

Operating System

Chapter 8

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1.Introduction

Why do we need to study Computer Architecture?

- Understanding Computer Functionality
- Hardware Design and Optimization
- Software Development
- Compatibility and Portability
- Troubleshooting and Debugging
- System Administration
- Security
- Innovations and Advances
- Career Opportunities
- Academic Pursuits

Why do we need an OS?

- **Convenience** : It becomes easier for a programmer to code
- **Resource Management** :
 - Allocating memory for the user programs
 - Scheduling time for the user programmers

Computer Hardware and Software Structure

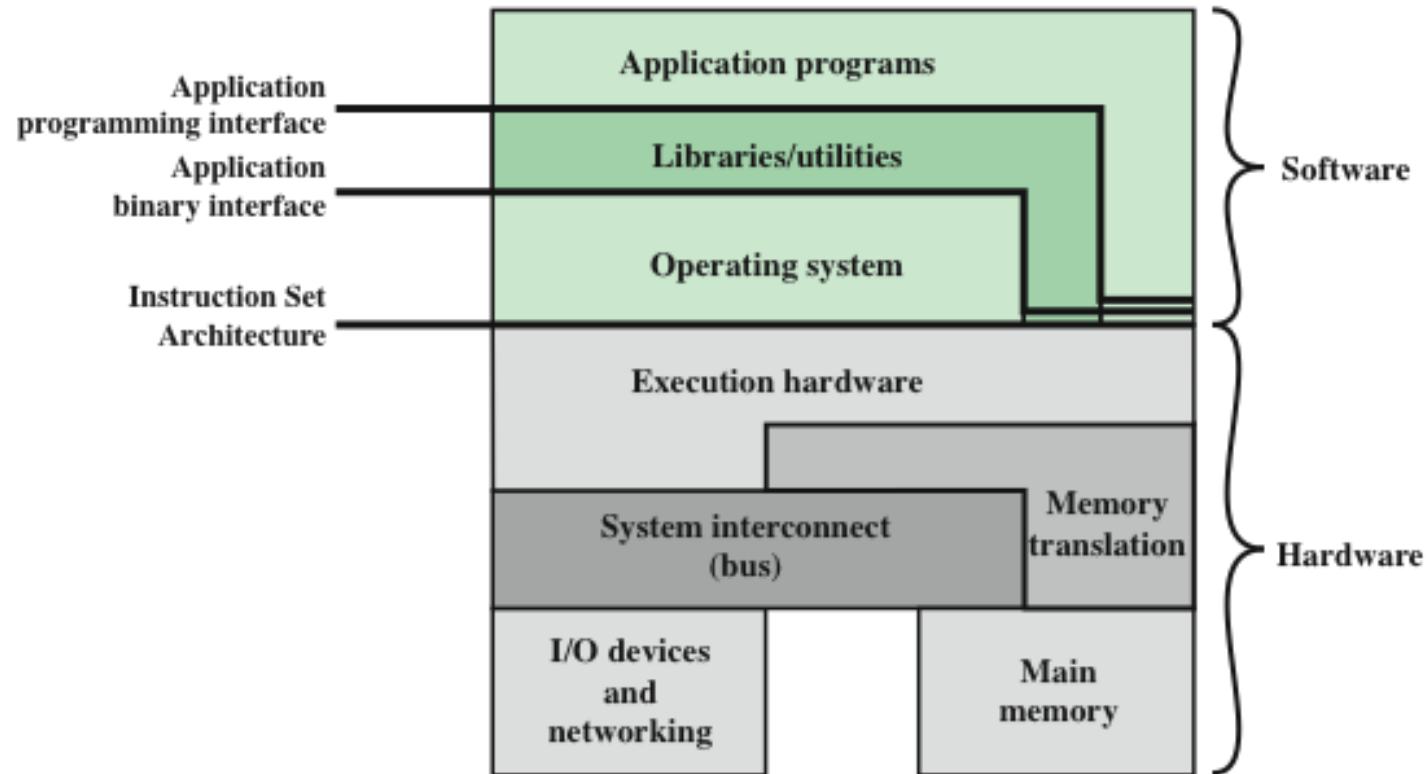


Figure 8.1 Computer Hardware and Software Structure

The services provided by the Operating System

- **Helping in writing codes** - OS has different utility functions. These functions can be called by our programs . For example i/o functions.
- **Helping in program execution** – Allocating RAM, I/O devices.
- **Controlled access to files** – Helps in determining which program has permission to access a file.
- **Error Detection and Response** – Detecting an error and taking appropriate measures.
- **Interrupt** : Contains functions for handling different interrupts.
- **Accounting** – Keeping log of CPU usage, error logs.

The OS as a resource manager:

A program for running other programs:

- OS functions the same way as **any other computer program**.
- It gives **control to the processor** for running other programs, the processor **returns back the control to it**.
- **Timer:**
 - Whenever the control is released to another programmer (PC points to the start of that program)
 - A timer is started
 - Once the timer becomes zero
 - The control is returned back to the OS (i.e the PC points to the OS code)

The OS as a resource manager:

