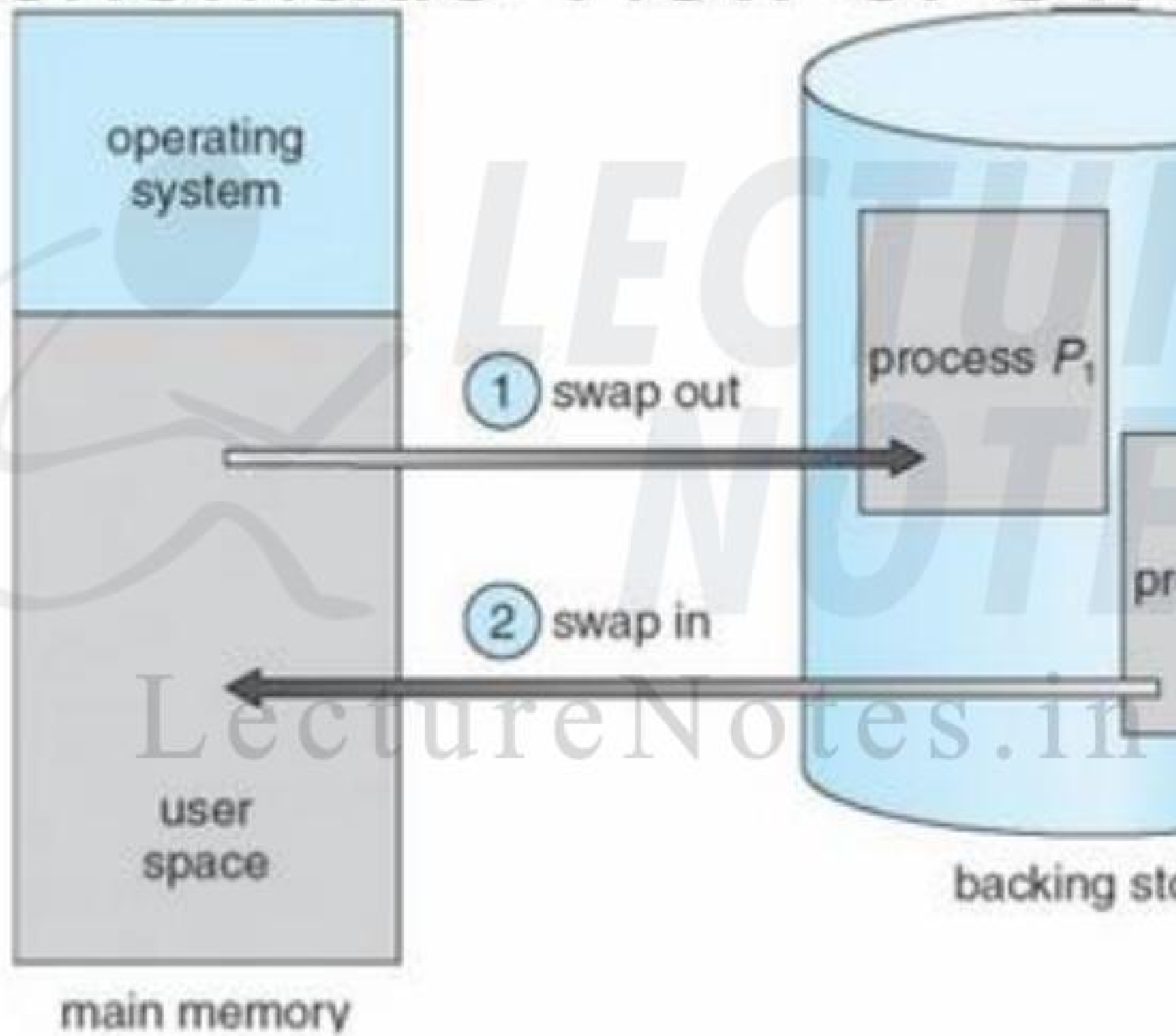
- Swapping can be implemented in various ways. For example, swapping can be priority based or time based. That means if a higher priority process is ready and wants service, the memory manager swaps out the lower priority process to secondary memory (suspend ready state) so that it can be loaded to main memory and executed. As soon as the higher priority process finishes its execution, the lower priority process will be swapped back to main memory and execution will be continued. Sometimes this is also called **roll out, roll in**.

Swapping

- Swapping requires a backing store. This backing store is as fast as possible. The backing store should be large enough to maintain copies of all memory for all users.

- The total transfer time is proportional to the amount swapped.

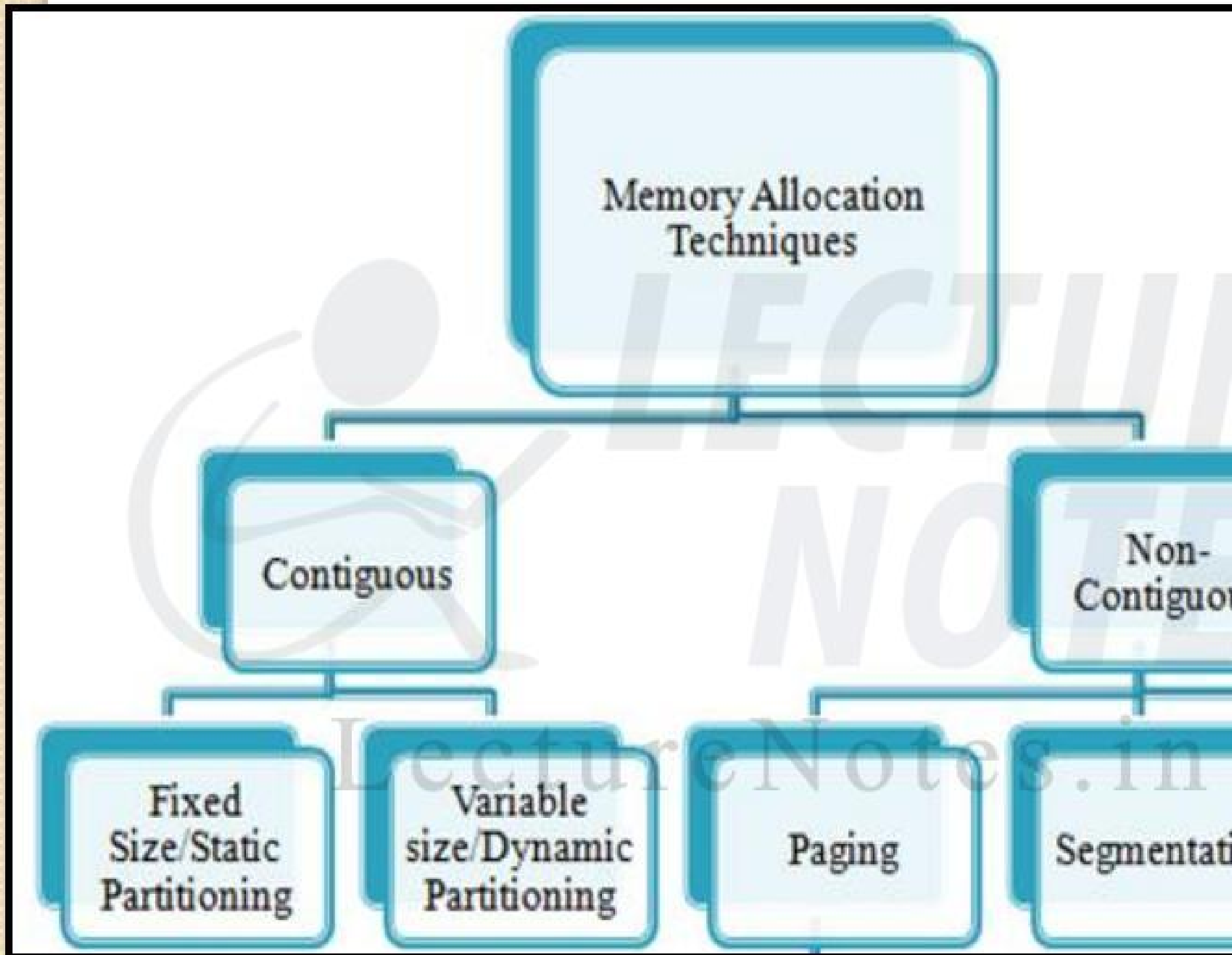
Schematic View of Swa



Memory Allocation

- The main memory must accommodate both the operating system and user processes, therefore it is divided into two partitions: one for the resident operating system and one for the user processes.

- The memory allocation techniques are divided in the following manner:



Contiguous Memory Allocation

- In contiguous memory allocation, a process is contained in a single block of memory. It means that the process has to be in the memory at the same time and stored in a contiguous fashion in a single partition.
- Memory can be contiguously allocated in two ways:
 - Fixed size/Static Partitioning
 - Variable size/Dynamic Partitioning

Fixed size/Static Partitioning

- In this technique, the main memory is divided into several partitions of equal or different sizes. The size of the partitions cannot be changed according to the requirements of process. The operating system always resides in the first partition. The other partitions can be used to execute other processes. The memory is assigned to processes in contiguous way.
- In fixed partitioning,
 - The partitions cannot overlap.
 - A process must be contiguously present in memory for the execution.

Limitations

1. Internal Fragmentation

- If the size of the process is less than the size of the partition then some part of the partition gets wasted and remains unused. This is wastage of the memory and is called internal fragmentation.

2. External Fragmentation

- The total unused space of various partitions cannot be used to load the process because it is not available in a contiguous form.

