



ALMA MATER STUDIORUM
UNIVERSITÀ DI BOLOGNA
DEPARTMENT OF COMPUTER SCIENCE AND ENGINEERING

Real-Time Operating Systems M

6. Deadlocks • Memory Management

Notice

The course material includes slides downloaded from:

<http://codex.cs.yale.edu/avi/os-book/>

*(slides by Silberschatz, Galvin, and Gagne, associated with
Operating System Concepts, 9th Edition, Wiley, 2013)*

and

<http://retis.sssup.it/~giorgio/rts-MECS.html>

*(slides by Buttazzo, associated with Hard Real-Time Computing
Systems, 3rd Edition, Springer, 2011)*

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Chapter 7: Deadlocks

- System Model
- Deadlock Characterization
- Methods for Handling Deadlocks
- Deadlock Prevention
- Deadlock Avoidance
- Deadlock Detection
- Recovery from Deadlock





Chapter Objectives

- To develop a description of deadlocks, which prevent sets of concurrent processes from completing their tasks
- To present a number of different methods for preventing or avoiding deadlocks in a computer system





System Model

- System consists of resources
- Resource types R_1, R_2, \dots, R_m
CPU cycles, memory space, I/O devices
- Each resource type R_i has W_i instances.
- Each process utilizes a resource as follows:
 - **request**
 - **use**
 - **release**



When Can Deadlock Arise?





Deadlock Characterization

Deadlock can arise if four conditions hold simultaneously.

- **Mutual exclusion:** only one process at a time can use a resource
- **Hold and wait:** a process holding at least one resource is waiting to acquire additional resources held by other processes
- **No preemption:** a resource can be released only voluntarily by the process holding it, after that process has completed its task
- **Circular wait:** there exists a set $\{P_0, P_1, \dots, P_n\}$ of waiting processes such that P_0 is waiting for a resource that is held by P_1 , P_1 is waiting for a resource that is held by P_2 , ..., P_{n-1} is waiting for a resource that is held by P_n , and P_n is waiting for a resource that is held by P_0 .





Deadlock with Mutex Locks

- Deadlocks can occur via system calls, locking, etc
- Example with Pthread

```
/* thread one runs in this function */  
void *do_work_one(void *param)  
{  
    pthread_mutex_lock(&first_mutex);  
    pthread_mutex_lock(&second_mutex);  
  
    /* Do some work */  
  
    pthread_mutex_unlock(&second_mutex);  
    pthread_mutex_unlock(&first_mutex);  
    pthread_exit(0);  
}
```

```
/* thread two runs in this function */  
void *do_work_two(void *param)  
{  
    pthread_mutex_lock(&second_mutex);  
    pthread_mutex_lock(&first_mutex);  
  
    /* Do some work */  
  
    pthread_mutex_unlock(&first_mutex);  
    pthread_mutex_unlock(&second_mutex);  
    pthread_exit(0);  
}
```





Resource-Allocation Graph

A set of vertices V and a set of edges E .

■ V is partitioned into two types:

- $P = \{P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n\}$, the set consisting of all the processes in the system
- $R = \{R_1, R_2, \dots, R_m\}$, the set consisting of all resource types in the system

■ **request edge** – directed edge $P_i \rightarrow R_j$

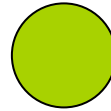
■ **assignment edge** – directed edge $R_j \rightarrow P_i$





Resource-Allocation Graph (Cont.)

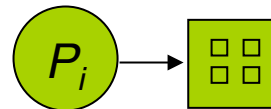
- Process



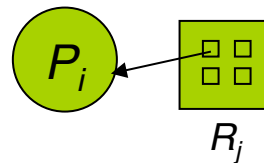
- Resource Type with 4 instances



- P_i requests instance of R_j

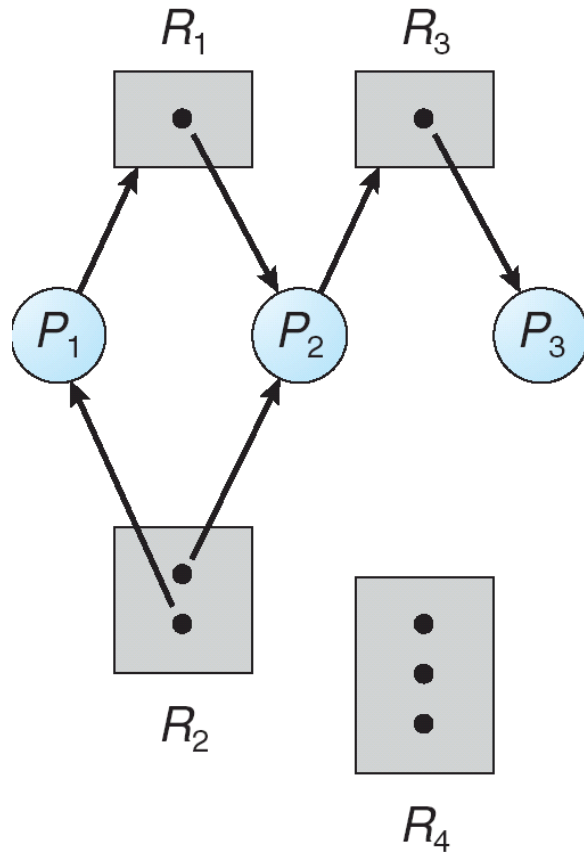


- P_i is holding an instance of R_j



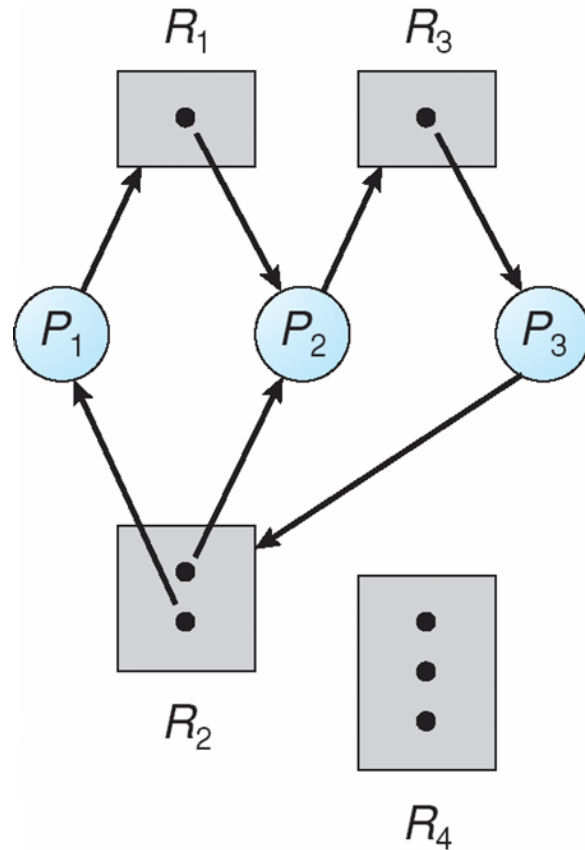


Example of a Resource Allocation Graph



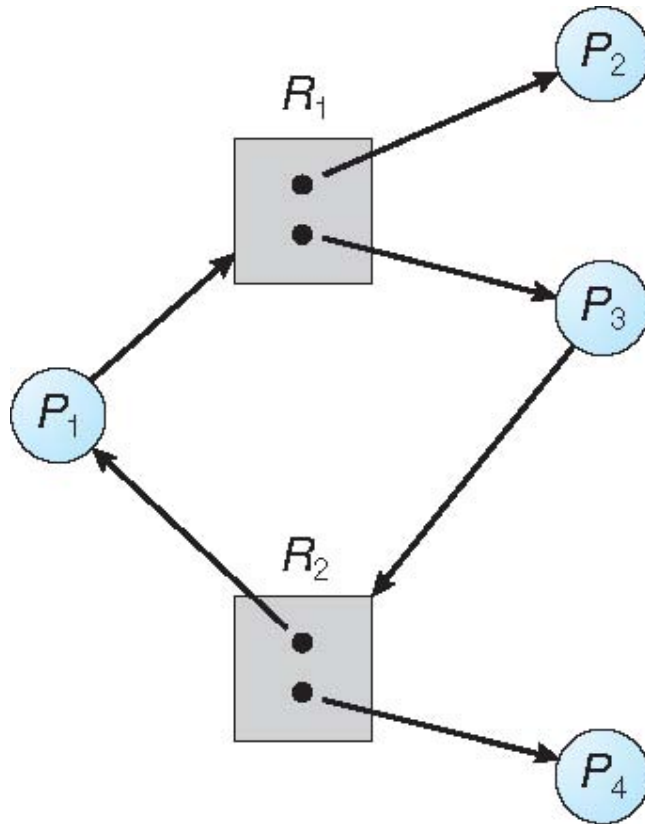


Another Example of a Resource Allocation Graph





Yet Another Example of a Resource Allocation Graph





Basic Facts

- If graph contains no cycles \Rightarrow no deadlock
- If graph contains a cycle \Rightarrow
 - if only one instance per resource type, then deadlock
 - if several instances per resource type, possibility of deadlock





Methods for Handling Deadlocks

- Ensure that the system will *never* enter a deadlock state
- Allow the system to enter a deadlock state and then recover
- Ignore the problem and pretend that deadlocks never occur in the system; used by most operating systems, including UNIX





Deadlock Prevention

Restrain the ways request can be made.