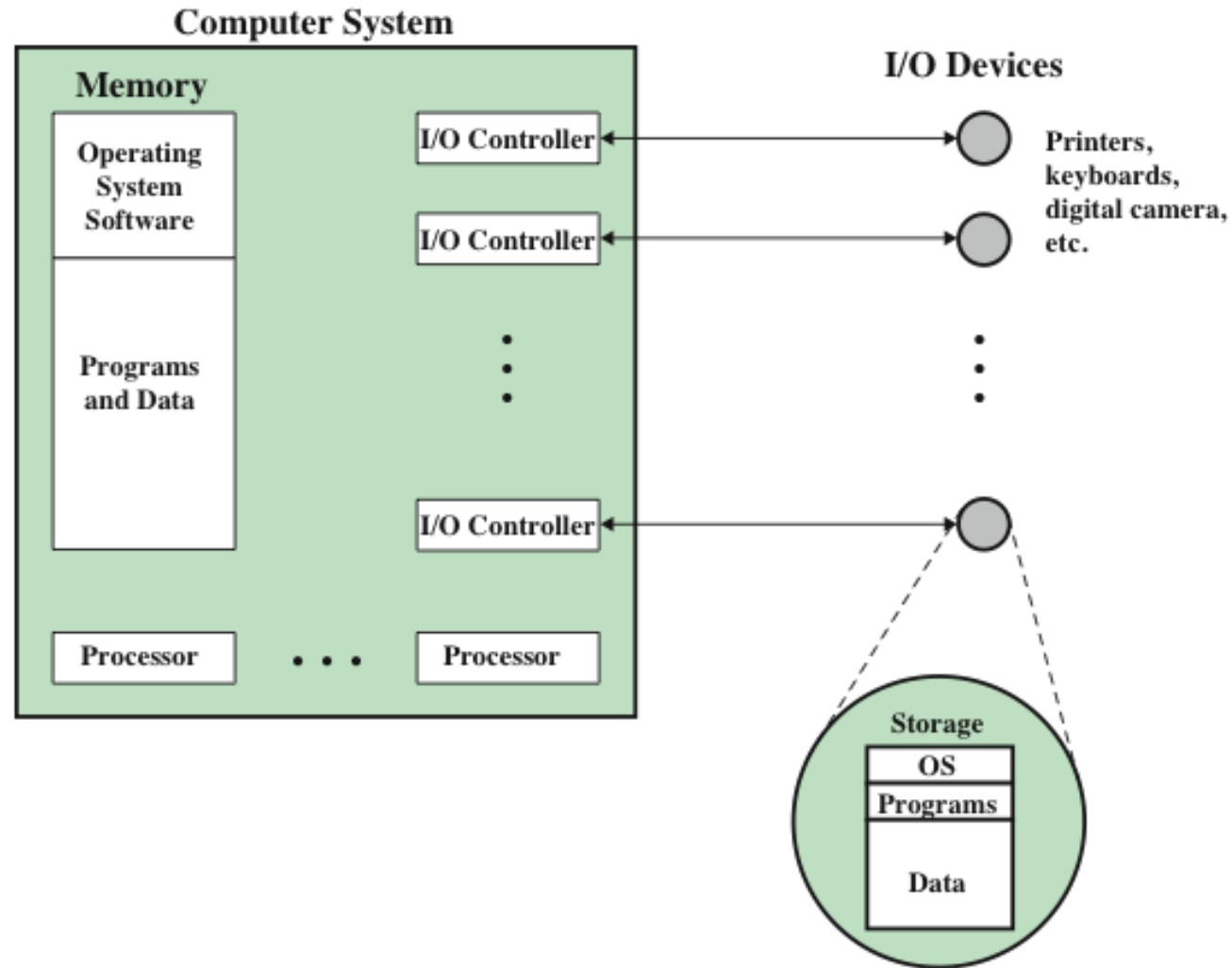


Figure 8.2 The Operating System as Resource Manager

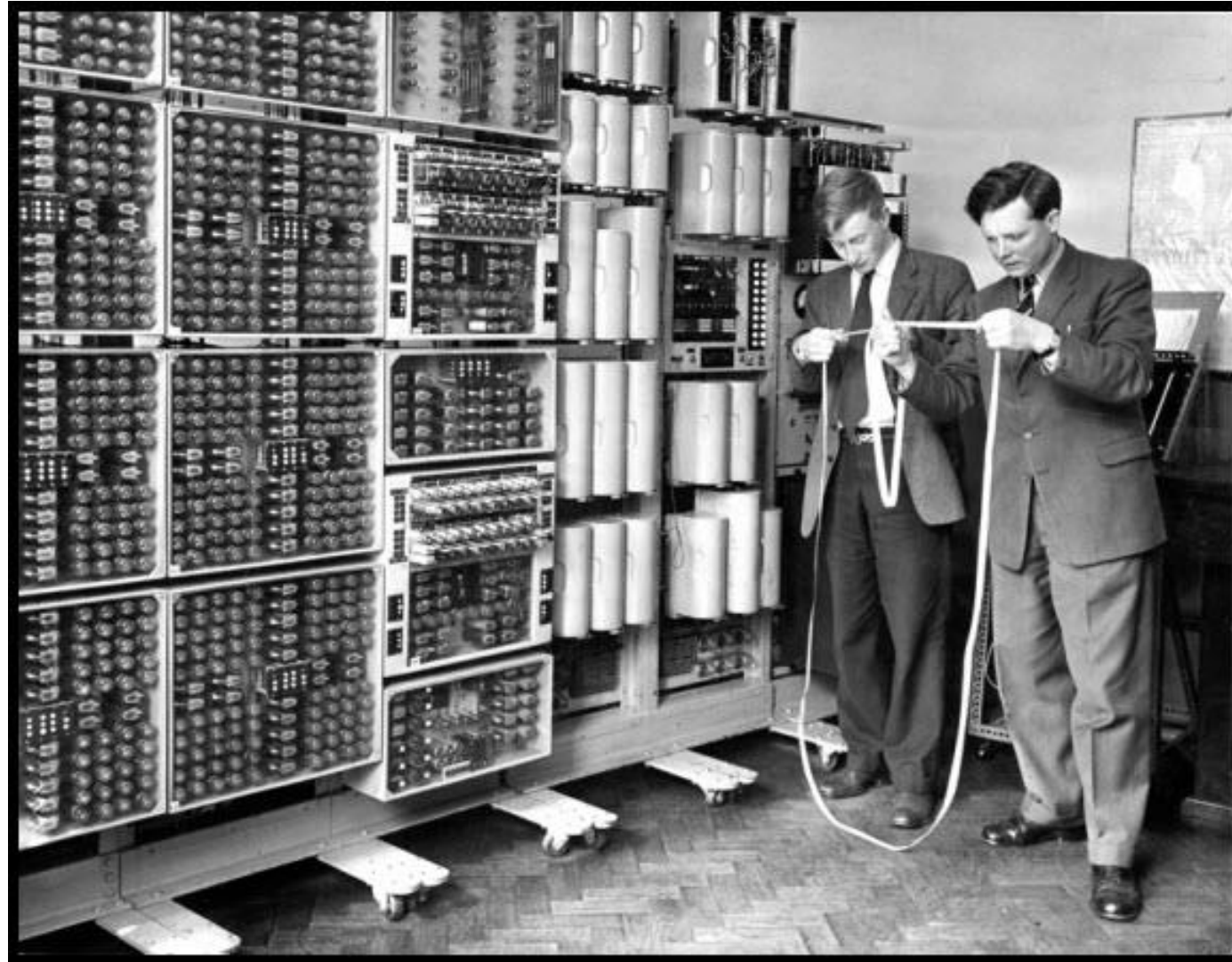
Types of Operating Systems

- Interactive system
 - The user/programmer interacts directly with the computer to request the execution of a job or to perform a transaction
 - User may, depending on the nature of the application, communicate with the computer during the execution of the job
- Batch system
 - Opposite of interactive
 - The user's program is batched together with programs from other users and submitted by a computer operator
 - After the program is completed results are printed out for the user

Types of Operating Systems

- Multiprogramming
 - Keep processor as busy as possible
 - Work on more than one program at a time
 - Processor switch rapidly among the programs
- Uniprogramming
 - Works only one program at a time

Early Systems



Early Systems

- From the late 1940s to the mid-1950s the programmer interacted directly with the computer hardware – there was no OS
 - Processors were run from a console consisting of display lights, toggle switches, some form of input device and a printer
- Problems:
 - Scheduling
 - Sign-up sheets were used to reserve processor time
 - This could result in wasted computer idle time if the user finished early
 - If problems occurred the user could be forced to stop before resolving the problem
 - Setup time
 - A single program could involve
 - Loading the compiler plus the source program into memory
 - Saving the compiled program
 - Loading and linking together the object program and common functions

2.1.Scheduling

Process

Process : basically refers to a running program and the components that are helping it to run

- A program in execution
- Registers being used
- Program counters
- Other meta info (process id, running time, children ids, etc)

Meta data maintained for a process by the OS

- **Identifier** – every process has a unique id
- **State** – we will see this soon – each process has a state
- **Priority** – some of the processes have higher priorities (e.g – device driver programs)
- **Program Counter** – the program counter value of that process
- **Starting and ending location** of the process code
- **Register data** – the register values
- **I/O status** - Was the process waiting for some input
- **Log** – Other information (running time, no. of executions etc.)

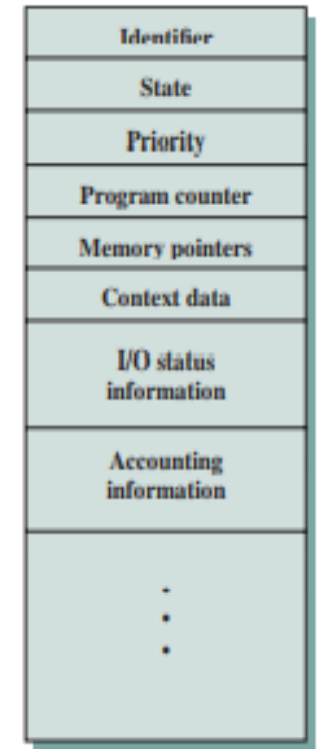
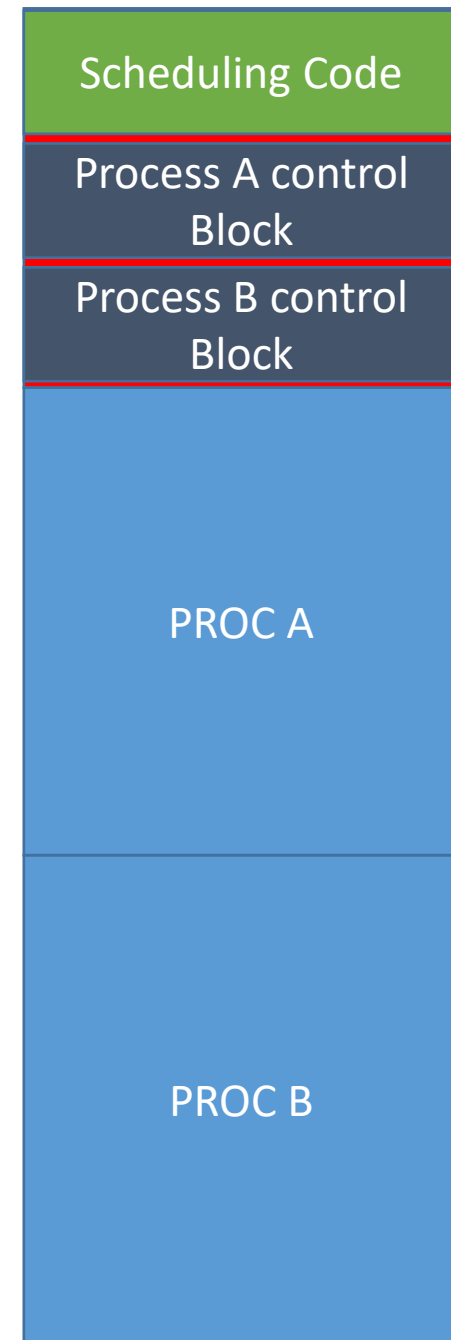
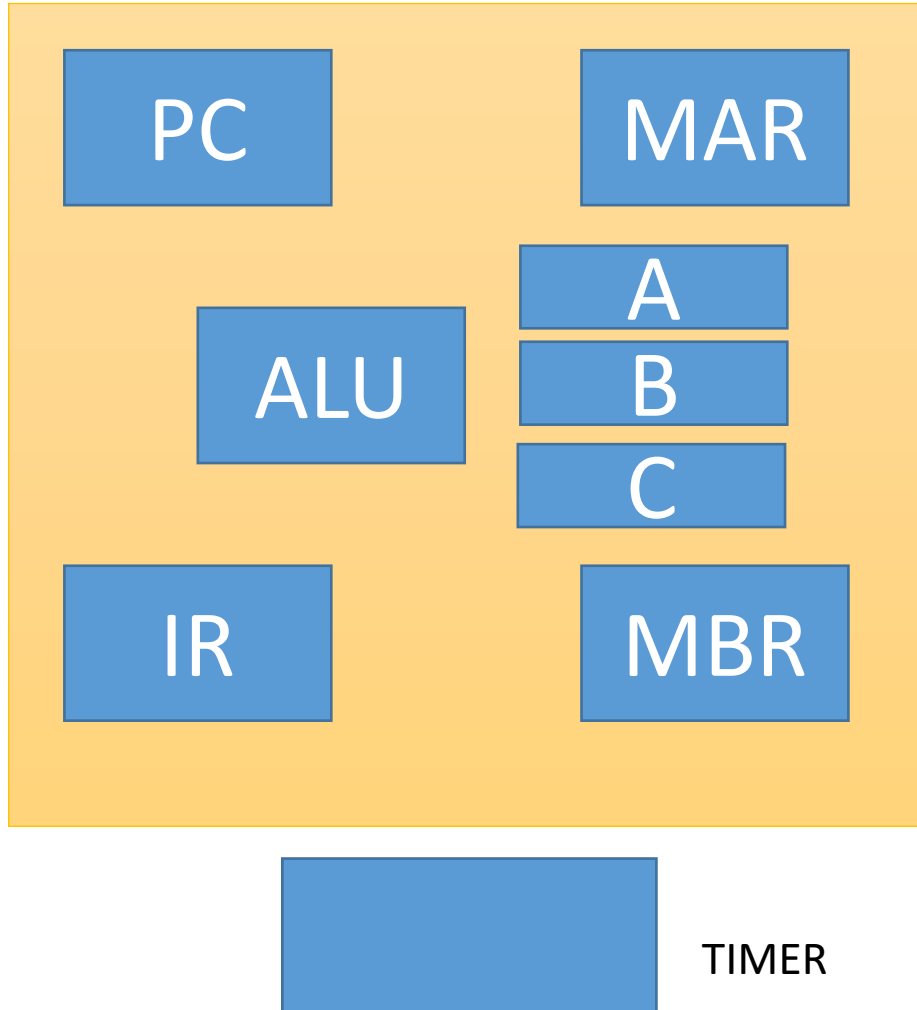


