

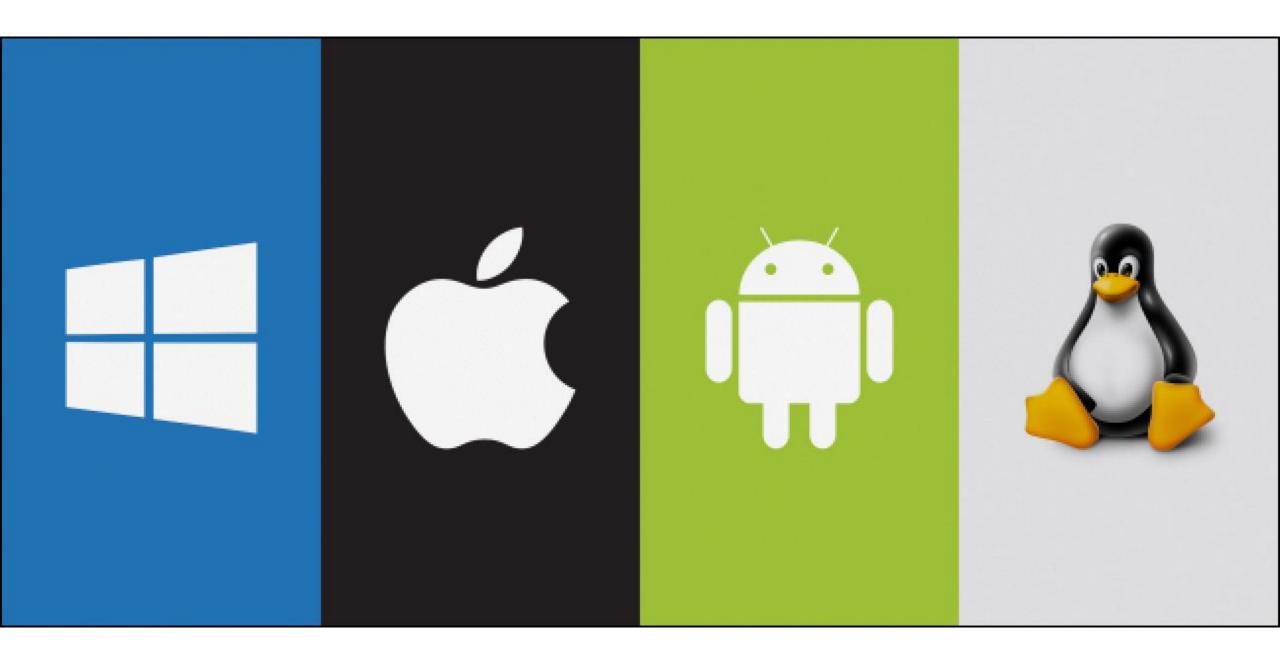
CSE 4305 Computer Organization and Architecture

Operating System Support

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Operating System Program

- A program that <u>controls the execution of other programs</u> and <u>acts as</u> an interface between applications and computer hardware
- Main functionalities:
 - Manage computer resources (specially memory management)
 - Provide services to the programmer (Interface)
 - Schedule the execution of other programs (Scheduling)
- Main objectives:
 - Convenience: make computer more convenient to use
 - Efficiency: manage all computer resources in efficient manner



OS as User Interface

- User uses an application as end user not concerned about underlying computer architecture
 - User views a computer in terms of application (from where user gets services)
- OS provides <u>hardware and software support</u> for any application
- Application programmer develops an application program
 - Application program is a **set of processor instructions** that control the computer resources to provide services to a user
- To control the computer resources easily, a set of system programs are provided – utilities
 - Most important utility program OS
 - OS masks the details of the hardware from the programmer, providing an interface to use the system



System Program (OS) Services

Program Creation

- Provide editor and debugger to assist the programmer
 - These services are not the part of OS, but they are accessible through OS

Program Execution

- A number of **steps** are required to execute a program, like:
 - Load instruction and data from main memory
 - Initialize I/O devices and file systems
 - **Prepare** other resources
- A complete *instruction cycle* is involved to execute an entire instruction controlled by the OS



System Program (OS) Services...

Controlled Access to Files

- OS understand the format and details of the storage medium (register, cache, main memory, secondary storages and so on)
- For multiuser system, OS provides protection to access the files for authorized users (ensures integrity and consistency)

Access to I/O Devices

- I/O devices have their own specific set of instructions or control signals for operation
- OS **hides** the details from the programmer
 - Rather programmer might simply think of mere read and write operation to contact with I/O devices



System Program (OS) Services...

System Access

- For shared or public systems, OS control access to the system and limited resources
- Provide protection against unauthorized users
- Resolve conflicts for resource contention/dispute

Accounting

- OS collects usage data of various resources monitoring their performances
 - Good to anticipate future enhancement and tune the performance
 - For multiuser system, to prepare billings



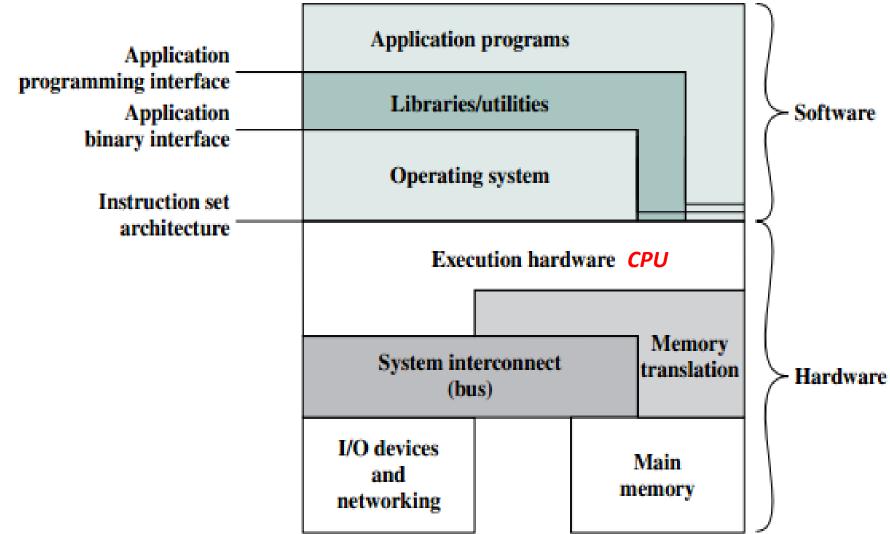
System Program (OS) Services...

Error Detection and Response

- Kinds of errors:
 - Internal or external hardware: memory error, device failure or malfunction
 - **Software:** arithmetic overflow, access to forbidden memory location, inability to grant request
- Responses from OS:
 - Abort the current program
 - Retry the operation
 - Report the error to the application



Hardware and Software Structure



Le



Key Interfaces in Computer System

• Instruction Set Architecture (ISA) Interface

- Collect machine language instructions and translate them into corresponding control signals
- Boundary between hardware and software
- Accessed by application programs (user ISA) and utility programs (system ISA)

Application Binary Interface (ABI)

- Defines different system call interfaces to OS to take proper actions (by OS)
- Presents different H/W resources and services available in the system to the User through user ISA
- Enables binary portability across (any) programs or applications
 - Programs from any platform can get access to the system for such same ABI portability

Application Programming Interface (API)

- **Gives** a program **access** to the <u>H/W resources</u> and <u>services</u> using supplementary high level language (HLL) library functions through user ISA
- Enables an application easily portable (across any OSs) having same API



OS as Resource Manager

- Computer is a set of resources for data movement, storage and processing along with some others for controlling them
 - OS is responsible to control these resources
- Normally controller of a system is something that is a separate part from that system which is under controlled
 - That is not the case for OS
- OS is an unusual control mechanism because:
 - It is **executed** in the same way as any other ordinary computer programs
 - That OS itself is executed by the processor
 - It frequently releases its control and depends on processor to regain it.