- **Mutual Exclusion** – not required for sharable resources; must hold for nonsharable resources
 - Some resources are intrinsically nonsharable

- **Hold and Wait** – must guarantee that whenever a process requests a resource, it does not hold any other resources
 - Require process to request and be allocated all its resources before it begins execution, or allow process to request resources only when the process has none
 - ▶ Example: copy from DVD to disk; sort; print results
 - Low resource utilization; starvation possible (popular resources)





Deadlock Prevention (Cont.)

■ No Preemption –

- If a process that is holding some resources requests another resource that cannot be immediately allocated to it, then all resources currently being held are released
 - ▶ Alternatively: preempt resources from waiting process, or wait.
- Preempted resources are added to the list of resources for which the process is waiting
- Process will be restarted only when it can regain its old resources, as well as the new ones that it is requesting

■ Circular Wait – impose a total ordering of all resource types, and require that each process requests resources in an increasing order of enumeration





Deadlock Example with Lock Ordering

```
void transaction(Account from, Account to, double amount)
{
    mutex lock1, lock2;
    lock1 = get_lock(from);
    lock2 = get_lock(to);

    acquire(lock1);
        acquire(lock2);

        withdraw(from, amount);
        deposit(to, amount);

    release(lock2);
    release(lock1);
}
```





Deadlock Avoidance

Requires that the system has some additional *a priori* information available.

- Simplest and most useful model requires that each process declare the *maximum number* of resources of each type that it may need
- The deadlock-avoidance algorithm dynamically examines the resource-allocation state to ensure that there can never be a circular-wait condition
- Resource-allocation *state* is defined by the number of available and allocated resources, and the maximum demands of the processes





Safe State

- When a process requests an available resource, system must decide if immediate allocation leaves the system in a safe state
- System is in **safe state** if there exists a sequence $\langle P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n \rangle$ of ALL the processes in the systems such that for each P_i , the resources that P_i can still request can be satisfied by currently available resources + resources held by all the P_j , with $j < i$
- That is:
 - If P_i resource needs are not immediately available, then P_i can wait until all P_j have finished
 - When P_j is finished, P_i can obtain needed resources, execute, return allocated resources, and terminate
 - When P_i terminates, P_{i+1} can obtain its needed resources, and so on





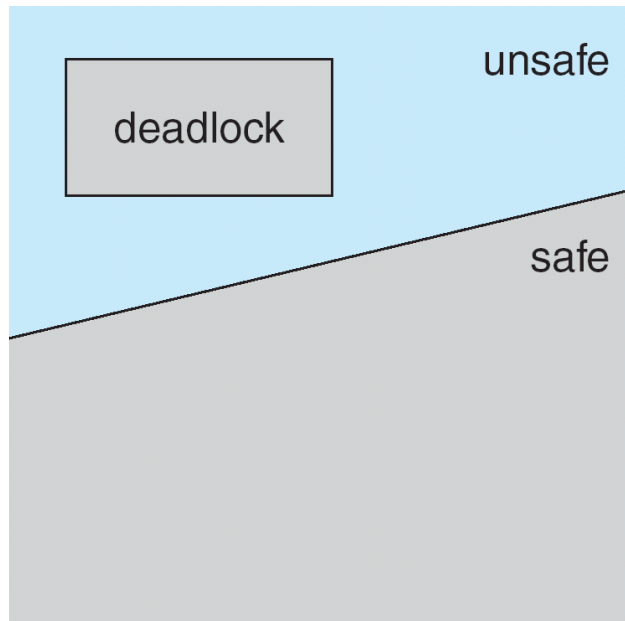
Basic Facts

- If a system is in safe state \Rightarrow no deadlocks
- If a system is in unsafe state \Rightarrow possibility of deadlock
- Avoidance \Rightarrow ensure that a system will never enter an unsafe state.





Safe, Unsafe, Deadlock State





Avoidance algorithms

- Single instance of a resource type
 - Use a resource-allocation graph

- Multiple instances of a resource type
 - Use the banker's algorithm





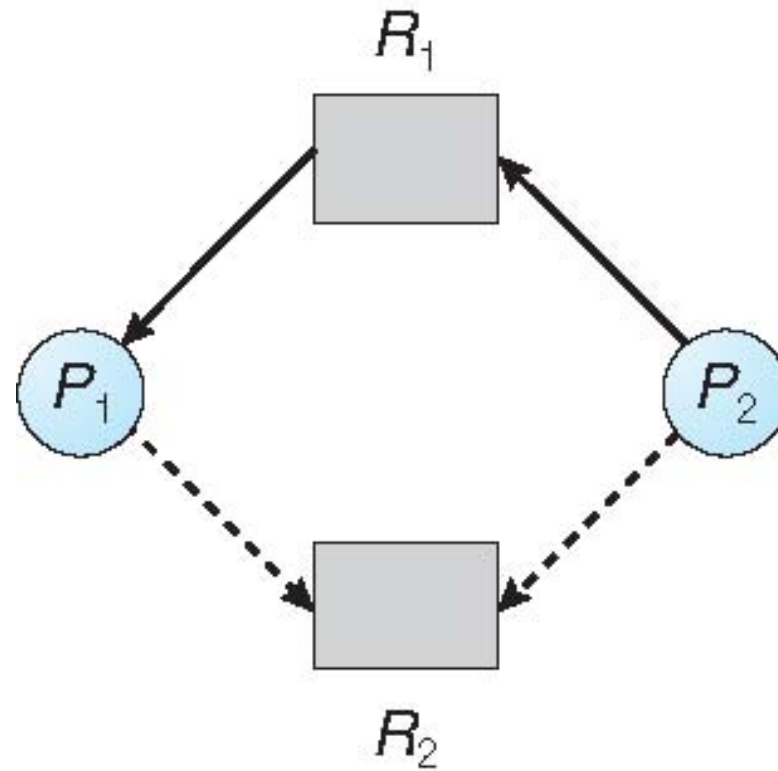
Resource-Allocation Graph Scheme

- **Claim edge** $P_i \rightarrow R_j$ indicated that process P_i may request resource R_j ; represented by a dashed line
- Claim edge converts to request edge when a process requests a resource
- Request edge converted to an assignment edge when the resource is allocated to the process
- When a resource is released by a process, assignment edge reconverts to a claim edge
- Resources must be claimed *a priori* in the system



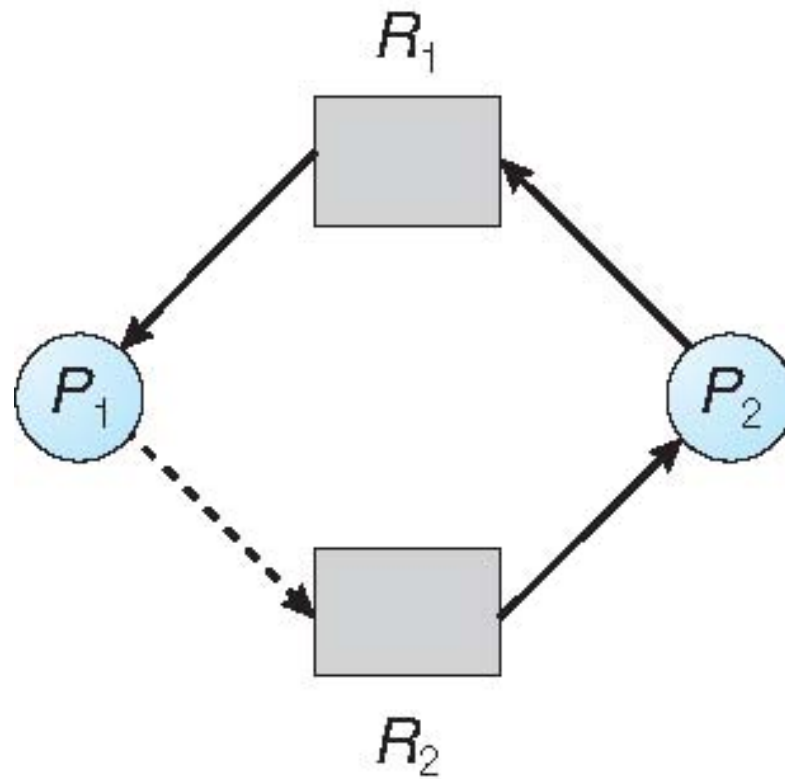


Resource-Allocation Graph





Unsafe State In Resource-Allocation Graph





Resource-Allocation Graph Algorithm

- Suppose that process P_i requests a resource R_j
- The request can be granted only if converting the request edge to an assignment edge does not result in the formation of a cycle in the resource allocation graph





Banker's Algorithm

- Multiple instances
- Each process must a priori claim maximum use
- When a process requests a resource it may have to wait
- When a process gets all its resources it must return them in a finite amount of time





Data Structures for the Banker's Algorithm

Let n = number of processes, and m = number of resources types.

