

# Bare Machine and Resident Monitor

- \* These two are important Part of Computer system.
- \* The Bare Machine and Resident Monitor are not directly related to O.S but while we study about memory management these components are really important to study.

Bare Machine → Basically Bare machine is logical hardware which is used to execute the program in the processor without using O.S.

- As of now, we have studied that we can't execute any process without the O.S. But yet with the help of the Bare machine we can do that.
- Initially, when the O.S are not developed, the execution of an instruction is done by directly on hardware without using any interfacing hardware, at that time the only drawback was that the Bare Machines accepting the instruction is only machine language, due to this those persons who has sufficient

knowledge about computer field) are able to operate a computer.

So, after the development of the O.S. Base machine is referred to as inefficient.

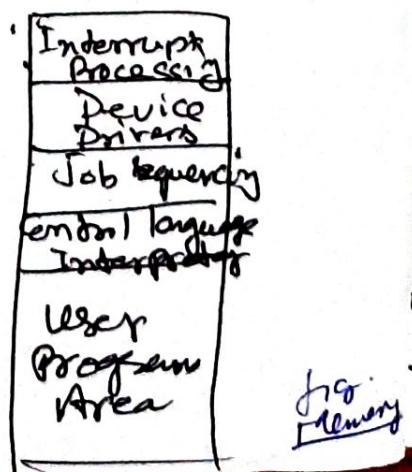
Resident Monitor - The Resident Monitor is a code that runs on Base Machine.

The resident monitor works like an O.S. It controls the instructions and performs all necessary functions. It also works like job sequencer because it also sequences the job and sends them to the processor.

- After scheduling the job Resident monitor loads the programs one by one into the main memory according to their sequences. There is no gap between the program execution and processing is going to be faster.

The resident monitor is divided into 4 parts as;

- 1 → Control Language Interpreter
- 2 → Loader
- 3 → Device Driver
- 4 → Interrupt Processing.



(1) Control language Interpreter :- The first Part of the resident monitor is control language interpreter which is used to read and carry out instructions from one level to the next level.

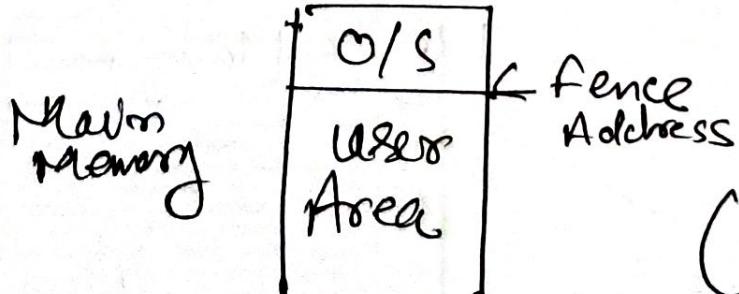
(2) Loaders :- It loads all necessary system and application programs into the main memory.

(3) Device Driver :- It is used to manage the connecting input-output devices to the system. So, basically it is the interface between the user and the system.

(4) Interrupt Processing :- It processes all occurred interrupt to the system.



(1) Bare Machine



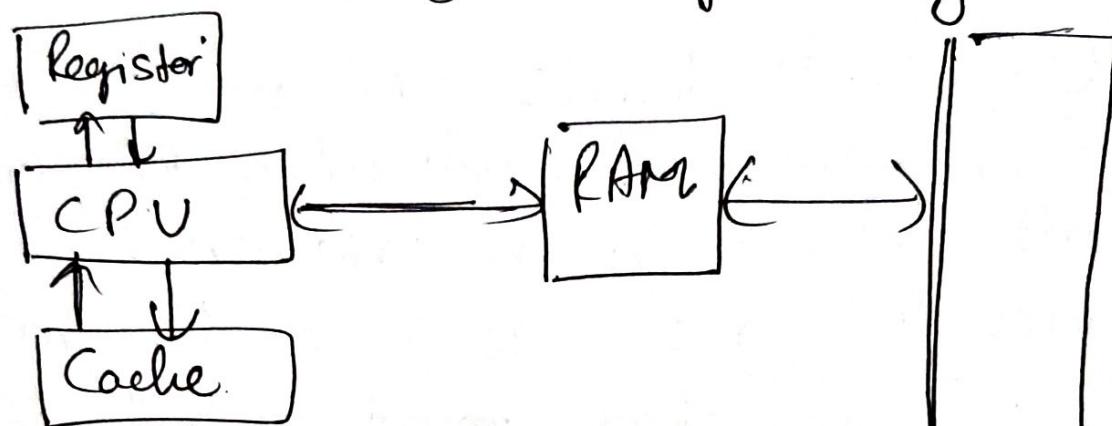
(2) Resident Monitor

- \* no Preloaded OS
- \* Application Specific
- \* Sequential instruction execution in Machine language.
- \* Task Decoupled
- \* Task handled by designer.

- \* A Part of OS resides in MMU
- \* Fence Address is used to provide security to OS programs from user
- \* Useful to Single user System

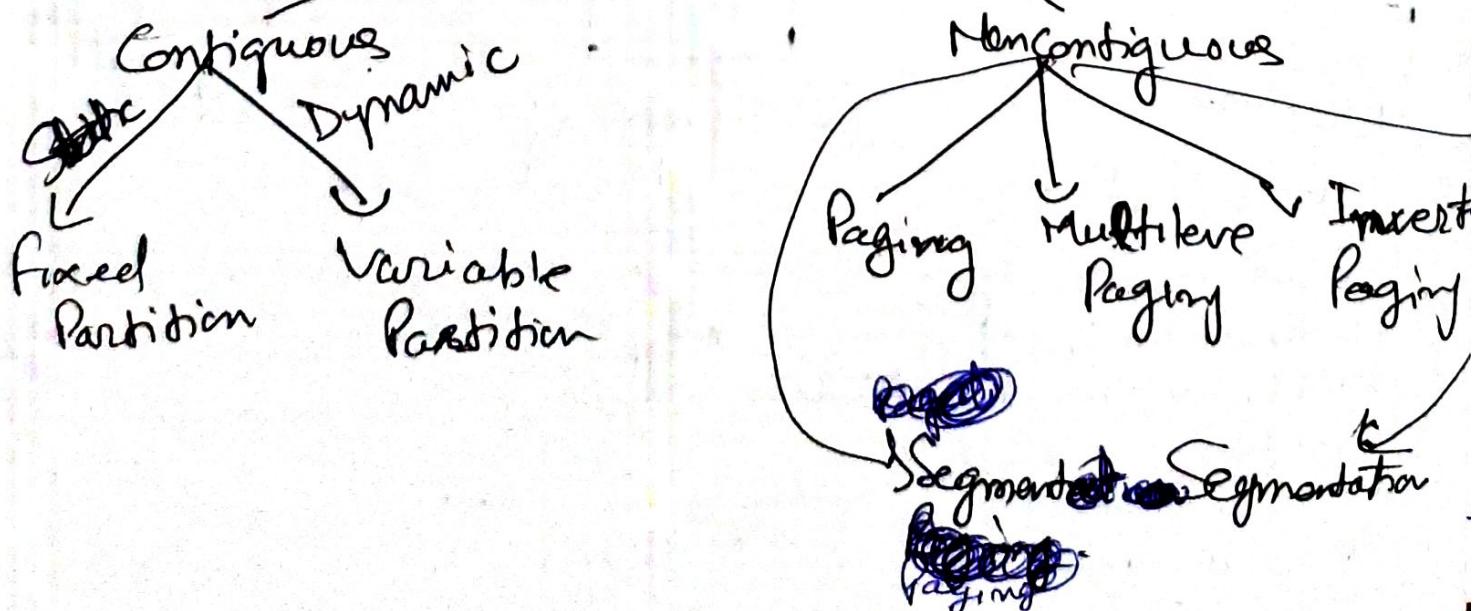
# Memory Management

This is the method of managing Main memory (Primary Memory)  
ie Efficient utilization of Memory

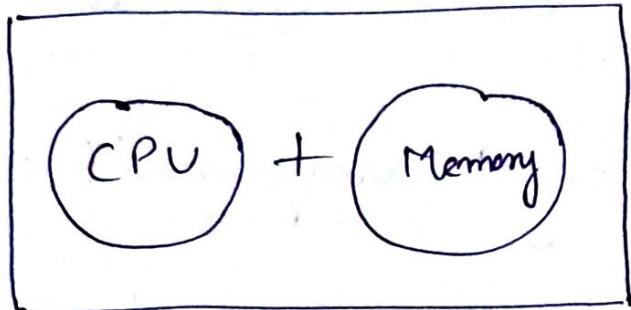


\* Say  
Memory Management is functionality of OS which manages Main memory and keeps track of processes moving from secondary memory to main memory.  
So, Memory Manage includes methods of managing degree of multiprogramming.

## Memory Management Technique



# Introduction to Memory Management



Computer

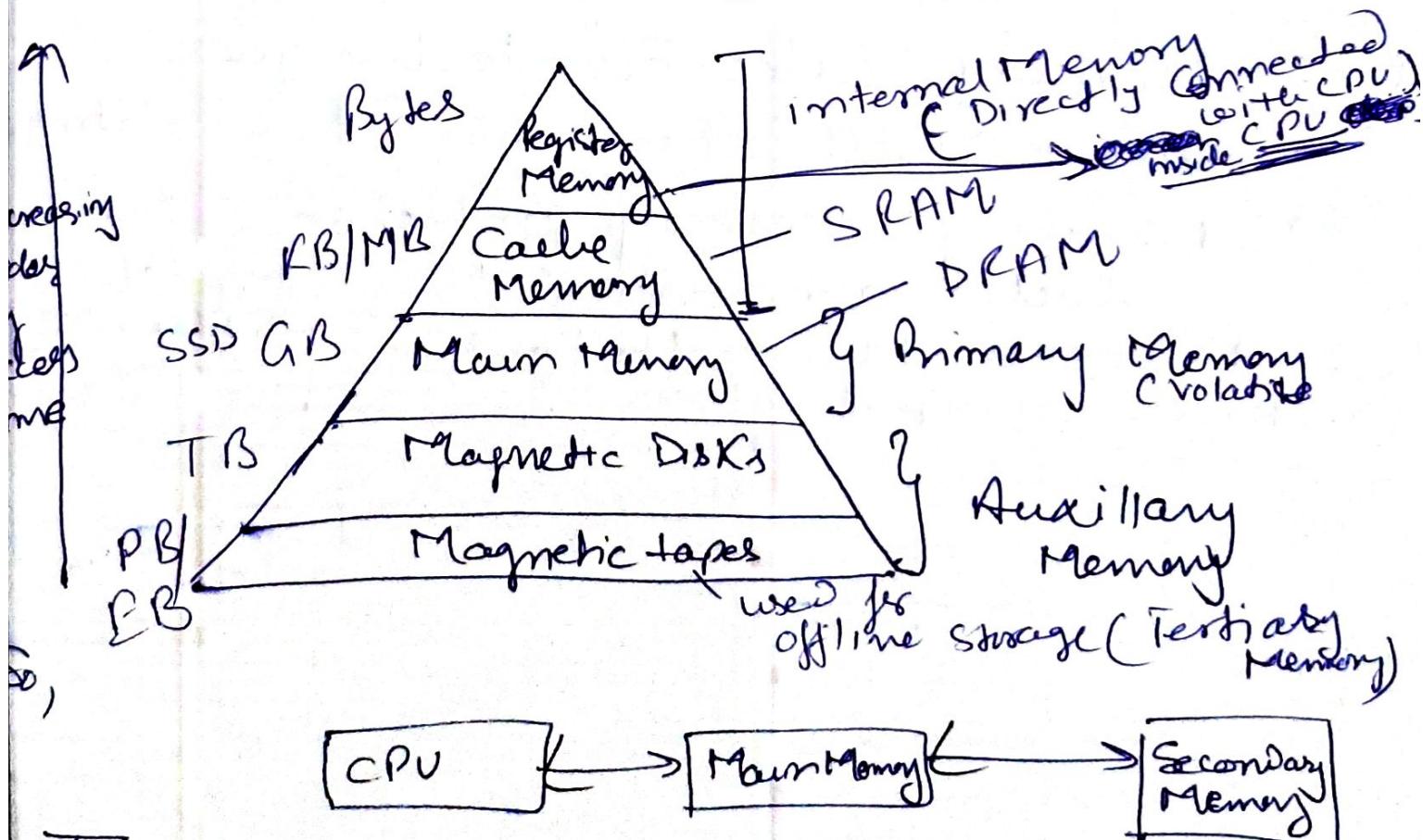
## Memory

Size: Large Memory Size

Access Time: As less as Possible

Per Unit Cost: As less as Possible

# Background of Memory Management



## Task of OS

- which data from the Secondary memory should come to main memory and at which

location.

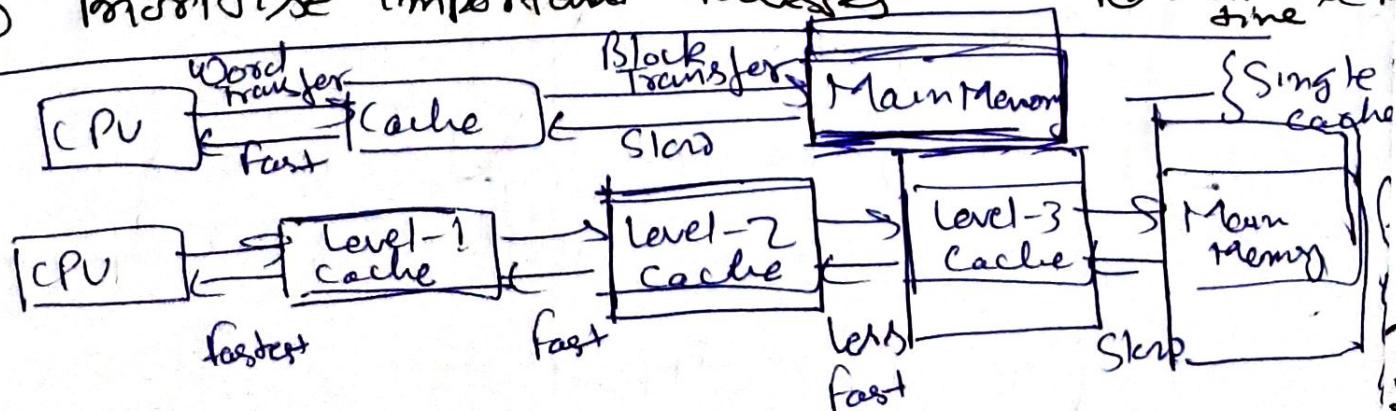
2- CPU generates address for data at secondary memory, but have access to main memory, thus OS performs the address translation.

functions / Goals

functions of Memory Management

- (1) Keep track of the status of each memory location where the memory is allocated or free.
- (2) Determining allocation Policies for the memory
- (3) Memory allocation techniques, memory allocation information updating
- (4) Providing memory protection schemes which are critical to accomplish
- (5) Maximise Memory Utilization.
- (6) Prioritise important Processes

① Maximise CPU Utilization  
② Minimise Latency



Cache organization

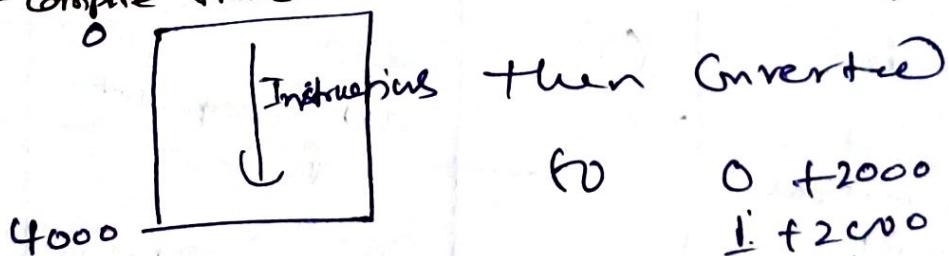
## Address Binding of instructions and data to Memory → (2)

Compile time : absolute address (confirm to run ticket)

advantage : minimum setup time.

disadvantage : if the memory space is preoccupied by a program then there is a chance of collision.

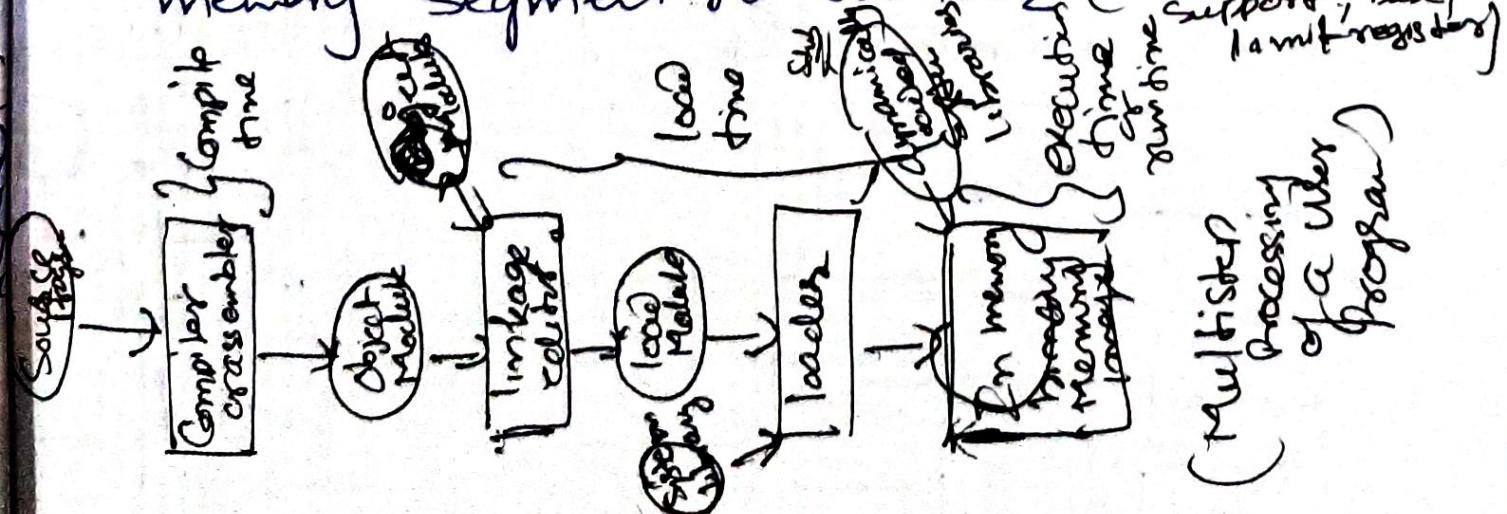
Load time : relocatable code (Confirm flight ticket)  
if memory location is not known  
at compile time.