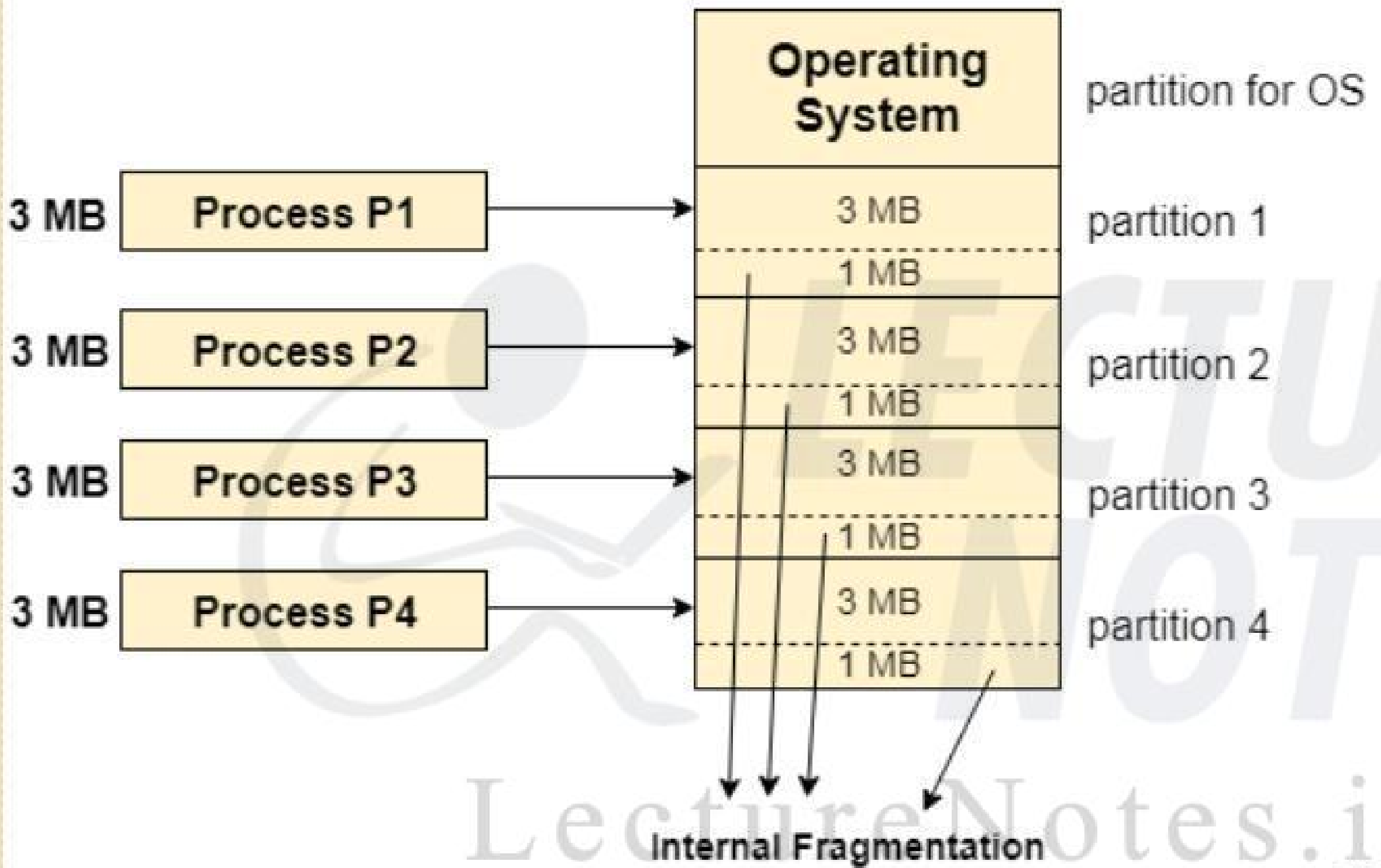
Limitations

3. Limitation on the size of the process

- If the process size is larger than the size of the largest partition then that process cannot be loaded into the memory. Therefore, a limitation is imposed on the process size that is larger than the size of the largest partition.

4. Degree of multiprogramming is less

- By Degree of multiprogramming, we mean the maximum number of processes that can be loaded into the memory at the same time. In fixed partitioning, the degree of multiprogramming is less and very less due to the fact that the size of the partition cannot be varied according to the number of processes.




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Fixed Partitioning

(Contiguous memory allocation)

Variable size/Dynamic Part

- Dynamic partitioning tries to solve the problems caused by fixed partitioning. In this technique, the partition size is declared initially. It is declared dynamically according to the requirements of process loading.
- The first partition is reserved for the operating system. The remaining memory is considered as single partition for the operating system. The operating system maintains a list of free memory scattered throughout the memory.

- 
- When a process arrives and no memory, the system searches for a hole that is large enough for the process.
 - If the hole is too large, it is split: one partition is allocated to the process and other returned back to free holes. When the process terminates its memory is de-allocated and added to set of free holes.
 - Adjacent free holes are merged into a larger hole.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Dynamic Partitioning over fixed partitioning

1. No Internal Fragmentation

- Given the fact that the partitions in dynamic partitioning are of variable size according to the need of the process, it is clear that there will not be any internal fragmentation because there will not be any unused remaining space in the partition.

2. No Limitation on the size of the process

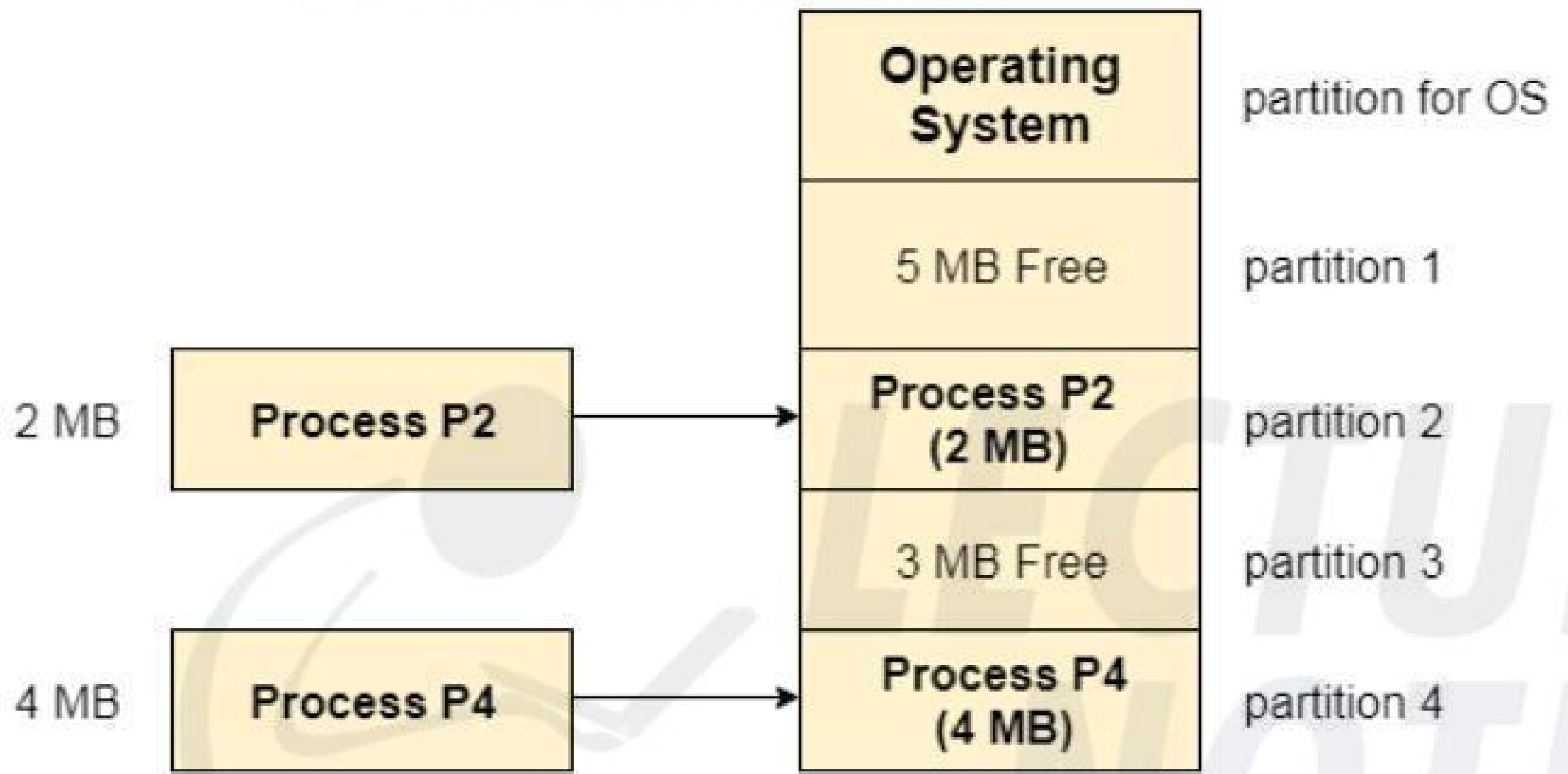
- In fixed partitioning, the process with the size greater than the size of the partition could not be executed due to the lack of sufficient space. Here, in dynamic partitioning, the process size can't be limited by the size of the partition. The partition size is decided according to the process size.