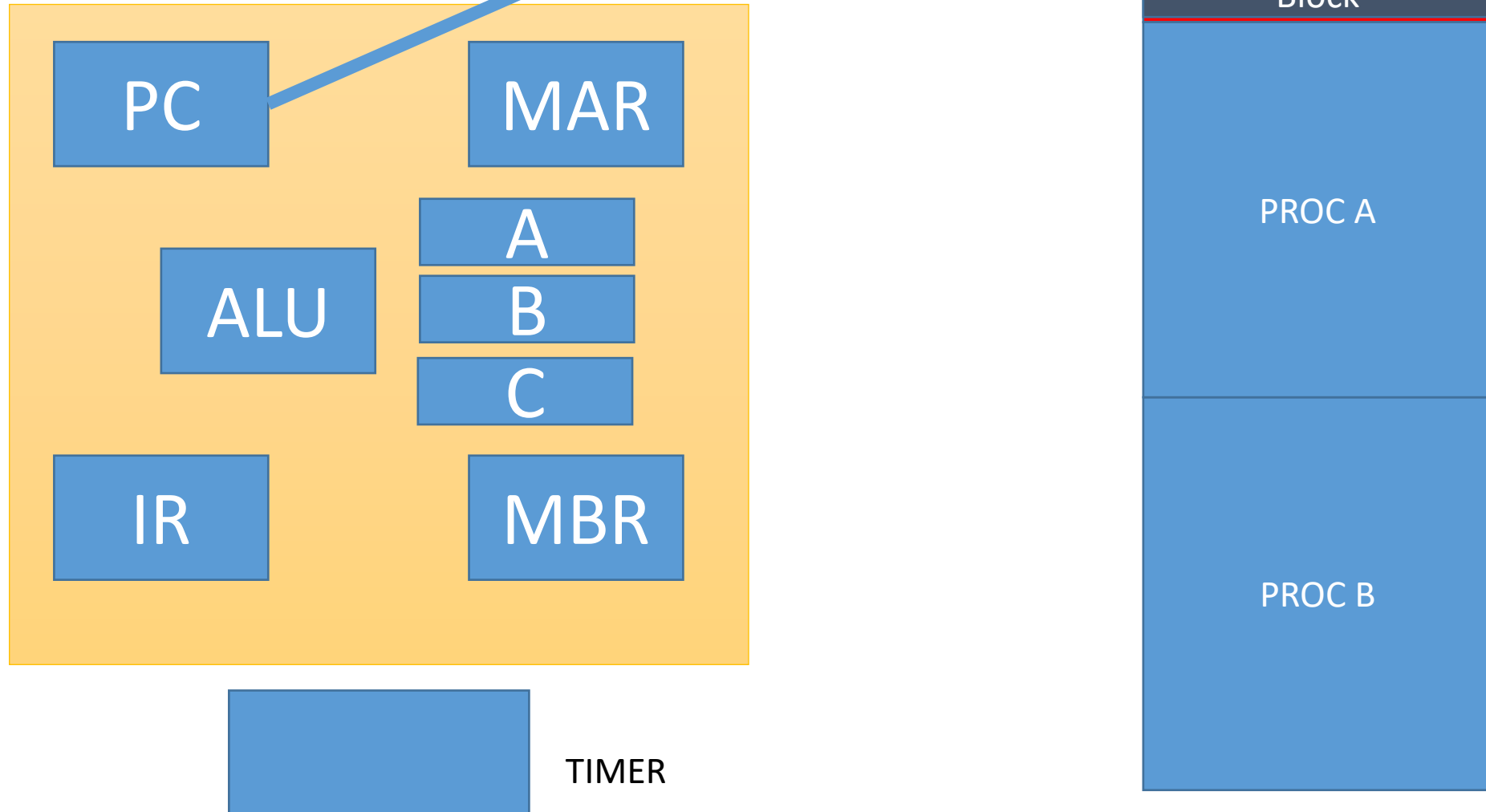
Figure 8.8 Process Control Block

(The memory of the OS where all the info of a process is stored is called the **process control block**.)