- **Available:** Vector of length m . If $available[j] = k$, there are k instances of resource type R_j available
- **Max:** $n \times m$ matrix. If $Max[i,j] = k$, then process P_i may request at most k instances of resource type R_j
- **Allocation:** $n \times m$ matrix. If $Allocation[i,j] = k$ then P_i is currently allocated k instances of R_j
- **Need:** $n \times m$ matrix. If $Need[i,j] = k$, then P_i may need k more instances of R_j to complete its task

$$Need[i,j] = Max[i,j] - Allocation[i,j]$$





Safety Algorithm

1. Let **Work** and **Finish** be vectors of length m and n , respectively. Initialize:
Work = Available
Finish [i] = false for $i = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$
2. Find an i such that both:
 - (a) **Finish [i] = false**
 - (b) **Need_i ≤ Work**If no such i exists, go to step 4
3. **Work = Work + Allocation_i**
Finish[i] = true
go to step 2
4. If **Finish [i] == true** for all i , then the system is in a safe state





Resource-Request Algorithm for Process P_i

Request = request vector for process P_i . If $Request_i[j] = k$ then process P_i wants k instances of resource type R_j

1. If $Request_i \leq Need_i$ go to step 2. Otherwise, raise error condition, since process has exceeded its maximum claim
2. If $Request_i \leq Available$, go to step 3. Otherwise P_i must wait, since resources are not available
3. Pretend to allocate requested resources to P_i by modifying the state as follows:

$Available = Available - Request_i$;

$Allocation_i = Allocation_i + Request_i$;

$Need_i = Need_i - Request_i$;

- If safe \Rightarrow the resources are allocated to P_i
- If unsafe $\Rightarrow P_i$ must wait, and the old resource-allocation state is restored





Example of Banker's Algorithm

- 5 processes P_0 through P_4 ;

3 resource types:

A (10 instances), B (5 instances), and C (7 instances)

Snapshot at time T_0 :

	<u>Allocation</u>	<u>Max</u>	<u>Available</u>
	$A B C$	$A B C$	$A B C$
P_0	0 1 0	7 5 3	3 3 2
P_1	2 0 0	3 2 2	
P_2	3 0 2	9 0 2	
P_3	2 1 1	2 2 2	
P_4	0 0 2	4 3 3	





Example (Cont.)

- The content of the matrix **Need** is defined to be **Max – Allocation**

	<u>Need</u>		
	A	B	C
P_0	7	4	3
P_1	1	2	2
P_2	6	0	0
P_3	0	1	1
P_4	4	3	1

- The system is in a safe state since the sequence $\langle P_1, P_3, P_4, P_2, P_0 \rangle$ satisfies safety criteria





Example: P_1 Request (1,0,2)

- Check that Request \leq Available (that is, $(1,0,2) \leq (3,3,2) \Rightarrow$ true

	<u>Allocation</u>	<u>Need</u>	<u>Available</u>
	A B C	A B C	A B C
P_0	0 1 0	7 4 3	2 3 0
P_1	3 0 2	0 2 0	
P_2	3 0 2	6 0 0	
P_3	2 1 1	0 1 1	
P_4	0 0 2	4 3 1	

- Executing safety algorithm shows that sequence $\langle P_1, P_3, P_4, P_0, P_2 \rangle$ satisfies safety requirement
- Can request for (3,3,0) by P_4 be granted?
- Can request for (0,2,0) by P_0 be granted?





Deadlock Detection

- Allow system to enter deadlock state
- Detection algorithm
- Recovery scheme





Single Instance of Each Resource Type

- Maintain **wait-for** graph
 - Nodes are processes
 - $P_i \rightarrow P_j$ if P_i is waiting for P_j

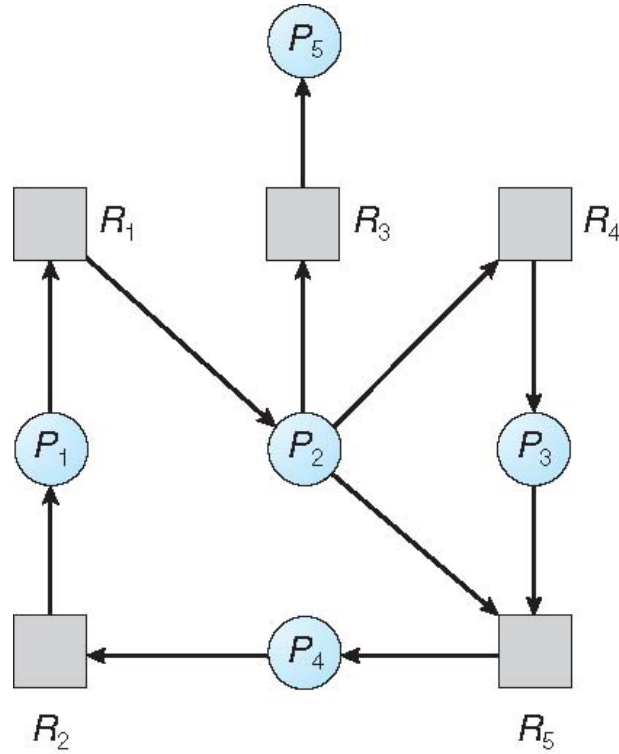
- Periodically invoke an algorithm that searches for a cycle in the graph. If there is a cycle, there exists a deadlock

- An algorithm to detect a cycle in a graph requires an order of n^2 operations, where n is the number of vertices in the graph



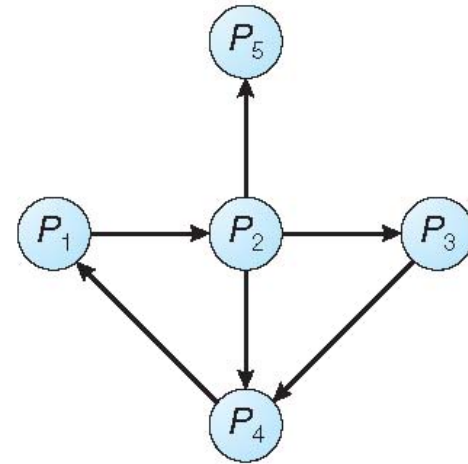


Resource-Allocation Graph and Wait-for Graph



(a)

Resource-Allocation Graph



(b)

Corresponding wait-for graph





Several Instances of a Resource Type

- **Available:** A vector of length m indicates the number of available resources of each type
- **Allocation:** An $n \times m$ matrix defines the number of resources of each type currently allocated to each process
- **Request:** An $n \times m$ matrix indicates the current request of each process. If $Request[i][j] = k$, then process P_i is requesting k more instances of resource type R_j .





Detection Algorithm

1. Let ***Work*** and ***Finish*** be vectors of length ***m*** and ***n***, respectively Initialize:
 - (a) ***Work = Available***
 - (b) For ***i = 1, 2, ..., n***, if ***Allocation_i ≠ 0***, then ***Finish[i] = false***; otherwise, ***Finish[i] = true***

2. Find an index ***i*** such that both:
 - (a) ***Finish[i] == false***
 - (b) ***Request_i ≤ Work***

If no such ***i*** exists, go to step 4





Detection Algorithm (Cont.)

3. **$Work = Work + Allocation_i$**
 $Finish[i] = true$
go to step 2
4. If **$Finish[i] == false$** , for some i , $1 \leq i \leq n$, then the system is in deadlock state. Moreover, if **$Finish[i] == false$** , then P_i is deadlocked

Algorithm requires an order of $O(m \times n^2)$ operations to detect whether the system is in deadlocked state





Example of Detection Algorithm

- Five processes P_0 through P_4 ; three resource types A (7 instances), B (2 instances), and C (6 instances)
- Snapshot at time T_0 :

	<u>Allocation</u>	<u>Request</u>	<u>Available</u>
	A B C	A B C	A B C
P_0	0 1 0	0 0 0	0 0 0
P_1	2 0 0	2 0 2	
P_2	3 0 3	0 0 0	
P_3	2 1 1	1 0 0	
P_4	0 0 2	0 0 2	

- Sequence $\langle P_0, P_2, P_3, P_1, P_4 \rangle$ will result in $Finish[i] = true$ for all i





Example (Cont.)

- P_2 requests an additional instance of type C

	<u>Request</u>		
	A	B	C
P_0	0	0	0
P_1	2	0	2
P_2	0	0	1
P_3	1	0	0
P_4	0	0	2

- State of system?
 - Can reclaim resources held by process P_0 , but insufficient resources to fulfill other processes; requests
 - Deadlock exists, consisting of processes P_1 , P_2 , P_3 , and P_4





Detection-Algorithm Usage

- When, and how often, to invoke depends on:
 - How often a deadlock is likely to occur?
 - How many processes will need to be rolled back?
 - ▶ one for each disjoint cycle

- If detection algorithm is invoked arbitrarily, there may be many cycles in the resource graph and so we would not be able to tell which of the many deadlocked processes “caused” the deadlock.





Recovery from Deadlock: Process Termination

- Abort all deadlocked processes
- Abort one process at a time until the deadlock cycle is eliminated
- In which order should we choose to abort?
 1. Priority of the process
 2. How long process has computed, and how much longer to completion
 3. Resources the process has used
 4. Resources process needs to complete
 5. How many processes will need to be terminated
 6. Is process interactive or batch?