3. Degree of multiprogramming is dynamic

- Due to the absence of internal fragmentation, there will not be any unused space in the partition hence more processes can be loaded in the memory.

Disadvantages of dynamic partitioning

- **External Fragmentation**



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External Fragmentation in Dynamic Partitioning

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not perform

Fragmentation

- As processes are loaded and removed from memory space is broken into little pieces, sometimes that processes cannot be allocated blocks considering their small size and remains unused. This problem is known as Fragmentation.
- Fragmentation is of two types –
 - 1 **External fragmentation**
 - Total memory space available is enough to accommodate or to reside a process in it, but it is not contiguous and cannot be used.
 - 2 **Internal fragmentation**
 - Memory block assigned to process is bigger than the process memory is left unused, as it cannot be shared by another process. It occurs only in fixed size partitioning.

**BASIS FOR
COMPARISON**

INTERNAL FRAGMENTATION

**EXTERNAL
FRAGMENTATION**

Basic

It occurs when fixed sized memory blocks are allocated to the processes.

It occurs with variable size memory blocks are allocated to the processes. It is a dynamic process.

Occurrence

When the memory assigned to the process is slightly larger than the memory requested by the process this creates free space in the allocated block causing internal fragmentation.

When the memory is removed from the process, it leaves free space in the memory causing external fragmentation.

Solution

The memory must be partitioned into variable sized blocks and assign the best fit block to the process.

Compaction and garbage collection are the solutions for external fragmentation.

Partitioning Algorithms(Im

There are various algorithms which are implemented in an Operating System in order to find out the holes available in memory and allocate them to the processes.

1. First Fit Algorithm

- First Fit algorithm scans the linked list and when it finds the first big enough hole to store a process, it stops and allocates the process into that hole. This procedure produces

2. Best Fit Algorithm

- The Best Fit algorithm tries to find out the smallest hole in the list that can accommodate the size requirement of the process.
- Using Best Fit has some disadvantages.
- 1. It is slower because it scans the entire list even if it finds a hole to find out the smallest hole which can satisfy the requirement of the process.

Partitioning Algorithms(Impl

3. Worst Fit Algorithm

- The worst fit algorithm scans the list every time and tries to find the biggest hole in the list which can accommodate the requirement of the process.

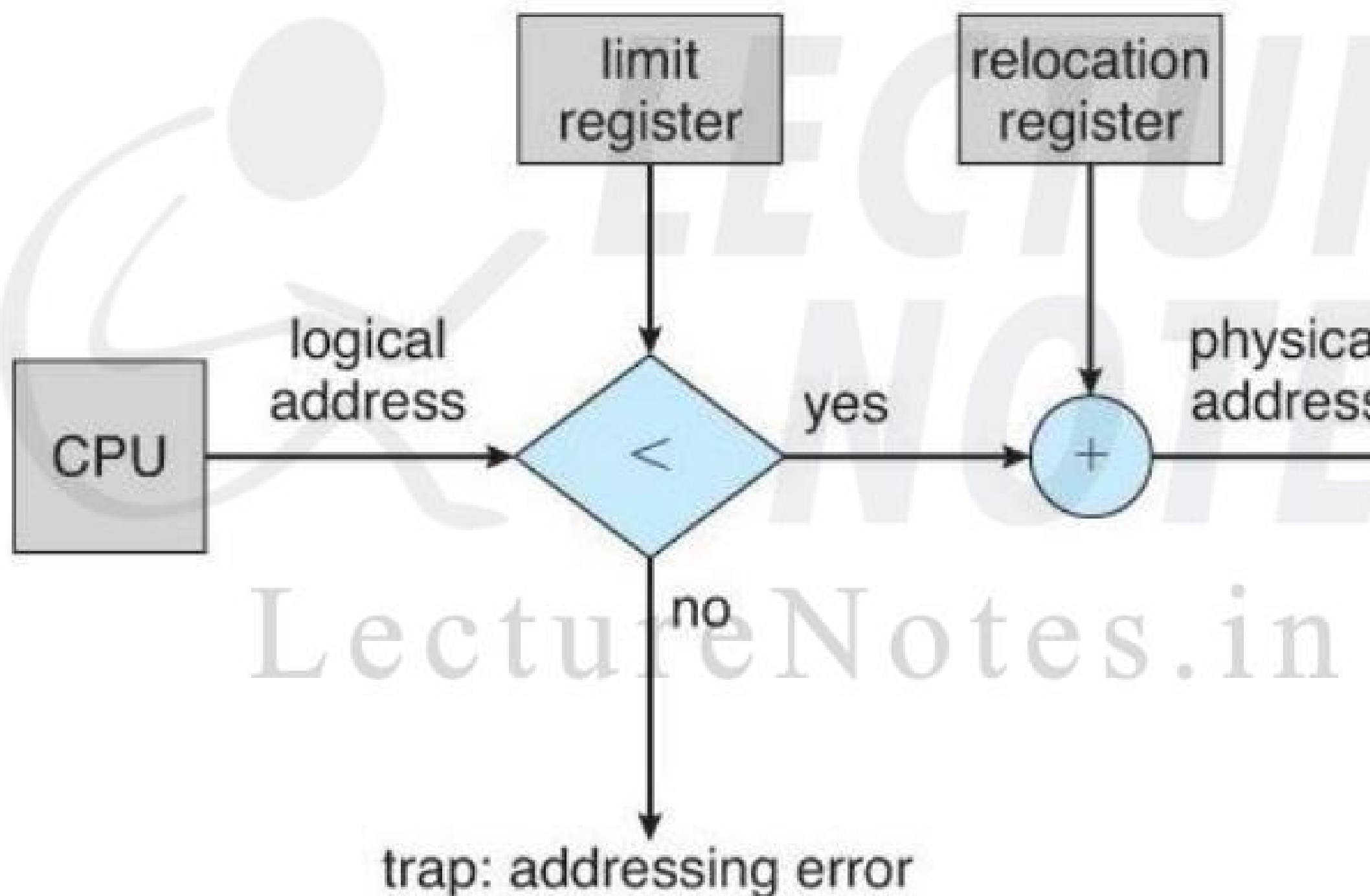
Memory Protection

- Memory protection is a phenomenon that controls memory access rights on a system. The main aim of it is to prevent a process from accessing memory that has not been allocated to it, thus protecting operating system processes from user processes and user processes from each other.
- When the CPU scheduler selects a process for execution, the dispatcher loads the segment registers with correct values as per the process's memory limit registers. Because every address generated by the process is checked against these registers, the process is protected.

Memory Protection

- **Limit Register-** It is used as a protection mechanism and stores the size or range of logical addresses.
- **Relocation Register-** It is a special purpose register which holds the address (starting address) of the main memory.

Hardware support for relocation and limit registers



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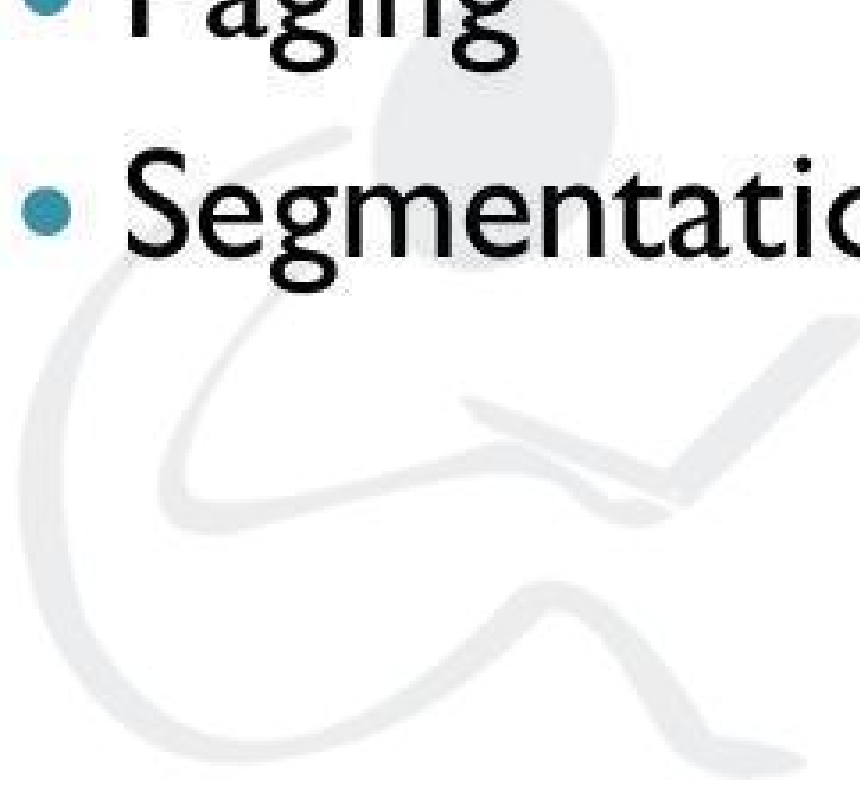
PID	Limit Register	Relocation Register	Logical Address	Physical Address
P0	500	1200	450	1650
P1	275	550	300	Illegal
P2	212	880	210	1090
P3	420	1400	450	Illegal
P4	118	200	80	280

Physical Address(PA)=Relocation Register+ Logical address

PA is Illegal if Logical address > Limit Register

Non-Contiguous Memory Allocation

- Paging
- Segmentation



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Paging

- Paging is a memory management technique that allows the physical address of a process to be non-contiguous.
- Paging is a storage mechanism that retrieves processes from the secondary storage into the main memory in the form of pages.
- The main idea behind the paging technique is to store processes in Secondary Memory in the form of pages. The main memory will also be divided into equal size frames.