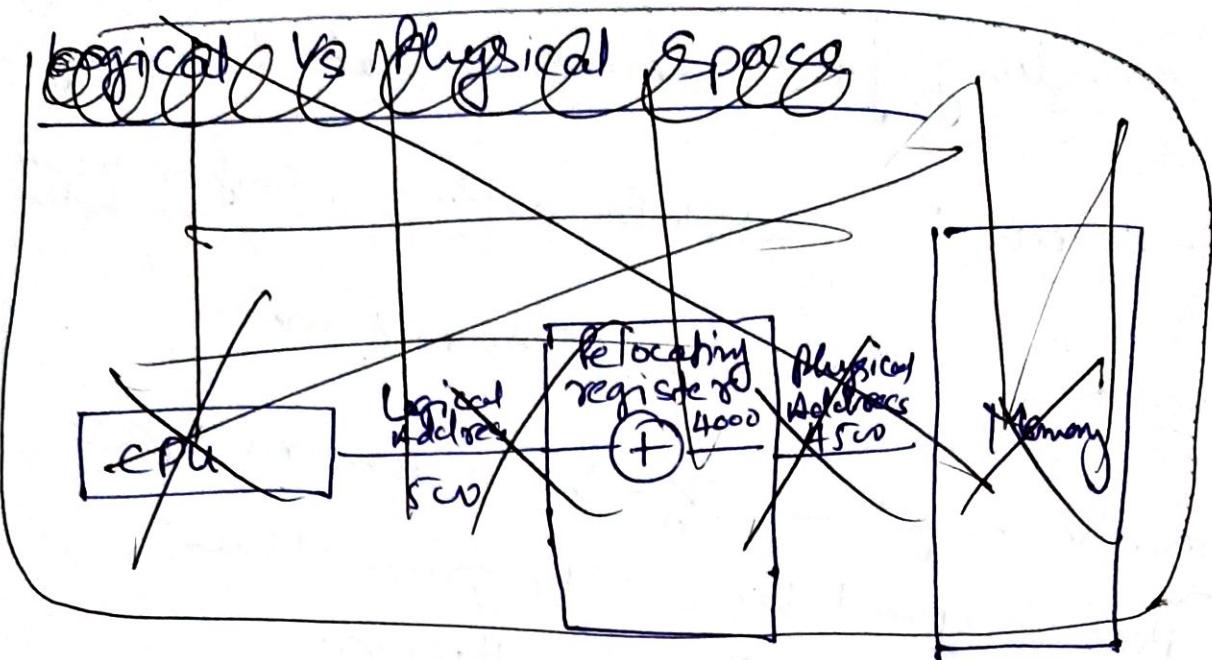


at load time

Execution time → Process can move during its execution from one

memory Segment to another (Needs hardware support, base/limit registers)





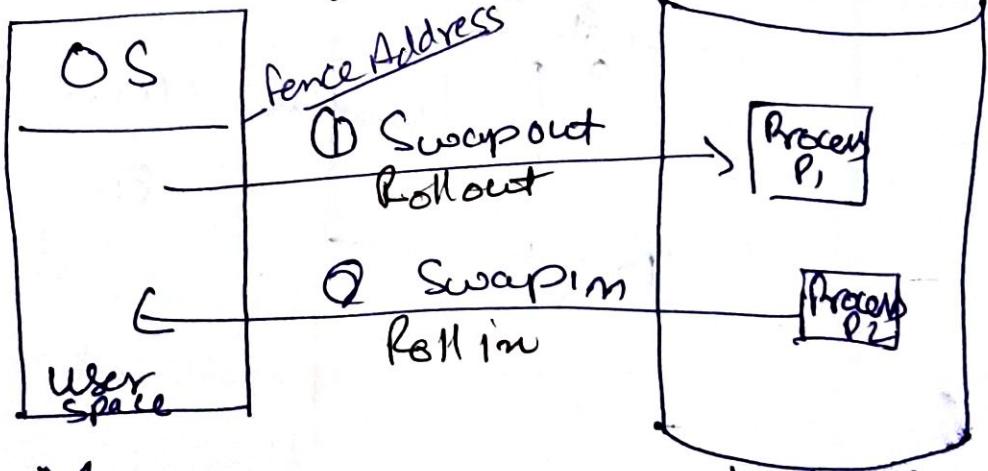
Swapping →  
Reasons: → Swapout

- \* Completed Task
- \* Abnormal termination
  - i. ETRAP
- \* For I/O.

Swapout could be —

- ① write to disk
- ② or do nothing in case of ~~dead~~ only process

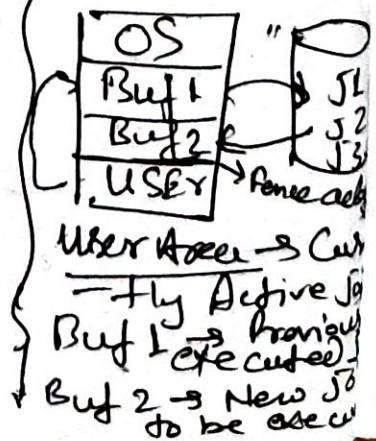
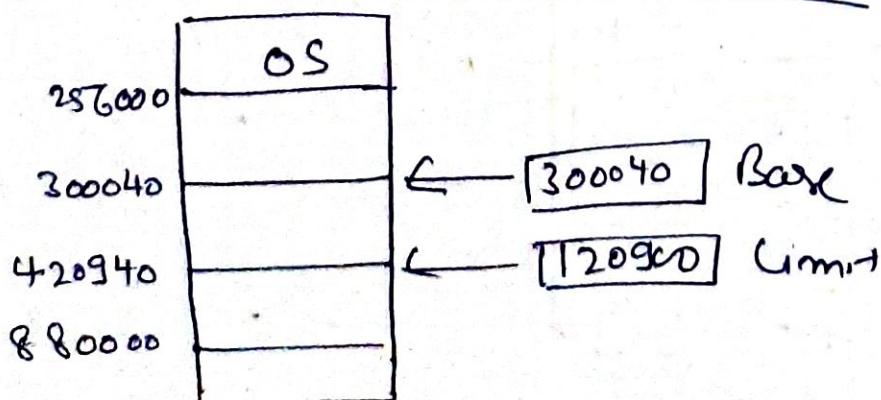
Problem with Swapping → ① ~~all processes~~ of thread are accessing memory at same time.



- ① Swapping takes considerable time of CPU for new process to come to CPU

Solution  
→ Flays

Base and Limit Register →



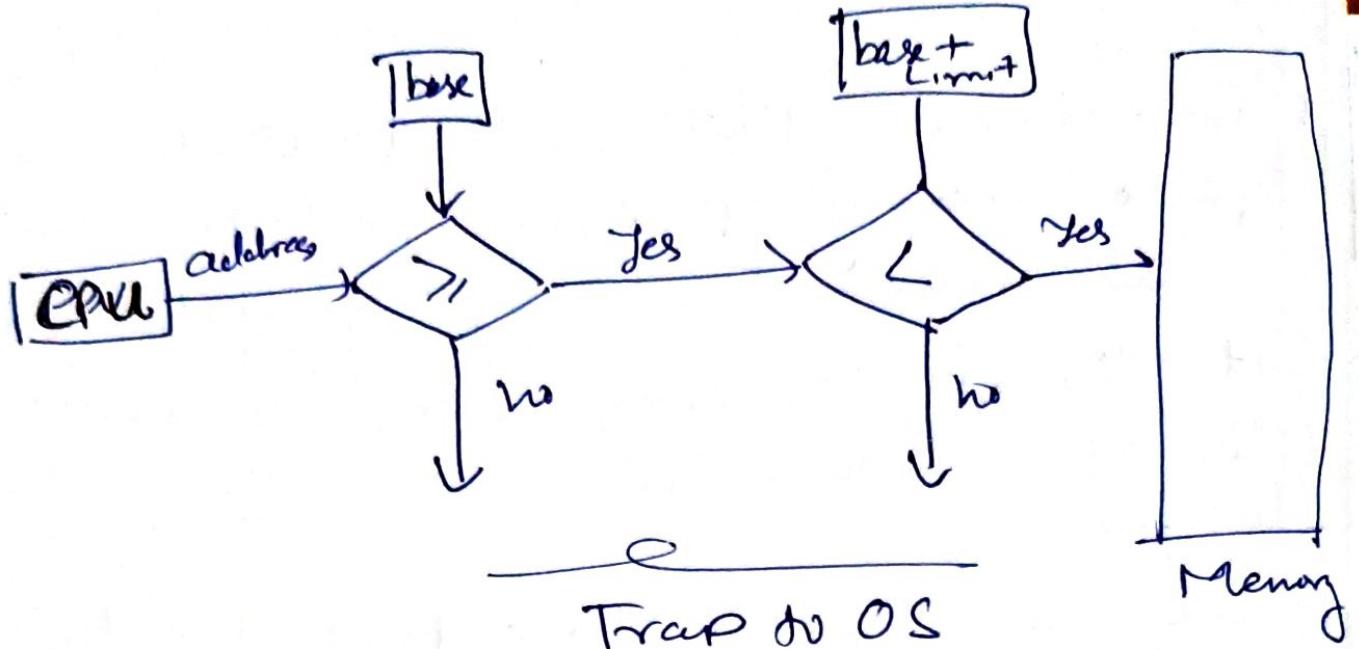
- \* To make sure that each process has a separate memory space, we need the ability to determine the range of legal addresses that the process may access to ensure that the process can access these legal addresses.

We can provide this protection by using two registers, usually a base and a limit.

So, here in fig. the program can legally access all addresses from 300040 through 420939 (inclusive)

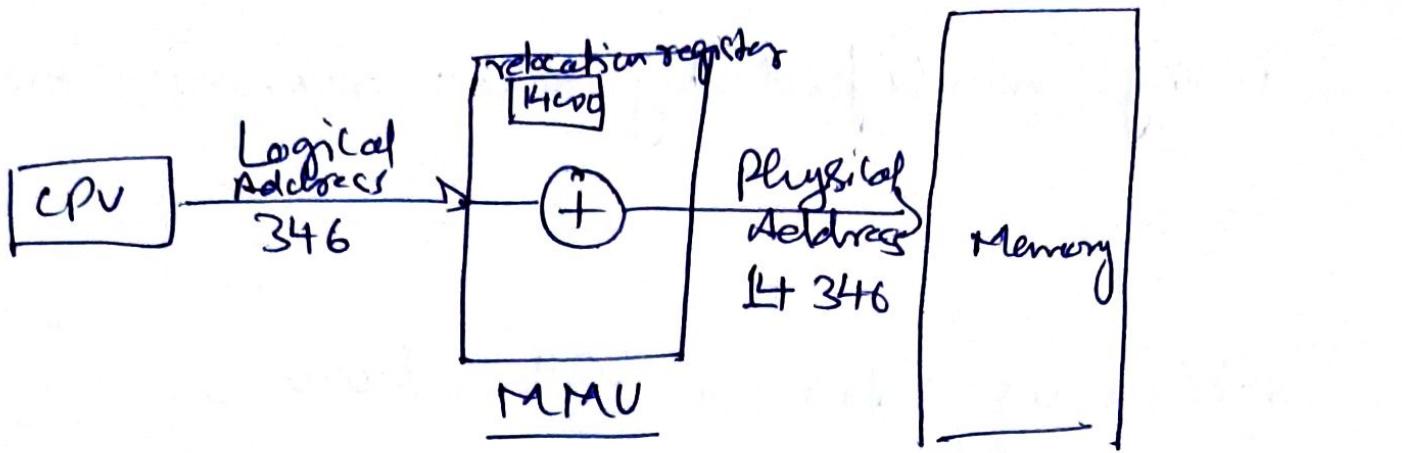
Hardware protection with base and limit registers

- \* Protection of memory space is accomplished by having the CPU hardware compare every address generated in user mode with registers.
- \* Any attempt by a program executing in user mode to access O.S memory or other user's memory results in a trap to O.S, which treats it as a fatal error.



## Logical Vs Physical Address Space

- \* The set of all logical addresses generated by a program is a logical address space.
  - \* The set of all physical addresses corresponding to these logical addresses is a physical address space.
- Note The run-time mapping from virtual logical address space to physical address space is done by a hardware device called memory-management unit (MMU).



## Memory Mapping and Protection →

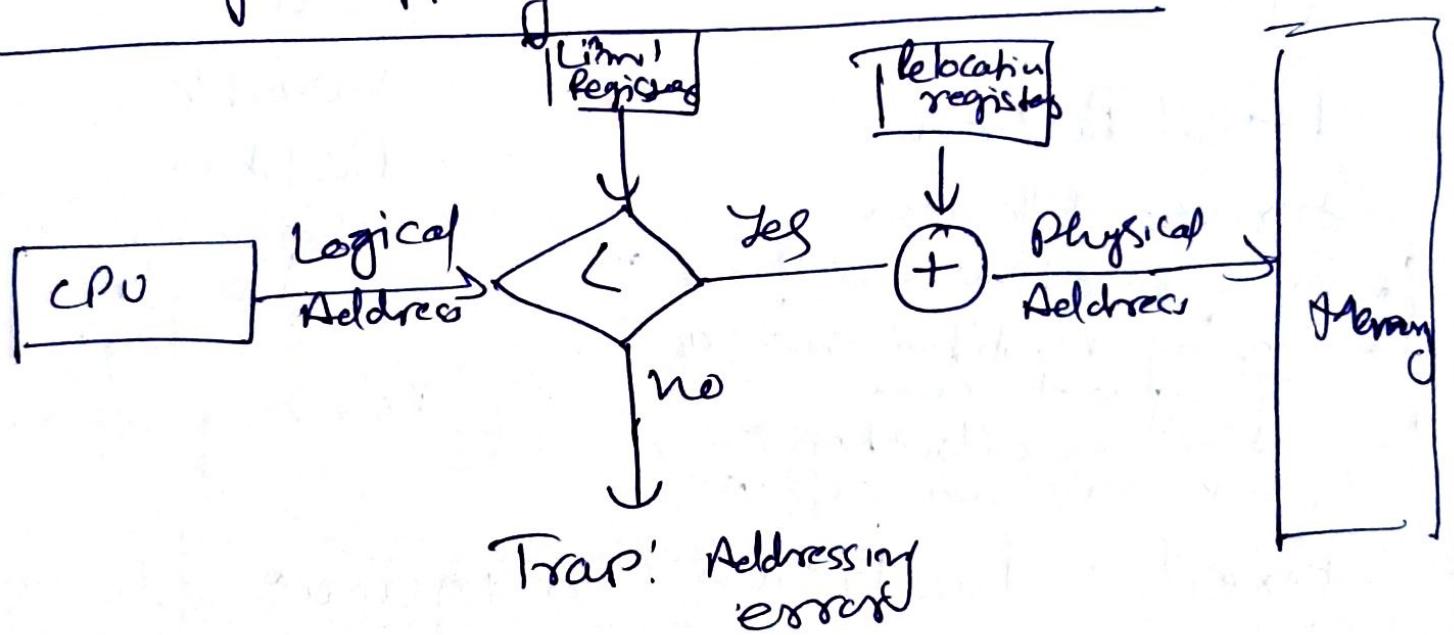


Fig. → Hardware support for relocation and limit registers

- \* When CPU scheduler selects a process for execution, the dispatcher loads the relocation and limit registers with correct values.
- \* Because every address generated by CPU is checked against these registers, we can protect both the OS and the other user's programs and data from

being modified by thus running process

## Contiguous Storage Allocation

Static

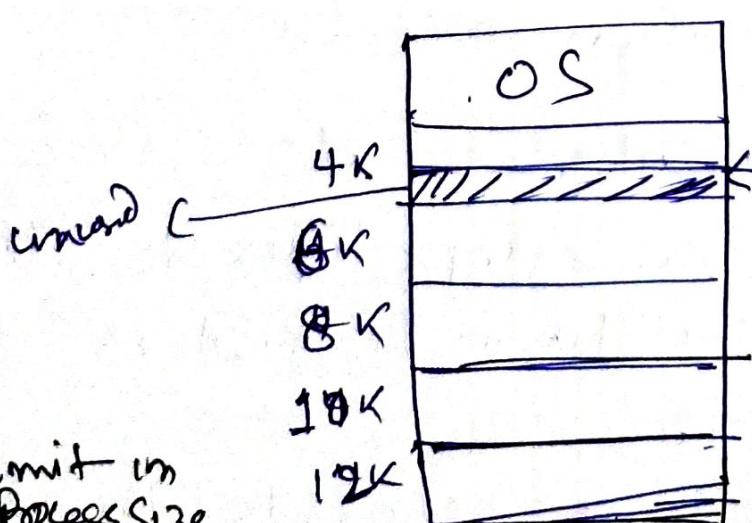
Dyanmic Partitioning

Fixed Partition

Storage Allocation

- \* no of Partitions are fixed
- \* Size of Partitions may or may not same
- \* Contiguous allocation so Spreading is not allowed

Fixed - Partition Contiguous Storage Allocation



\* Limit in Process size

\* Suffer to Internal fragmentation.