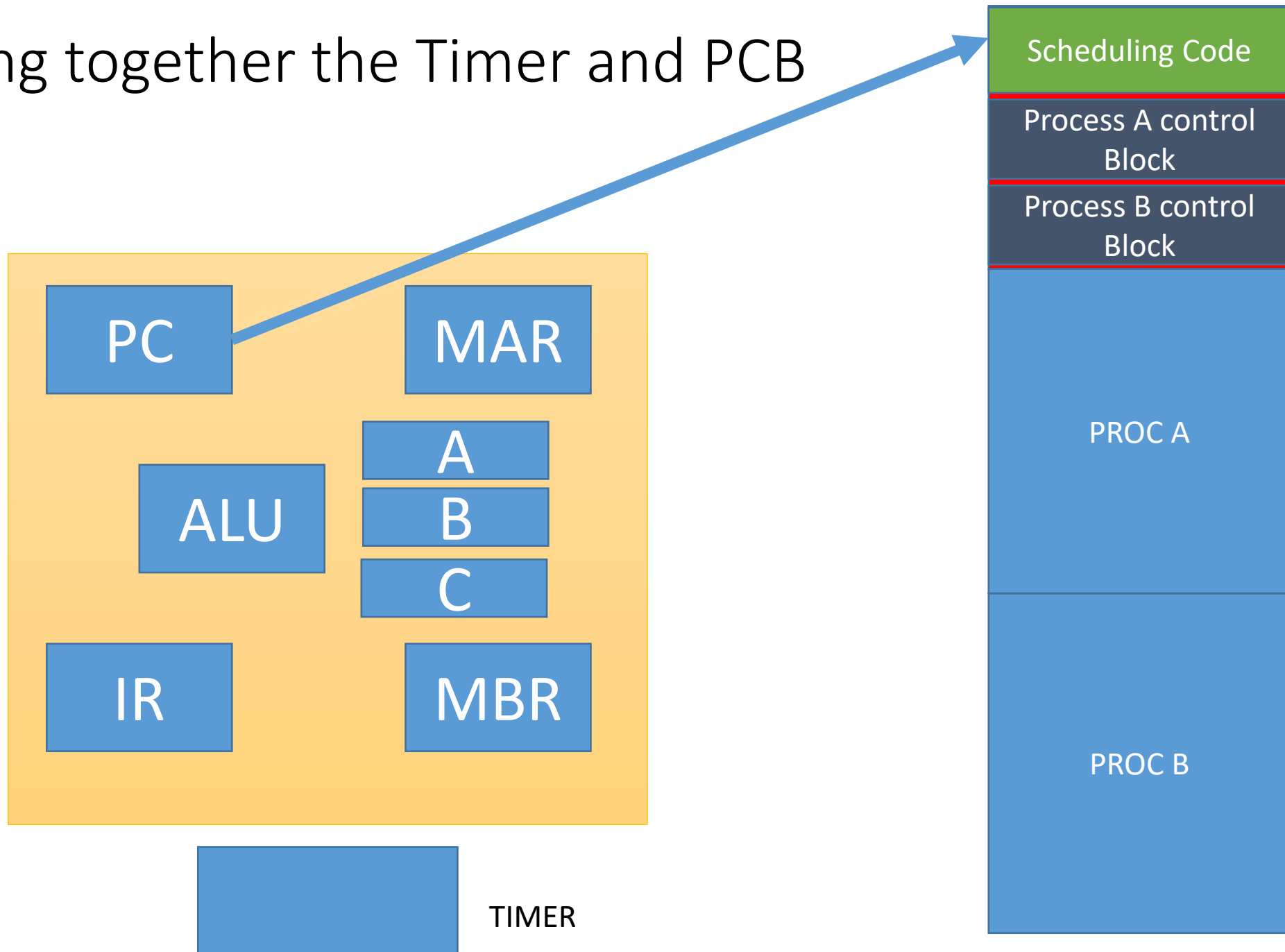
Putting together the Timer and PCB



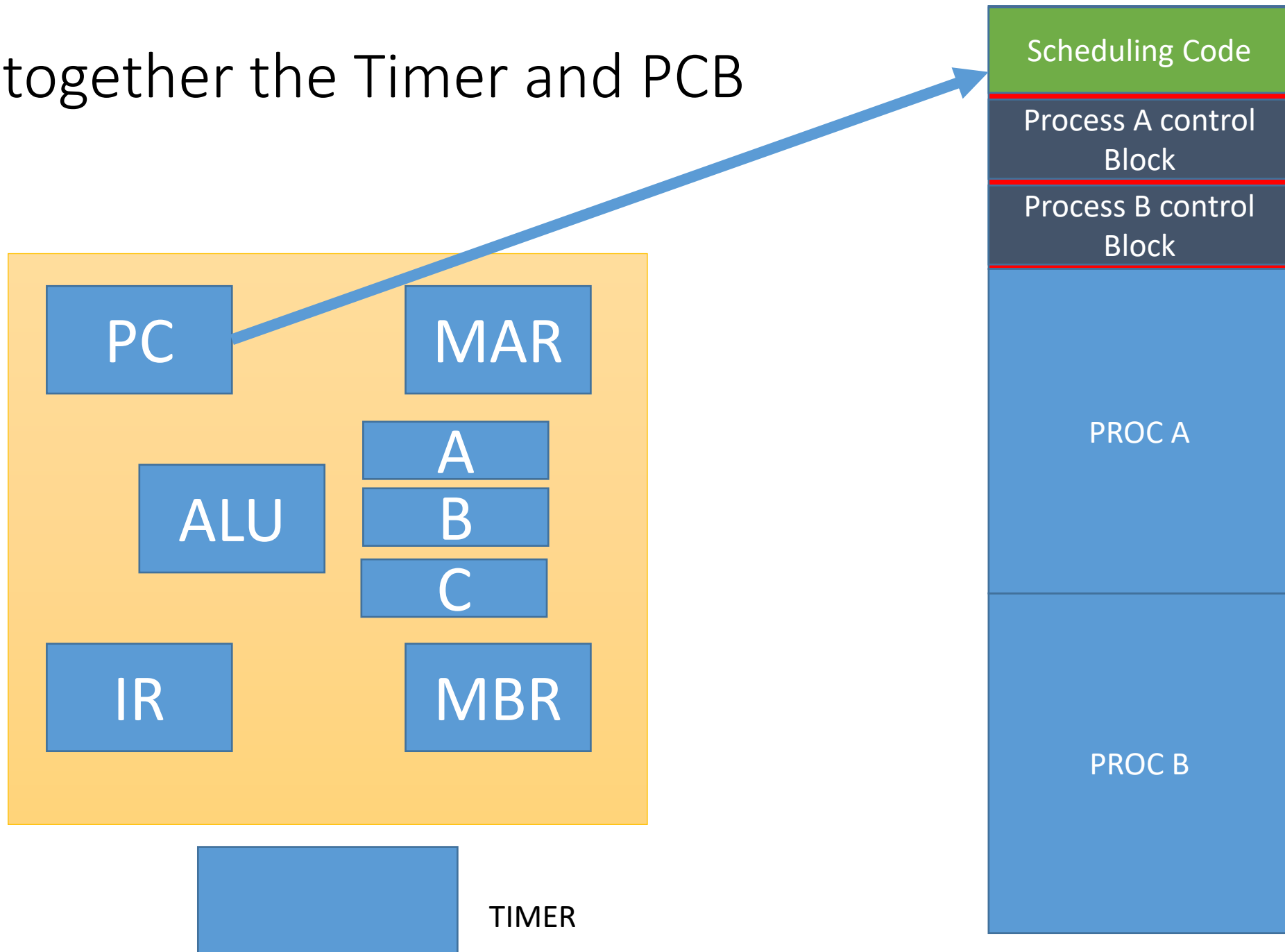
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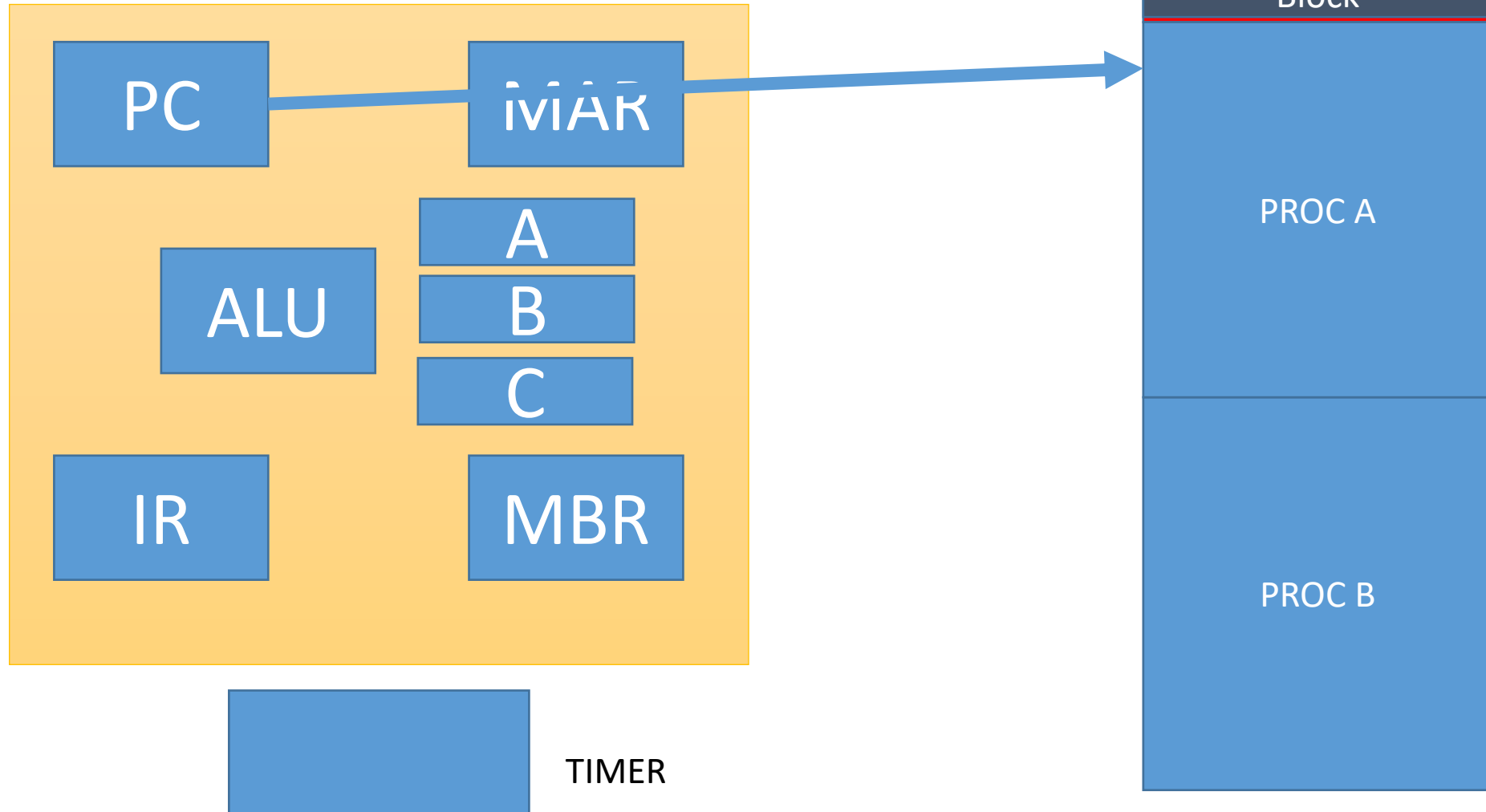
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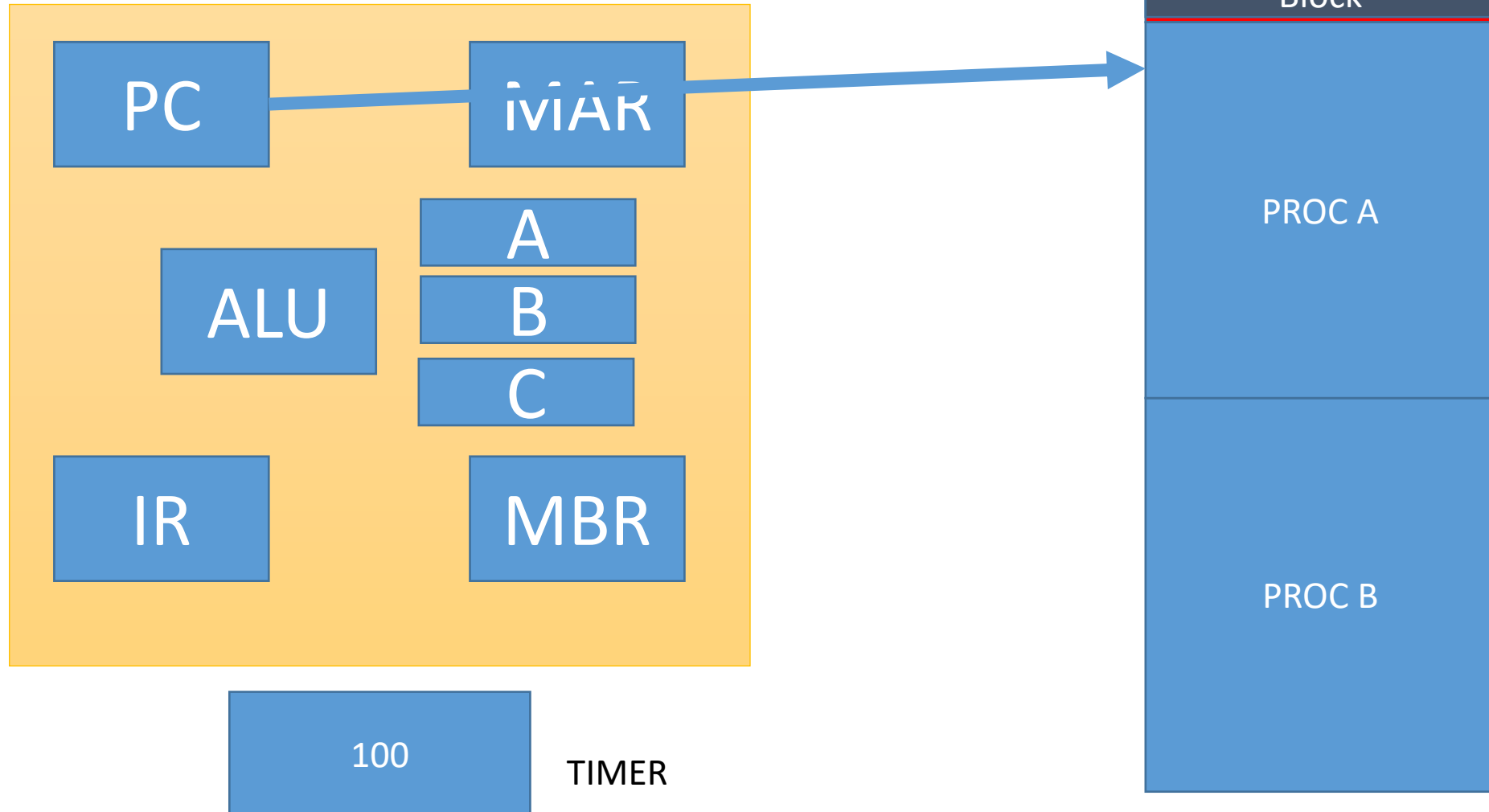
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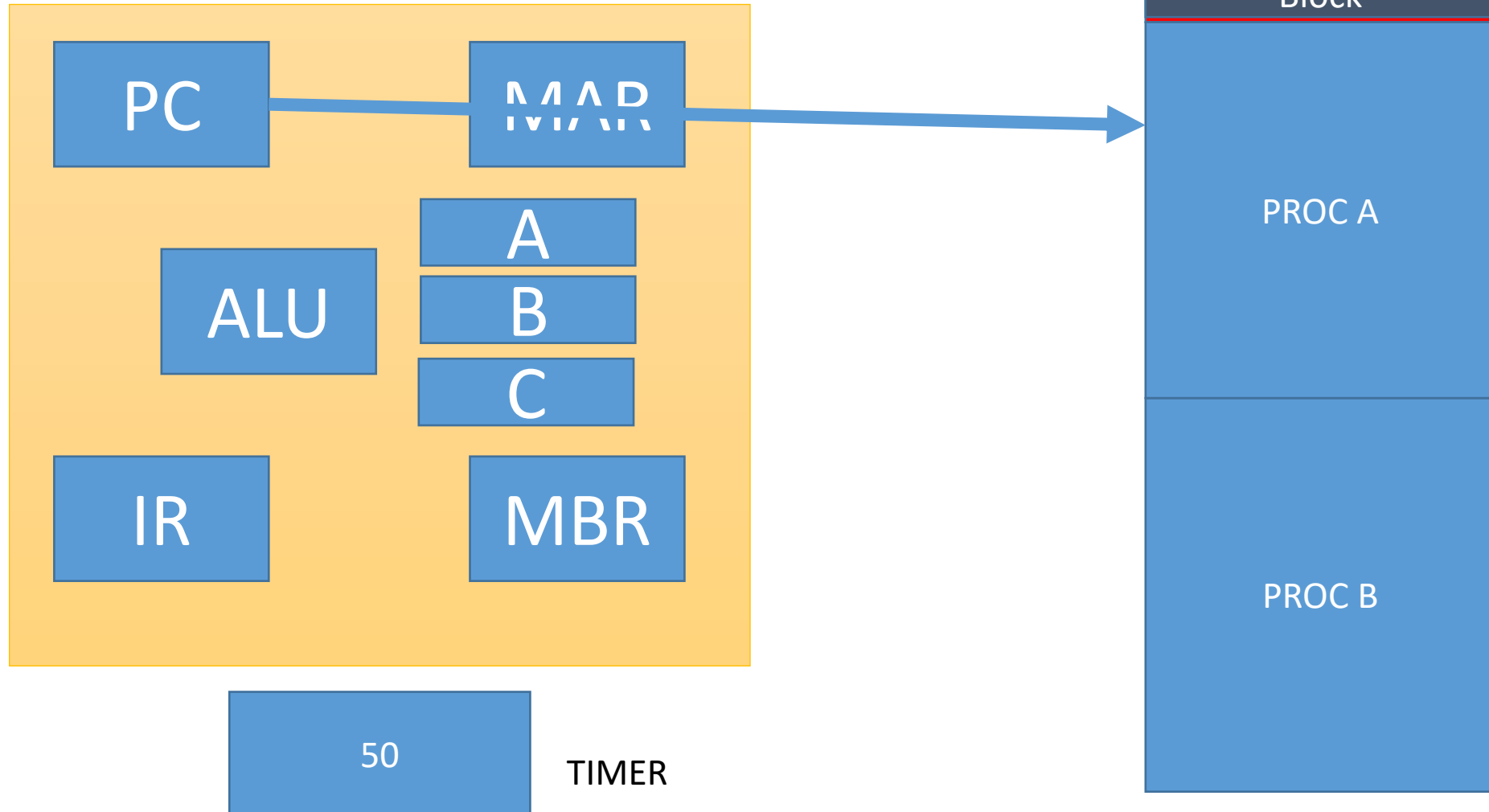
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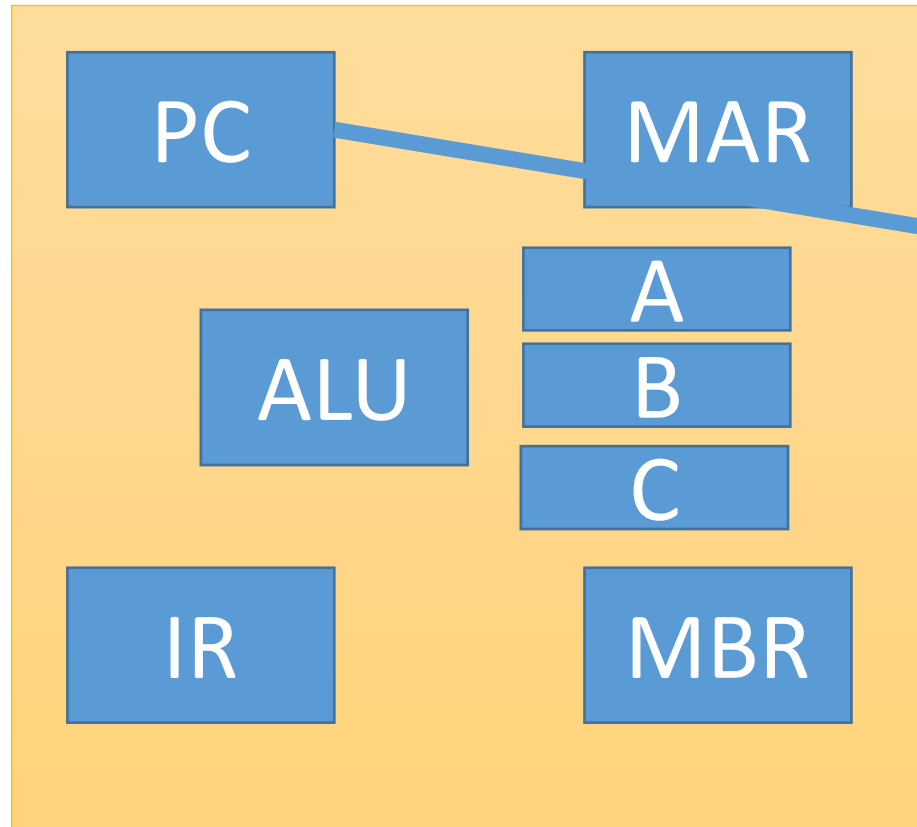
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Putting together the Timer and PCB