Recovery from Deadlock: Resource Preemption

- **Selecting a victim** – minimize cost
- **Rollback** – return to some safe state, restart process for that state
- **Starvation** – same process may always be picked as victim, include number of rollback in cost factor





Chapter 8: Memory Management

- Background
- Swapping
- Contiguous Memory Allocation
- Segmentation
- Paging
- Structure of the Page Table





Objectives

- To provide a detailed description of various ways of organizing memory hardware
- To discuss various memory-management techniques, including paging and segmentation
- To provide a detailed description of the Intel Pentium, which supports both pure segmentation and segmentation with paging





Background

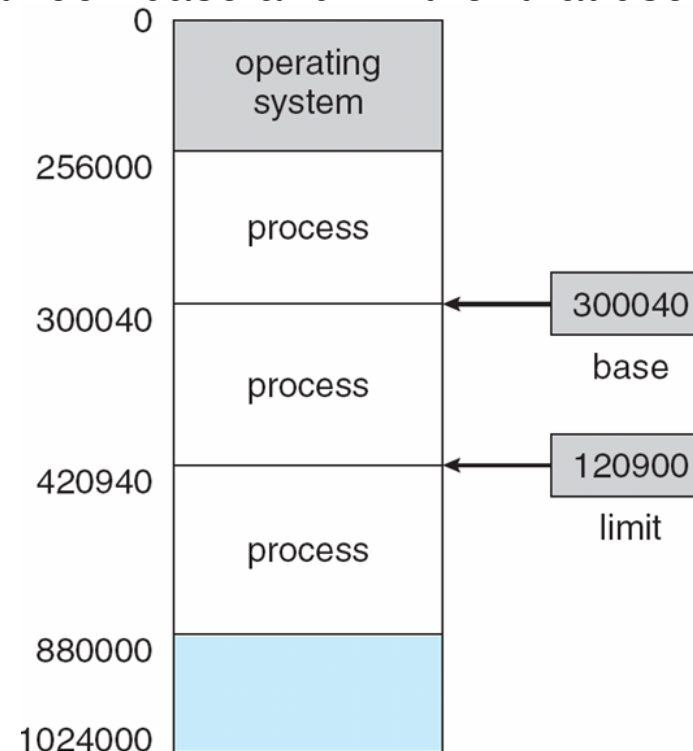
- Program must be brought (from disk) into memory and placed within a process for it to be run
- Main memory and registers are only storage CPU can access directly
- Memory unit only sees a stream of addresses + read requests, or address + data and write requests
- Register access in one CPU clock (or less)
- Main memory can take many cycles, causing a **stall**
- **Cache** sits between main memory and CPU registers
- Protection of memory required to ensure correct operation





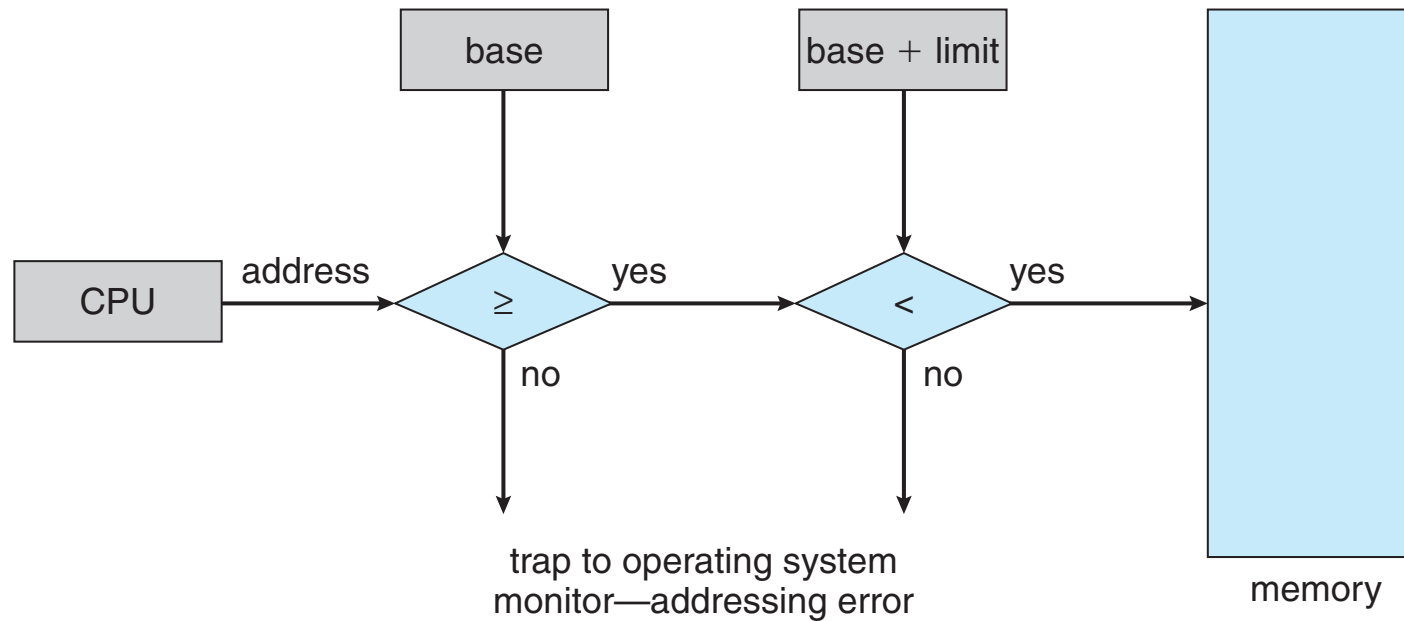
Base and Limit Registers

- A pair of **base** and **limit registers** define the logical address space
- CPU must check every memory access generated in user mode to be sure it is between base and limit for that user





Hardware Address Protection with Base and Limit Registers





Address Binding

- Programs on disk, ready to be brought into memory to execute form an **input queue**
 - Without support, must be loaded into address 0000
 - ▶ First user process physical address always at 0000
- Further, addresses represented in different ways at different stages of a program's life
 - Source code addresses usually symbolic
 - Compiled code addresses **bind** to relocatable addresses
 - ▶ i.e. “14 bytes from beginning of this module”
 - Linker or loader will bind relocatable addresses to absolute addresses
 - ▶ i.e. 74014
 - Each binding maps one address space to another





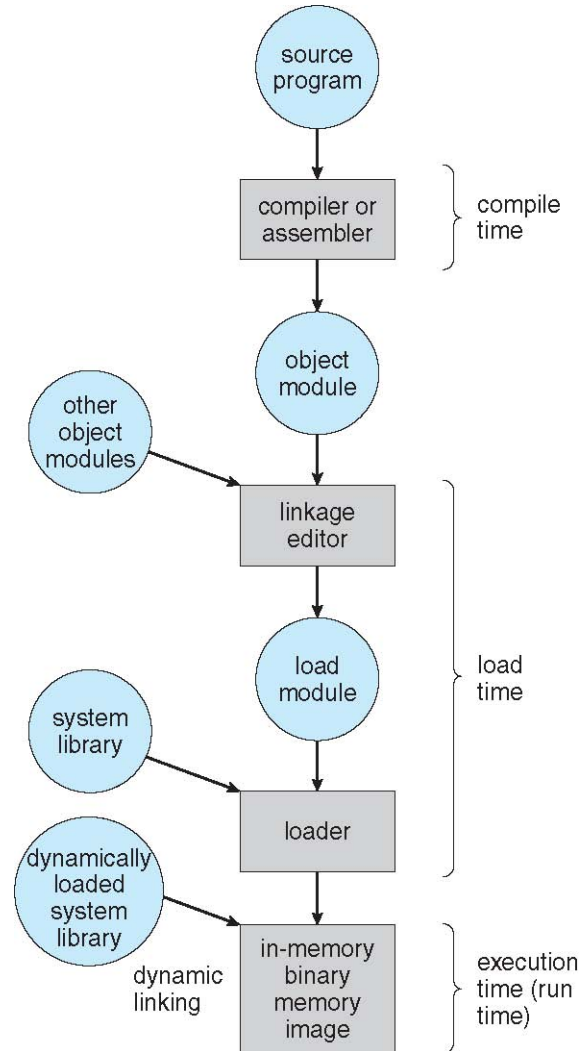
Binding of Instructions and Data to Memory

- Address binding of instructions and data to memory addresses can happen at three different stages
 - **Compile time:** If memory location known a priori, **absolute code** can be generated; must recompile code if starting location changes
 - **Load time:** Must generate **relocatable code** if memory location is not known at compile time
 - **Execution time:** Binding delayed until run time if the process can be moved during its execution from one memory segment to another
 - ▶ Need hardware support for address maps (e.g., base and limit registers)





Multistep Processing of a User Program





Logical vs. Physical Address Space

- The concept of a logical address space that is bound to a separate **physical address space** is central to proper memory management
 - **Logical address** – generated by the CPU; also referred to as **virtual address**
 - **Physical address** – address seen by the memory unit

- Logical and physical addresses are the same in compile-time and load-time address-binding schemes; logical (virtual) and physical addresses differ in execution-time address-binding scheme

- **Logical address space** is the set of all logical addresses generated by a program

- **Physical address space** is the set of all physical addresses generated by a program