\* This Scheme was used for Early batch systems because space requirement of a process is known

Partitioning Strategies

Variable

- Partition

Storage  
Allocation

Strategy

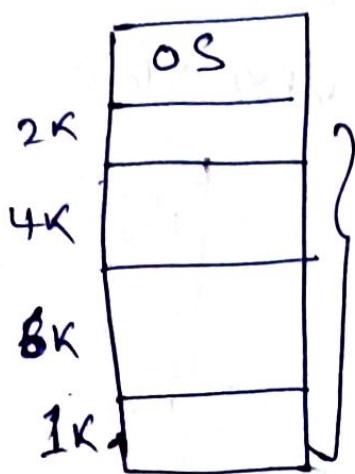


12 K Process

\* Limit on  
Degree of  
Multipro  
gramming

## Variable - Partition Contiguous Storage allocation

- \* No limitation on process size



\* There is no internal fragmentation  
 \* No limitations on no of processes or degree of multiprogramming

- \* Suffer to External fragmentation (hole)

Three Strategies

- Best-fit
- Worst-fit
- First-fit

Solution to External fragmentation is Compaction, Coalescing →

no data movement

both will be merged to get a contiguous space  
 P1 P2 P3 P4

First fit → Allocate the first hole that is big enough. // Simple fast

Next-fit → Same as first fit but start search always from last allocated hole. // advantage is save as first fit with pointer pointing next

~~Disadvantages~~ // It will search the entire list, so slow.  
advantage // Internal fragmentation is less to accomodate a new job.

Best fit: Allocate the smallest hole that is big enough

Worst fit: Allocate the largest hole. ~~Disadvantage~~ slow

ex<sup>①</sup>  $P_1 = 15K$

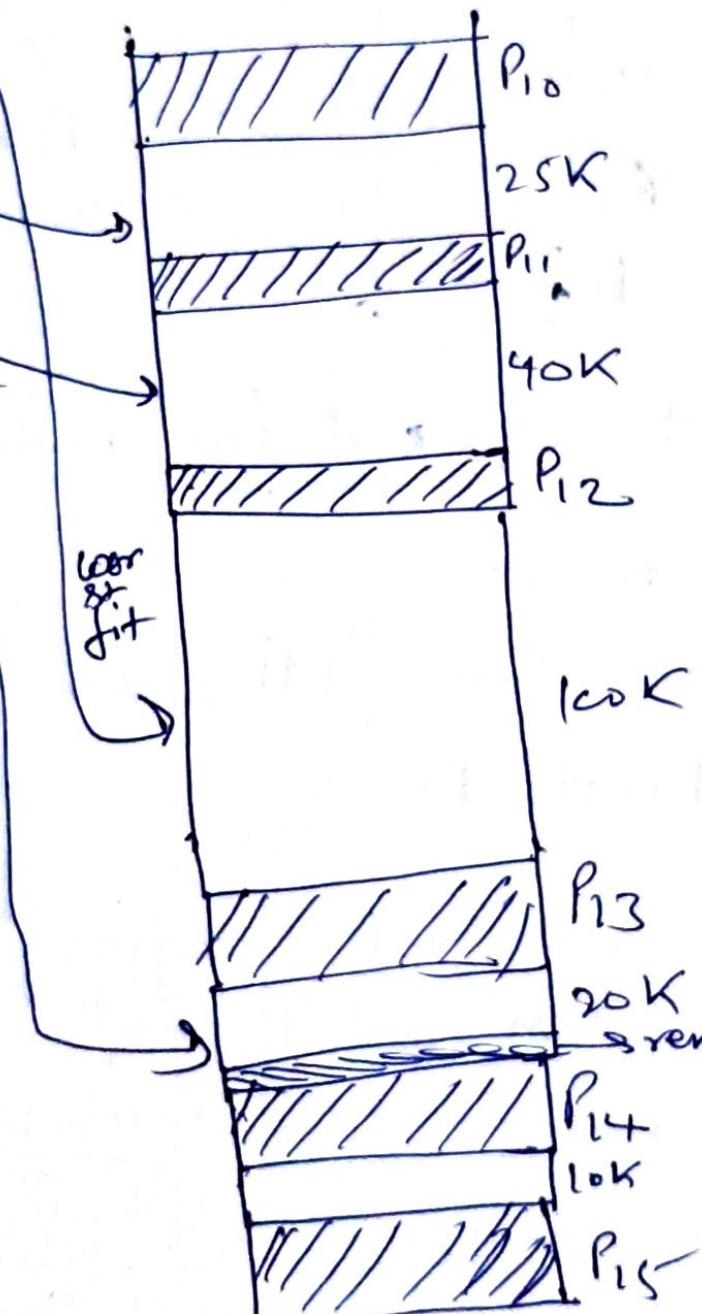
first fit

②  $P_2 = 18K$

Next fit

worst fit

Best fit

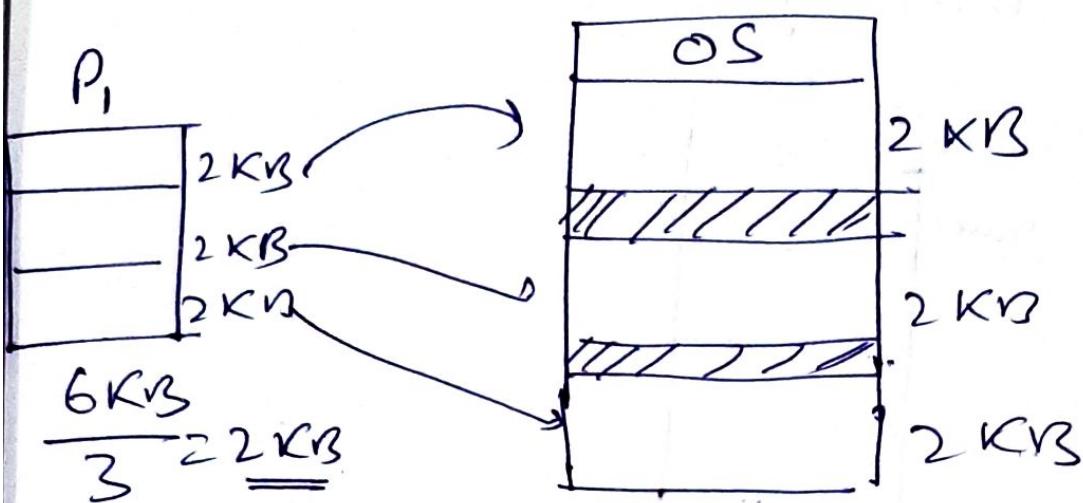


will leave  
the leftover  
85K max

remaining portion 18  
(5K) least

## ⑥

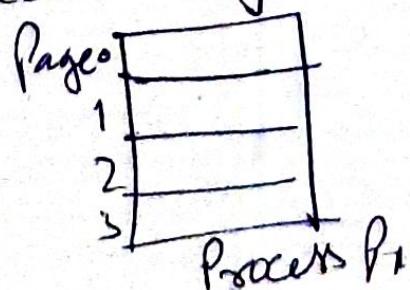
# Non Contiguous Memory Allocation (Need of Paging)



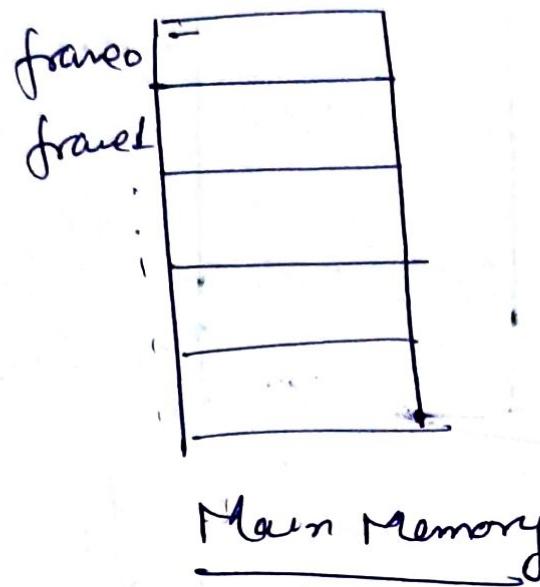
\* To remove external fragmentation we use non contiguous memory allocation

- \* So, to allocate the memory dynamically at runtime is costly because we need to check the availability of holes and their size and accordingly we can divide the size of Process.
- \* The hole size will continuously change.

So, what we can do is we can create a Pages of a Process in Secondary memory



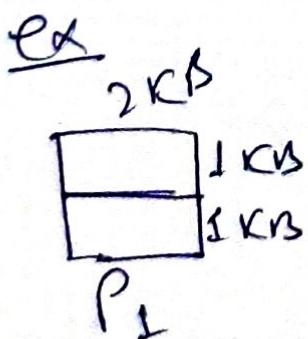
- \* Like we ~~will~~ divide the Physical memory into frames.



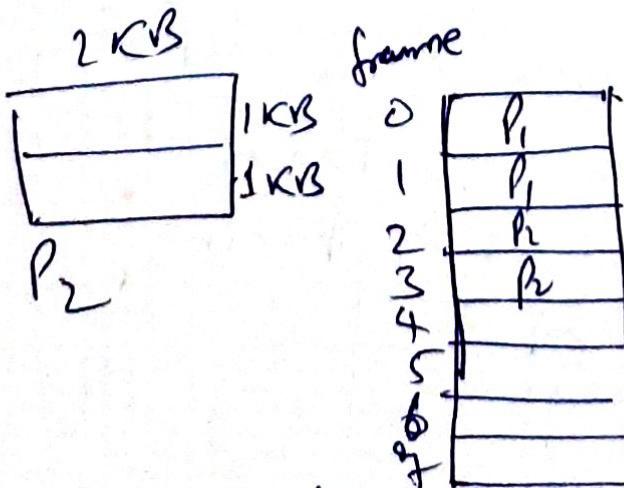
\* Imp - Page Size = frame Size

- \* we can allocate those of Pages to different frames (noncontiguously)

~~Advantage~~ Advantage is that External fragmentation is completely removed. ~~Adv~~



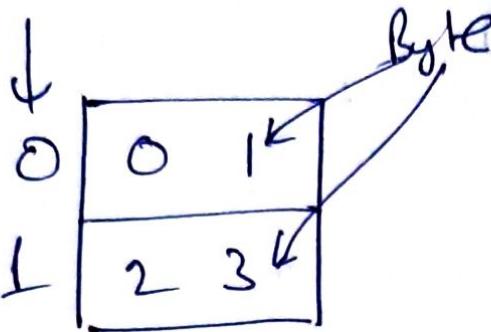
$$\text{Page Size} = 1 \text{ KB}$$



$$\text{frame size} = \underline{1 \text{ KB}} \quad 8 \text{ KB (RAM)}$$

## What is Paging —

Page No.



frames

Byte

frame	Byte
0	0 1
1	2 3
2	4 5
3	6 7
4	8 9
5	10 11
6	12 13
7	14 15

Process Size = 4B

Page Size = 2B

No. of Pages ~~Process~~

$$= \frac{4B}{2B}$$

$$= 2$$

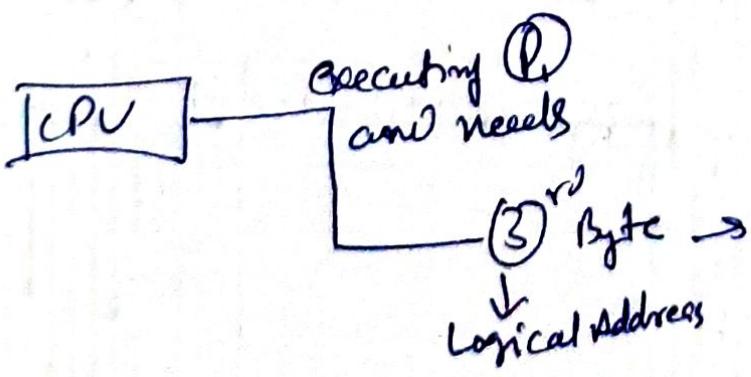
M/M Size = 16B

frame Size = 2B

No. of frames ~~Process~~

$$= \frac{16B}{2B}$$

$$= 8 \text{ frames}$$



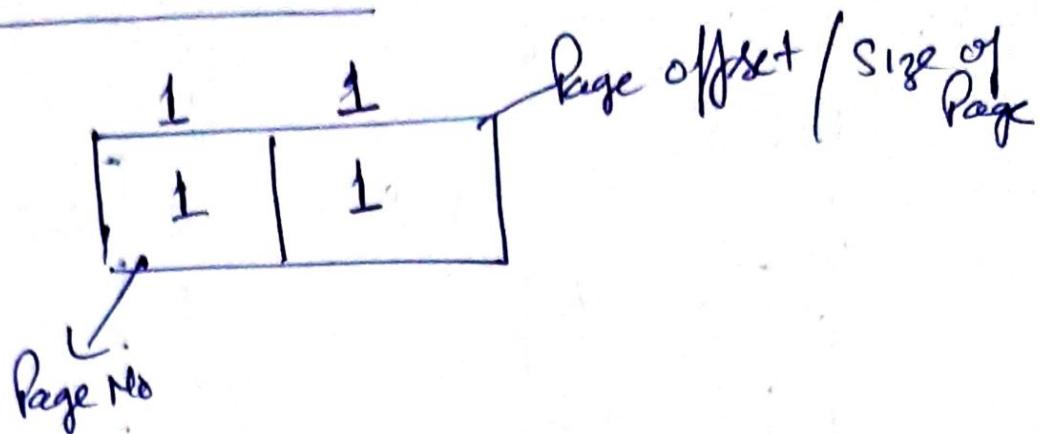
## Page table

0	frame 2
1	frame 4

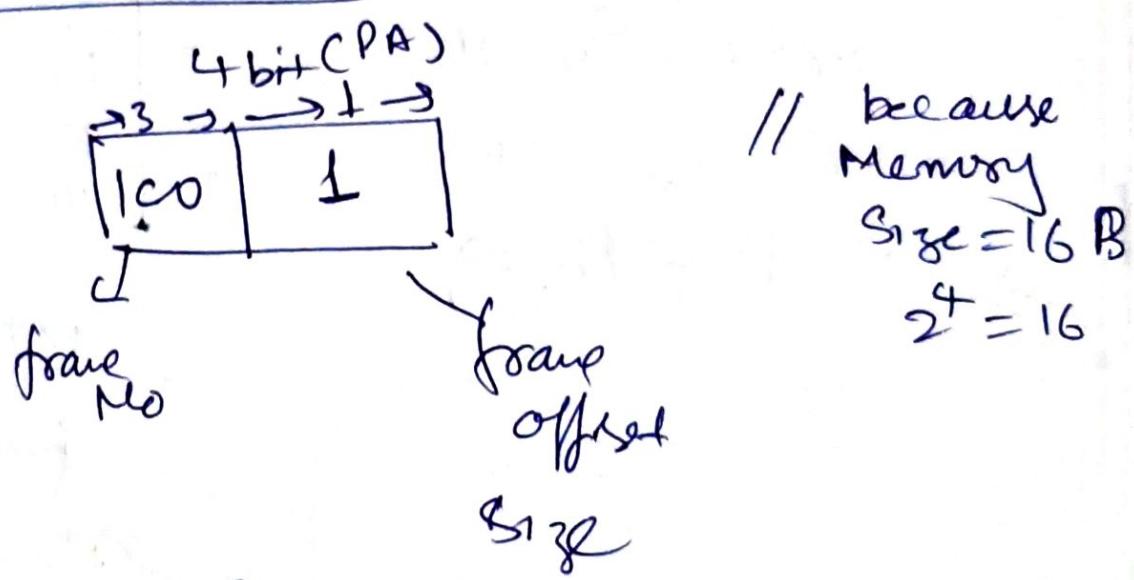
P1

1) MMU Converts Logical address to Physical address by using Page table.

## Logical Address



## Physical Address ↗



## Question on Logical Address and Physical Address

\* memory is Byte Addressable

Given LAS = 4 GB

PAS = 64 MB

Page Size = 4 KB

No. of Pages = ?

No. of frames = ?

No. of entries in Page table = ?

Size of Page table = ?