Paging

- One page of the process is to one of the frames of the main memory. Pages can be stored at the different locations of the memory.
- Pages of the process are brought into main memory only when they are needed. Otherwise they reside in the secondary storage.
- Considering the fact that the address space is mapped to the frames in Paging, the size of the page needs to be as same as frame size.

Page Table

- A Page Table is the data structure in a virtual memory system in a computer system to store the mapping between *virtual address* and *physical addresses*.
- System maintains a page table for each process which contains n entries corresponding to each page in a process. Each entry defines the physical memory address where that particular page is stored in memory.
- Page Table Base Register holds the base address of Page table and this value is stored in each process.

Logical and Physical Address

Logical Address is divided into:

- **Page number(p):** Number of bits required to represent Logical Address Space or Page number. This page number is used to index into a page table.
- **Page offset(d):** Number of bits required to represent a page or page size of Logical Address Space or word address. This is called page offset.

Physical Address is divided into

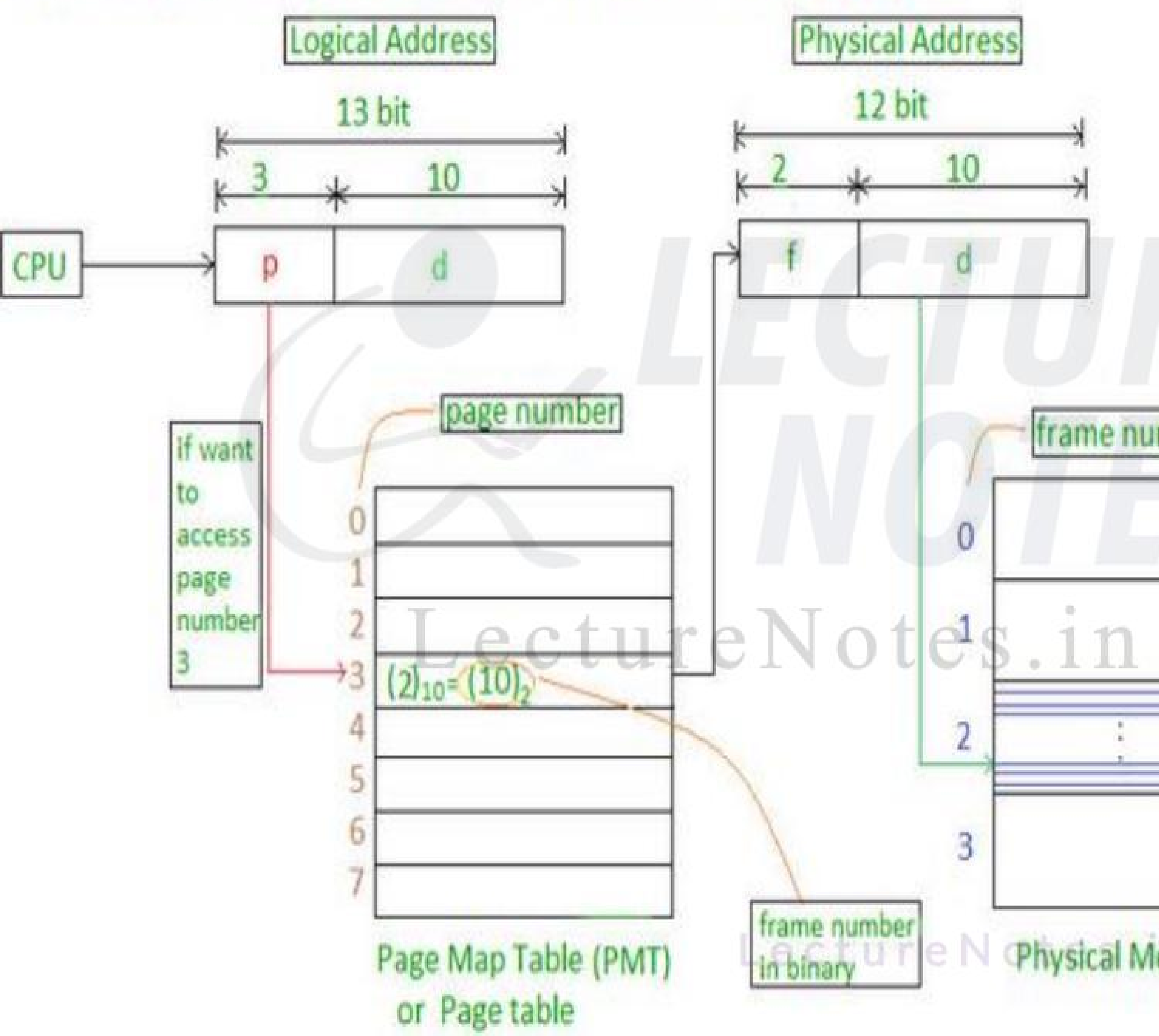
- **Frame number(f):** Number of bits required to represent frame number or base address where particular page is stored in memory..
- **Frame offset(d):** Number of bits required to represent offset in a frame or frame size of Physical Address Space or word address. This is called frame or frame offset.

Example

- Physical Address = 12 bits, then L
Address Space = 4 K words
- Logical Address = 13 bits, then L
Address Space = 8 K words
- Page size = frame size = 1 K wo
(assumption)
- No. of Pages = No. of Logical addr
Size
- No. of Frames = No. of Physical
Addresses / Frame size

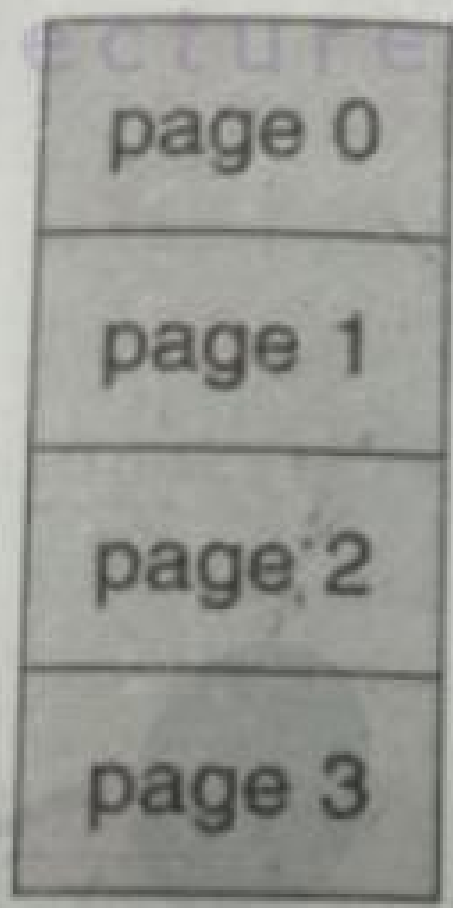
Number of frames = Physical Address Space / Frame size = 4 K / 1 K = 4 = 2^2

Number of pages = Logical Address Space / Page size = 8 K / 1 K = 8 = 2^3



Pros and Cons of Paging

- Size of Page table can be very big as p large number of pages and therefore memory.
- CPU will take more time to read a sin the main memory as **main memory twice**.
- Paging reduces external fragmentation from internal fragmentation.
- Paging is simple to implement and efficient memory management technique.
- Due to equal size of the pages and fr becomes very easy.
- Page table requires extra memory spa be good for a system having small RAM