Memory-Management Unit (MMU)

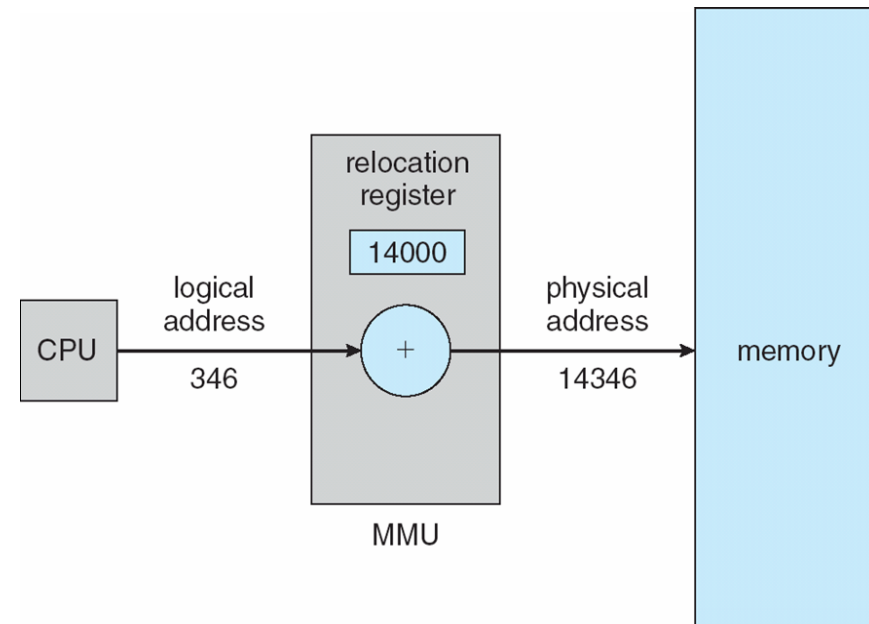
- Hardware device that at run time maps virtual to physical address
- Many methods possible, covered in the rest of this chapter
- To start, consider simple scheme where the value in the relocation register is added to every address generated by a user process at the time it is sent to memory
 - Base register now called **relocation register**
 - MS-DOS on Intel 80x86 used 4 relocation registers
- The user program deals with *logical* addresses; it never sees the *real* physical addresses
 - Execution-time binding occurs when reference is made to location in memory
 - Logical address bound to physical addresses





Dynamic relocation using a relocation register

- Routine is not loaded until it is called
- Better memory-space utilization; unused routine is never loaded
- All routines kept on disk in relocatable load format
- Useful when large amounts of code are needed to handle infrequently occurring cases
- No special support from the operating system is required
 - Implemented through program design
 - OS can help by providing libraries to implement dynamic loading





Dynamic Linking

- **Static linking** – system libraries and program code combined by the loader into the binary program image
- Dynamic linking –linking postponed until execution time
- Small piece of code, **stub**, used to locate the appropriate memory-resident library routine
- Stub replaces itself with the address of the routine, and executes the routine
- Operating system checks if routine is in processes' memory address
 - If not in address space, add to address space
- Dynamic linking is particularly useful for libraries
- System also known as **shared libraries**
- Consider applicability to patching system libraries
 - Versioning may be needed





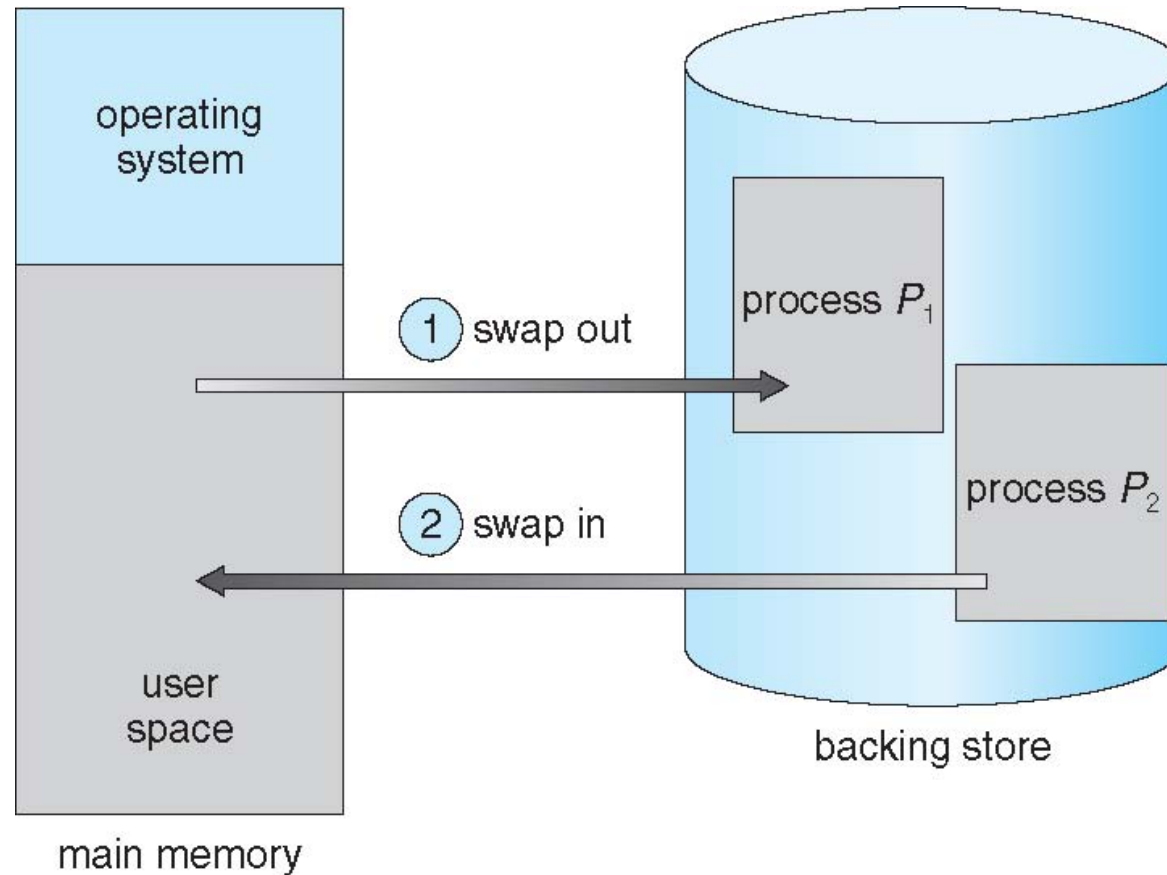
Swapping

- Total physical memory space of processes can exceed physical memory
- A process can be **swapped** temporarily out of memory to a backing store, and then brought back into memory for continued execution
- **Backing store** – fast disk large enough to accommodate copies of all memory images for all users; must provide direct access to these memory images
- **Roll out, roll in** – swapping variant used for priority-based scheduling algorithms; lower-priority process is swapped out so higher-priority process can be loaded and executed
- Major part of swap time is transfer time; total transfer time is directly proportional to the amount of memory swapped
- System maintains a **ready queue** of ready-to-run processes which have memory images on disk
- Does the swapped out process need to swap back in to same physical addresses?
- Depends on address binding method
 - Plus consider pending I/O to / from process memory space
- Modified versions of swapping are found on many systems (i.e., UNIX, Linux, and Windows)
 - Swapping normally disabled
 - Started if more than threshold amount of memory allocated
 - Disabled again once memory demand reduced below threshold





Schematic View of Swapping





Context Switch Time including Swapping

- If next processes to be put on CPU is not in memory, need to swap out a process and swap in target process
- Context switch time can then be very high
- 100MB process swapping to hard disk with transfer rate of 50MB/sec
 - Swap out time of 2000 ms
 - Plus swap in of same sized process
 - Total context switch swapping component time of 4000ms (4 seconds)
- Can reduce if reduce size of memory swapped – by knowing how much memory really being used
 - System calls to inform OS of memory use via `request memory()` and `release memory()`
- Other constraints as well on swapping
 - Pending I/O – can't swap out as I/O would occur to wrong process
 - Or always transfer I/O to kernel space, then to I/O device
 - ▶ Known as **double buffering**, adds overhead
- Standard swapping not used in modern operating systems
 - But modified version common
 - ▶ Swap only when free memory extremely low





Contiguous Allocation

- Main memory must support both OS and user processes
- Limited resource, must allocate efficiently
- Contiguous allocation is one early method