Putting together the Timer and PCB

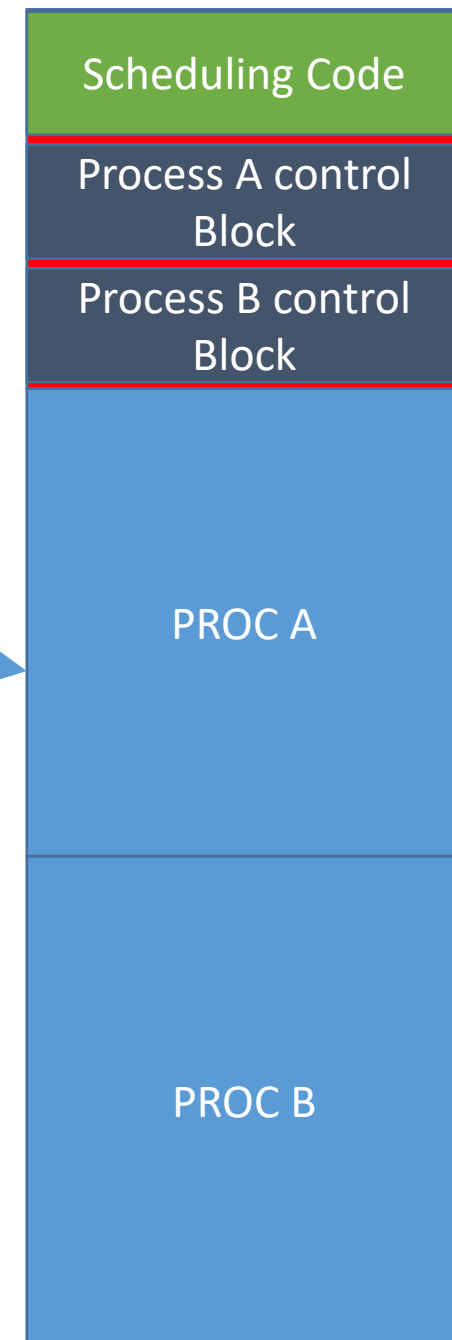


TIMER

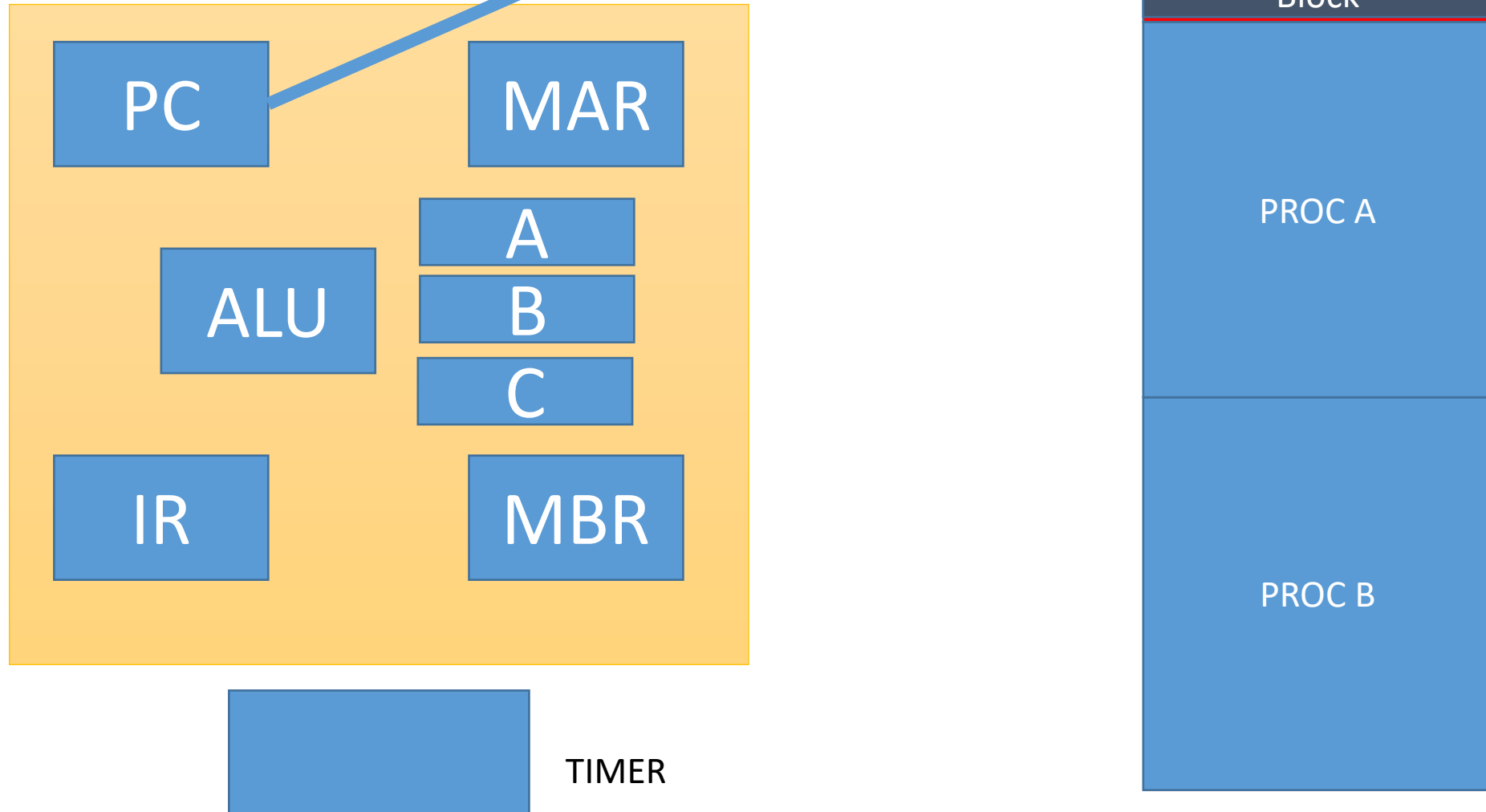
Hence all the **required info for rerunning** the PROC A from same place (PC, register values) are stored in the **process control block**