logical memory

0	1
1	4
2	3
3	7

page table

Figure 8.8 Paging model of logical and physical

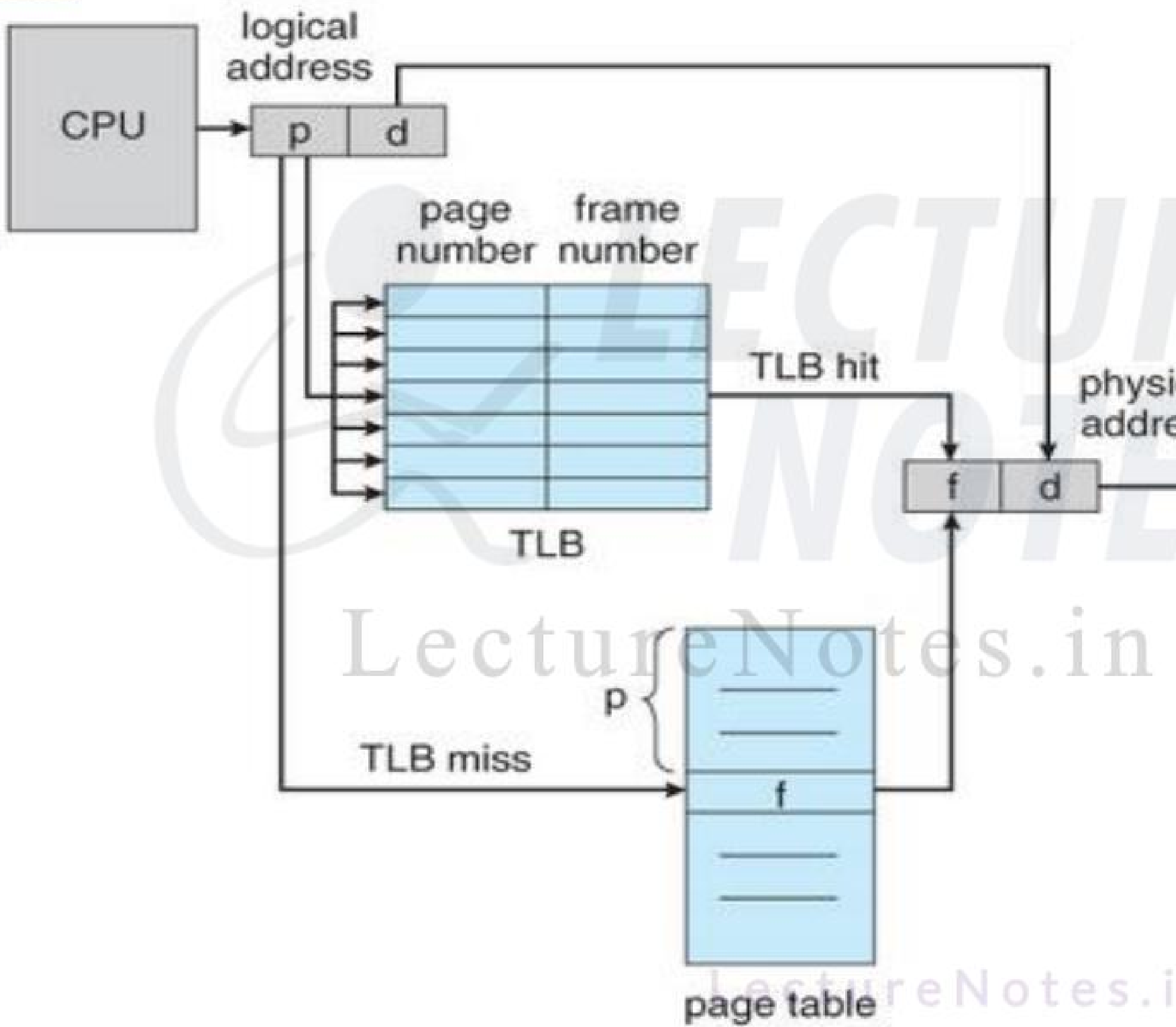
Paging with Translation Lookaside Buffer (TLB)

- If page table contain large number then we can use TLB (translation buffer), a special, small, fast look cache.
- The TLB is associative, high speed.
- Each entry in TLB consists of two number and frame number.
- When this hardware is used, the no. In Logical address generated searched in TLB, if found then corresponding frame no. is used to access memory otherwise Page Table is searched.

Hit Ratio

- Typically the number of entries between 64 to 1024.
- During every context switch, T is erased and loaded with page e new process.
- **The percentage of times th particular page number is TLB is known as Hit ratio, it is considered as miss.**

LectureNotes.in **Paging with TLB**



Main memory access time = m

If page table are kept in main memory,

Effective access time = m (for page table) + m (for particular page in page table)

In case of TLB

TLB access time = c

TLB hit ratio = x , then miss ratio = $(1-x)$

When hit occurs

Effective access time = $\text{hit ratio} * (c+m) + \text{miss ratio} * (c+m+m)$

for main me

Miss ratio = $1 - \text{hit ratio}$

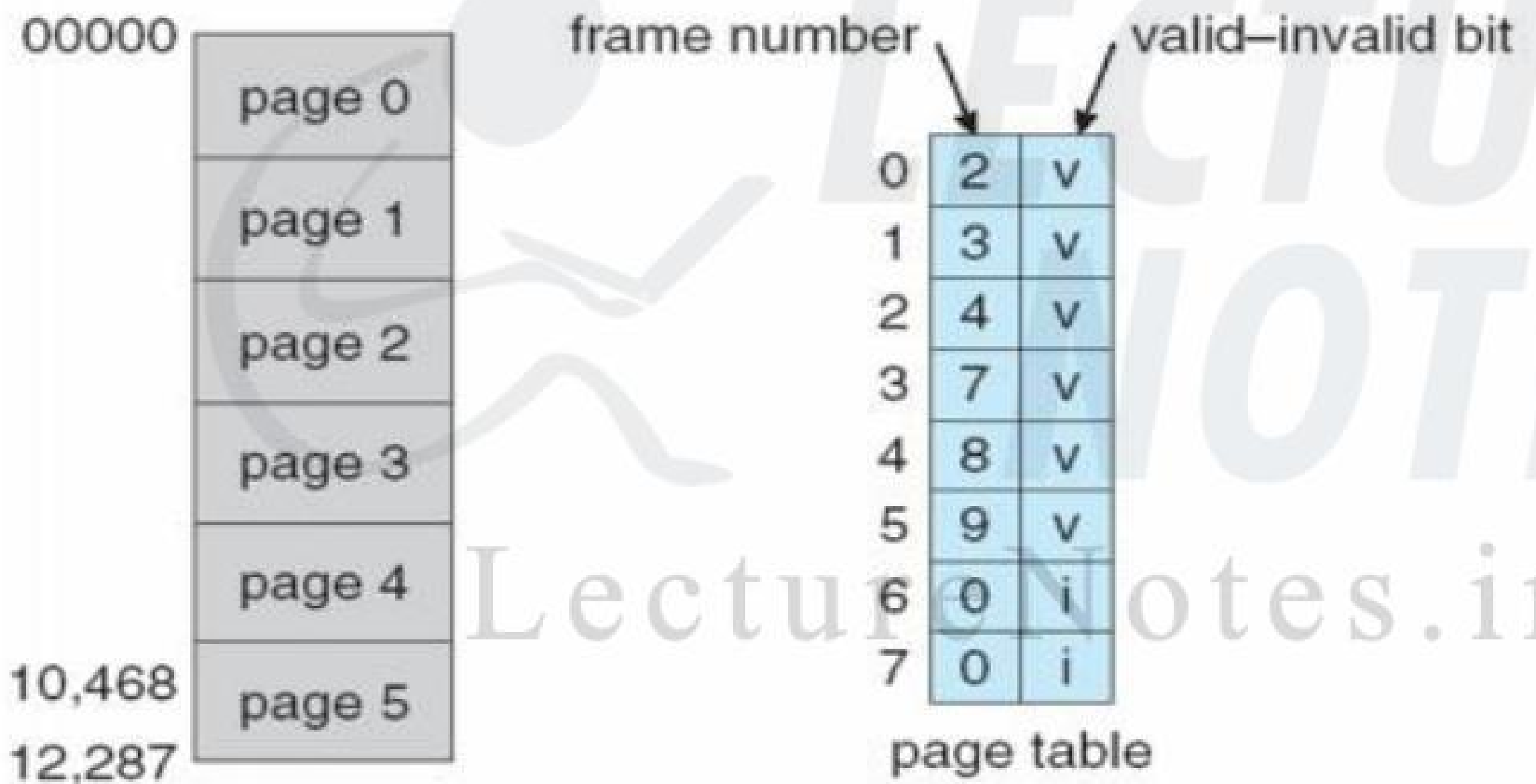
Example

- Suppose the hit ratio is 80%, T_{hit} time is 20 ns and Main memory Time is 100 ns. Find the Effective Time.
- Effective access Time=
 $80/100 * (20+100) + 20/100 * (20-20)$
- = 140 ns