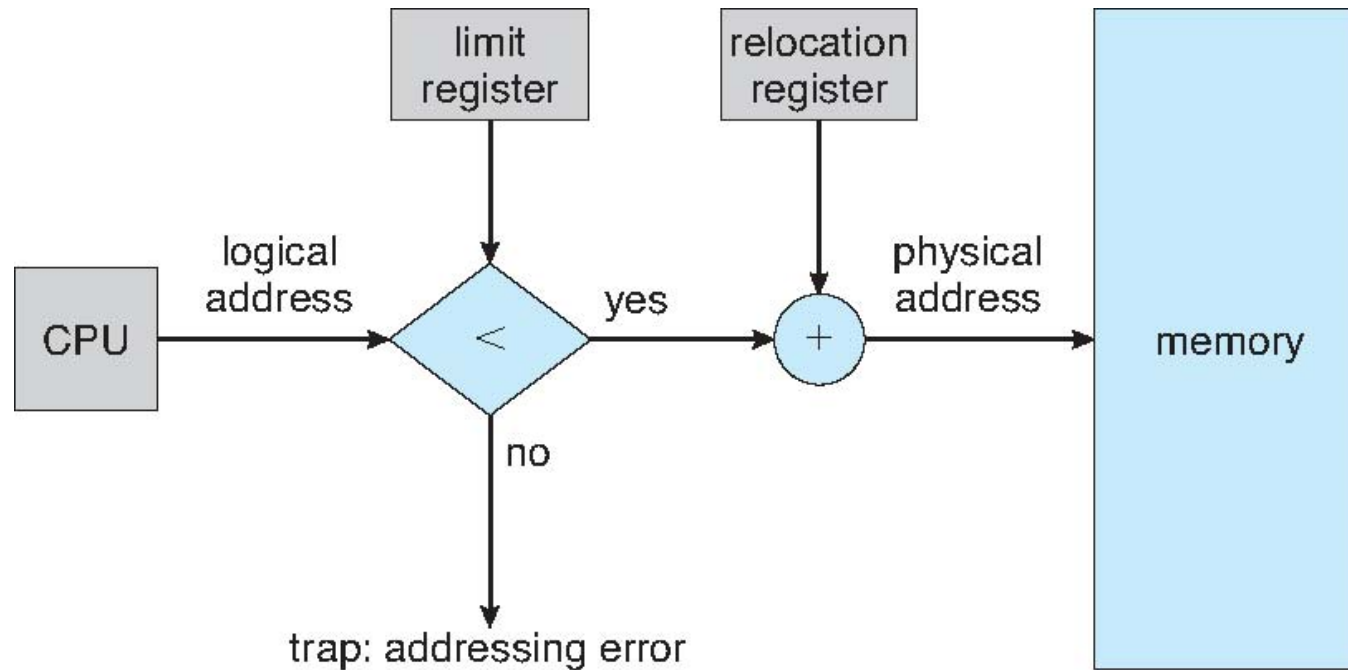
- Main memory usually into two **partitions**:
 - Resident operating system, usually held in low memory with interrupt vector
 - User processes then held in high memory
 - Each process contained in **single contiguous section** of memory

- Relocation registers used to protect user processes from each other, and from changing operating-system code and data
 - Base register contains value of smallest physical address
 - Limit register contains range of logical addresses – each logical address must be less than the limit register
 - MMU maps logical address *dynamically*
 - Can then allow actions such as kernel code being **transient** and kernel changing size





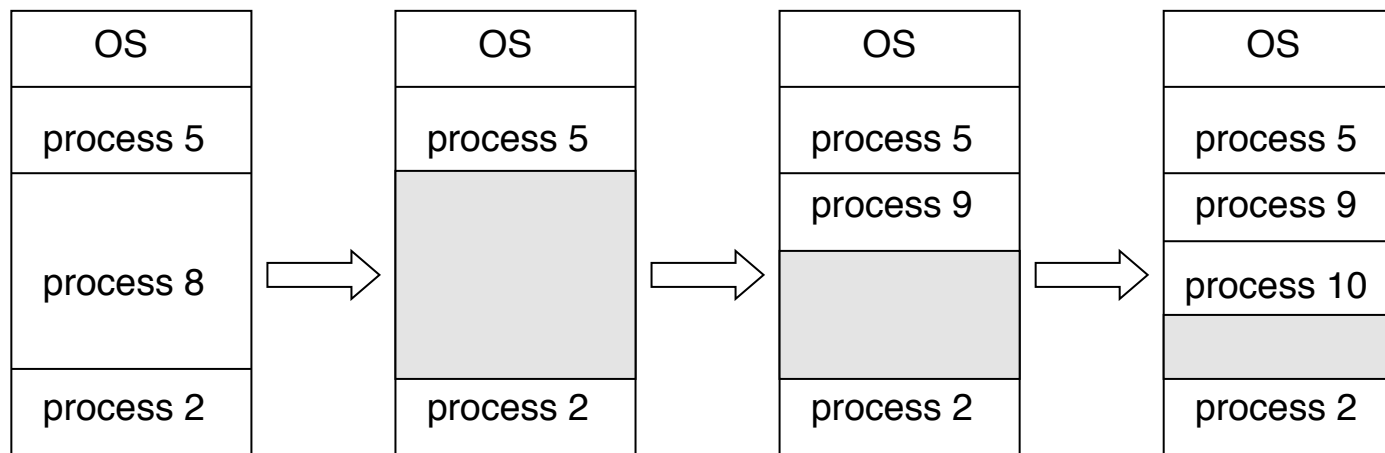
Hardware Support for Relocation and Limit Registers





Contiguous Allocation

- Multiple-partition allocation
 - Degree of multiprogramming limited by number of partitions
 - **Variable-partition** sizes for efficiency (sized to a given process' needs)
 - **Hole** – block of available memory; holes of various size are scattered throughout memory
 - When a process arrives, it is allocated memory from a hole large enough to accommodate it
 - Process exiting frees its partition, adjacent free partitions combined
 - Operating system maintains information about:
 - a) allocated partitions
 - b) free partitions (hole)





Dynamic Storage-Allocation Problem

- How to satisfy a request of size n from a list of free holes?
- **First-fit**: Allocate the *first* hole that is big enough
- **Best-fit**: Allocate the *smallest* hole that is big enough; must search entire list, unless ordered by size
 - Produces the smallest leftover hole
- **Worst-fit**: Allocate the *largest* hole; must also search entire list
 - Produces the largest leftover hole
- First-fit and best-fit better than worst-fit in terms of speed and storage utilization





Fragmentation

- **External Fragmentation** – total memory space exists to satisfy a request, but it is not contiguous
- **Internal Fragmentation** – allocated memory may be slightly larger than requested memory; this size difference is memory internal to a partition, but not being used
- First fit analysis reveals that given N blocks allocated, $0.5 N$ blocks lost to fragmentation
 - 1/3 may be unusable -> **50-percent rule**





Fragmentation

- Reduce external fragmentation by **compaction**
 - Shuffle memory contents to place all free memory together in one large block
 - Compaction is possible *only* if relocation is dynamic, and is done at execution time
 - I/O problem
 - ▶ Latch job in memory while it is involved in I/O
 - ▶ Do I/O only into OS buffers

- Possible solution: noncontiguous allocation
 - Segmentation, paging

- Notice that backing store has same fragmentation problems





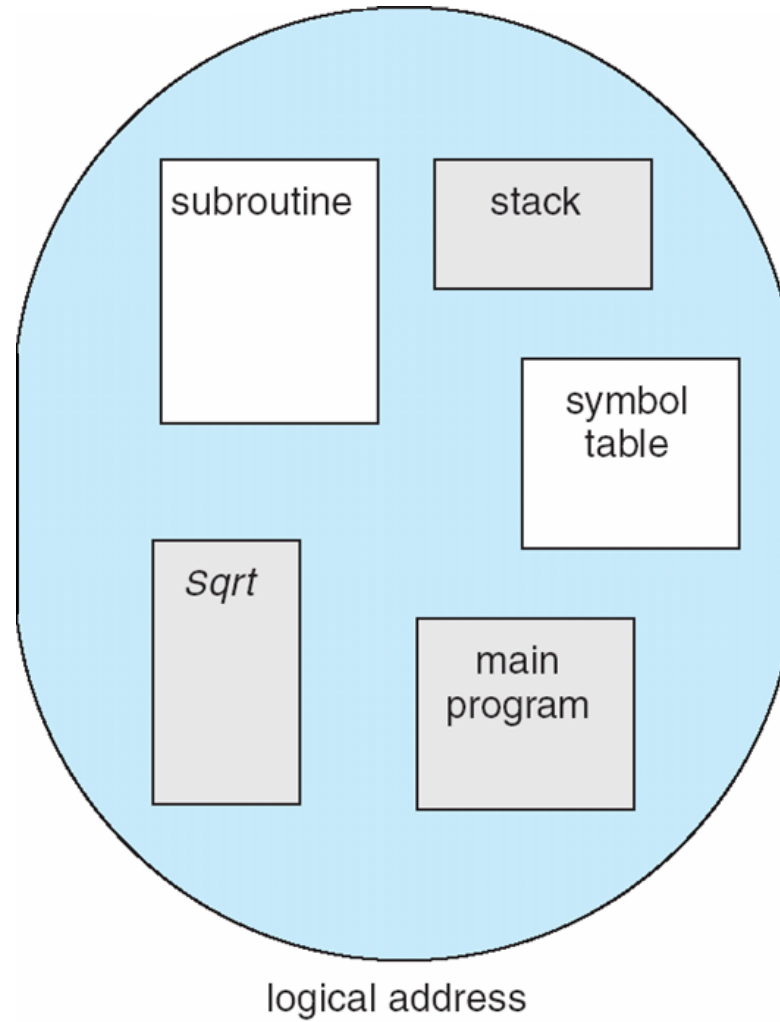
Segmentation

- Memory-management scheme that supports user view of memory
- A program is a collection of segments
 - A segment is a logical unit such as:
 - main program
 - procedure
 - function
 - method
 - object
 - local variables, global variables
 - common block
 - stack
 - symbol table
 - arrays