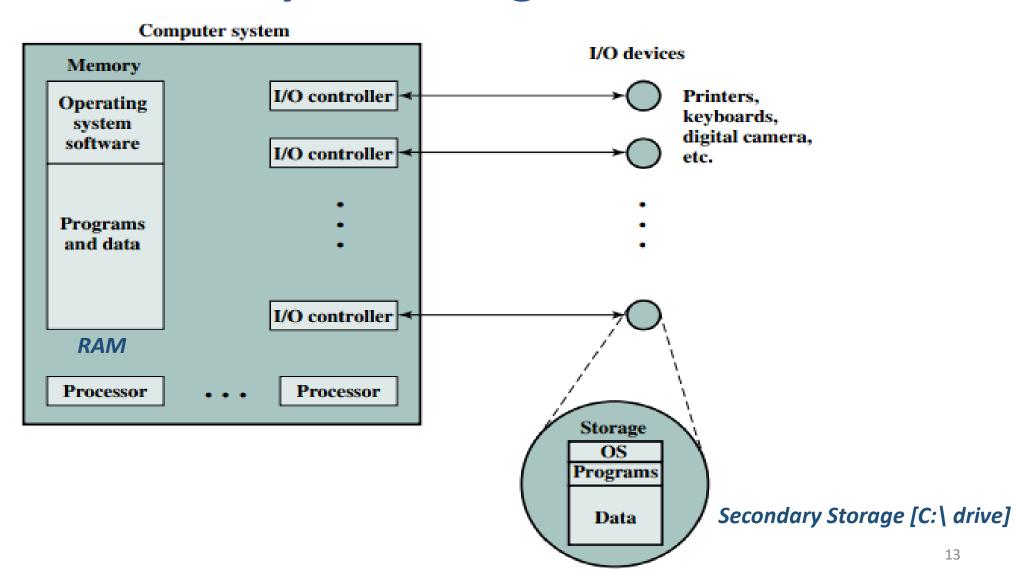


OS as A Usual Computer Program

- OS as a program, provides instructions for execution to the processor
- Moreover, OS directs processor to utilize system resources and to execute other programs in time (a special program)
- To execute other programs, processor requires to stop executing OS
- While operating the computer, a certain portion of the OS should be in main memory
 - That portion of OS contains the most frequent functions Kernel or Nucleus
- Memory allocation as a resource is controlled by OS and processor to store a kernel (OS) and share with other programs and data
 - Processor itself is a resource shared by OS to execute its instruction



OS as Other Computer Program



Lecture 8



Types of OS

- Based on interaction with computer:
 - Interactive system
 - User or programmer **interacts directly** with the computer executing several requests
 - Through keyboard, display terminal
 - Also possible to communicate with computer during execution of a job !!!
 - Batch system
 - User program batched (grouped) together (also from other users) and submitted to the computer by a computer operator
 - After the program is completed, results are printed out for user as a final feedback regarding the compilation of the user program



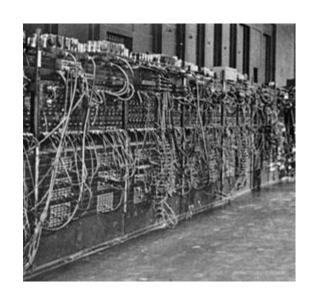
Types of OS...

- Based on number of programs under execution:
 - Multiprogramming
 - To keep the processor as busy as possible having more than one program at a time
 - Several programs are loaded into main memory and processor switches rapidly among them
 - Uniprogramming
 - That works only one program at a time



Early Computer Systems [1940-1950]

- Programmer interact with the hardware directly No OS
 - Hardwired Programming
- The **hardware-console** of the **processor** was consisted of:
 - Display lights to indicate any error condition
 - Toggle switch
 - Input device to load program (card reader)
 - Printer to produce output
- Mode of operation serial processing
 - Users have access to the computer in series





Early Computer Systems: Problems

Scheduling

- A sign-up sheet to reserve processor time that should be strictly maintained
 - A program can't be started earlier than its scheduled time even if its previous program
 has already left the processor

Setup time

- To start executing a program, it needs to load compiler, linker and others files which implies mounting and dismounting tapes or setting up card decks
 - Takes a lot of time to be started
 - Highly erroneous task that if there is any fault the program needs to be started from very beginning



Simple Batch OS Systems

- Early processors were very expensive
 - It was important to maximize the processor utilization
 - Solution Simple Batch System (also known as Monitor) keep jobs ready to use
- User no longer has the direct access to the processor
 - **User** submits the job on card or tape to a computer operator who will group (batch) them sequentially
 - Computer operator will place the entire batch on an input device to be used by the monitor
- Monitor Controls the sequence of events
 - A portion of monitor must be in main memory for execution Resident Monitor
 - The rest of monitor consisting of utilities and common functions are loaded when required by user program
 - Handle scheduling problems of the jobs in waiting

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Monitor: How It Works?

- Monitor reads in a job at a time sequentially from the input device (e.g. card reader or magnetic tape)
 - When the current job is placed in the user program area of main memory, the control is passed to this job for execution
 - When the current job is completed, it will return the control to the monitor
 - Monitor will then read in next job in the user program area of main memory

[Note: From the point of view of the monitor itself.]



Monitor: How It Works?...

- At the beginning, the processor will start executing instructions from the monitor (resident) in main memory
 - Execution will cause to read in next ready job to the main memory (in user program area), and processor will next branch to the job brought in main memory (control passed to the job)
 - The processor will fetch and execute the instructions from the user program (current job) until ending of the program or any other error condition
 - Then processor will fetch and execute next instruction from the monitor (control returned to the monitor)

[Note: From the point of view of the processor]



Monitor in Memory

Monitor

Boundary -

Interrupt processing

> Device drivers

Job sequencing

Control language interpreter

> User program area

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Required Hardware Features for Batch OS

Memory protection

- To protect certain memory boundary whether to be violated or not
- If it happens, job will be aborted and control returns to the monitor

Timer

- Prevent a job to monopolize the system
- A timer is set at the beginning of each program to supervise its expiration
 - Cause an interrupt to return control to the monitor if the timer expires

Privileged instructions

- Some instructions are regarded as privileged that only executed by the monitor
- If processor encounters any of these instructions executed under any user program, cause an error to return the control to the monitor

Interrupts

 Nowadays OS has this feature of flexibility to relinquish and regain control from user programs through interrupts