$2^1 = 2$	20
$2^2 = 4$	19
$2^3 = 8$	18
$2^4 = 16$	17
$2^5 = 32$	16
$2^6 = 64$	15
$2^7 = 128$	14
$2^8 = 256$	13
$2^9 = 512$	12
$2^{10} = 1024$	11

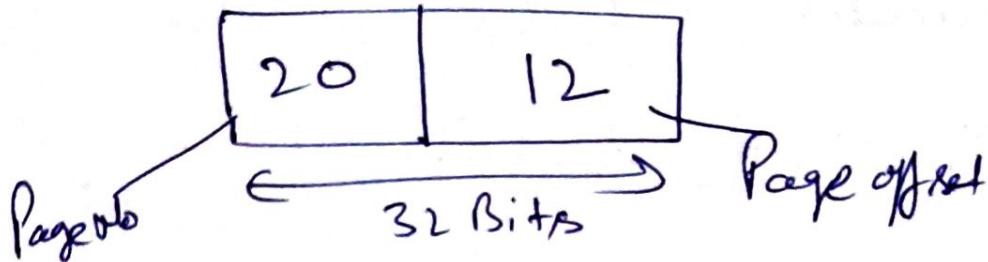
(8)

Solutions

$$\begin{aligned}LA &= 4GB \\&= 2^2 \times 2^{30} B \\&= 2^{32} B\end{aligned}$$

16 8 4 2 1  
0 1 0 1

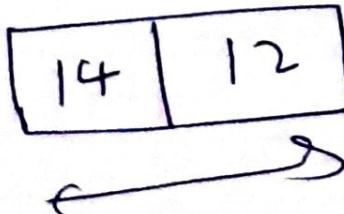
16 8 4 2 1  
0 1 0 1



$$\text{Page Size} = 4 KB = 2^2 \times 2^{10} = 2^{12} B$$

$$\text{So, No of Pages} = 2^{20}$$

$$\text{PA} = 64 MB = 2^6 \times 2^{20} = 2^{26} B$$



$$\text{So, No of frames} = 2^{14}$$

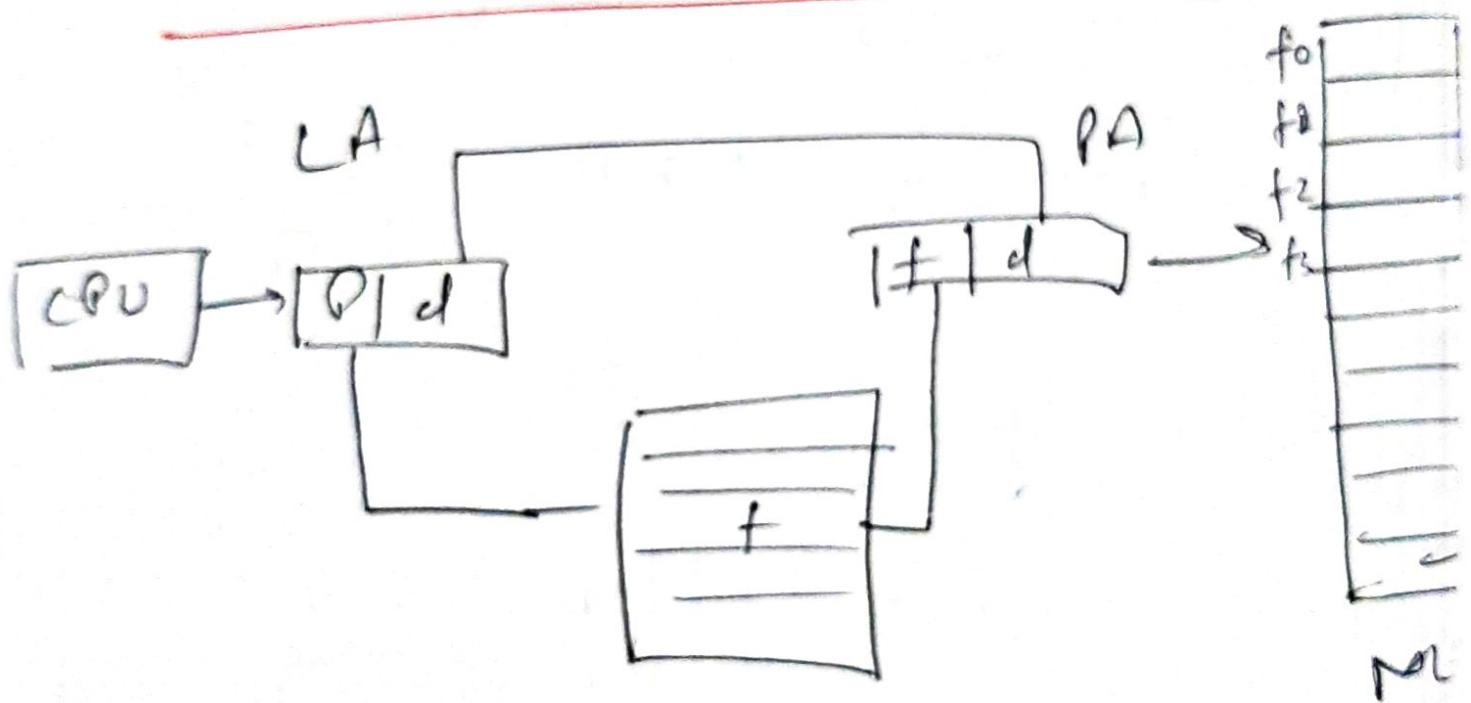
No of entries in Page Table = No of Pages in a process

$$\text{So, No of entries in PT} = 2^{20} \text{ PA}$$

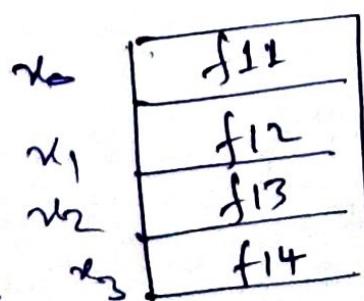
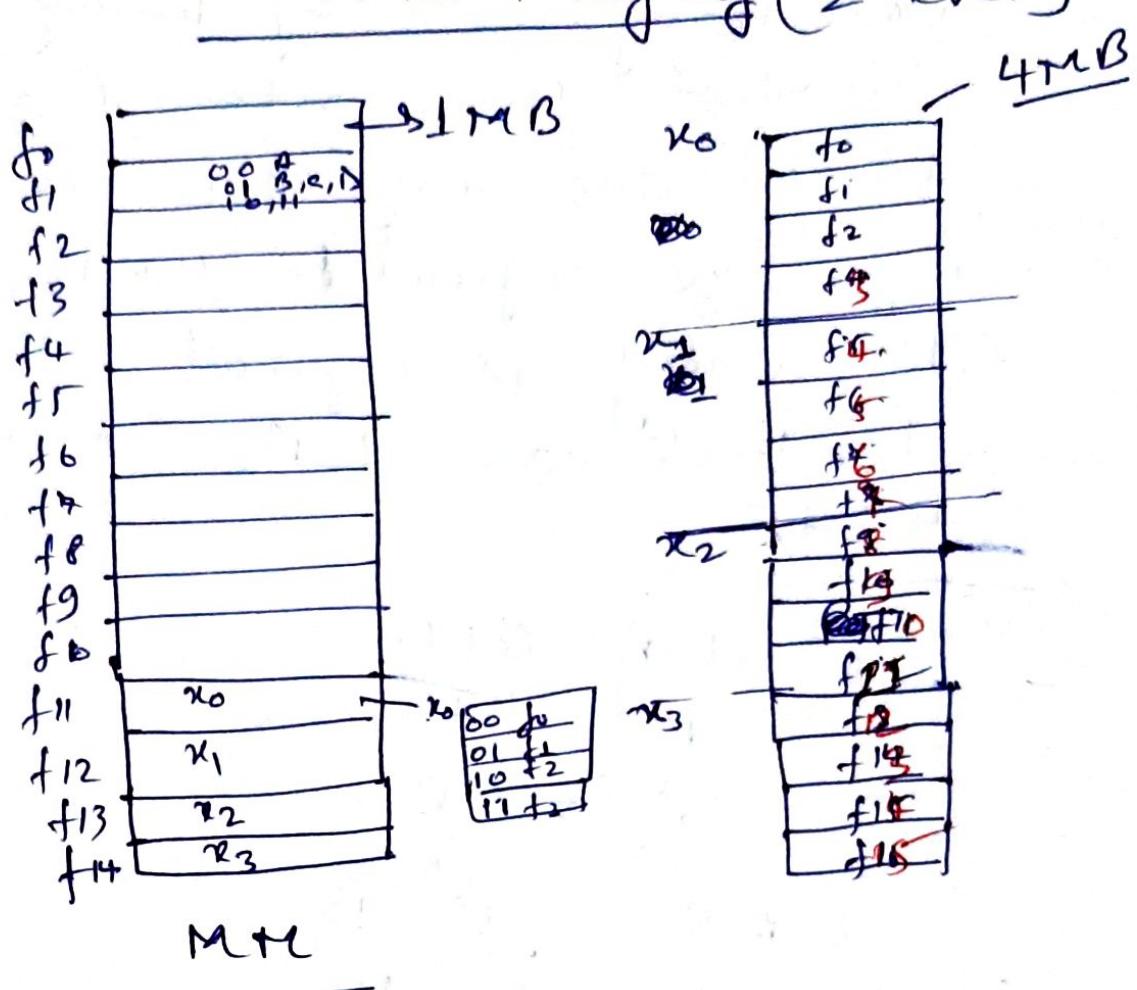
$$\text{Size of P.T} \equiv \frac{\text{No of pages}}{2^{20} \times 14 \text{ bits}} \times \text{Size of frame bits}$$

- \* Page-table base register (PTBR)  
Points to Page table
- \* Page -Table length Register(PTL)  
indicates Size of Page table.

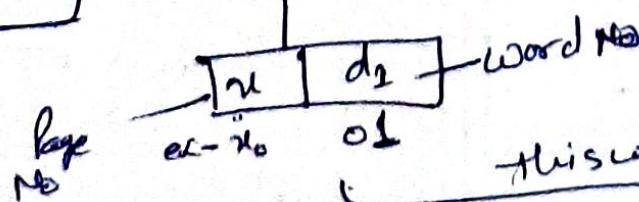
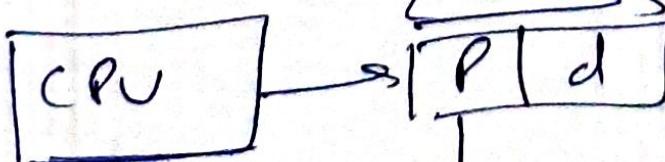
### Address Translation Architecture



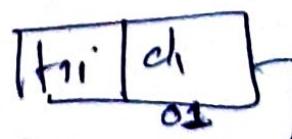
# Multilevel Paging (2 level)



Outer P.T



This will be  
Converted to



→ it will give access to f11

Now which data? i.e



Q- How many levels of Paging is required such that the outer Page table fit in one Page size assuming Page size equal to 4 KB and Page table entry is equal to 4 B at all levels and LA is equal to 64 bits

Solu<sup>n</sup>

$$L_A = 64 \text{ bits}$$

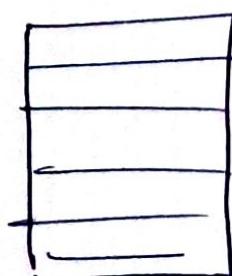
$$P.S = 4 \text{ KB}$$

$$\cancel{P.T.E \leq 4B}$$

$$L_A S = 2^{64} B$$

$$\cancel{P.S} = 2^2 \times 2^{10} B \\ = 2^{12} B$$

$$\text{No of Pages} = \frac{2^{64} B}{2^{12} B} \\ = 2^{52} \text{ Pages}$$



$$P.T = \text{No of entries in P.T} \\ = 2^{52}$$

$$\text{Size} = 2^{52} \times 4 B$$

So, we can't put  $2^{52} B$  in  $2^{12} B$  P.T Size

So, let divide the P.T ~~into~~

(10)



$$\text{Pages} = \frac{2^{54}}{2^{12}} = 2^{42} \text{ pages (No of entries)}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Size} &= 2^{42} \times 4B \\ &= 2^{44} B\end{aligned}$$

again thus  $2^{44}$  is much bigger than  $2^{12} B$  P.T Size, so another division is required



$$\frac{2^{44}}{2^{12}} = 2^{32} \text{ pages (no of entries)}$$

$$\text{Size} = 2^{32} \times 4B = 2^{34} B \text{ Size}$$

again its much bigger, so, we need to divide it again

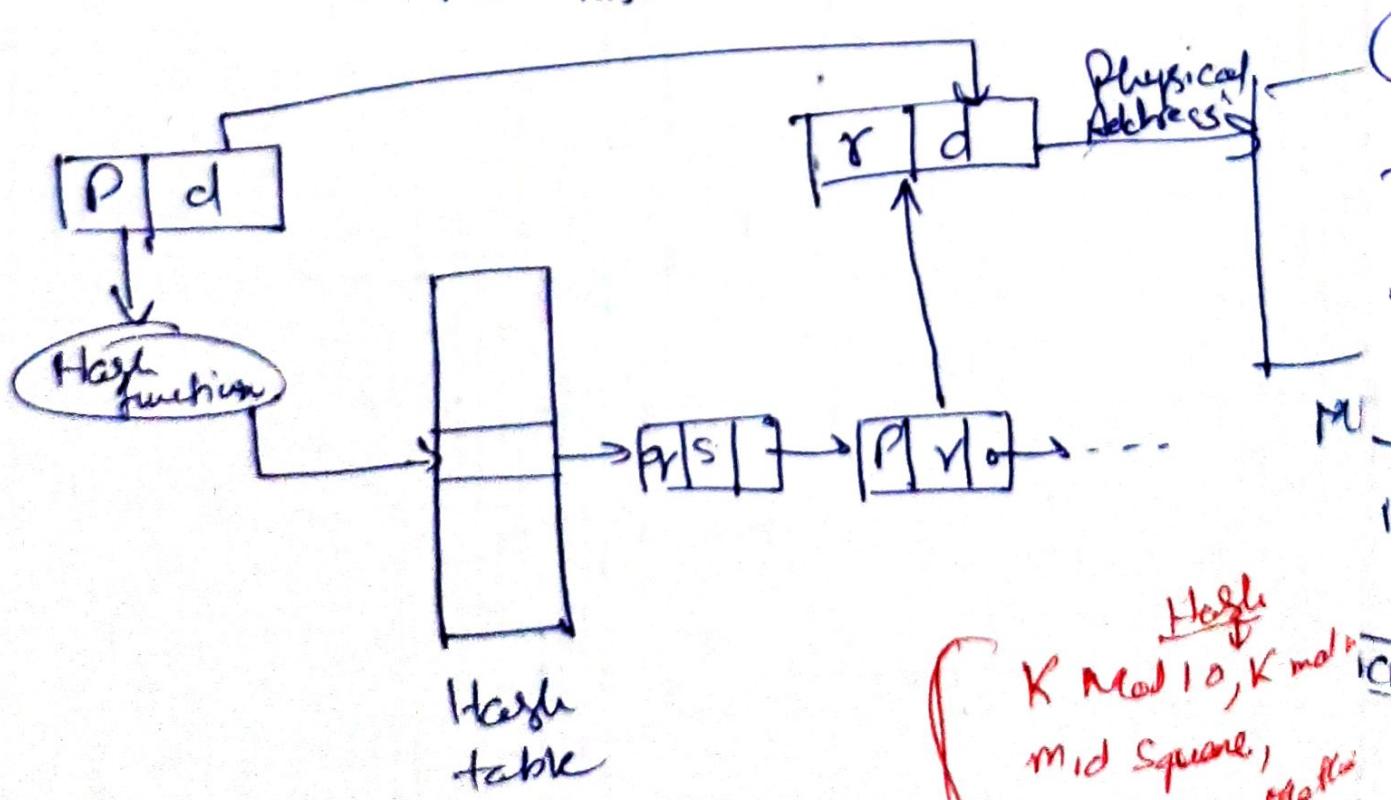
$$\begin{array}{cccccc} 54 & \rightarrow & 44 & \rightarrow & 34 & \rightarrow \\ 2 & \rightarrow & 2 & \rightarrow & 2 & \rightarrow \\ \textcircled{1} & \textcircled{2} & \textcircled{3} & \textcircled{4} & \textcircled{5} & \textcircled{6} \end{array} \quad \frac{2^4}{2} = 4$$

i.e 6 level of Paging.

Hashed P.T → A common approach

for handling address space larger than 32 bits is to use a hashed page table, with hash value being the virtual page no.

- \* Each entry in the hash table contains a linked list of elements that hash to the same location.
- \* Each element consists of three fields:
  - (i) the virtual page no.
  - (ii) the value of the mapped page frame.
  - (iii) a pointer to the next element in the linked list.



Hash  
K Mod 10, K mod 10  
mid square,  
folding method  
etc

(11)

## Inverted Paging

0	f0
1	X
2	f2
3	X

Page table of P1

0	X
1	f3
2	f5
3	X

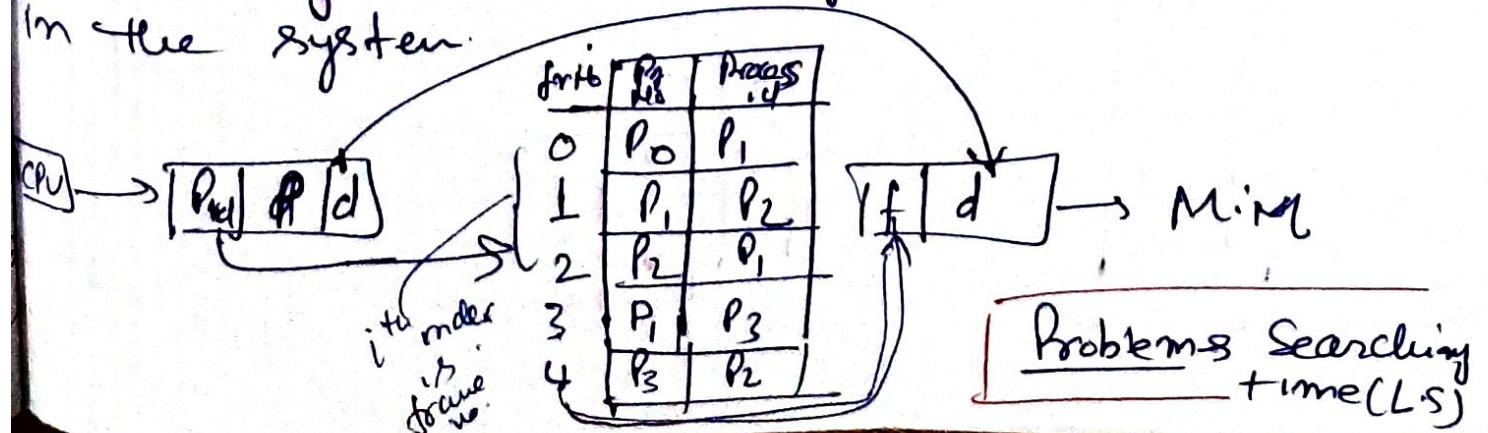
P.T of P3

0	X
1	f1
2	X
3	f4

P.T of P2

- (1) Each process has its own P.T } Non
- (2) P.T will be in main memory } multi Paging

To solve this, we can use inverted P.T. An inverted P.T has one entry for each real page (or frame) of memory. Thus in this way we are using only one P.T in the system.



## Page table entry

		Present / Absent				
frame No	Valid(1) / invalid(0)		Protection (R W X)	Reference	Caching	Dirty

↓      ↓

Mandatory fields      Optional fields

Valid / Invalid → One additional bit is generally attached to each entry in the Page table: a Valid/invalid bit.

- \* When this bit is set to "Valid", the associated page is in the process's logical address space and is thus legal (or valid) page; otherwise, it is invalid.
- \* Illegal attempts will be trapped to the O.S.