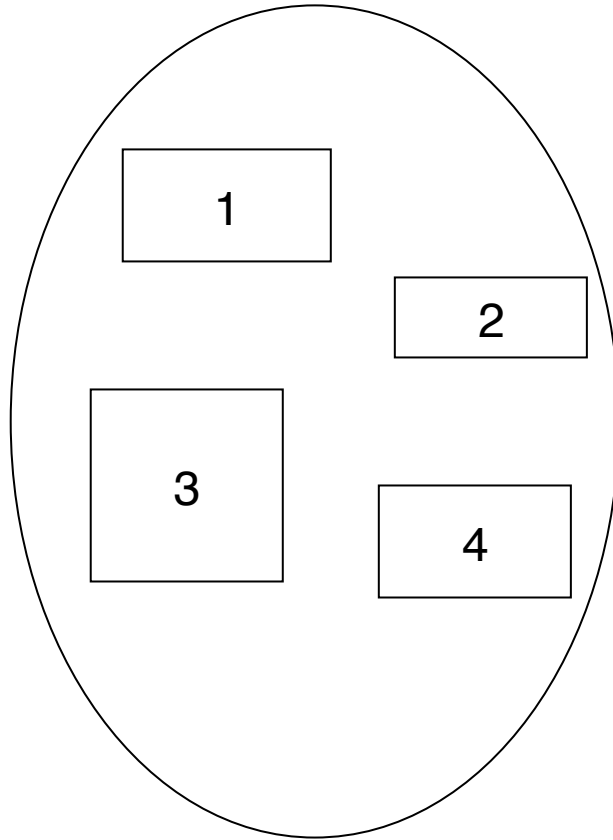


User's View of a Program

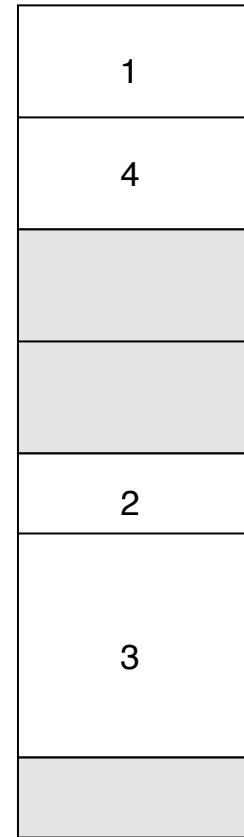




Logical View of Segmentation



user space



physical memory space





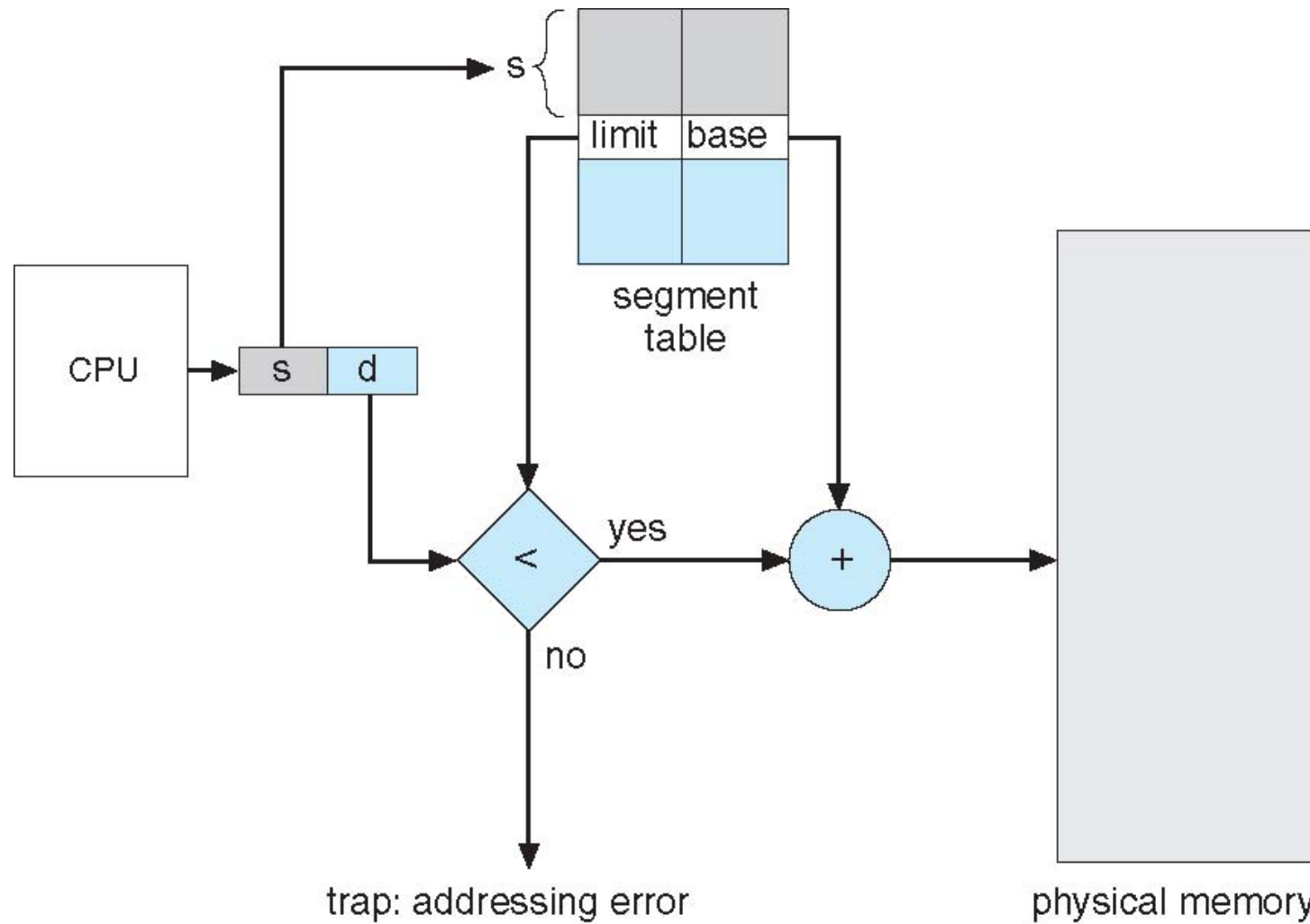
Segmentation Architecture

- Logical address consists of a two tuple:
 <segment-number, offset>
- **Segment table** – maps two-dimensional physical addresses; each table entry has:
 - **base** – contains the starting physical address where the segments reside in memory
 - **limit** – specifies the length of the segment
- **Segment-table base register (STBR)** points to the segment table's location in memory
- **Segment-table length register (STLR)** indicates number of segments used by a program;
 segment number **s** is legal if **s** < **STLR**





Segmentation Hardware





Paging

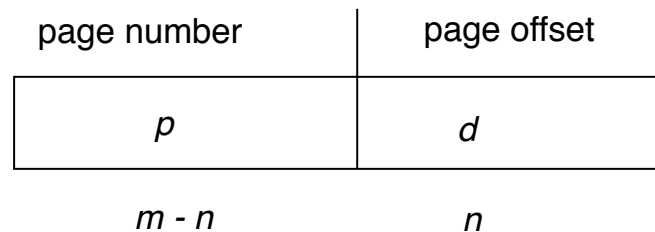
- Physical address space of a process can be noncontiguous; process is allocated physical memory whenever the latter is available
 - Avoids external fragmentation
 - Avoids problem of varying sized memory chunks
- Divide physical memory into fixed-sized blocks called **frames**
 - Size is power of 2, between 512 bytes and 16 Mbytes
- Divide logical memory into blocks of same size called **pages**
- Keep track of all free frames
- To run a program of size ***N*** pages, need to find ***N*** free frames and load program
- Set up a **page table** to translate logical to physical addresses
- Backing store likewise split into pages
- Still have Internal fragmentation





Address Translation Scheme

- Address generated by CPU is divided into:
 - **Page number** (p) – used as an index into a **page table** which contains base address of each page in physical memory
 - **Page offset** (d) – combined with base address to define the physical memory address that is sent to the memory unit