The execution **time** for PROC A is **up**

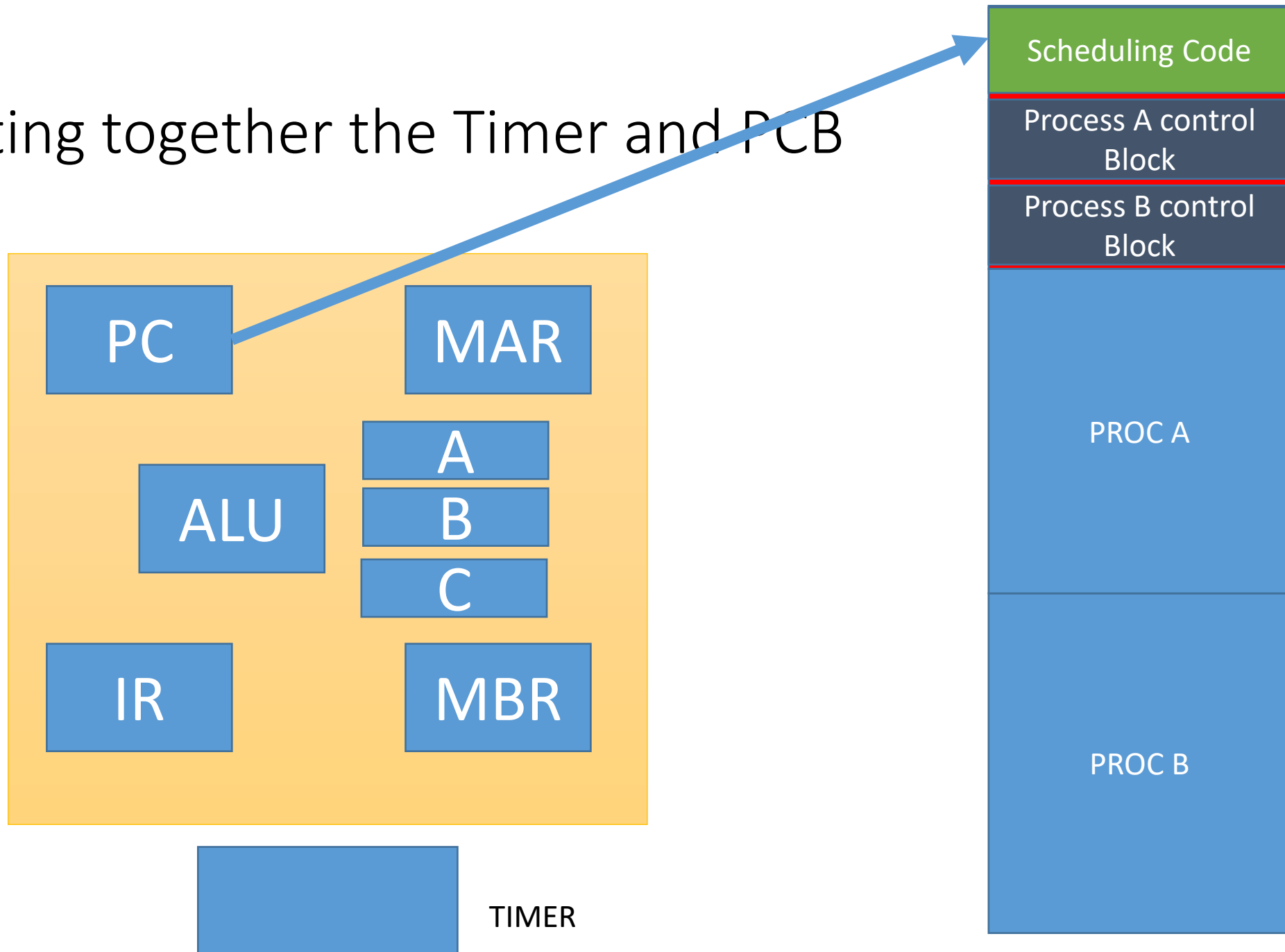
However it will be **brought in later on** if the OS decides to