Sacrifices Due to Batch OS

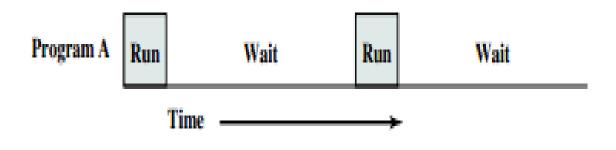
- Main memory space is sacrificed for monitor
- Processor time is sacrificed for monitor



Problems with Simple Batch System [Uniprogramming]

- Simple batch OS system (i.e. monitor) make the sequence of the jobs (Scheduling)
 - Still the processor sits idle because I/O devices are slower than processor
 - After finishing executing instructions, the processor must wait until that I/O operation concludes to abort the current program and switch to the next
 - Also other resources are underutilized like disk, printer, terminal and others are not being used simultaneously

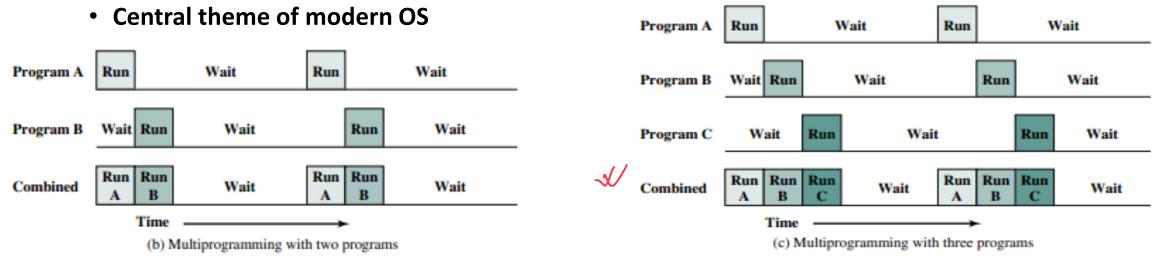
Read one record from file Execute 100 instructions
$$1 \mu s$$
 Write one record to file $\frac{15 \mu s}{31 \mu s}$ TOTAL $\frac{15 \mu s}{31 \mu s}$ Percent CPU utilization $=\frac{1}{31}=0.032=3.2\%$





Multi-Programmed Batch OS System

- To overcome the problem of simple batch OS, now more than one user program will be placed in memory
 - When the processor needs to wait for I/O operation in one job, it will switch to the other job
 - Likely no waiting time for the processor
 - To get more efficiency, we might flourish memory to hold more programs and switch among them
 - All the jobs will run concurrently utilizing all the computer resources



Multi-Programmed Batch OS: Hardware Features

- Allow certain hardware features I/O Interrupt and DMA
 - Through Interrupt driven I/O and DMA, processor issues an I/O command on the behalf of one job and proceed to another one
 - Meanwhile I/O operations are carried out by the I/O device controller
 - When I/O operations are completed, the processor is interrupted by the device controller
 - In response, processor switches to an ISR to handle that interrupt.
 - After finishing ISR, the processor control will be passed to another job in sequence



More About Multi-Programming Batch OS

- More sophisticated than simple batch OS:
 - Needs several jobs ready to run in the main memory
 - Memory management is required (Coming Soon...)
 - Also the processor needs to decide which one will run next
 - Some sort of scheduling algorithms are demanded





Interactive OS System

- In different cases, it is desired to have a mode in which a user can interact with the computer directly
 - E.g. Transaction processing
 - Past history: for each user, it was required to have a dedicated computer, which was not available in 1960s
 - Rather than that, a time sharing system was developed with a single computer
- As multiprogramming OS system can handle multiple batch jobs, it can also handle multiple interactive jobs in time sharing manner [Improvement]
 - Now processor-time can be shared among multiple users through computer terminals
- OS interleaves the execution of each user program for a short time
 - If n users request for service at a time, each program will get on an average 1/n of effective time from total service
 - No need to have dedicated computers as it is well enough with slower human reaction time



Batch Multiprogramming VS Time Sharing

	Batch Multiprogramming	Time Sharing
Principal objective	Maximize processor use	Minimize response time
Source of directives to operating system	Job control language commands provided with the job	Commands entered at the terminal

i.e. Not allow user Interaction

i.e. Allow user Interaction



Concept of "Process"

- "Process" this term was first used by Multics OS in 1960s
- As somewhat more generalized term than "job" also defined as:
 - A program in execution
 - The "animated spirit" of a program (active soul)
 - As an entity to which a processor is assigned

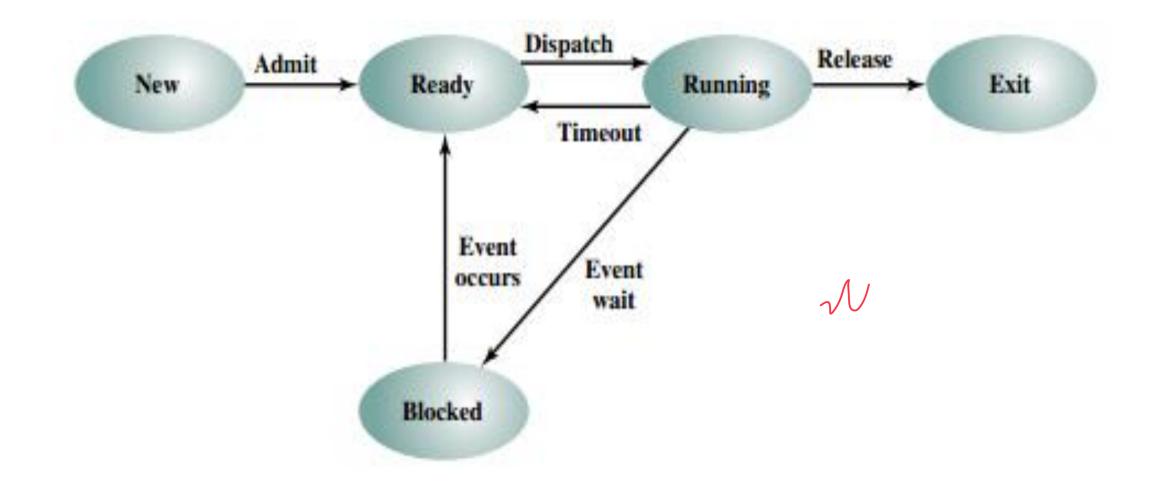


Process States

- During the lifetime of a process, its status will be changed very frequently
 - Status at any point of time is referred as a **state** with some certain information that defines that status of the process
 - To learn the operation of scheduling, we have to know about process state
 - There are five states for a process:
 - 1. New
 - 2. Ready
 - 3. Running
 - 4. Waiting/Blocked/Halted
 - 5. Exit/Terminated



Five State Process Model





States of a Process

New

- When a program is admitted by the scheduler (long-term/high-level) but not yet ready to execute
- OS will initialize this process and move it from new to ready state

Ready

The process is ready to execute and is awaiting access to the processor

Running

The process is being executed by the processor

Waiting/Blocked/Halted

• The process is suspended from execution into waiting for some system resources such as I/O devices

Exit/Terminated

The process is terminated and will be destroyed by the OS



Process Control Block (PCB)