Protection Bits in Paging

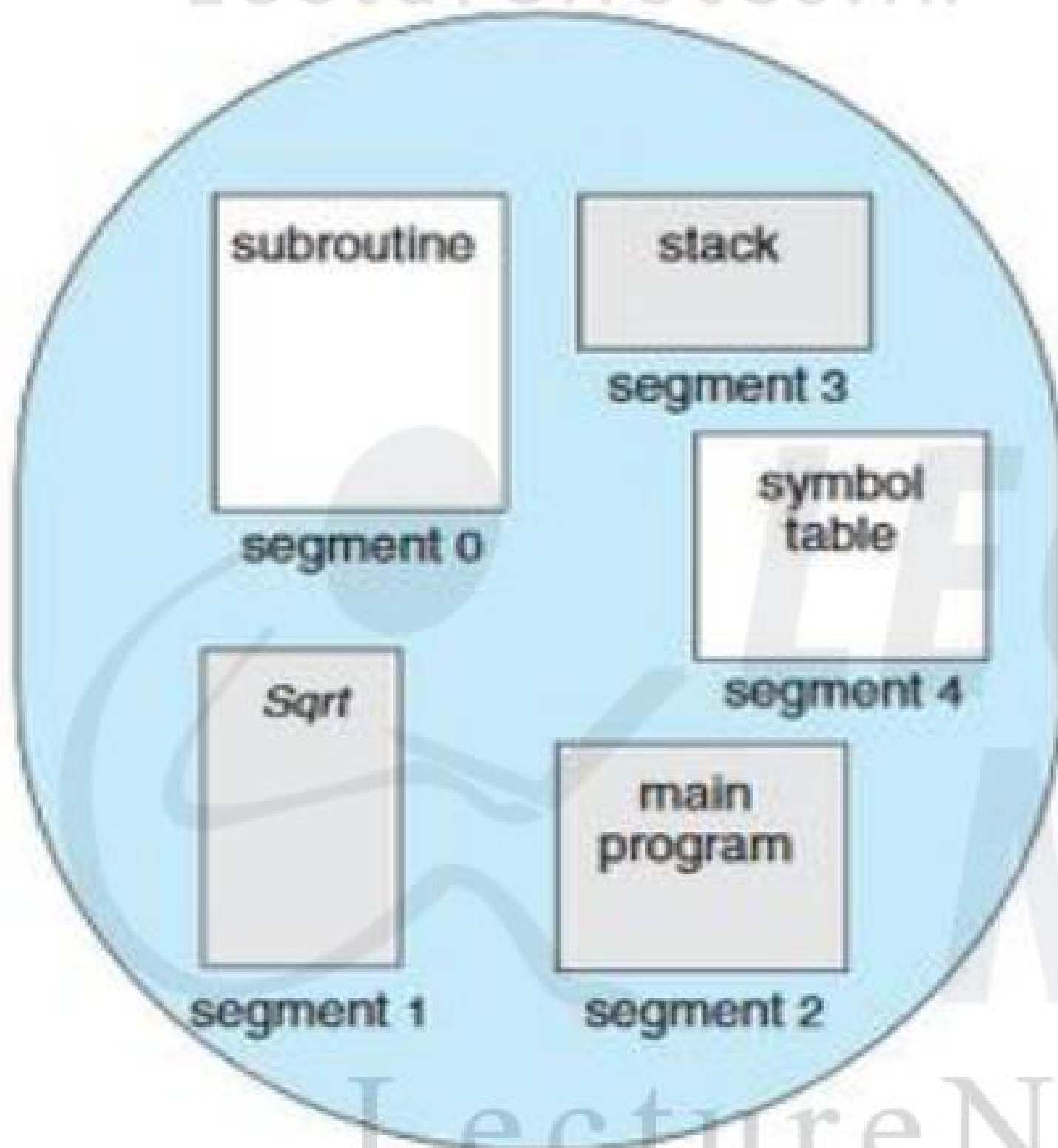
- A single bit that is valid or invalid bit is added to each frame no. In a page table to protect pages from unauthorized access.
- **Valid bit-**This value indicates that the address in the page is in the process logical address space.
- **Invalid bit-**This value indicates that the address in the page is not in the process logical address space.
- For example, in a 14 bit Logical address(0 to 16383) with page size 2 KB, addresses 0 to 10468 are assigned to 5 pages means from page 0 to page 5. Now any attempt to access an address in page 6 and 7 is considered illegal, the invalid bit is set to invalid and operating system generates a process(invalid page reference)

Valid (v) or Invalid (i) Bit In A Page



Segmentation

- In Operating Systems, **Segmentation** is a memory management technique that supports user view of memory. In this technique, the memory is divided into variable size segments on the basis of the size of each segment in the program.
- The details about each segment are stored in a table called as **segment table**. This table is stored in one (or many) of the main memory. This segment table is used by MMU to translate Logical address generated by CPU into physical address.



	limit	base
0	1000	1400
1	400	6300
2	400	4300
3	1100	3200
4	1000	4700

segment table

logical address space

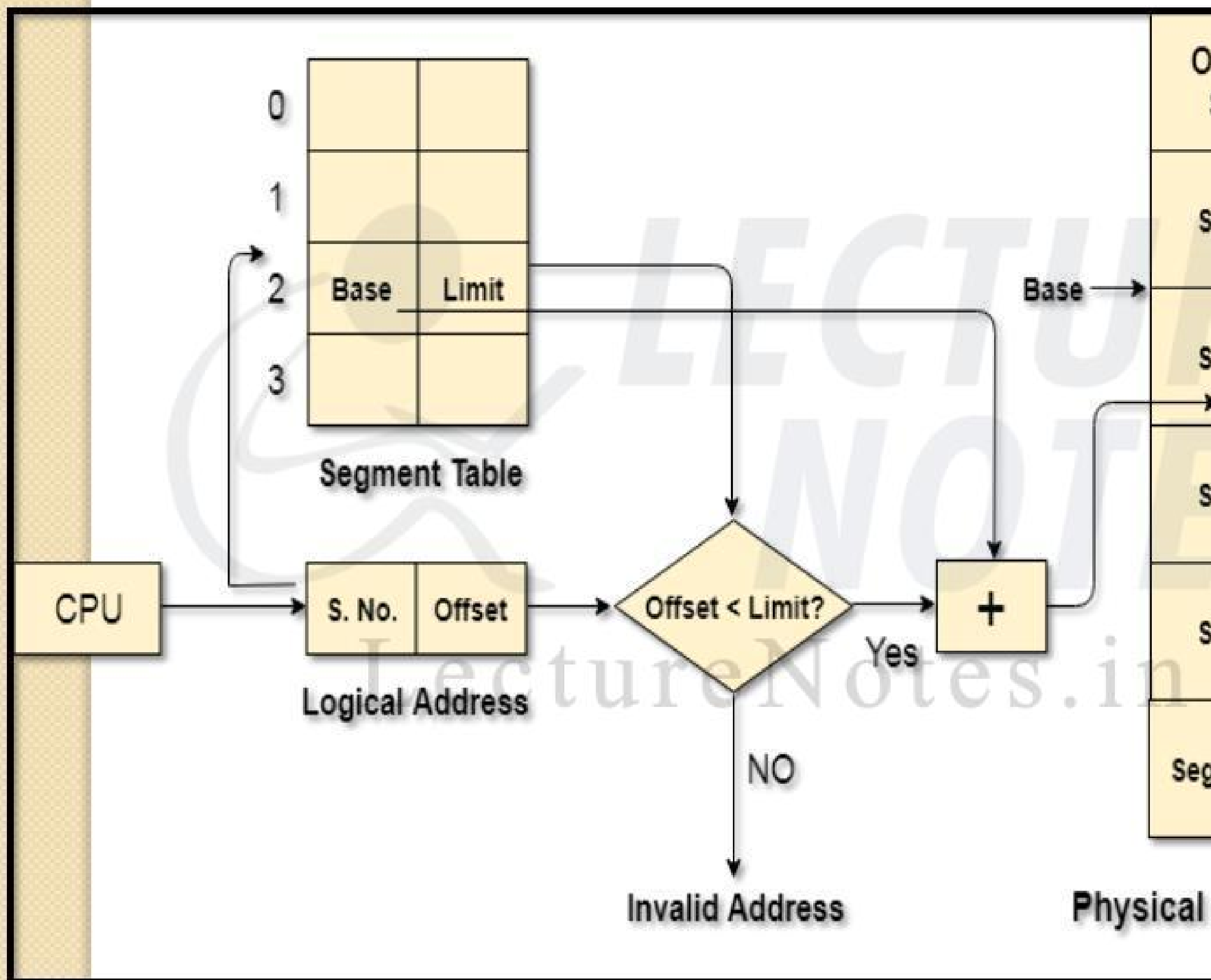
Segmentation

- **Segment table** contains mainly two fields related to segment:
- **Base:** It is the base address of the segment.
- **Limit:** It is the length of the segment.

Address generated by the CPU is divided into two parts:

- **Segment number (s):** Number of bits required to represent the segment.
- **Segment offset (d):** Number of bits required to represent the size of the segment.

Lecture Segmentation Address Translation



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Segmentation

- The Segment number is mapped to the segment table. The limit of the segment is compared with the offset. If the offset is less than the limit, then the address is valid; otherwise, it throws an error and the address is invalid.
- In the case of a valid address, the base address of the segment is added to the offset to get the physical address of actual main memory.

Advantages of Segmentation

- No internal fragmentation
- Average Segment Size is larger than the average page size.
- Less overhead
- It is easier to relocate segments than pages.
- The segment table is of lesser size as compared to the page table in paging.

Disadvantages

- It can have external fragmentation.
- It is difficult to allocate contiguous memory of a specific size.
- Costly memory management algorithms

**BASIS FOR
COMPARISON**

PAGING

SEGMENTATION

Basic

A page is of fixed block size.

A segment is of

Fragmentation

Paging may lead to internal fragmentation.

Segmentation may lead to external fragmentation.

Address

The user specified address is divided by CPU into a page number and offset.

The user specifies the segment size by two quantities (segment number and the limit).

Size

The hardware decides the page size.

The segment size is decided by the user.

Table

Paging involves a page table that contains base address of each page.

Segmentation involves a segment table that contains segment number and segment length (segment length).