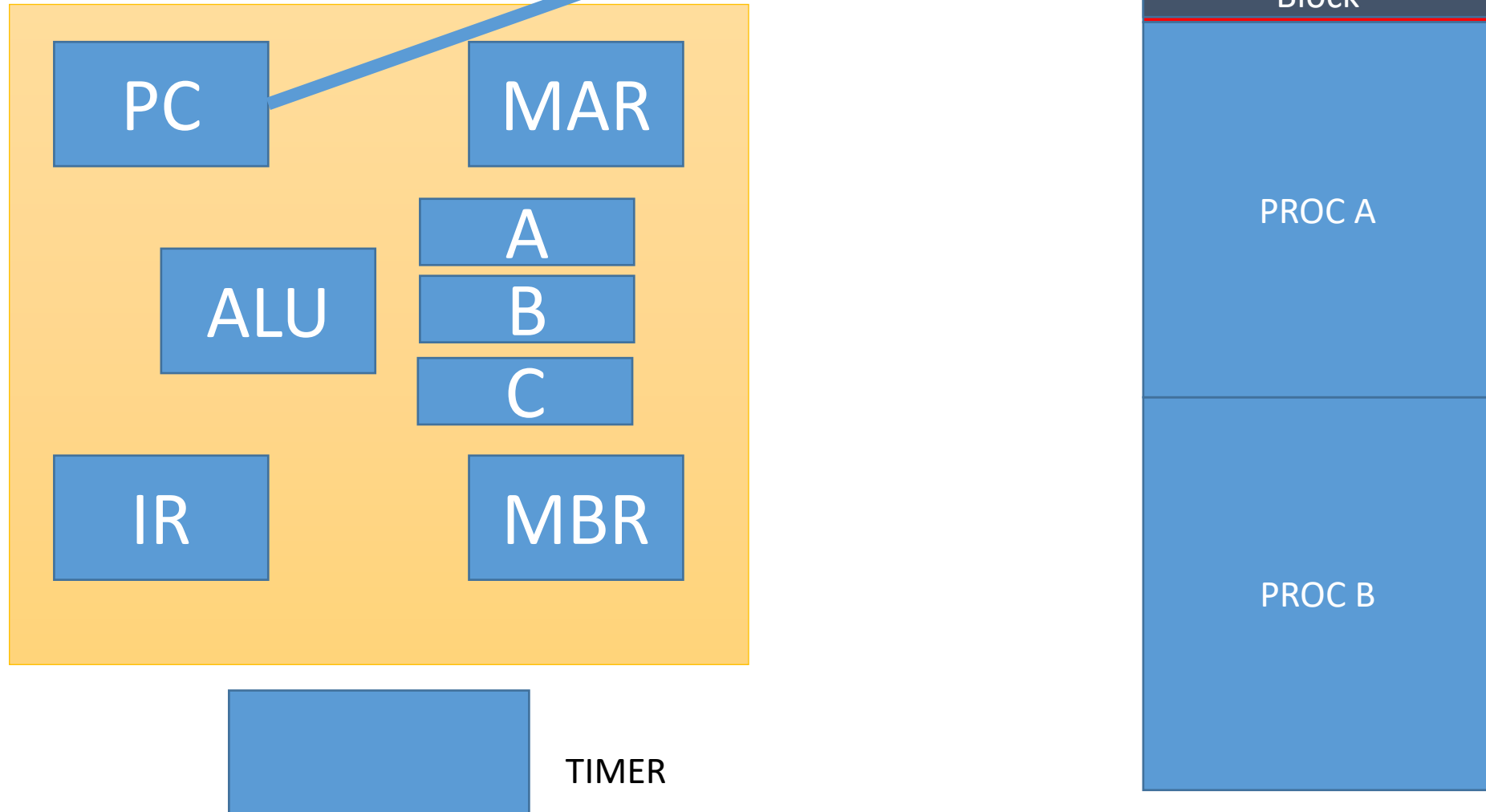
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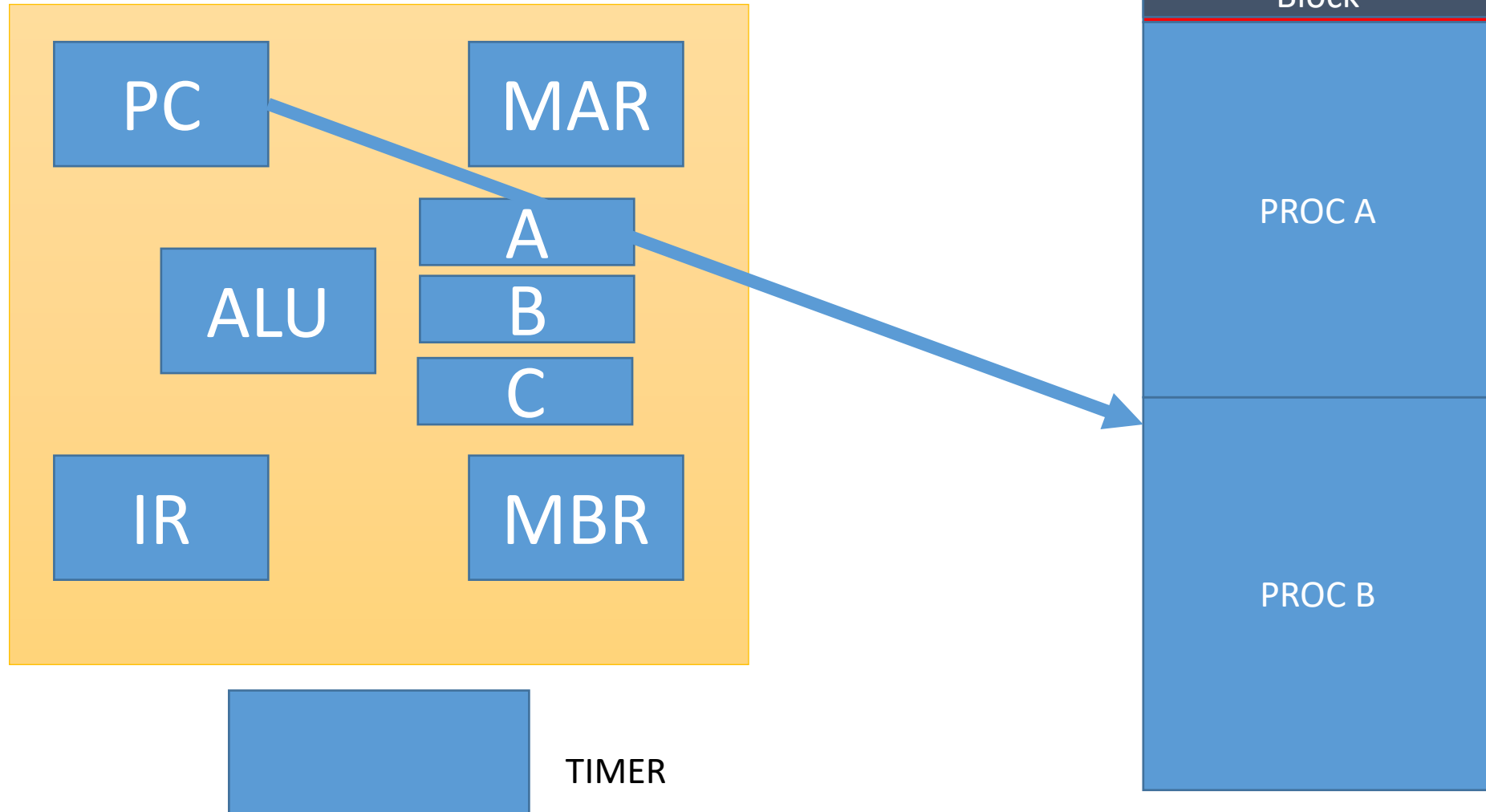
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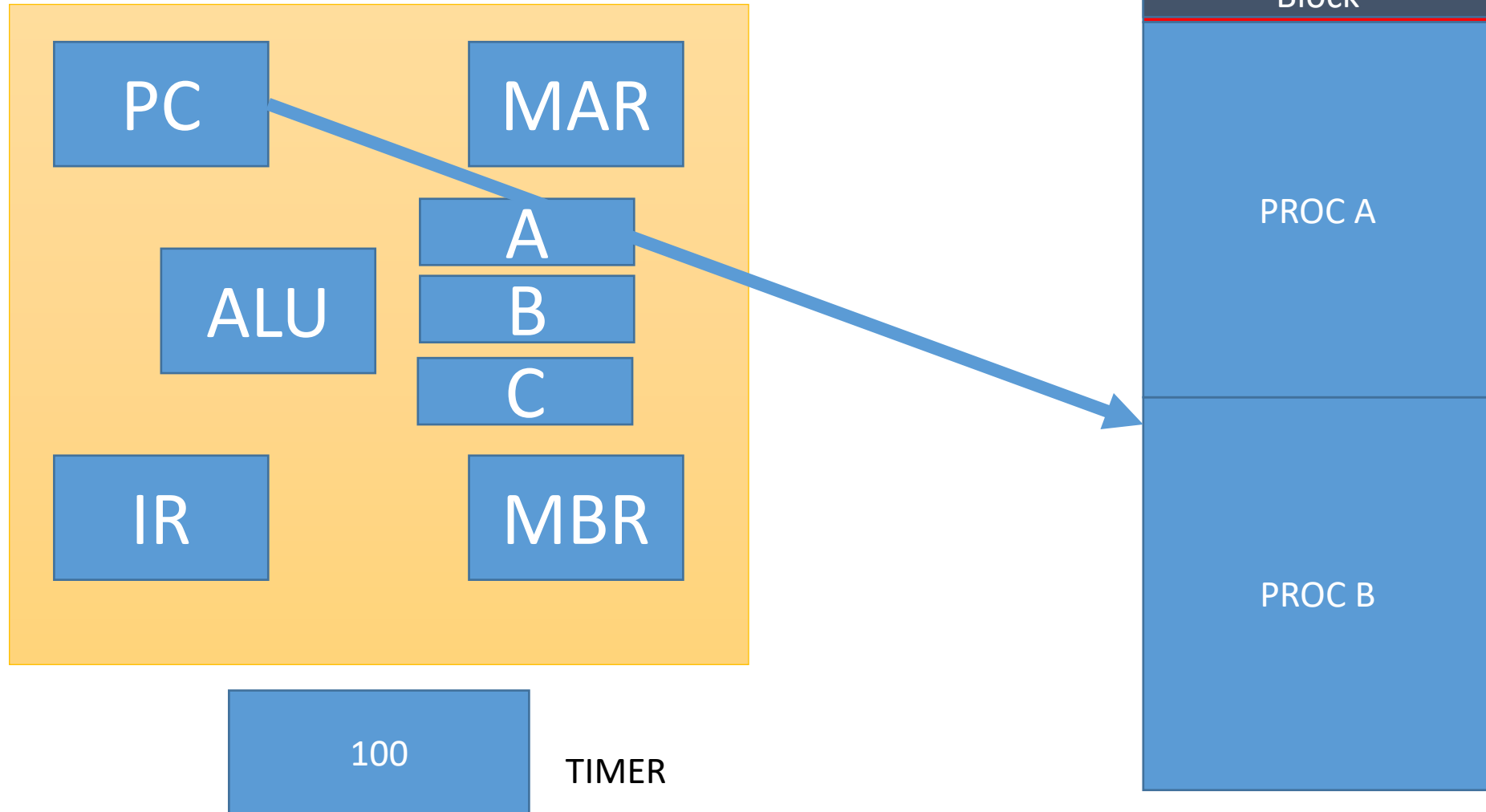
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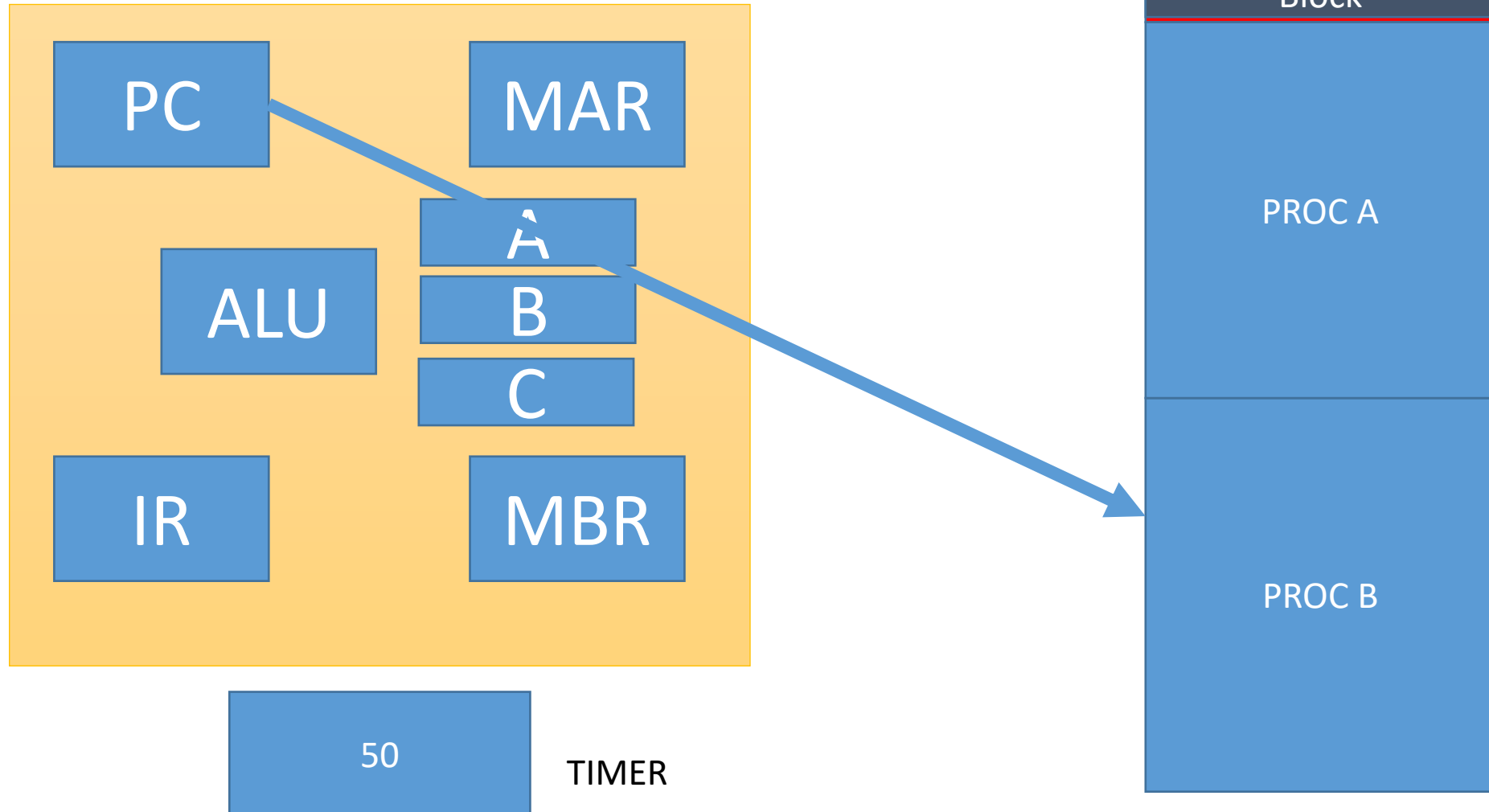