- For each of the process in the system, the OS must maintain its information
 - It indicates the state of the process and other necessary information necessary for process execution
- In this purpose, each process is represented before OS by a Process Control Block (PCB), which contains:
 - **Identifier:** Unique address of the current process
 - **State:** Current state of the process (e.g. new, ready, running, waiting, exit)
 - **Priority:** Relative priority level
 - **Program Counter:** The address of the next instruction in the process to be executed next
 - Memory Pointers: Starting and end address of the process in memory
 - **Context Data:** System register data during the process is executing (saved during context switching). It is required when the processor resumes the execution of the process
 - I/O Status Information: It includes I/O requests, I/O devices assigned to it, files assigned to it, and so on
 - Accounting Information: It includes amount of used processor time and clock time, time limits, account numbers and so on



PCB Block Diagram

Identifier	
State	
Priority	
Program counter	
Memory pointers	
Context data	
I/O status information	
Accounting information	
• •	

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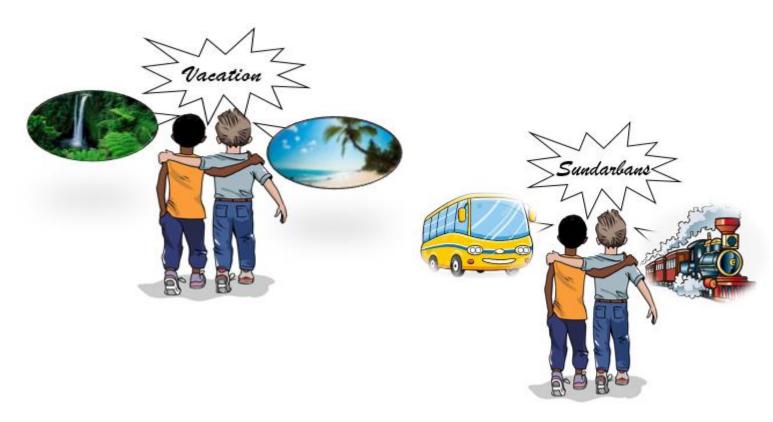
Scheduling and Its Types

- Key to the multiprogramming Scheduling
- 4 types of scheduling:

Long-term scheduling	The decision to add to the pool of processes to be executed.	
Medium-term scheduling	The decision to add to the number of processes that are partially or fully in main memory.	
Short-term scheduling	The decision as to which available process will be executed by the processor.	
I/O scheduling	The decision as to which process's pending I/O request shall be han- dled by an available I/O device.	



Analogy of Scheduling...







Long Term Scheduling

- This type of scheduling will determine among all the requests which programs are submitted to the system for processing
 - Controls the degree of multiprogramming (number of processes in the memory)
 - Once a program/job is submitted to the system becomes a "process"
 - *i.e.* added to any one of the system queue of different schedulers
 - *e.g.* Based on systems, this process will be admitted to either short time scheduling or medium term scheduling
- Long term queue is the list of jobs waiting to use the system
 - Waiting to be a process
 - If the conditions are met, these jobs will be allocated memory and enlisted to any of a queue



LTS: When a New Job Comes, What OS Will Do

• In multiprogramming or simple batch system:

- Newly submitted jobs are held in a batch queue Long term scheduler creates process from them based on following decisions:
 - 1. Whether OS can take one or more additional process
 - 2. Which job or jobs to accept and turns them into process
 - Decision may include **priority**, **expected execution time**, **I/O requirements** and others

• In **interactive** (time sharing) system:

- A process request is generated when a user attempts to connect to the system
 - A requesting user can't be simply queued up and kept waiting for a long time (expectation)
 - Rather the OS will accept all the requests until the system is saturated (preference)
 - If the system is saturated under some circumstances, it will notify the user that the system is full and request to try again later (*exceptional*)



Medium Term Scheduling

- It is a part of swapping function (i.e. swap in swap out)
 - Relinquishing own space of a process from the main memory temporarily for another process (swap out)
 - Swapping in decision is made based on the degree of multiprogramming for the swapped out processes (swap in)
 - This scheduling is used when the processes are in the "waiting" state
 - These processes are enlisted in <u>medium term queue</u>

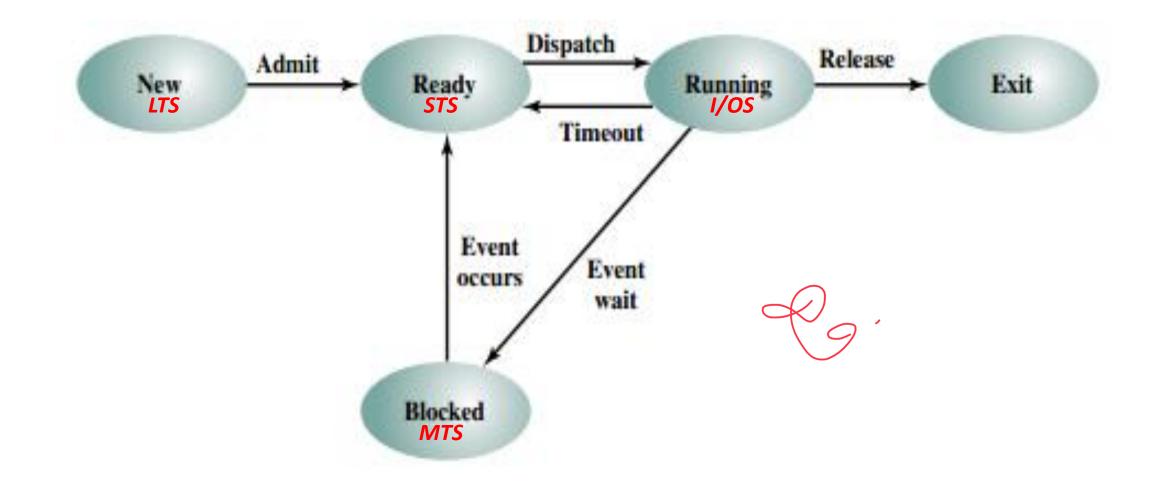


Short Term Scheduling

- Long term scheduler is used very infrequent
 - Whereas *short term scheduler* executes very frequently
- Also known as "Dispatcher"
- It takes very fine tuned decision to select from a short term queue which job will be processed next form the "ready" state
 - All this next process will be processed by processor
 - Normally "round-robin" algorithm is used to select next process so that each process will get its time slot in turn
 - Sometimes priority algorithm may also be used



Schedulers in Five State Process Model



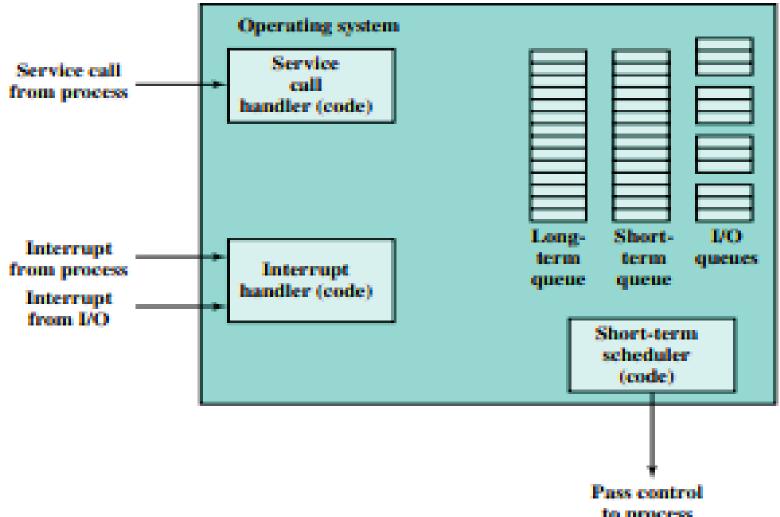


Scheduling Technique

- At a given point of time, main memory is partitioned into a number of active processes along with the kernel of the OS
- At any point of time, any active process or the OS itself can be being executed in the processor
 - All of them must be present in the main memory
 - Processor will take instructions from the program under those processes and execute them
- An **OS** may be executed **at any time** to provide services. For example:
 - Execute a **service call** (e.g. an I/O request) generated by any process
 - Response an interrupt raised by any process
 - Some **events unrelated** (i.e. outside) to the current process to which the OS must response
 - OS also maintains a number of queues
 - Each queue is simply a waiting list of processes waiting for some resources