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

frame No	Page No	Valid / Invalid	Page No
0	2	V	0
1	3	V	1
2	4	V	2
3	7	V	3
4	8	V	4
5	9	V	5
6	0	I	6
7	0	I	7
		P.T.	8

(12)

Shared Pages → An advantage of Paging is the possibility of sharing common code. This consideration is particularly important in a time-sharing environment.

Consider a system that supports 40 users; each of whom executes a text editor. If the editor consists of 150 KB of code and 50 KB of data space, we need 8000 KB space to support 40 users.

But if the code is reentrant code (or pure code), it can be shared like below (Sharing of code in Paging environments).

ed1
ed2
ed3
data
P <sub>1</sub>

3
4
6
1
PT for P <sub>1</sub>

ed1
ed2
ed3
data

3
4
6
7
PT for P <sub>2</sub>

0
1
2
3
4
5
6
7

ed1
ed2
ed3
data
P <sub>3</sub>

3
4
6
2

PT  
for P<sub>3</sub>

PTM

- \* Reentrant Code is not - self-modifying.  
It never changes during execution.  
Thus, two or more process can execute  
the same code at the same time.  
Each process has its own copy of  
registers and data storage to hold  
the data for the process' execution.
  - \* Thus, to support 40 users, we need  
only one copy of the editor (150 KB),  
plus 40 copies of 50 KB of data space  
per user.  
So total space required = 2150 KB  
instead of 8000 KB  
So, thus is a significant saving.
- 

Q- M.M access time = 100 usec, Page  
fault rate = 40%. & Page fault  
Service time = 24 sec

Solu"

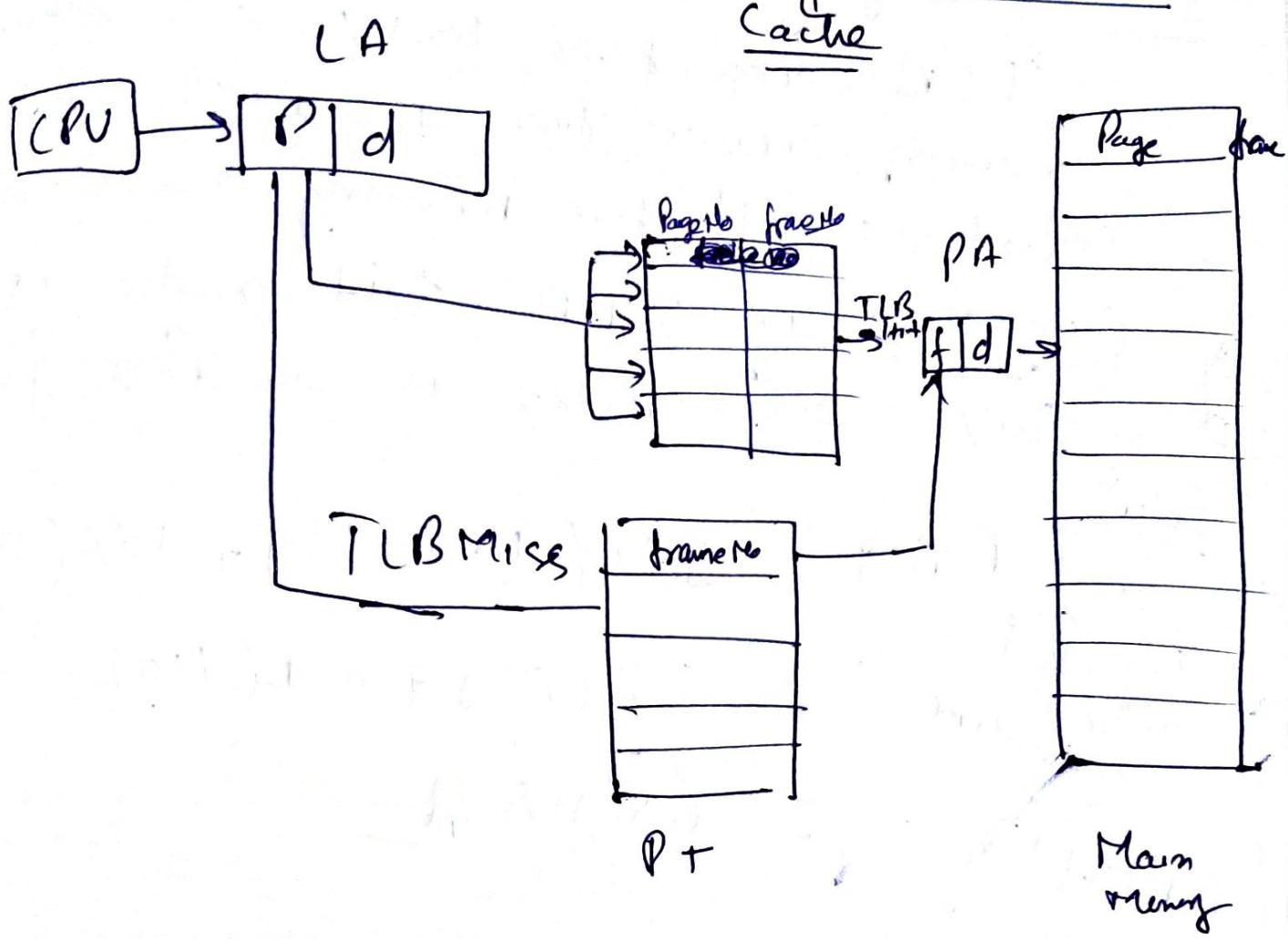
$$EAT = P \times S + (1-P) \times m$$

$$m = 100 \text{ usec}, P = 40\% \Rightarrow \frac{40}{100} = 0.4$$

$$S = 4 \text{ msec} = 4000 \text{ usec} \quad (1 \text{ msec} = 1000 \text{ usec})$$

$$(0.4 \times 4000) \text{ usec} + (0.6 \times 100) = 1660 \text{ usec}$$

# Transklation Lookaside Buffer (TLB) <sub>IS</sub>



TLB is faster than RAM

Effective Access time

$$EAT = \frac{1}{H+t} (TLB + x) + \text{Miss} \left( \frac{1}{H+t} (TLB + x + x) \right)$$

ie

$$\text{if } H+t = \alpha$$

then

$$EAT = \alpha \left( TLB + \frac{\alpha}{H+t} \right) + \left( 1 - \alpha \right) \left( TLB + \frac{2\alpha}{H+t} \right)$$

Q- A Paging Scheme using T.LB.  
 T.LB access time 10 ns and main  
 memory access time takes 50 ns.  
 what is effective memory access time  
 (in ns). If T.LB hit ratio is  
 90% and there is no Page fault

Solu<sup>n</sup>

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{EAT} &= 90\% (10 + 50) + 10\% (10 + \\
 &\quad \cancel{50}) \\
 \text{Effective} &= 0.9(60) + 0.1(110) \\
 \text{memory} &= 65 \text{ ns} \\
 \cancel{\text{access}} & \\
 (\text{EMAT}) &
 \end{aligned}$$

Q- Suppose an Instruction has Page fault  
 service time = 10 msec and memory  
 access time 20 nsec

If one Page fault is generated for  
 every 10<sup>6</sup> memory access then what is  
 the effective access time for the  
 memory?

Solu<sup>n</sup>

$$\text{PFS} = 10 \text{ msec}$$

$$\text{MAT} = 20 \text{ nsec}$$

$$\text{Page fault rate} = \frac{1}{10^6}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{EMAT} &= \frac{1}{10^6} \times 10 \times 10^{-3} + \frac{1}{10^6} \\
 &= 3 \times 10^{-8} - 2 \times 10^{-8} = \frac{(1 - \frac{1}{10^6}) + 20 \times 10^{-9}}{10^6} \\
 &= 9
 \end{aligned}$$

# Segmentation Vs Paging

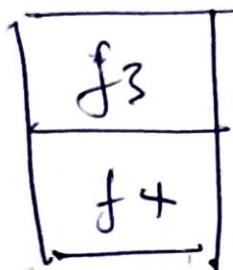
(14)

Problem with Paging

- Paging divides the Process into no. of Pages without caring for what is written in code of process.

Ex -

Add()

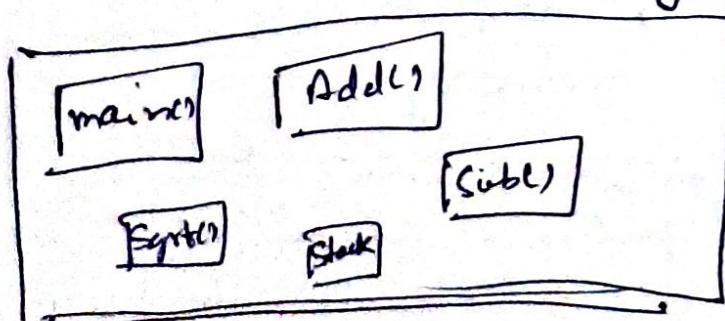


Now when CPU executes  $f_3$  it will not get all code of Add(), because it has been combined into  $f_3$  and  $f_4$ .

It means after  $f_3$  we must execute  $f_4$ , otherwise instructions of Add() will not be executed.

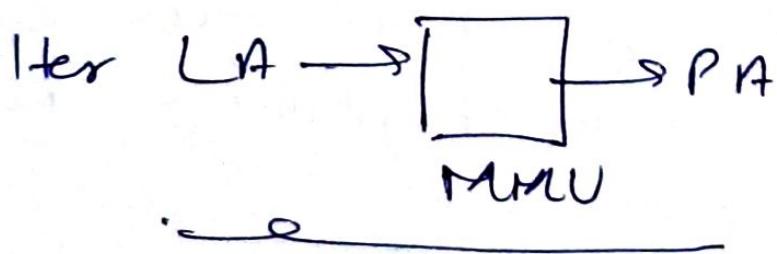
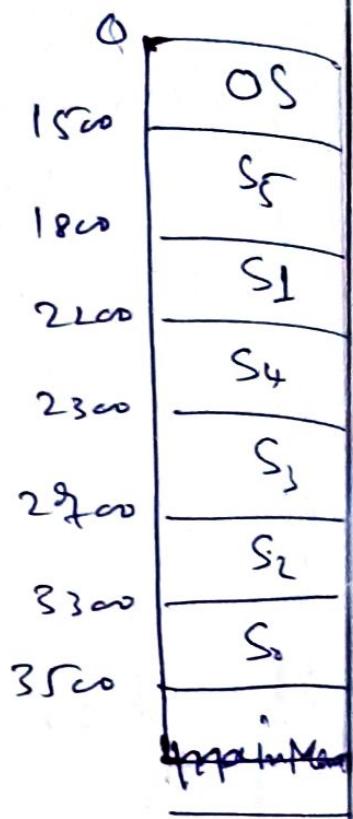
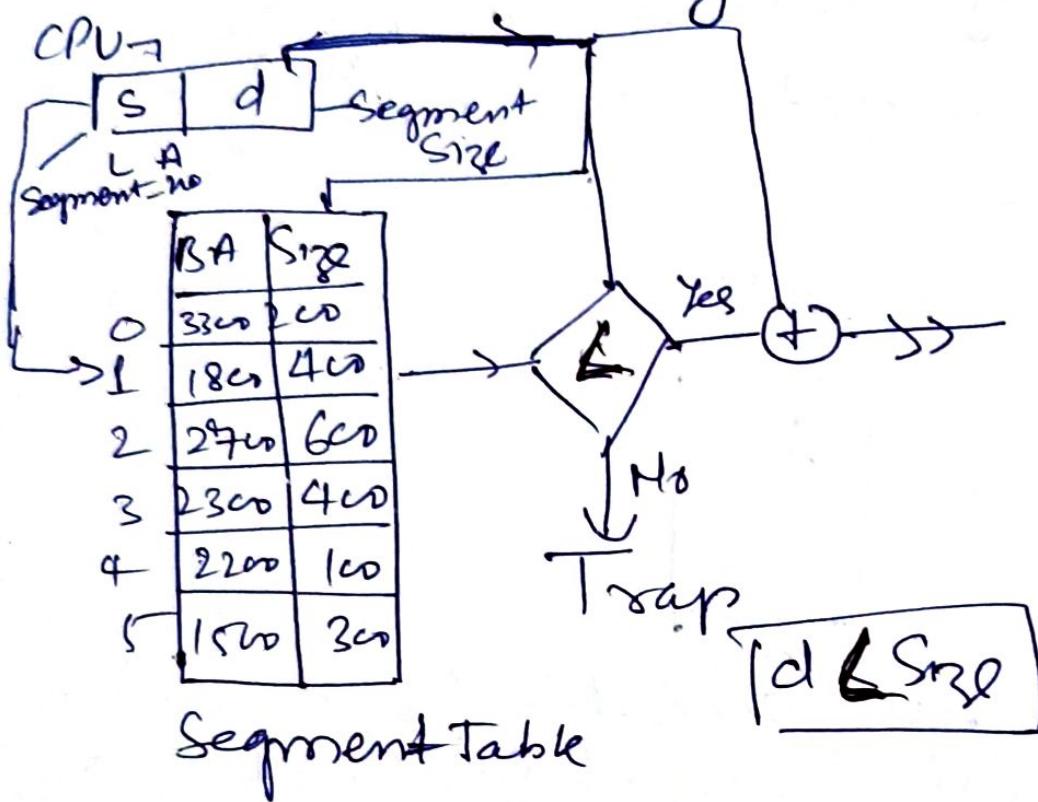
Inb Segmentation works on user view.

\* A Program is a Collection of Segments



\* Different Segments has different size. (But Pages are always of same size)

\* we save these segments in Main memory



- \* Segment Table base register (STB) points to the Segment Table located in memory
- \* Segment table length register (STL) indicates number of segments used by a program. **Segment No < STL**

Q- Consider the following segment table

Seg_no	Base	length
0	1219	7cw
1	23cw	14
2	90	1cw
3	1327	580
4	1952	96

Vehicle following  
Logical Address

will produce

TRAP address

by error  
segno offset

①

0, 430

②

1, 11

③ 2, 1a

④ 3, 425 ⑤ 4, 95

Solu<sup>n</sup>

$$1 - \text{Physical address} = 1219 + 430 \text{ (No errors)}$$

$$2 - \text{Physical address} = 23cw + 11 \text{ (No errors)}$$

$$3 - \text{TRAP} \quad (1cw (10 false))$$

$$4 - P.A = 1327 + 425 \text{ (No errors)}$$

$$5 - PA = 1952 + 95 \text{ (No errors)}$$

(Paging with Segmentation)

Q — A certain computer system has the segmented paging architecture for virtual memory. The memory is byte addressable. Both virtual and physical addresses spaces contain  $2^{18}$  bytes each.

The virtual address space is divided into 16 equal size segments. Assume that Page size is 512 bytes. The memory management unit (MMU) has a segment table, each entry of which contains the physical address of the page table for the segment. Page tables are stored in the main memory and consists of 2-byte page table entries. How many bits are available in Page Table entry for storing the Paging information for the Page?

Solution

VA	18 bits		
	S	P	d
	4 bits	5 bits	9 bits
	bits remaining		

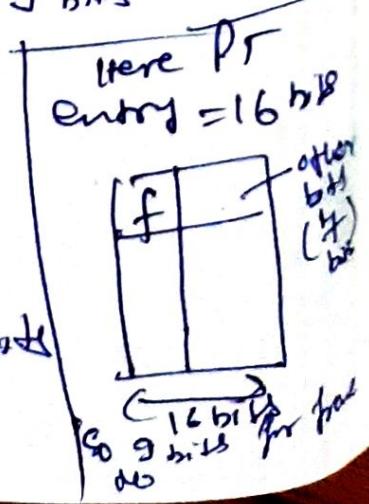
Because  $16 \text{ segments} = 2^4 = 4 \text{ bits}$  represent segment no

PA = 18 bits

l	f	d
1 bits	9 bits	

offset = Page Size = 512 bytes =  $2^9 = 9 \text{ bits}$

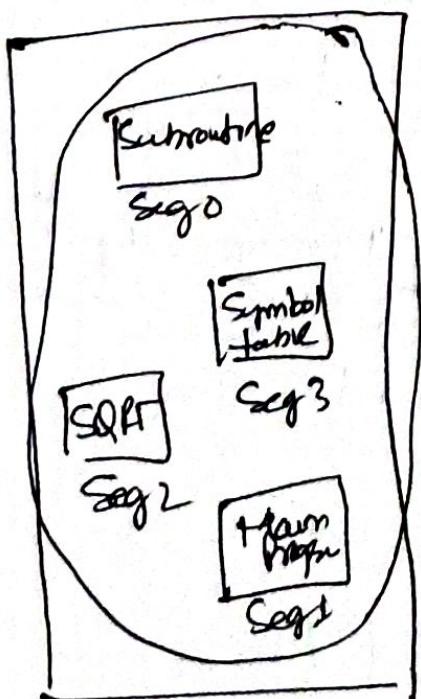
So, 9 bits for Paging information and 9 bits for various extra information