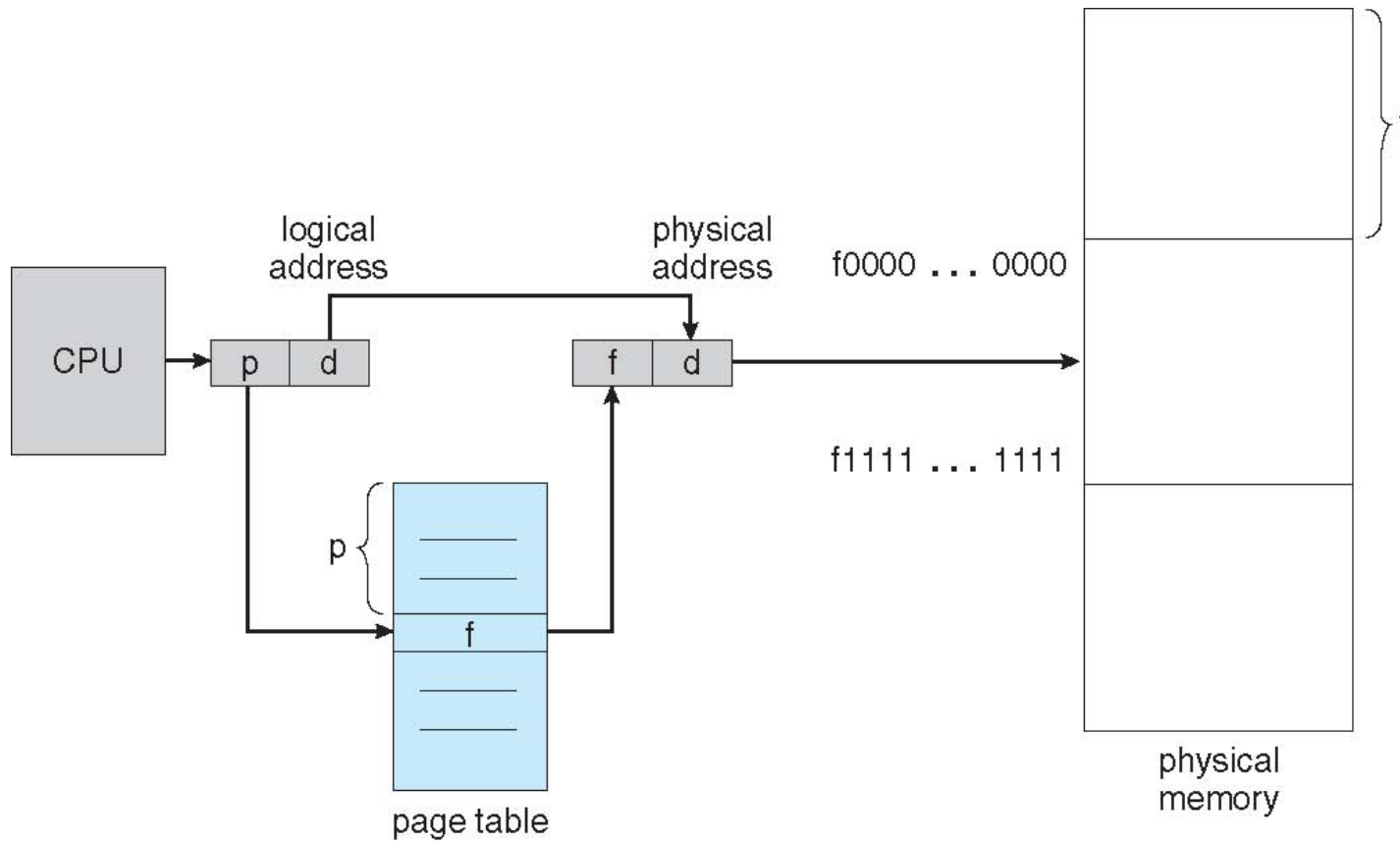


- For given logical address space 2^m and page size 2^n



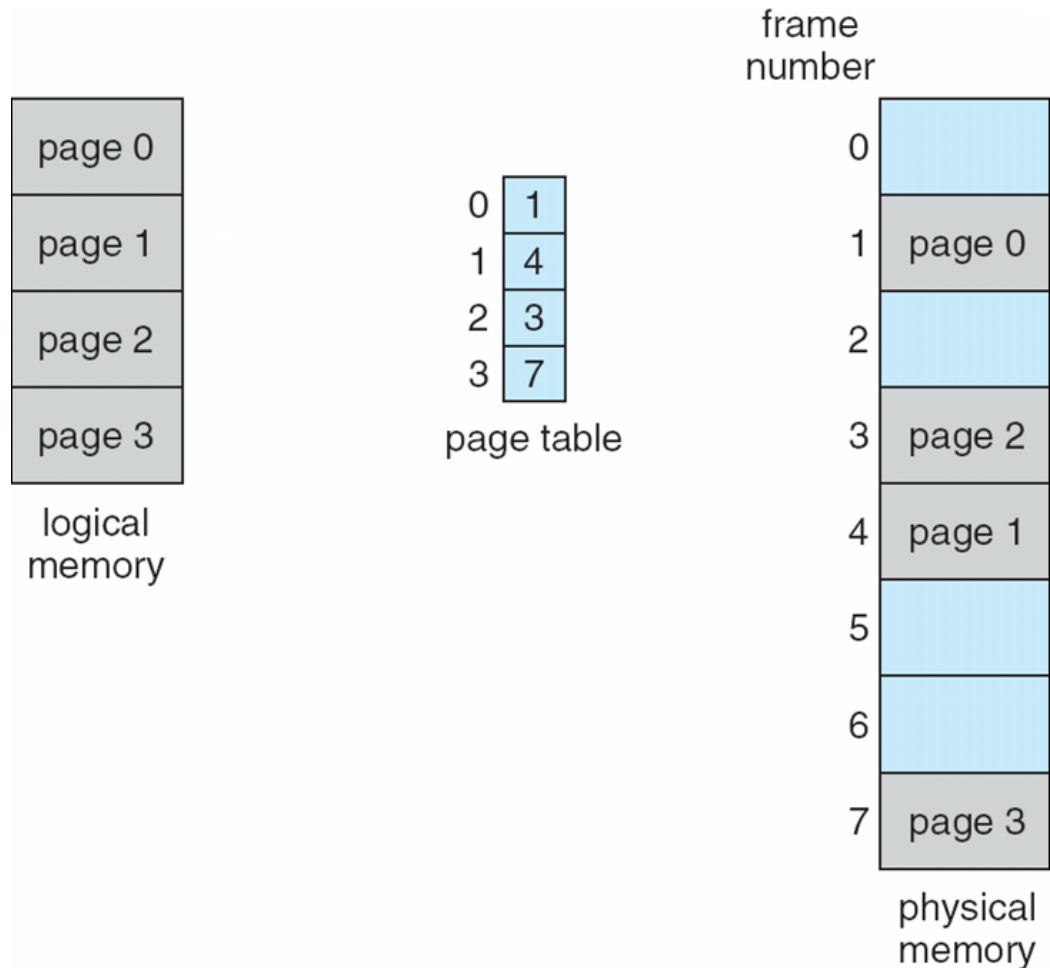


Paging Hardware





Paging Model of Logical and Physical Memory





Paging Example

0	a
1	b
2	c
3	d
4	e
5	f
6	g
7	h
8	i
9	j
10	k
11	l
12	m
13	n
14	o
15	p

logical memory

0	5
1	6
2	1
3	2

page table

0	
4	i j k l
8	m n o p
12	
16	
20	a b c d
24	e f g h
28	

physical memory

$n=2$ and $m=4$ 32-byte memory and 4-byte pages





Paging (Cont.)

- Calculating internal fragmentation
 - Page size = 2,048 bytes
 - Process size = 72,766 bytes
 - 35 pages + 1,086 bytes
 - Internal fragmentation of $2,048 - 1,086 = 962$ bytes
 - Worst case fragmentation = 1 frame – 1 byte
 - On average fragmentation = $1 / 2$ frame size
- So small frame sizes desirable?
 - But each page table entry takes memory to track
 - Page sizes growing over time
 - ▶ Solaris supports two page sizes – 8 KB and 4 MB
- Process view and physical memory now very different
- By implementation process can only access its own memory

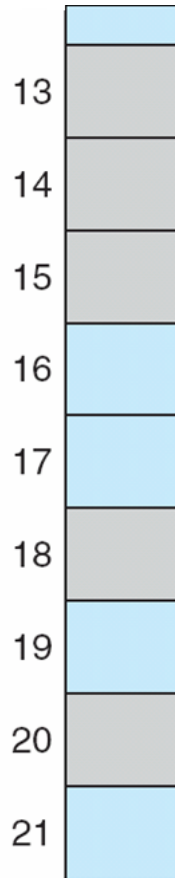
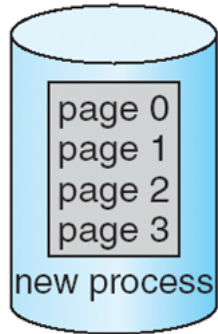




Free Frames (Frame Table)

free-frame list

14
13
18
20
15

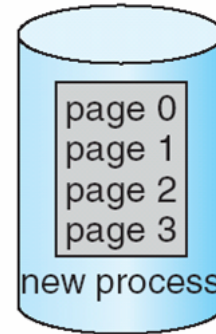


(a)

Before allocation

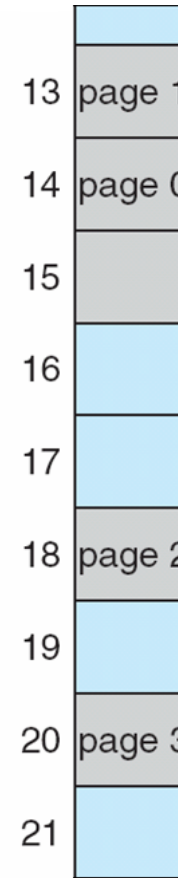
free-frame list

15



0	14
1	13
2	18
3	20

new-process page table



(b)

After allocation