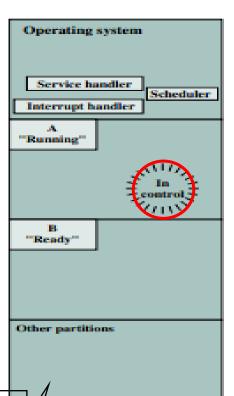
Key Elements of a Kernel of OS

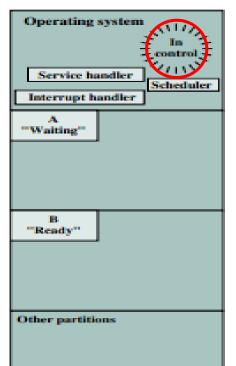


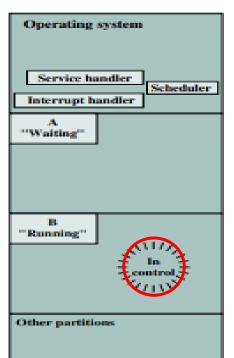
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Scheduling Technique Example









- At the end of the process A, current context data and PC will be stored in the PCB of A
- Process **A** will be sent to **waiting** state
- Then the control transfers to the OS

- OS performs some work e.g. initiates I/O command for process **A**
- Short term scheduler decides which process will be executed next from <u>ready</u> state
- OS instructs the processor to restore B's context data and PC

- Process **B** gets the control back along with its context and PC.
- Processor will proceed to execute process B through its instructions
- Process **B** is now in **running** state

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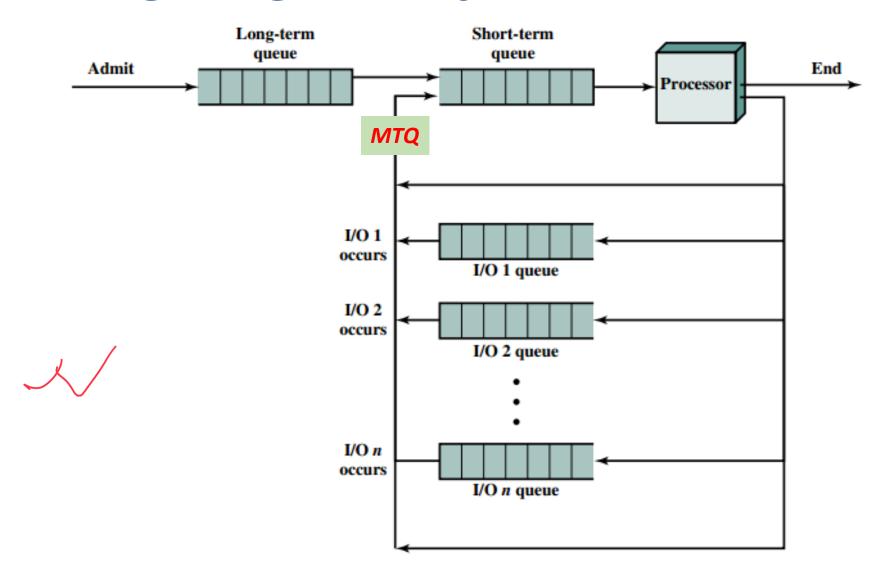


I/O Scheduling

- It is used for each of the I/O device
 - Because more than one device will request for same device
 - For each of I/O device, OS will maintain an single I/O queue for them
- When an I/O operation is completed of a certain I/O device, the OS will remove the satisfied process from that I/O queue and place it in the short term queue (or medium term queue)
 - The OS will then select another waiting process for I/O service and give necessary I/O commands to that I/O device



All Queuing Diagrams of Processor Scheduling



Lecture 8



Memory Management & Its Necessity

- For Uniprogramming system, memory is divided into two portions:
 - 1. OS (Resident-monitor/Kernel)
 - 2. User Program currently being executed
- For Multiprogramming system, "user" portion of the memory is subdivided to accommodate multiple processes
- Subdivision of main memory is carried out dynamically by the OS
 - Known as memory management
- If a few processes are placed in memory, then they will be stalled in "waiting" queue for I/O devices within very short time and processor will be idle again
 - Thus memory needs to be allocated efficiently to accommodate as many processes as possible



How to Improve Multiprogramming

- Normally there are three kinds of queues within a processor to keep it as busy as possible:
 - Long term queue for new processes submitted to the processor
 - **Short term queue** for ready processes to be executed by the processor
 - I/O queue just left the processor for I/O operations
- But as processor is so much fast, all processes will complete quickly their processing tasks and wait for same I/O (likelihood)
 - So, even with multiprogramming, a processor could be idle most of the time
 - Main memory can be expanded to accommodate more processes (alternative) But:
 - Even today main memory (RAM) is expensive ($8\sim16~GB$ limited number of processes)
 - Processes are growing larger (limited space for a process)
- Many techniques for OS to expand the main memory
 - Swapping, partitioning, paging, virtual memory, segmentation and so on.



Swapping - Why

- We have already a long term queue of processes stored on the secondary storage
 - Processes are waiting outside the main memory to get access into the processor and main memory
 - Brought one at a time when there will be space available in main memory
 - How? If existing processes are completed, they will be kicked out of memory leaving space for next
 - But as discussed earlier, processor is very fast nowadays and all the processes in main memory are in "waiting" state for I/O operations (reality)
 - Processor is still idle we should think better way to get around this problem !!!
 - <u>Figure</u> for clarification