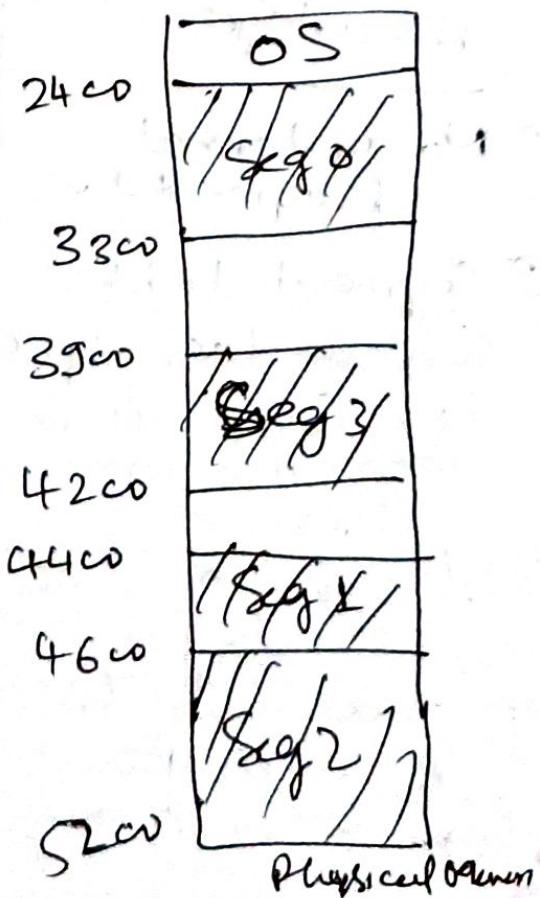
## Segmentation

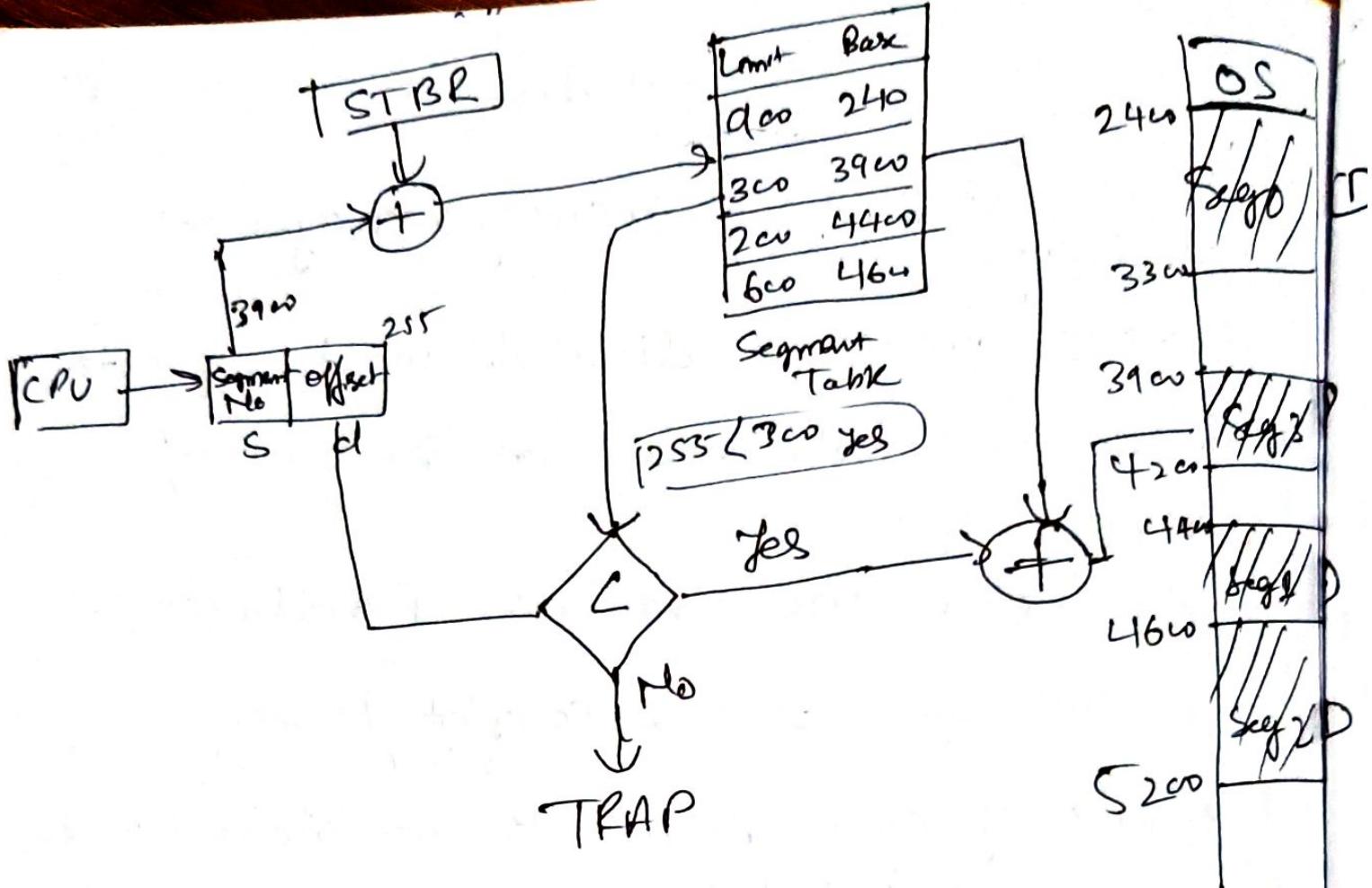
①

- Segmentation is a memory management technique.
- In this process is divided into segments.
- These segments need not be of same size.
- Segmentation uses variable Partitioning.  
one segment = one complete memory block
- Details of each segments is stored in to a 'Segment Table'
  - It contains 2 information
    - Base - Base address of segment
    - Limit - length of the segment



Segment Table	
Base	Limit
2400	9C0
39C0	3C0
44C0	2C0
46C0	0F00





## Segmentation Hardware

### Segmentation

[ Segment Size >> Page Size ]

#### Advantages

- ① No internal fragmentation
- ② Segment table consume less space in comparison page table in beginning.
- ③ Sharing of code is easy.
- ④ Very good protection to user process from other processes.

#### Disadvantages

- ① External fragmentation is there.
- ② Costly memory management (To keep track of where and how much memory is free).
- ③ Memory is not being utilized.
- ④ Swapping of process is not easy. (To bring back same segment sized process to memory.)

## Paging with Segmentation

Q

~~\* (To overcome from external fragmentation)~~

D Process  $\xrightarrow{\text{Divided}}$  Segments  $\xrightarrow{\text{Divided}}$  Pages

| Stored  
↓  
Main Memory

1 Page table for 1 Segment which keeps track of frames storing Pages

Each Page table occupies one frame in main memory

No of entries in Page table of Segment = No of Pages that segment is divided

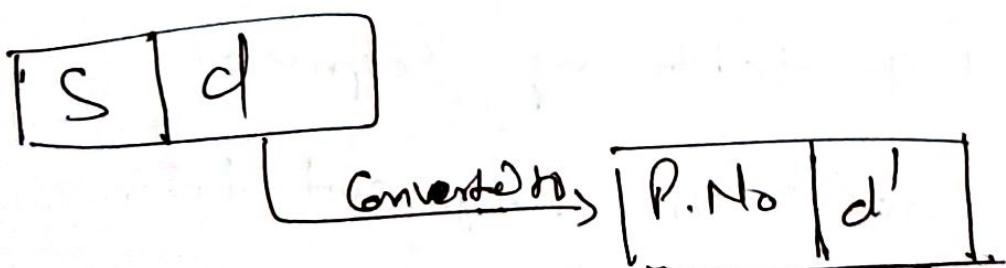
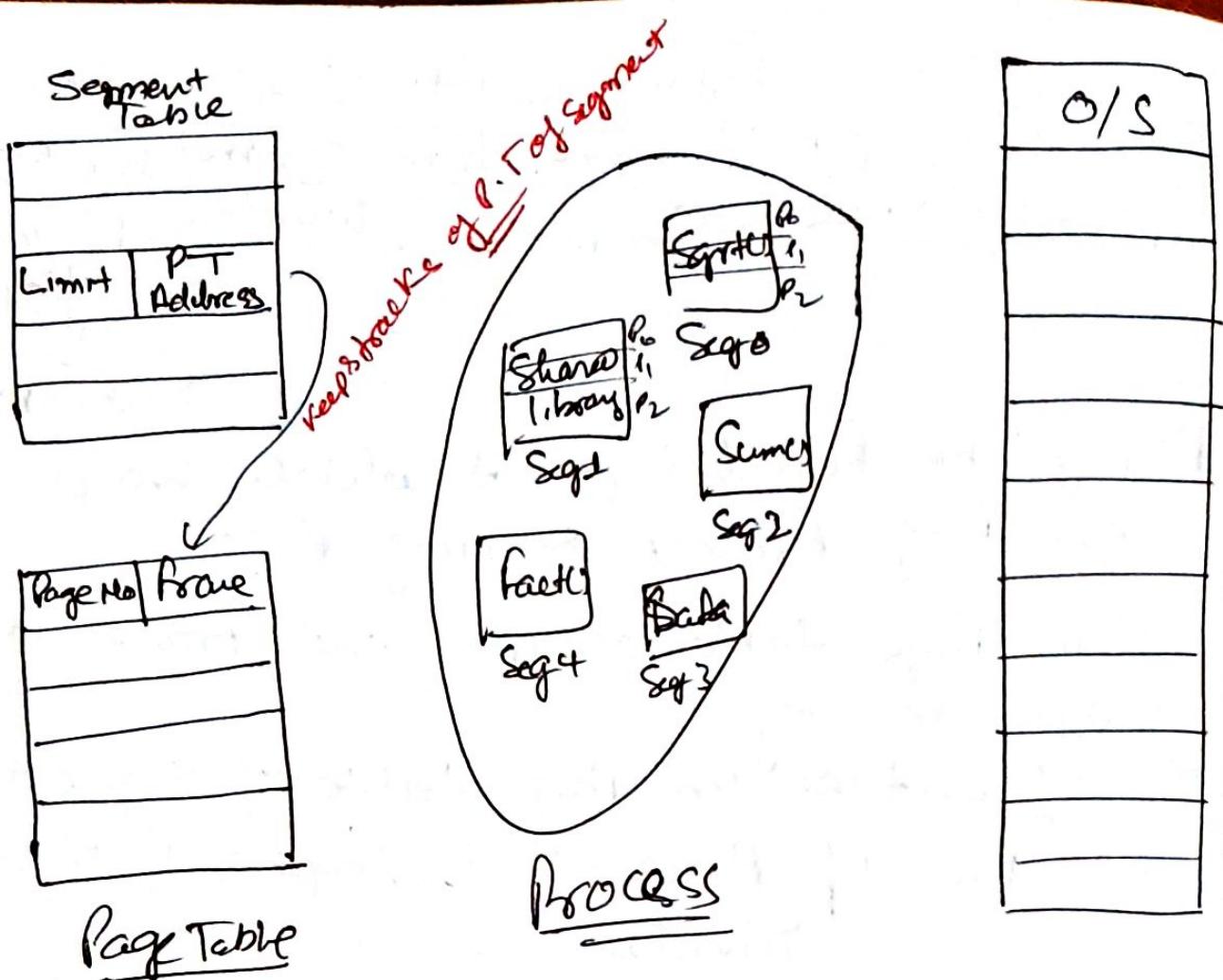
Segment table keeps tracks of frame storing Page table of segment

No of entries in segment table = No of Segment

Base address of Segment table is.

Stored in STBR  $\rightarrow$  Segment table Base Register

Q - On a system using Paging and Segmentation the virtual address space consists of upto 16 segments where each segment can be up to  $2^{16}$  byte long. The hardware pages each segment into 512 byte pages. How many bits in virtual address space



Specify the following

- (i) Segment No
- (ii) Page no
- (iii) offset within Page
- (iv) entire Virtual address

Solu<sup>n</sup> → (i) 16 segments =  $2^4$  i.e 4 bits are needed to specify segment No.

(ii) Page No → 4 bit 7 bit 9 bit

1111 0000 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111 1111

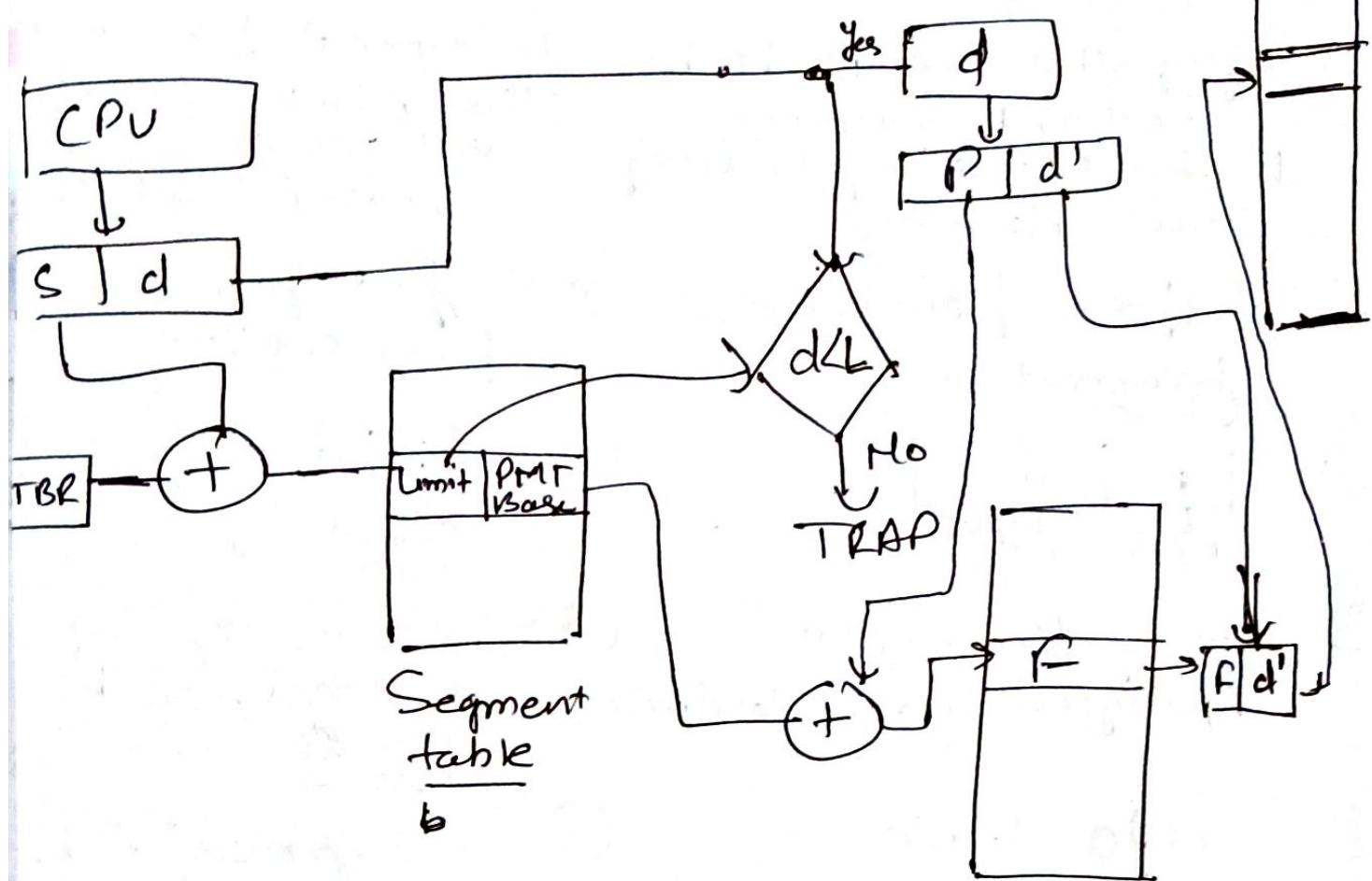
512 byte Page =  $2^9$  bytes

No of Pages in each segment =  $\frac{\text{Size of each segment}}{\text{Size of each page}}$

i.e. 9 bits are required to specify Page No =  $\frac{2^{16}}{2^9} = 2^7$

## Paging with Segmentation

### Hardware Architecture



### H/W Architecture

{  
Page  
Map  
table  
of Segment

## Paging with Segmentation

### Advantage

- External fragmentation is not there //
- Segment table has only one entry corresponding to one actual segment
- Page table size is limited by segment size
- Protection to user
- Sharing of Data

### Disadvantage

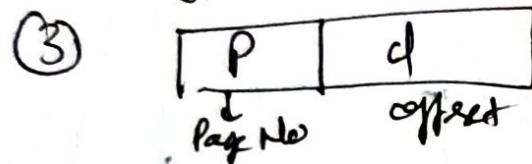
- If suffered from Internal fragmentation
- Complexity level is higher than others
- Costlier than Segmentation & Paging

# Difference Between Paging and Segmentation

## Paging

① Paging allows memory to be divided into fixed sized blocks i.e. a page is always fixed block size.

② Suffers from internal fragmentation



④ Size of the Page is specified by the Hardware

⑤ Page table

⑥ Paging is invisible to the user

⑦ Paging is done by OS

⑧ Paging is faster than Segmentation

⑨ There is no external fragmentation

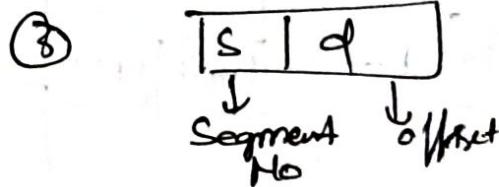
⑩ frame and Pages

↓              ↓  
Physical memory    Logical memory

## Segmentation

① Segmentation divides the memory space into segments of variable block size.

② Suffers from external fragmentation



④ The size of segment is specified by user

⑤ Segment table

⑥ Segmentation is visible to user

⑦ Segmentation is done by user. Segmentation is slower than Paging.

⑧ It suffers from external fragmentation

⑨ Variable size blocks of logical memory are called segments.