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Virtual Memory

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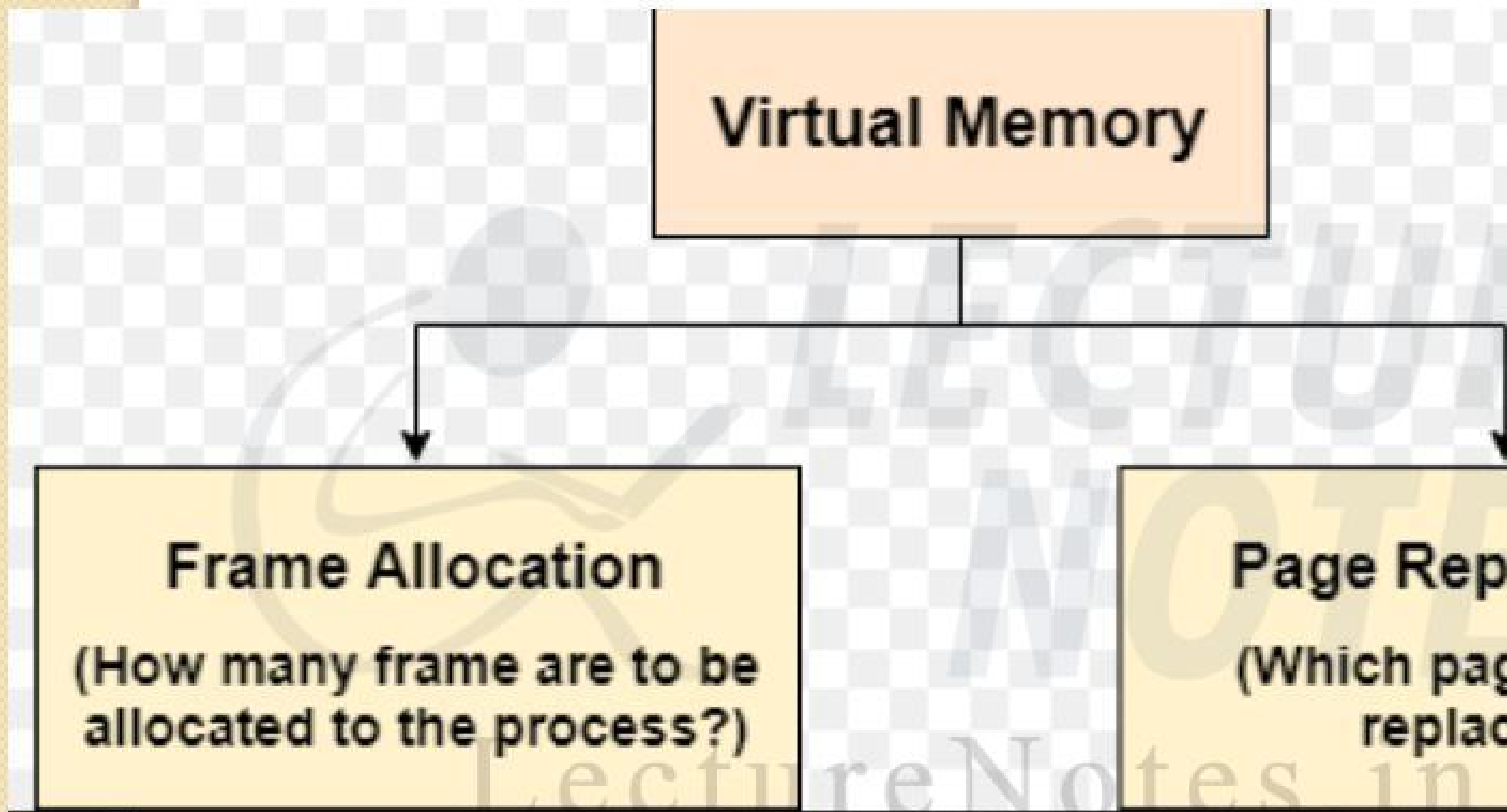
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Virtual Memory

- A computer can address more memory than the amount physically installed on the system. This memory is actually called **virtual memory** and is a section of a hard disk that's set up to act as the computer's RAM.
- Virtual Memory is a space where large programs can store themselves in form of pages while running. Only the required pages or portions of the program are loaded into the main memory. This is useful as large virtual memory is provided for large programs when a very small physical memory is available.
- Virtual Memory is mainly implemented using **paging**.

Virtual Memory

- Virtual memory – separation of logical memory from physical memory
 - Only part of the program needs memory for execution.
 - Logical address space can therefore be larger than physical address space.
 - Need to allow pages to be swapped out.



Pros/Cons of Virtual Memory

Advantages of Virtual Memory

- The degree of Multiprogramming will be increased.
- User can run large application with less real memory.
- There is no need to buy more memory RAM.

Disadvantages of Virtual Memory

- The system becomes slower since swapping.
- It takes more time in switching between applications.
- The user will have the lesser hard disk space.

Demand Paging

- The process of loading the memory on demand (whenever occurs) is known as demand paging.
- In demand paging, the pages of a program that are least used, get stored in the secondary memory.
- While executing a program, if the processor references a page which is not available in the main memory because it was swapped out to secondary memory ago, the processor treats this invalid reference as a **page fault** and transfers control from the program to the operating system. On demand the page is loaded back into the main memory.

Advantages and Disadvantages

Demand Paging

Advantages

- Large virtual memory.
- More efficient use of memory.
- There is no limit on degree of multiprogramming.

Disadvantages

- Number of tables and the amount of processor overhead for handling interrupts are greater than in the simple paged management technique.

Page Fault

- **Page Fault – A page fault is a type of interrupt generated by the hardware when a running program requests a memory page that is mapped into the virtual address space, but not loaded in physical memory.**
- In a operating systems that use paging for memory management, page replacement algorithms are used to decide which page needed to be replaced when a new page comes in. Whenever a new page is referred that is not in memory, page fault occurs and Operating System replaces one of the existing pages with newly needed page.
- Different page replacement algorithms suggest different ways to decide which page to replace. The target of these algorithms is to reduce number of page faults.

When the process requires any of the page that is not in memory, a page fault trap is triggered and followed,

1. The memory address which is requested by the process is checked, to verify the request made by the process.
2. If its found to be invalid, the process is terminated.
3. In case the request by the process is valid, a free frame is possibly from a free-frame list, where the record is moved.
4. A new operation is scheduled to move the needed page from disk to the specified memory location. (This causes the process on an I/O wait, allowing some other process to use the CPU in the meantime.)
5. When the I/O operation is complete, the process record is updated with the new frame number, and the status is changed to valid.
6. The instruction that caused the page fault is restarted from the beginning.

- **Page Fault Service Time :**

The time taken to service the is called as page fault service page fault service time include taken to perform all the above

Performance of Demand

- Demand Paging can have a significant effect on the performance of computer system. To measure the performance, effective access time is used.

Let

- Main memory access time is: m
- Page fault service time is: s
- Page fault rate (probability) is : p Then,

p : the probability of a page fault ($0 \leq p \leq 1$), we expect p to be the fraction of page faults).

If $p=0$ then no page faults, but if $p=1$ then every reference is a fault.

- **Effective access time = $(p*s) + m$**

- It is important to keep the page fault rate low in demand paging. If the effective access time is directly proportional to the page fault rate, as the page fault rate increases, it slows down the process execution.

Demand Paging Exam

- Assume an average page-fault service time of 25,000,000 nanoseconds (10^{-9}), and a Memory Access time of 100 nanoseconds (10^{-9}). Find the Effective Access Time (EAT).
- Solution:
- Effective Access Time (EAT)
- $= (1 - p) \times (ma) + p \times (\text{page fault service time})$
- $= (1 - p) \times 100 + p \times 25,000,000$
- $= 100 - 100 \times p + 25,000,000 \times p$
- $= 100 + 24,999,900 \times p$.
- Note: The Effective Access Time is directly proportional to the page-fault rate.

Demand Paging Example

- Memory access time = 200 nanoseconds
- Average page-fault service time = 8 milliseconds
- $EAT = (1 - p) \times 200 + p (8 \text{ milliseconds})$
 $= (1 - p) \times 200 + p \times 8,000,000$
 $= 200 + p \times 7,999,800$
- If one access out of 1,000 causes a page
- $EAT = 8.2 \text{ microseconds.}$
- This is a slowdown by a factor of 40!!

Page Replacement Algorithm

- The page replacement algorithm determines which memory page is to be replaced. This replacement is sometimes called swapping pages to disk. Page replacement is done when a requested page is not found in the memory (page fault).
- A page replacement algorithm looks for performance information about accessing the pages in the hardware, and tries to select which page to be replaced to minimize the total number of page faults while balancing it with the costs of page replacement and processor time of the algorithm itself.

Types of Page Replacement Algorithms

- FIFO-FIRST IN FIRST OUT
- LRU-LEAST RECENTLY USED
- OPR-OPTIMAL PAGE REPLACEMENT

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FIRST IN FIRST OUT

- This is the simplest page replacement algorithm.
- In this algorithm, operating system keeps track of all pages in the memory queue, oldest page is in the front of the queue.
- When a page needs to be replaced, the page in the front of the queue is selected for removal.

Optimal Page Replacement

- An optimal page-replacement algorithm achieves the lowest page-fault rate of all algorithms.
- Replace the page that will not be used for the longest period of time. Use the information about when a page is to be used.

- In this algorithm, pages are replaced that are not used for the longest duration in the future.

Least Recently Used

- this algorithm replaces the page not been referred for a long time
- This algorithm is just opposite optimal page replacement algorithm
- In this, we look at the past instance staring at future

Numerical on Optimal, LRU FIFO

- **Q. Consider a reference s**
6, 1, 7, 6, 1, 2, 7, 2. the m
frames in the memory is 3
the number of page faults
to:

- Optimal Page Replacement Alg
- FIFO Page Replacement Algori
- LRU Page Replacement Algorit

FIFO Page Replacement Algorithm

Request	4	7	6	1	7	6	1	2
Frame 3			6	6	6	6	6	6
Frame 2		7	7	7	7	7	7	2
Frame 1	4	4	4	1	1	1	1	1
Miss/Hit	Miss	Miss	Miss	Miss	Hit	Hit	Hit	M

Number of Page Faults in FIFO = 6

LRU Page Replacement Algorithm

Request	4	7	6	1	7	6	1	2
Frame 3			6	6	6	6	6	6
Frame 2		7	7	7	7	7	7	2
Frame 1	4	4	4	1	1	1	1	1
Miss/Hit	Miss	Miss	Miss	Miss	Hit	Hit	Hit	Miss

Number of Page Faults in LRU = 6

Optimal Page Replacement Algorithm

Request	4	7	6	1	7	6	1
Frame 3			6	6	6	6	6
Frame 2		7	7	7	7	7	7
Frame 1	4	4	4	1	1	1	1
Miss/Hit	Miss	Miss	Miss	Miss	Hit	Hit	Hit

Number of Page Faults in Optimal Page Replacement Algorithm = 5

Belady's Anomaly

- Generally, on increasing the number of page frames for a process' virtual memory, its execution time becomes faster as less number of page faults occur. Sometimes the reverse happens, i.e. more page faults occur when more page frames are allocated to a process. This most unexpected result is termed as **Belady's Anomaly**.
- **Belady's anomaly** is the name given to this phenomenon where increasing the number of page frames results in an increase in the number of page faults for a given access pattern.