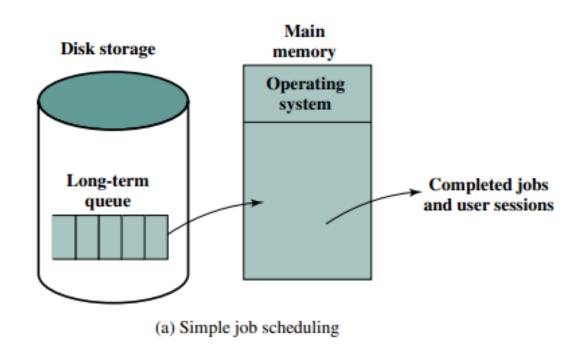


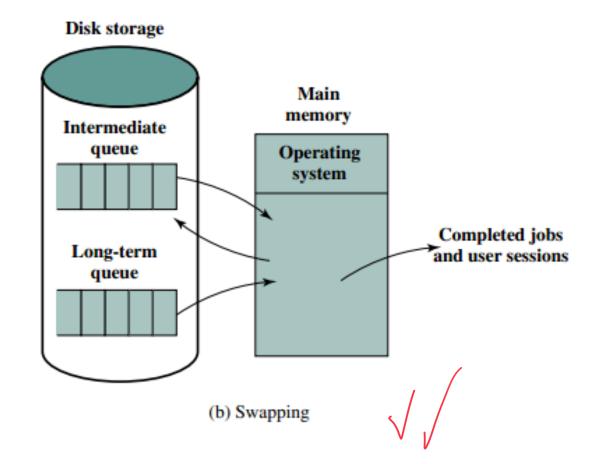
Swapping - Strategy

- Rather the processor swaps one of these "waiting" processes out of the main memory into an intermediate queue (or medium term queue) in disk
 - A queue of current processes which are temporarily blocked Swapping out
- OS then brings into memory another process from the <u>intermediate queue</u> or honors a new process request from the <u>long term queue</u> – Swapping in
 - However, swapping is an I/O operation very potential to make the problem worse to take longer time to access this secondary storage
 - But disk drive I/O is the fastest I/O on this system, "swapping" will enhance the performance
 - Virtual memory concept will also improves the performance over simple swapping



Depiction of Swapping







Partitioning

- In **multiprogramming**, to accommodate more than one user program, we need to **partition** the main memory
- Simplest way of partitioning Equal sized (fixed) partition
- Alternative way: Fixed unequal sized partition
 - When a process is brought into memory, it will be placed in the smallest available partition to fit it
 - But it is also an inefficient partitioning there will be still some wasted memory
 - Mostly, a process will not require exactly as much memory as provided by the partition



Partitioning - Fixed Partition

Operating system 8M
8M

Operating system 8M
2M
4M
6M
8M
8M
12M
16M

Lecture 8 (a) Equal-size partitions

(b) Unequal-size partitions

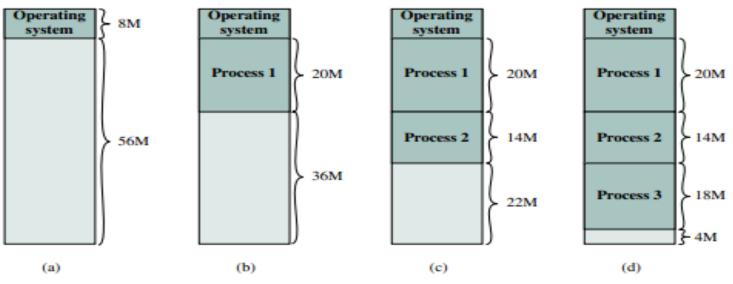


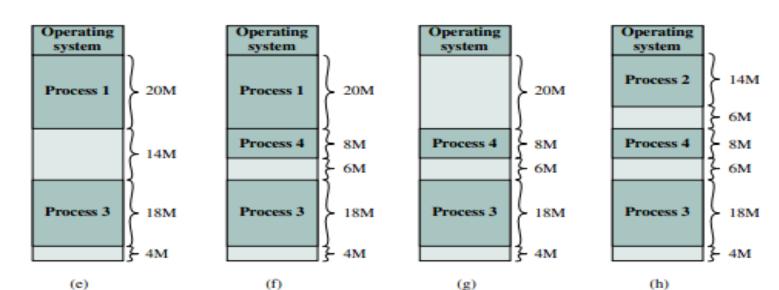
More Efficient Partition

- A more efficient approach variable sized partition or dynamic partition
 - When a process is brought to memory, it is allocated **exactly** as much memory as it requires; not more than that
- But though it starts well, eventually it leads to a situation for a memory containing a lot of small holes
 - As time goes on, memory is appeared as more and more fragmented to a new job
 - Free memory spaces are so much scattered
 - Utilization of memory management degrades
 - Solution: COMPACTION
 - From time to time, OS will shift all the processes to place them all together as well as all free memory space together in one block (defragmentation)
 - But it is very time consuming wasteful of processor time



Dynamic or Variable Sized Partition





Lecture 8



Logical to Physical Address Conversion

- It is clear from prior discussion that process is not likely to be loaded at the very same place of memory each time it is swapped in.
 - Moreover, following compaction, a process may still be shifted while it is already in main memory
 - So address of a process is always changing (not fixed) addresses of its data and instructions too
 - Which type of address is changing? logical or physical
 - So we will make a **distinction** between <u>logical</u> and <u>physical</u> address
 - A logical address is expressed as a location relative to the beginning of the program
 - So inside a program, all the data and instructions will hold logical address
 - A physical address is an actual location in main memory
 - When a processor executes a process, its logical address must be converted to physical one
 - A hardware feature is there monitored by OS
 - Conversion: How? Logical address of each instruction (its relative address or offset)
 will be added with the physically starting address of the process (base address) to find
 out its original location in the main memory

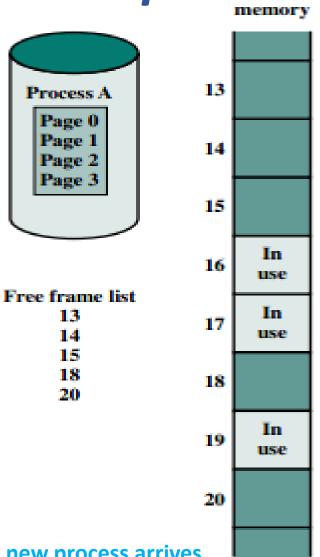
Paging



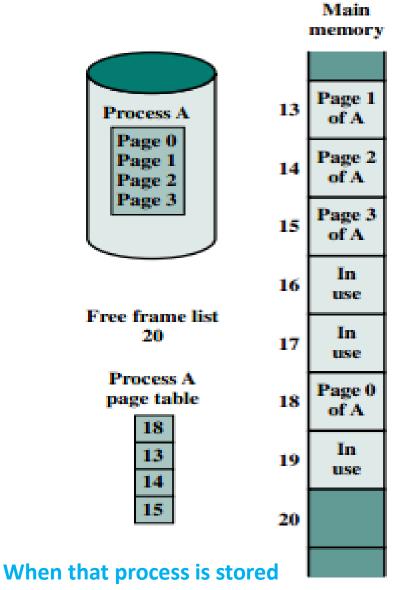
- As we have explored all types of partitions, we notice their drawbacks
- Alternative:
 - Memory is partitioned into equal and relatively small fixed sized chunks being same for all - Known as pages
 - These pages of a program could be assigned to available chunks of memory known as frames or page-frames in main memory
 - Frame size = Page size
 - Maximum wasted space in memory for any process occurs in a fraction only at the last page
 - At a certain time, some of the frames in main memory are in use and some are free
 - List of <u>free frames</u> are maintained by OS
 - Pages of a certain program is loaded to these free frames by OS
 - Smaller processes requires fewer pages and larger processes requires more.