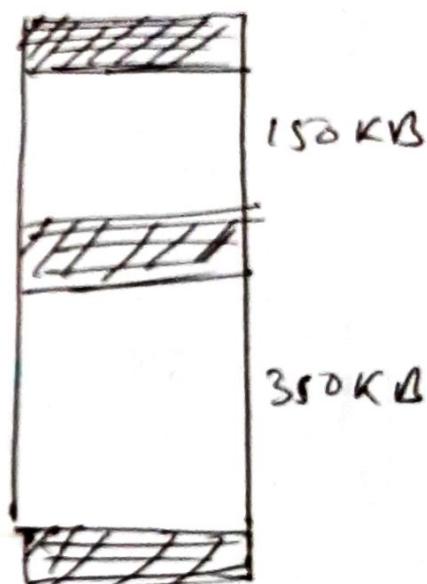
Q- Req. for various processes are

• 300 KB, 25 KB, 125 KB, 50 KB respectively

The above request could be satisfied with

- (A) Best fit but not first fit
- (B) First fit but not best fit
- (C) Both
- (D) None

Ans first fit



Solve the same using worst fit ✓ yes

✓ FFS works

---

(ii) Effective virtual address = Segment no + Page no + offset

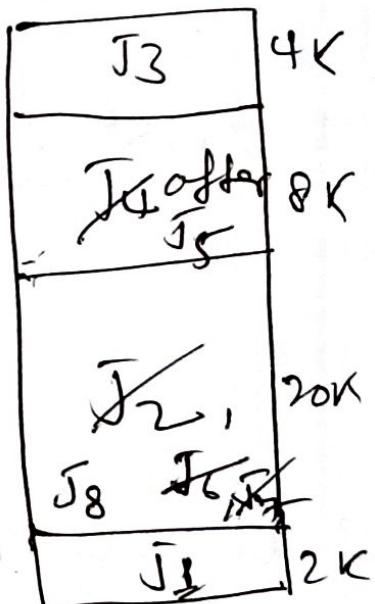
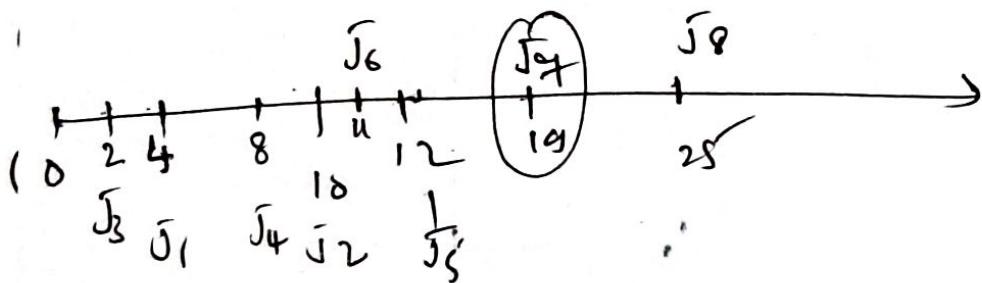
$$= 4 + 7 + 9 = 20 \text{ bits}$$

Q- Job No

	$J_1$	$J_2$	$J_3$	$J_4$	$J_5$	$J_6$	$J_7$	$J_8$
Request Size	2K	14	13K	6K	6K	10K	10K	10K
Usage time	4	10	2	8	4	18	6	

Best Fit

Calculate the time at which  
 $J_7$  will be completed



→  $J_4$  at 8 time will  
 be completed and  $J_5$   
 will arrive and replace  
 in place of  $J_4$

→  $J_2$  at time 10 will be completed  
 and  $J_6$  will be put in at that  
 place

→  $J_7$  will be put at 20K slot because it  
 is completed at time 11 and we can put  
 it in this slot.

We use overlay in generally in embedded system using stack

Overlays :- It is a method by which a large size process can be put into the main memory.

Q - Consider a two Pass assembler

Pass 1 : 80 KB, Pass 2 : 90 KB

Symbol table : - 30 KB

Common routine : 20 KB

At a time only one pass is used.

What is min Partition size required if overlay driver is 10 KB Size.

Total Size

80

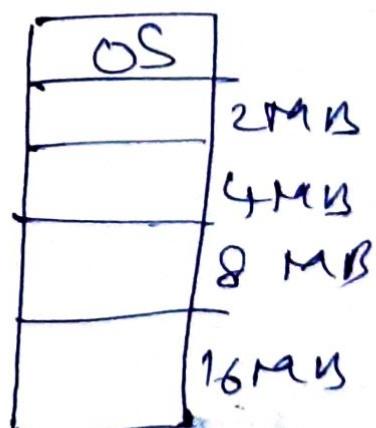
90

30

20

10

230 KB (<sup>max memory</sup><sub>size</sub>)



Pass 1

80

30

20

10

140 KB

Pass 2

90

30

20

10

150 KB

So, we need 150 KB minimum to perform the ~~routine~~ function

# Virtual Memory in OS

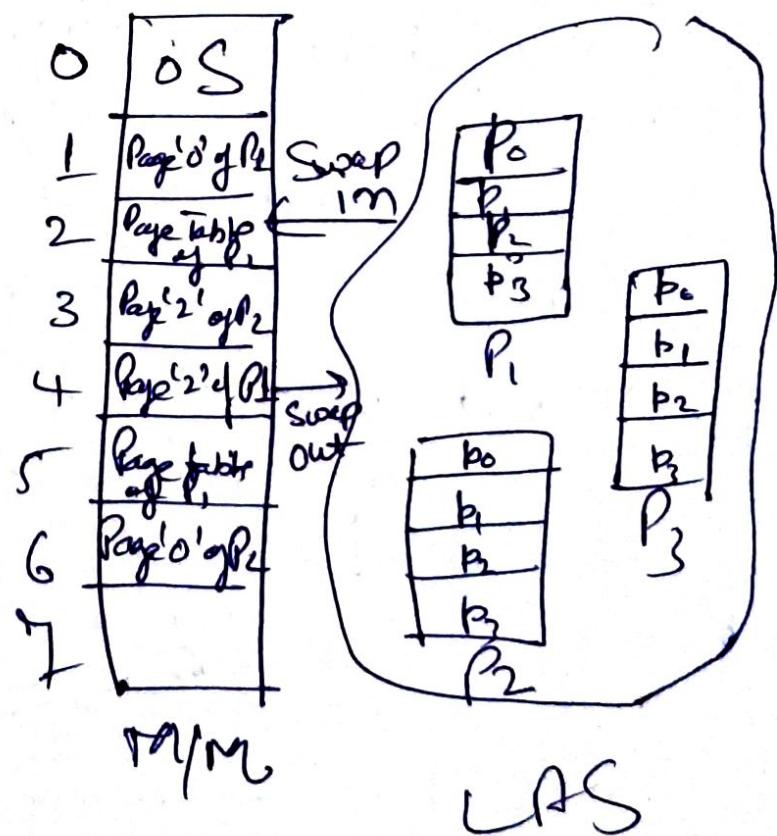
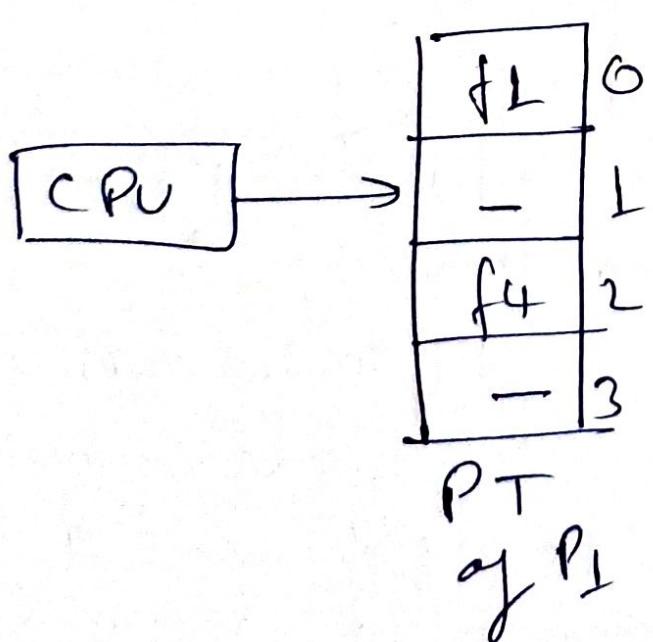
- \* Virtual OS is a storage allocation scheme in which secondary memory can be addressed as though it were part of the main memory.
- \* The size of virtual storage is limited by the addressing scheme of the computer system and the amount of secondary memory is available not by the actual number of the main storage.
- \* It is a technique that is implemented using both hardware and software. It maps memory address used by a program called virtual addresses, into physical addresses in computer memory.

- ① All memory references within a process are logical addresses that are dynamically translated into physical addresses at run time. This means that a process can be swapped in and out of memory such that it occupies different places in main memory at different times during the course of execution.
- ② A process may be broken into a no.

of pieces and these pieces need not be continuously located in the main memory during execution.

~~This~~ So, the required pages need to be loaded into memory whenever required.

\* Tip Virtual memory is implemented using Demand Paging or Demand Segmentation.



?

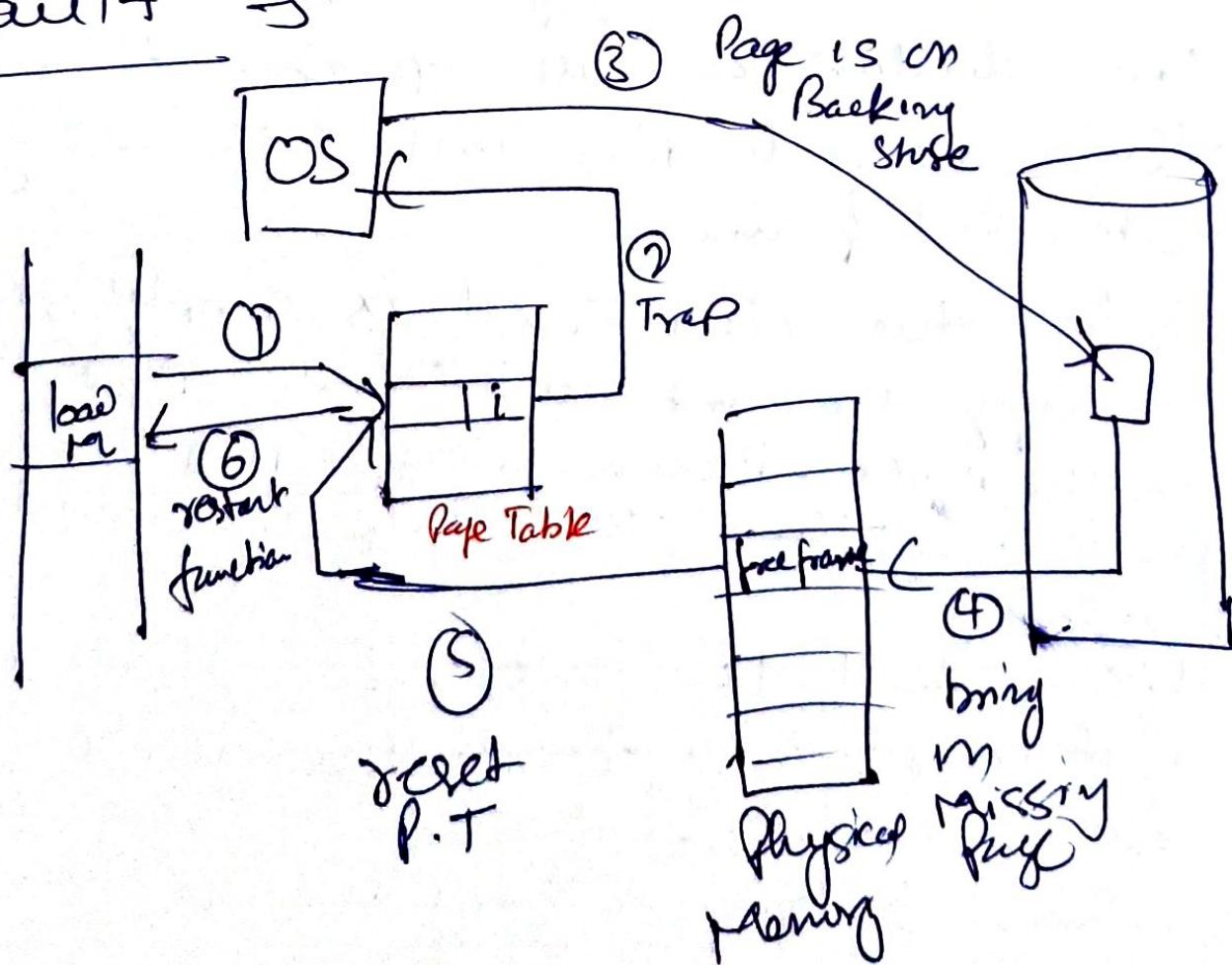
## Demand Paging $\rightarrow$ Local Pages

only as they are needed.

- \* Pages are only loaded when they are demanded during program execution. Pages that are never accessed are thus never loaded into physical memory.

## Steps in handling a Page fault

fault  $\rightarrow$



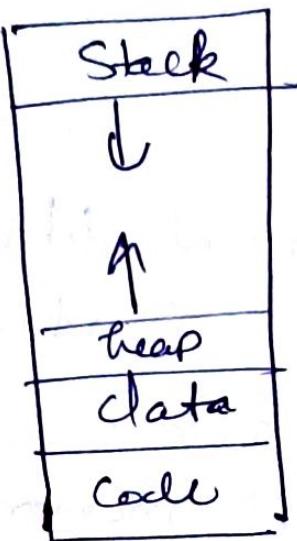
- ① We check an internal table (Usually kept with PCB) for this process to determine whether the reference was a valid or an invalid memory access.
- ② If the reference was invalid, we terminate the process. If it was valid, but we have not yet brought in that page, we now page it in.
- ③ We find a frame (by taking one from free frames list, for example)
- ④ We schedule a disk operation to read the desired page into the newly allocated frame.
- ⑤ When the disk read is complete, we modify the internal table kept ~~with~~ with the process and the P.T to indicate that the page is now in memory.
- ⑥ We restart the instruction that was interrupted by trap. The process can now access the page as though it had always been in memory.

(3)

## The Virtual Address Space of a Process

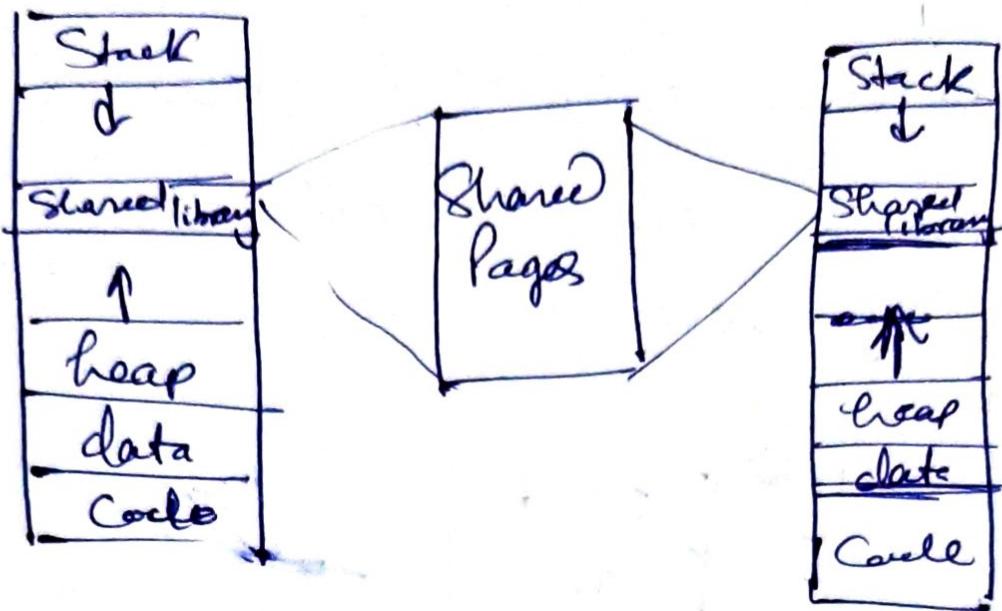
refers to the logical (or virtual) view of how a process is stored in memory.

Min



Virtual  
Address  
Space

- \* In addition to separating logical memory from physical memory, virtual memory allows files and memory to be shared by two or more processes through Page Sharing. This leads to following benefits.
- \* System libraries can be shared by several processes through mapping of shared object into a virtual address space.
  - \* → Typically, a library is mapped ~~read~~ only into the space of each process that is linked with it



Ques

Shared library using  
Virtual Memory.

- \* Virtual memory allows one process to create a region of memory that it can share with another. Processes sharing this region consider it part of their virtual address space.

## Performance of Demand Paging

Let ' $P$ ' be the Probability of a page fault ( $0 \leq P \leq 1$ ). We would expect ' $P$ ' to be close to zero — that is a few page faults. The effective access time.

$$\boxed{EAT = (1-P) \times \text{ma} + P \times \text{Page fault}}$$

↓  
 Memory access time      ↓  
 Page fault rate

# Page Replacement Algorithms

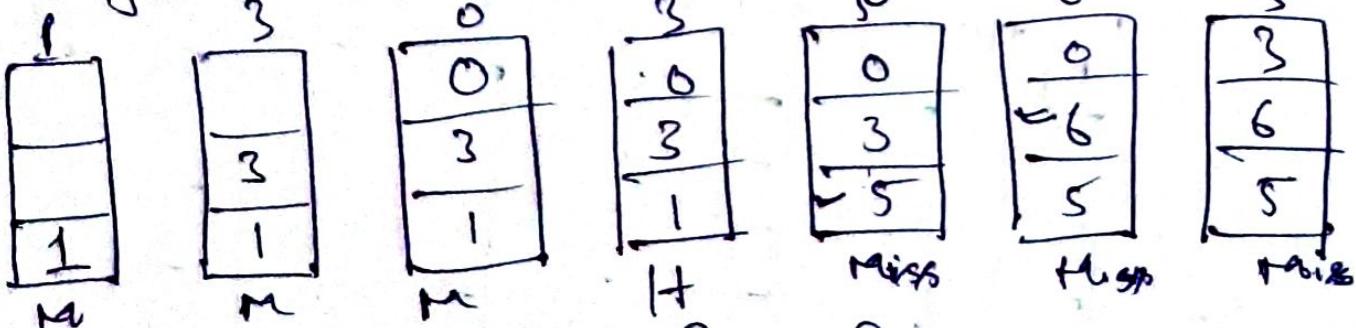
Page fault - A page fault happens when a running program accesses a memory page that is mapped into the virtual address space but not loaded in physical memory.

In case of page fault, O.S might have to replace one of the existing pages with the newly needed pages.