Belady's Anomaly IN FIFO

- In the case of LRU and other replacement algorithms, it is so that the number of page faults will be less as we increase the number of frames. **However, Belady found that in the case of FIFO page replacement algorithm, the number of page faults increased with the increase in the number of frames.**

Let's examine such example :

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The reference String is given as 0 1 5 3 0 1 4 0 1 5 3 4. Let's analyze the behavior of FIFO

Case 1: Number of frames = 3

Request	0	1	5	3	0	1	4	0	1
Frame 3			5	5	5	1	1	1	1
Frame 2		1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Frame 1	0	0	0	3	3	3	4	4	4
Miss/Hit	Miss	Miss	Miss	Miss	Miss	Miss	Miss	Hit	Hit

Number of Page Faults = 9

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Case 2: Number of frames = 4

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Request	0	1	5	3	0	1	4	0	1
Frame 4				3	3	3	3	3	3
Frame 3			5	5	5	5	5	5	1
Frame 2		1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0
Frame 1	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	4	4
Miss/Hit	Miss	Miss	Miss	Miss	Hit	Hit	Miss	Miss	Miss

Number of Page Faults = 10

Therefore, in this example, the number of page faults is increasing by increasing the number of frames. This behavior is known as Belady's Anomaly.

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Allocation of Frames

- An important aspect of operating systems, virtual memory is implemented using demand paging. Demand paging requires the development of a page-replacement algorithm and an **allocation algorithm**. Frame allocation algorithms are used when there are multiple processes; it helps decide how many frames to allocate to each process.
- There are various constraints to the strategies for allocating frames:
 - You cannot allocate more than the total number of frames available.
 - At least a minimum number of frames should be allocated to each process. This constraint is supported by two reasons. The first reason is, as less number of frames are allocated, there is an increase in the page fault ratio, decreasing the performance of the execution of the process. Secondly, there should be enough frames to hold all the different pages that any single instance of the process may reference.

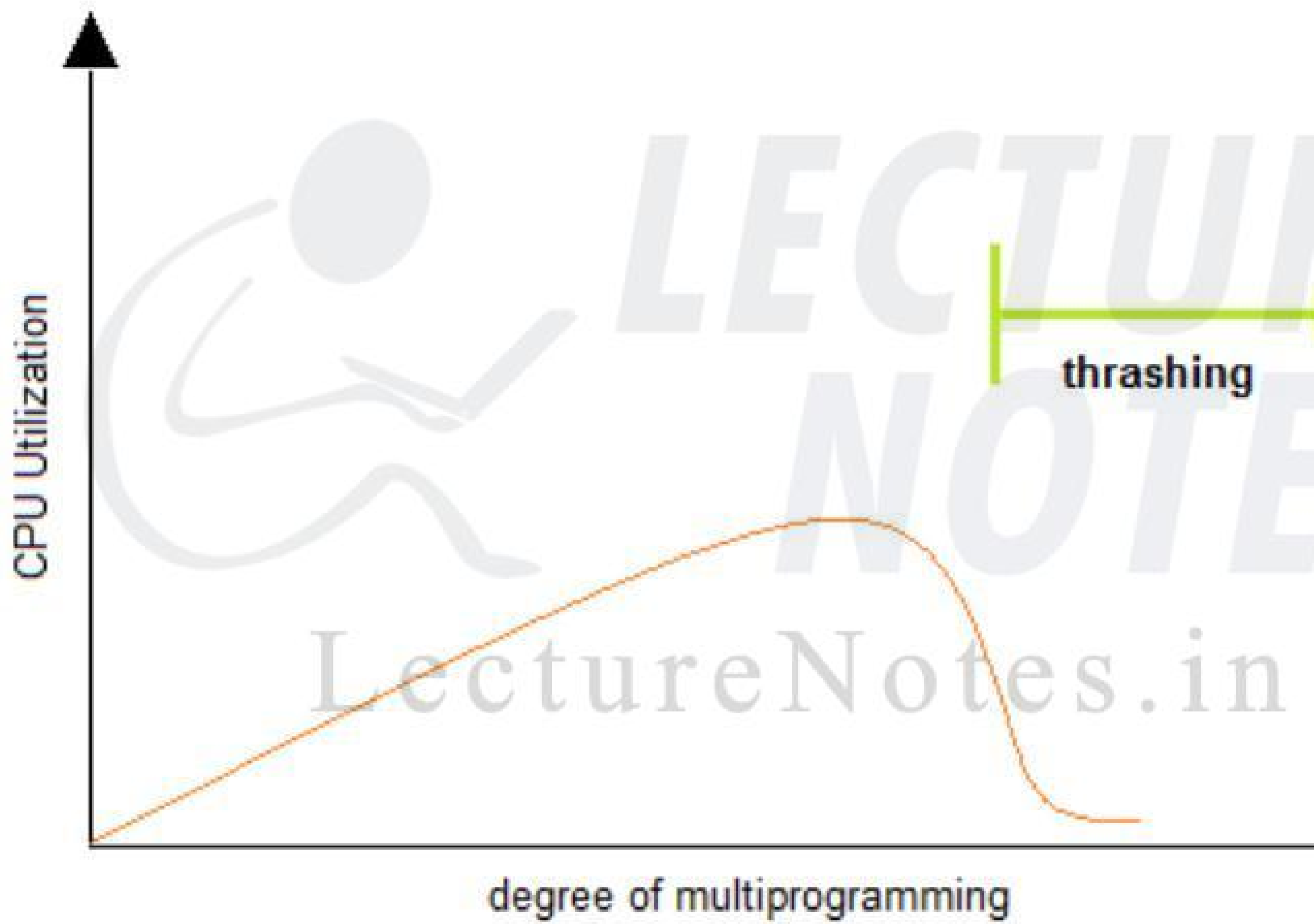
Frame Allocation Algorithm

- The two algorithms commonly used to allocate frames to a process are:
- **Equal allocation:** In a system with x processes, each process gets equal number of frames, i.e. x/y . For instance, if the system has 4 processes, each process will get 5 frames which are not allocated to any process and are used as a free-frame buffer pool.
- **Disadvantage:** In systems with processes of different sizes, it does not make much sense to give equal number of frames. Allocation of a large number of frames to a process will eventually lead to the wastage of a large number of allocated unused frames.

- **Proportional allocation:** Frames are allocated to each process according to their size. For a process p_i of size s_i , the number of frames allocated is $a_i = (s_i/S)*m$, where S is the sum of sizes of all the processes and m is the total number of frames in the system. For instance, if there are 62 frames in the system, if there is a process of 10KB and another process of 127KB, then the first process will be allocated $(10/137)*62 = 4$ frames and the other process will get $(127/137)*62 = 58$ frames.
- **Advantage:** All the processes share the frames according to their needs and the frames are allocated equally.

Thrashing

- A process that is spending more time swapping pages than executing is said to be thrashing.
- In other words it means, that a process doesn't have enough frames to hold its pages for its execution, so it keeps swapping pages in and out very frequently, spending more time swapping than executing.
- Sometimes, the pages which will be needed in the near future have to be swapped out.



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Thrashing

- Initially when the CPU utilization is low, the scheduler uses a round-robin scheduling mechanism, to increase multiprogramming loads multiple processes are loaded into memory at the same time, allocating a fixed number of frames to each process.
- As the memory fills up, process starts spending more of time for the required pages to be swapped in, leading to low CPU utilization because processes are waiting for pages.
- Hence the scheduler loads more processes to increase CPU utilization, as this continues for some of time the complete system comes to a state of thrashing.

Causes of Thrashing :

- **High degree of multiprogramming** : If the number of processes is increasing in the memory than number of frames allocated to them will be decreased. So, less number of frames will be available to this, page fault will occur more frequently and more CPU time will be wasted in just swapping in and out of pages and the system performance will be decreasing.
- For example:
Let free frames = 400
- **Case 1**: Number of process = 100
Then, each process will get 4 frames.
- **Case 2**: Number of process = 400
Each process will get 1 frame.

Case 2 is a condition of thrashing, as the number of processes is increasing and frames per process are decreased. Hence CPU time will be wasted in swapping pages.

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- **Lacks of Frames** : If a process has a small number of frames then less pages of the process will be able to reside in memory and hence more frequent swapping in and out will be required. This leads to thrashing. Hence sufficient frames must be allocated to each process in order to prevent thrashing.

Recovery from Thrashing

- Do not allow the system thrashing by instructing the scheduler not to bring the process into memory after the threshold.
- If the system is already in thrashing, instruct the medium term scheduler to suspend some of the processes. Once we can recover the system from thrashing.