Paging – Example



Main



When a new process arrives

Lecture 8 (a) Before (b) After



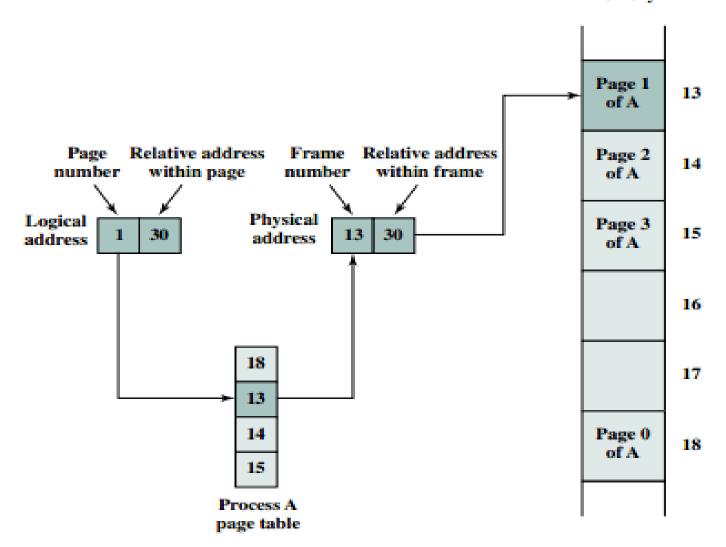
Page Table

- If there is not sufficient unused frames to hold a complete process, can we not load and execute that process?
- Again we have to consider the concept of logical address of a process
 - But here we will not use a single base (starting) address of a process (i.e. logical address of that process)
 - Rather OS maintains a page table for each current process
 - This page table points the exact frame locations of each pages of the process in main memory
 - Within a program, each logical address of data or instruction consists of page number and a relative address within that page (offset)
 - Still this logical (page + offset) to physical (frame + offset) address conversion is done by processor hardware
 - Processor must know how to access the page table of the current process



Logical to Physical Address Translation

Main memory







Virtual Memory & Demand Paging

- To achieve effective multiprogramming system, paging is used
 - Another important concept can be developed through breaking a process into pages virtual memory
- Virtual memory is developed based on demand paging
 - Each page of a process is brought into the main memory only when is needed on demand
 - Example: Suppose a large process consists of a long program (instructions) and a number of arrays of data. Usually at a time of execution, processor requires a small section of the program (e.g. subroutine) and one or two arrays of data based on the principle of locality. If we load the complete process in the memory, a bigger part of that process will be unused before it is suspended. For better use of memory, we will load a very few pages. Now if it requires another page that is not in memory, a page fault will be occurred. It results in:
 - 1. This event will ask the OS to bring the **desired** page
 - 2. But OS must be clever to bring a new page in; sometimes replacing an old page from memory
 - Known as <u>page replacement</u> e.g. LRU algorithm
 - But it should avoid thrashing too



Virtual Memory – Its Consequence

- With demand paging, it is not necessary to load entire process into memory
 - It is possible for a process to be larger than main memory
 - Without demand paging, a programmer should be concern about the size of main memory
 - If it is larger than the main memory, the programmer should structure the process into pieces so that one gets access at a time
- With demand paging, partitioning a process is the job of OS and processor hardware
 - Now this entire process will be stored in disk storage no restriction regarding **program size**
 - A process is executed when it is stored in the main memory (real memory but smaller)
 - But programmer could sense even larger space utilizing disk storage this concept referred to virtual memory

Note: Very effective for multiprogramming



Page Table Structure

- To read a word from main memory, it requires to translate its virtual or logical address to physical one
 - Actually a page number and associated offset will be translated to corresponding frame number and associated offset with the help of page table
 - As the processes are of variable lengths, page table is also has different length
 - So page table can't be well suited in register. As a result:
 - Instead, a page table must be stored in main memory to be accessed
 - But starting of the page table can be saved in a register
 - Each process has one page table, but sometimes entries of this page table may be very large in number
 - Example: For a 2 GB process (2³¹ Bytes) in a virtual memory, using 512 Bytes (2⁹ Bytes) page will require 2²² page table entries alone.



Page Table Structure Schemes

Scheme 1:

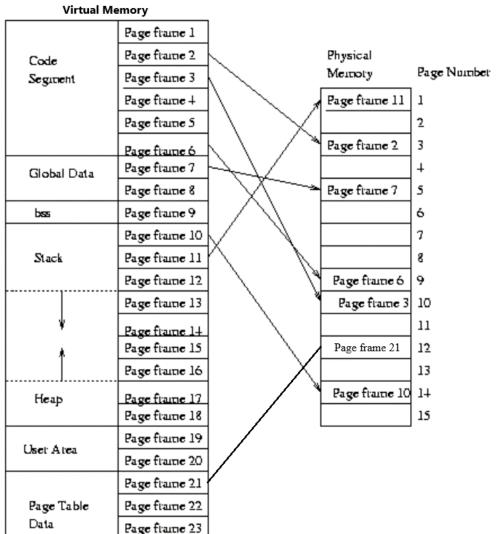
- Most of the cases, this page table is stored in virtual memory rather than main memory
 - Thus, page table itself is subject to **paging** like other processes
 - When the process is running, at least <u>a part of the its page table</u> (one or more pages of entire page table) must be present in main memory (including currently executing page entry)

Scheme 2:

- Sometimes two-level scheme is used to organize large page table
 - Here <u>first level addressing</u> is regarded as a page directory where each of its entries points to a page table (Second level)
 - This second level page table size is restricted to a page size
 - Example: If the length of page directory is X and each page table (second level) holds Y page entries, then maximum length of a process might be X * Y



Scheme 1: Page Table Itself in Virtual Memory

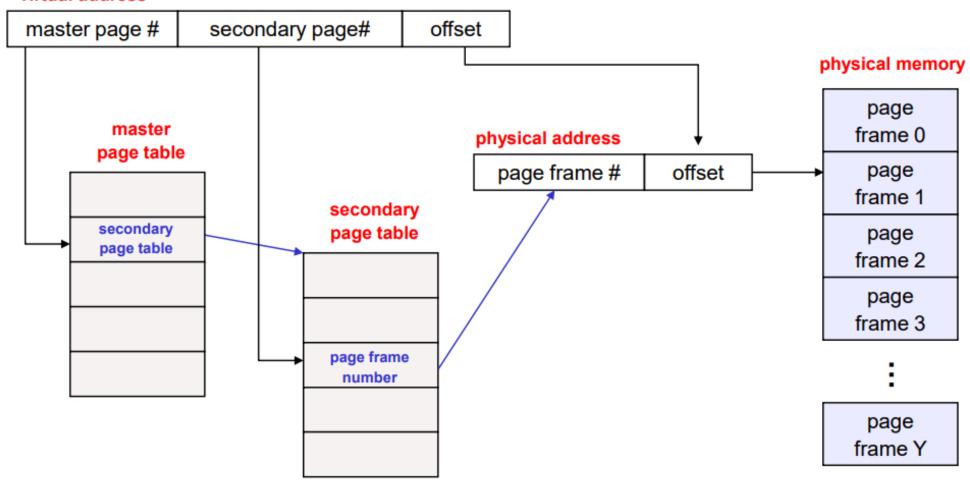


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Scheme 2: Two-Level Page Table