1- First in First Out  $\rightarrow$  (FIFO)

In this algorithm, the O.S keeps track of all pages in the memory in a queue. The oldest page is in front of the queue. When a page needs to be replaced, page in front of the queue is selected for removal.

Ex- Consider page reference string 1, 3, 0, 3, 5, 6, 3 with 3 page frames. Find the no of page faults.



Total Page Faults = 6

Belaedy's Anomaly → Belaedy's anomaly  
Proves that it is possible to have more page faults when increasing the no. of frames while using the (FIFO) page replacement algo.

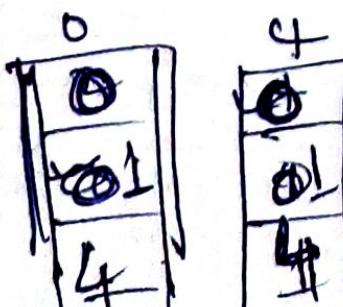
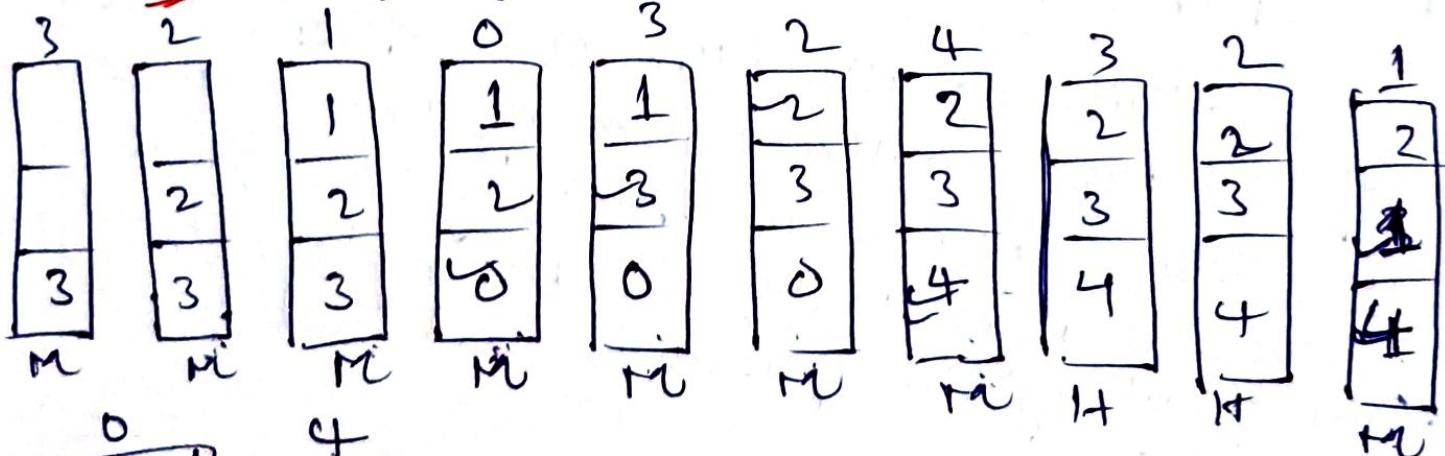
CX

String: 3 2 1 0 3 2 4 3 2 1 0 4

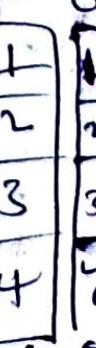
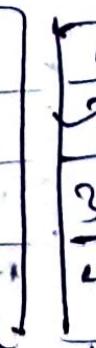
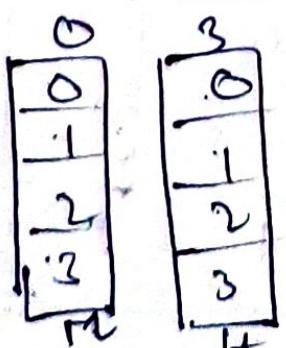
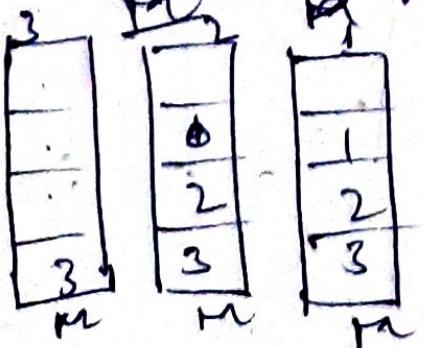
Stat = 3 , we got total ~~10~~<sup>10</sup> page fault

$\Rightarrow$  If we increase slots to 4, we get

## 10 - Page faults



Page fault = 9 ✓  
but with ~~left~~ slot  
 $P.\text{fault} = 10$



## ③

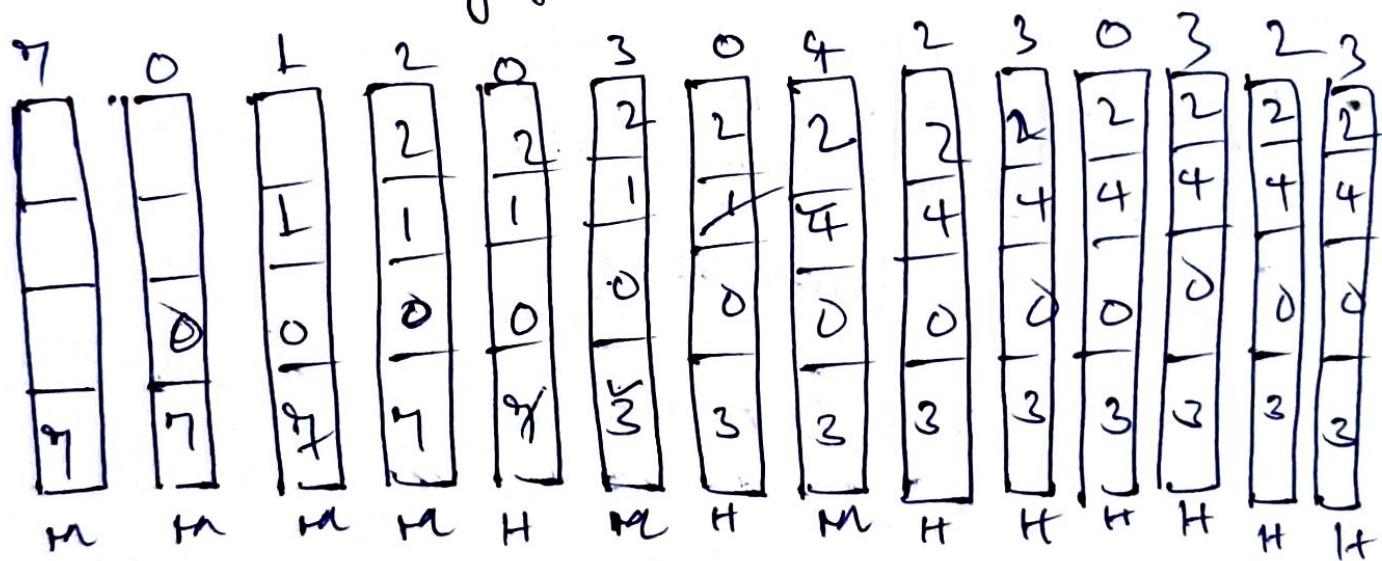
### Optimal Page Replacement

In this algorithm, Pages are replaced which could not be used ~~for~~<sup>in</sup> the longest dimension of time in the future.

Scan pages →

Page reference: 7, 0, 1, 2, 0, 3, 0, 4, 2, 3, 0, 3, 2, 3

No of frame = 4



Total P. Fault = 6

Ex - "7 0 1 2 0 3 0 4 2 3 0 3 2 1 2 0 1 7 0 1"

No of frame = 4

SW<sup>n</sup>

Hit = 12

7	0	1	2	0	3	faults = 8	0	3	2	1	2	0
M	M	M	M	H	M	H	M	H	M	H	M	H
7	0	1	2	0	3	0	4	2	3	0	3	2
7	0	1	2	0	3	0	4	2	3	0	3	2
7	0	1	2	0	3	0	4	2	3	0	3	2
7	0	1	2	0	3	0	4	2	3	0	3	2
7	0	1	2	0	3	0	4	2	3	0	3	2
7	0	1	2	0	3	0	4	2	3	0	3	2
7	0	1	2	0	3	0	4	2	3	0	3	2
7	0	1	2	0	3	0	4	2	3	0	3	2
7	0	1	2	0	3	0	4	2	3	0	3	2
7	0	1	2	0	3	0	4	2	3	0	3	2
7	0	1	2	0	3	0	4	2	3	0	3	2
7	0	1	2	0	3	0	4	2	3	0	3	2
7	0	1	2	0	3	0	4	2	3	0	3	2
7	0	1	2	0	3	0	4	2	3	0	3	2
7	0	1	2	0	3	0	4	2	3	0	3	2
7	0	1	2	0	3	0	4	2	3	0	3	2

RM = 8 , PH = 12

(3) Least Recently Used  $\rightarrow$  In this algorithm, page will be replaced with ~~replaced~~<sup>the least</sup> Recently Used Page in Past

Ex- String: 9 0 1 2 0 3 0 4 2 3 0 3 2  
 frame = 4

9	0	1	2	0	3	0	4	2	3	0	3	2
M	M	M	M	H	M	H	H	H	H	H	H	H
7	7	7	7	7	13	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
M	M	M	M	H	M	H	H	H	H	H	H	H
7	7	7	7	7	13	3	3	3	3	3	3	3

Page fault = 6

Ex - 9, 0, 1, 2, 0, 3, 0, 4, 2, 3, 0, 3, 2, 1, 7, 0, 1, ...

SW      Page Fault = 8      }  
 1++ = 12      }

- \* LRU performs better in ~~cos~~ in Page fault than FIFO
- \* But its speed is slower than FIFO because it searches for Least Recently Used Page in Past.

(6)

Most Recently Used → Replace the most recently used page in Pst.

Ex -

7 0 1 2 0 3 0 4 2 3 0 3 2 L 2 0 1 7 0 1  
 ↓

7	0	1	2	0	3	0	4	2	3	0	3	2	L	2	0	1	7	0	1
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	8	8	2	2	2	X	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	0	0	0	8	8	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7	7
M	M	M	M	H	M	H	M	H	M	H	M	H	H	M	H	H	H	H	H

$$\text{Page fault} = 12$$

$$\text{Hit} = 8$$

Belady's Anomaly →  $f_{ef} = 1, 2, 3, 4, 1, 2, 5, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$

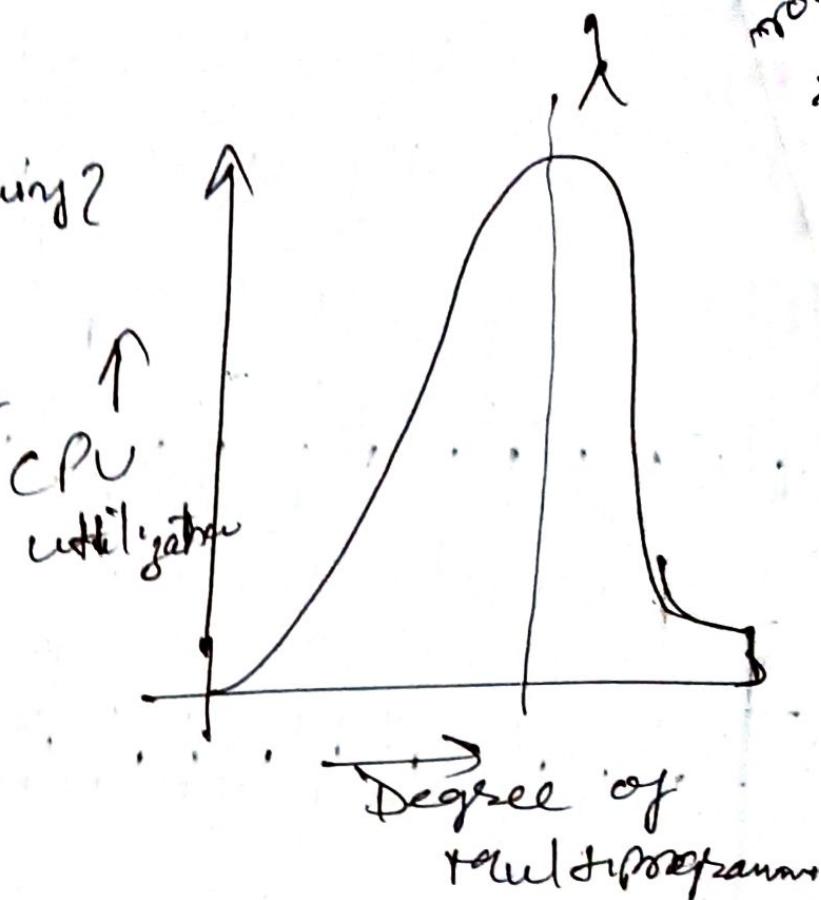
frame = 3      frame = 4 ↗  
 the              ↓  
 frame = 4 ↗  
 ↓  
 Hit = 2  
 $P_f = \underline{\underline{10}}$

## Thrashing →

How to control Thrashing?

- ① Increase Memory Size
- ② Long term Scheduler

{ to decrease  
the degree of  
multiprogramming}



- \* In Case, if Page fault and swapping happens very frequently at a higher rate, then the O.S has to spend more time swapping these pages. This state in O.S is termed as thrashing. Because of thrashing the CPU utilization is going to be reduced.
- \* During thrashing, the CPU spends less time on some actual productive work and spend more time swapping.
- \* The Process Scheduling mechanism tries to load many processes into the memory at the same time due to which degree of multiprogramming can be increased. Now in this situation, there are more

processes in the memory as compared to the available no. of frames in the memory. Here we can say that as soon as memory fills up, the process starts spending a lot of time for the required Pages to be swapped in. In this way CPU utilization becomes low because most of the processes are waiting for Pages.

~~TOP~~ Thus a high degree of multipage -anning and lack of frames are two main causes of thrashing in OS

### Techniques Used to handle Thrashing in OS

#### (1) Working Set Model

The goal is to find a no of frames that will be enough to execute the current localities with a limited no of Page faults:

In this model we find the working set window, known as Delta

\* Δ length should be optimal that is neither too small to hold all of the pages of current locality nor too large to include pages that don't belong to locality

Ex - Let a process P1 the sequence of page reference be 5, 7, 2, 4, 4, 3, 2, 3, 1

Let's find the current working set for last page reference.

(i) If Δ is fairly large ~~is 10~~, then working set ~~will clock after recent references that have been page faulted~~ could be like below -

$$W.S = [5, 7, 2, 4, 3, 1]$$

Here we have pages 5, 7 which are hardly referenced

(ii) Again if  $\Delta=2$  we get  $WS=[1, 3]$  we miss frequently visiting pages like 4 and 2

(iii) Thus optimal value of Δ can be 5 referencing 4, 3, 2, 3, 1  
 $WS=[3, 4, 3, 1]$

So, we can see current WS is different for different page references

once the length of W.S. is calculated for each process, we do sum to find the total demand,  $D$

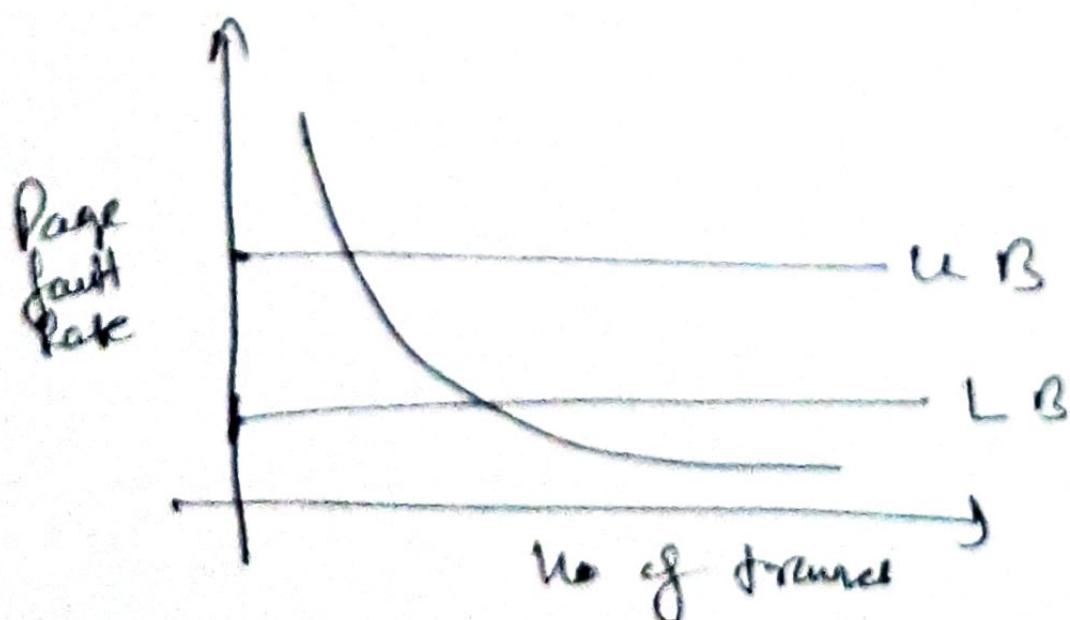
Let 'f' be the total no. of frames available in main memory for allocation then,

$\Rightarrow$  if  $D > f \Rightarrow$  At least one process is thrashing

$\Rightarrow$  if  $D \leq f \Rightarrow$  No thrashing.

~~if~~ NB - The challenge in this model is keeping track of the constantly changing current working sets for each process

## (2) Page Fault Frequency



In this model we set (UB) and (LB) Lower Bound for Page fault rate( $R$ ).

\* for each process we compare Page fault rate ( $R$ ) with UB and LB

(i) If  $R > \text{UB}$ , then we can conclude that a process needs more frames to control this rate. This means we need to allocate more frames to it to avoid thrashing. If no frames available, the process can be suspended until available

(ii) If  $R < \text{LB}$ , we have more than a sufficient amount of frames for a process and some of it can be allocated to some other processes.