virtual address





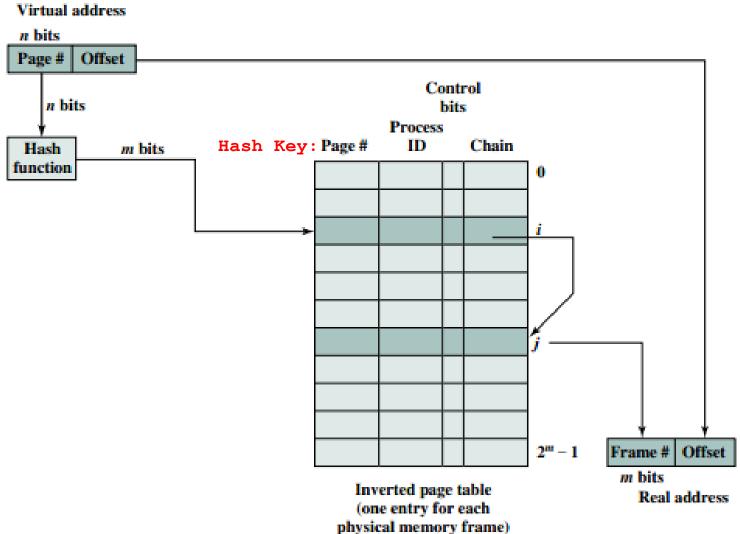
Page Table Structure Schemes...

Scheme 3:

- Use of one- or two-level page tables through inverted page table structure
 - Here a hash function is used to map a page entry from its virtual address to its corresponding hash value
 - This hash value will point to an entry from inverted page table
 - Each entry of this table represents a main memory page frame rather than a virtual page so named as **inverted page table**
 - As number of frames in a main memory is fixed, the size of inverted page table is also fixed
 - But more than one virtual page address may be mapped into same hash table entry (complexity)
 - A chaining technique is used to manage the overflow
 - Note: As this hash technique results in chains of one or two entries (very short), it will not degrade the performance



Scheme 3: Inverted Page Table



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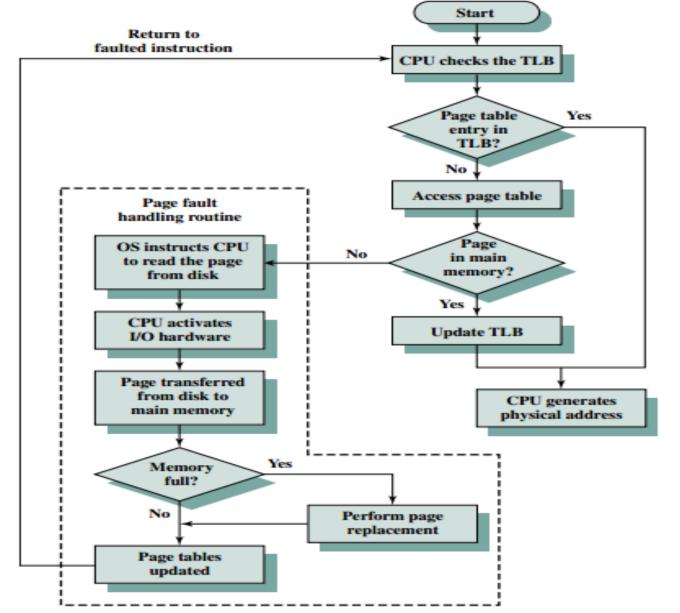


Translation Lookaside Buffer

- Each virtual memory reference two physical memory accesses (*limitation*):
 - 1. One to fetch the appropriate page table entry
 - 2. One to fetch the **desired data**
 - In fact doubling the memory access time
- To overcome this problem, most schemes use a special cache for page table entries – named as Translation Lookaside Buffer
 - Used same way as a memory cache
 - It contains very recent page table entries
 - Based on <u>principle of locality</u>, the most probable next virtual memory references will be at the location of recently used pages
 - Thus performance will be significantly improved



Operation of Paging with Help of TLB



Lecture 8



Virtual Memory and Cache Memory

 Virtual memory must interact with main memory cache directly to retrieve the desired word for the processor faster

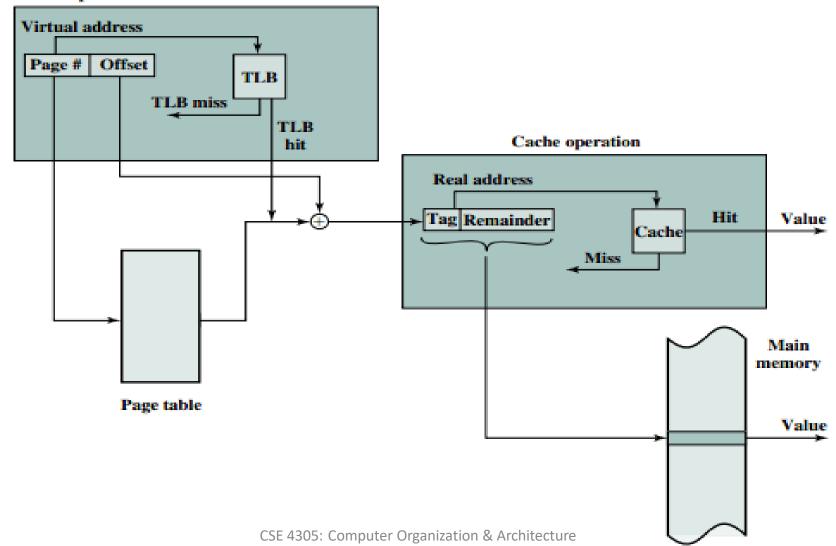
• Steps:

- 1. The memory system consults with the TLB to if matched page table entry is present or not
 - If it is, then the real/physical address is generated combining corresponding frame number with offset
 - If it is not, this entry is acquired from the page table in main memory (if it is not in main memory, it should be loaded from the disk storage)
- 2. If the physical address is generated, the cache is consulted to check if that desired word is present or not
 - If it is, then it is returned to the processor
 - If it is not, the word is retrieved from the main memory



Virtual Memory and Cache Memory...

TLB operation





Segmentation

- Another way to subdivide the main memory Segmentation
 - Paging
 - Invisible to the programmer
 - Advantage: provide larger address space
 - Segmentation
 - Visible to programmer
 - Advantage: provide a mean so that programmer can easily organize a program and data with their associating privilege and protection attributes to use (specialty)



Segmentation of Memory

- Segmentation allows the programmer to view memory as multiple address spaces or segments
 - These segments are variable in size based on demand
 - Now the OS or programmer can distribute these <u>program/instructions</u> and <u>data</u> in different segments
 - One or more number of program and data segments can be under a certain program
 - Each segment has its own access authorization and usage principle
 - So now on, a memory references (address) is made of **segment number** and **offset** in it



Advantage of Segmentation

- This organization has a number of **advantages** to the **programmer** over non-segmented address space (e.g. paging):
 - It simplifies to manage the **growth** of data structure
 - Programmer need not pay any attention to fix the data structure size beforehand, rather OS can easily expand or shrink its size based on demand
 - Modification or recompilation of any segment independently is possible
 - It need not to relink or reload entire set of programs to make any change
 - These segments can be shared among other processes
 - It only need place a utility program or useful data in a segment so that they can be easily accessed by others
 - It can provide **protection** to the segments to access it in a <u>convenient</u> fashion.