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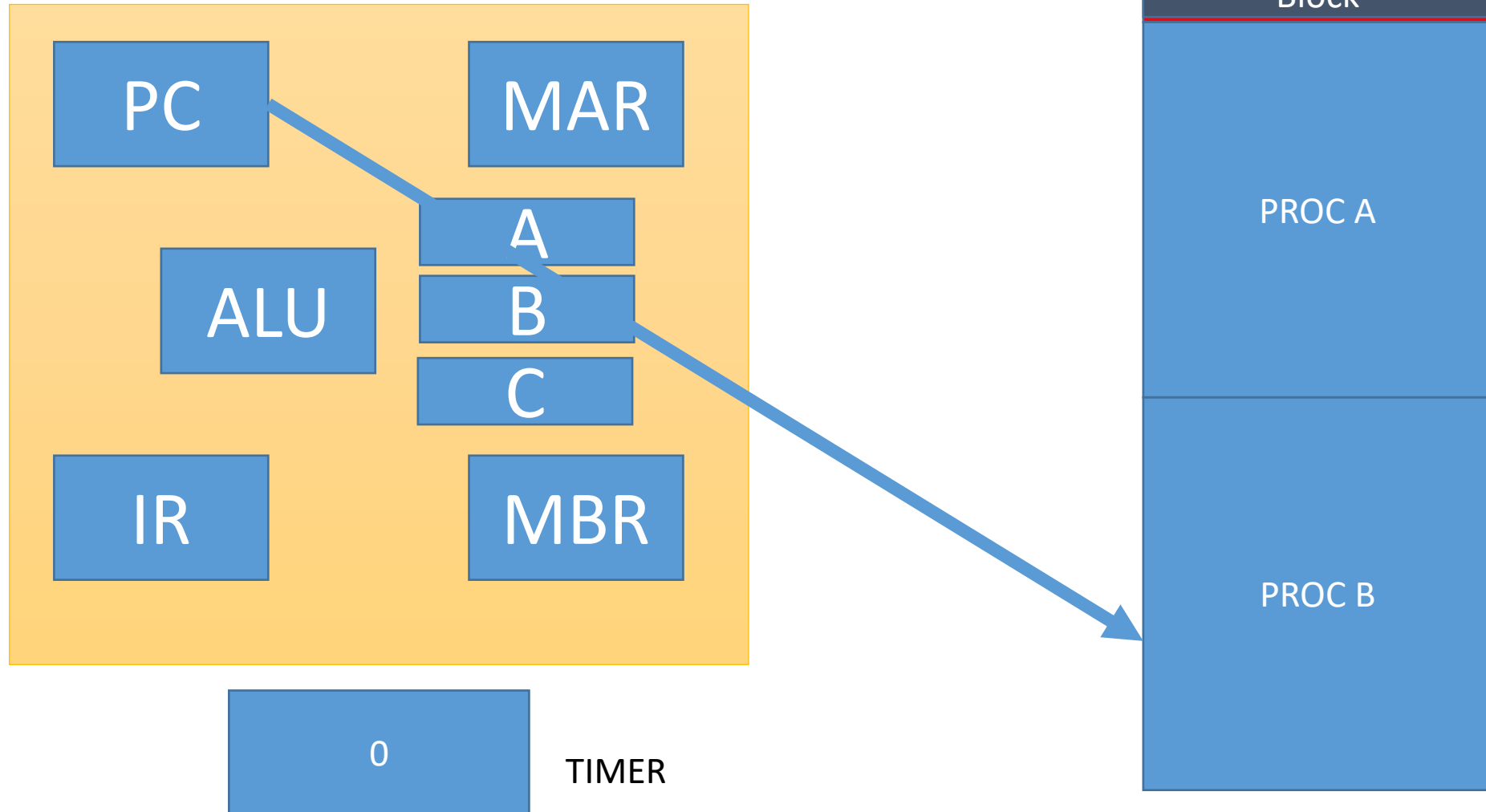
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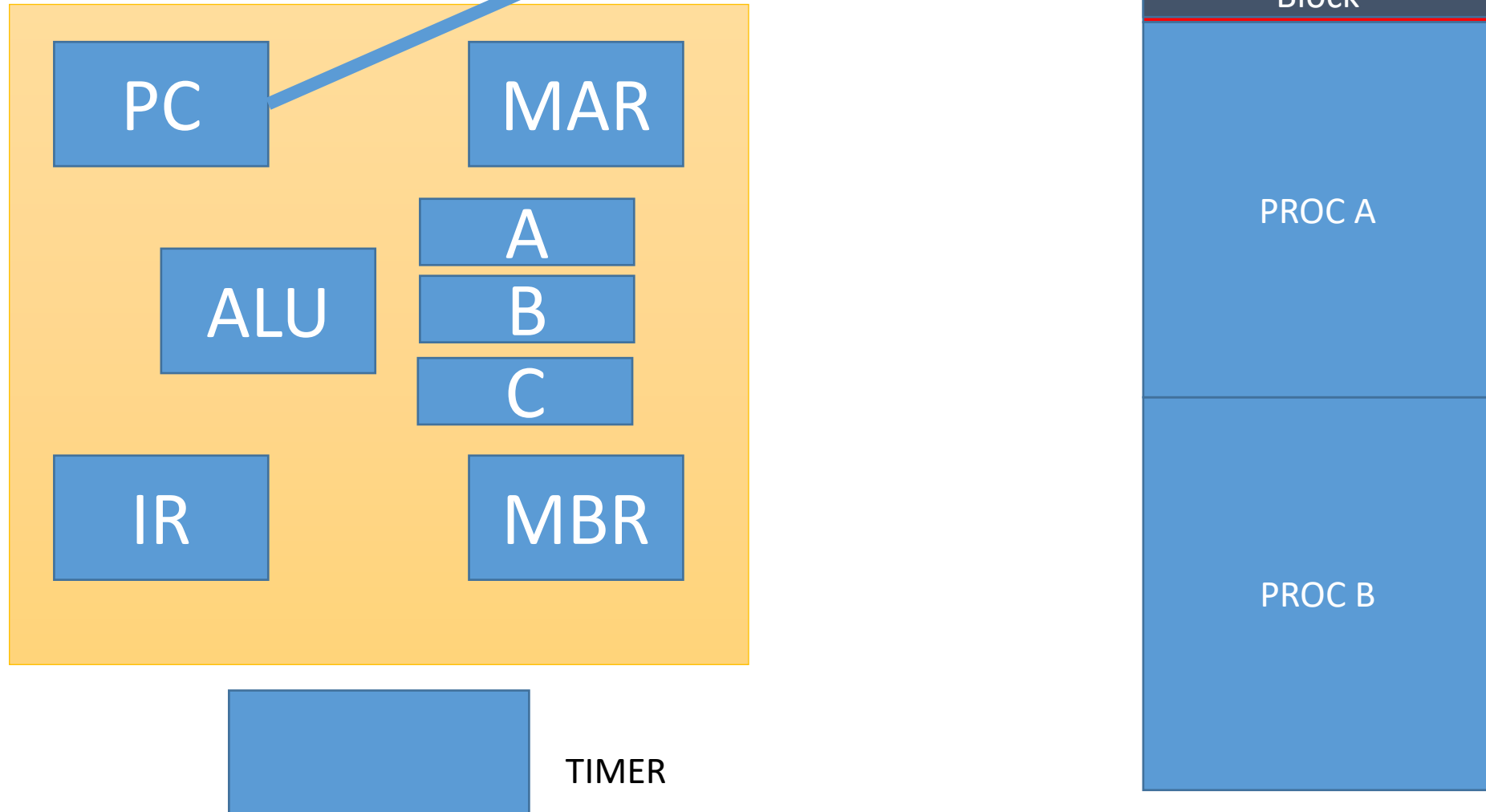
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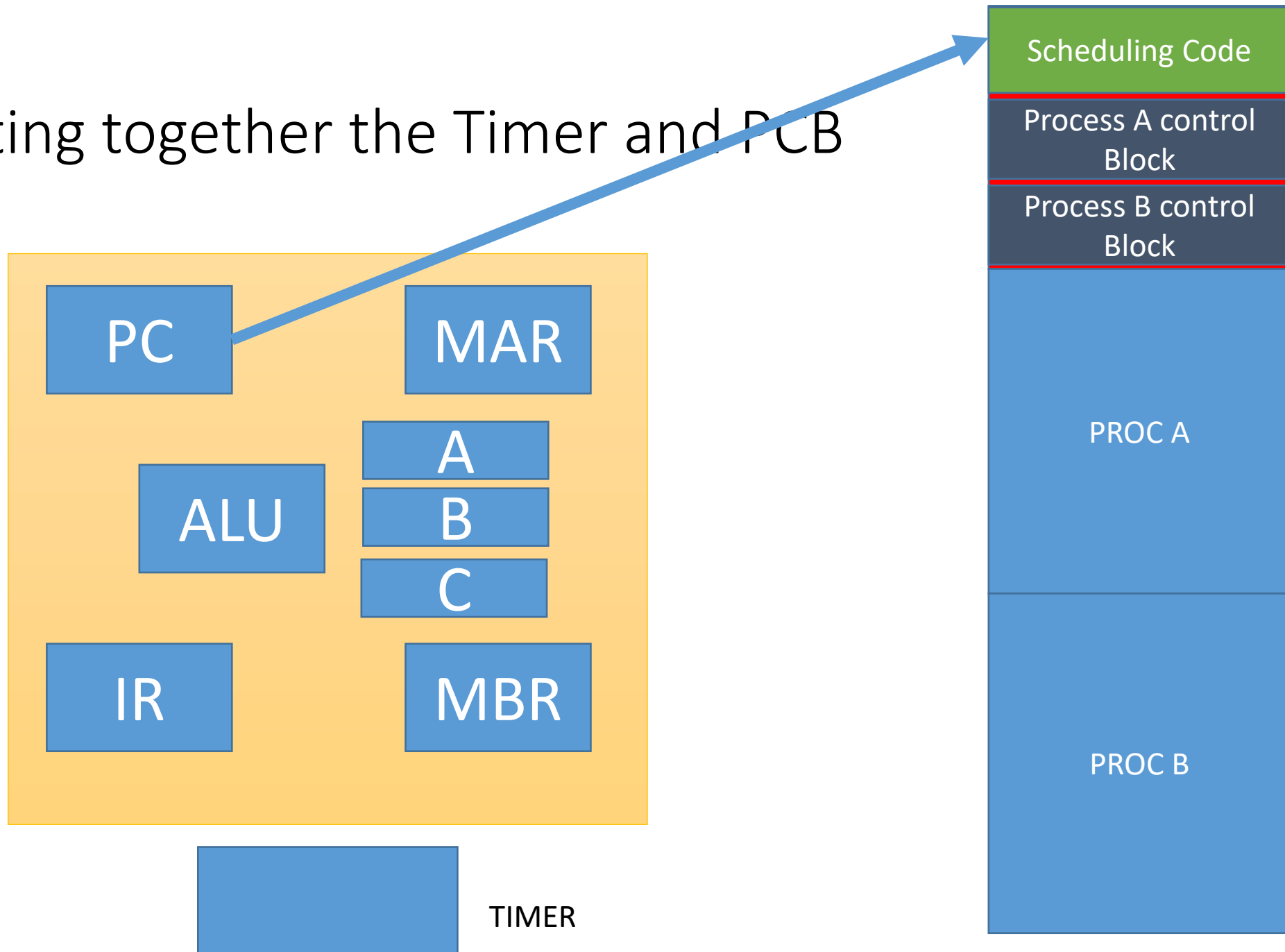
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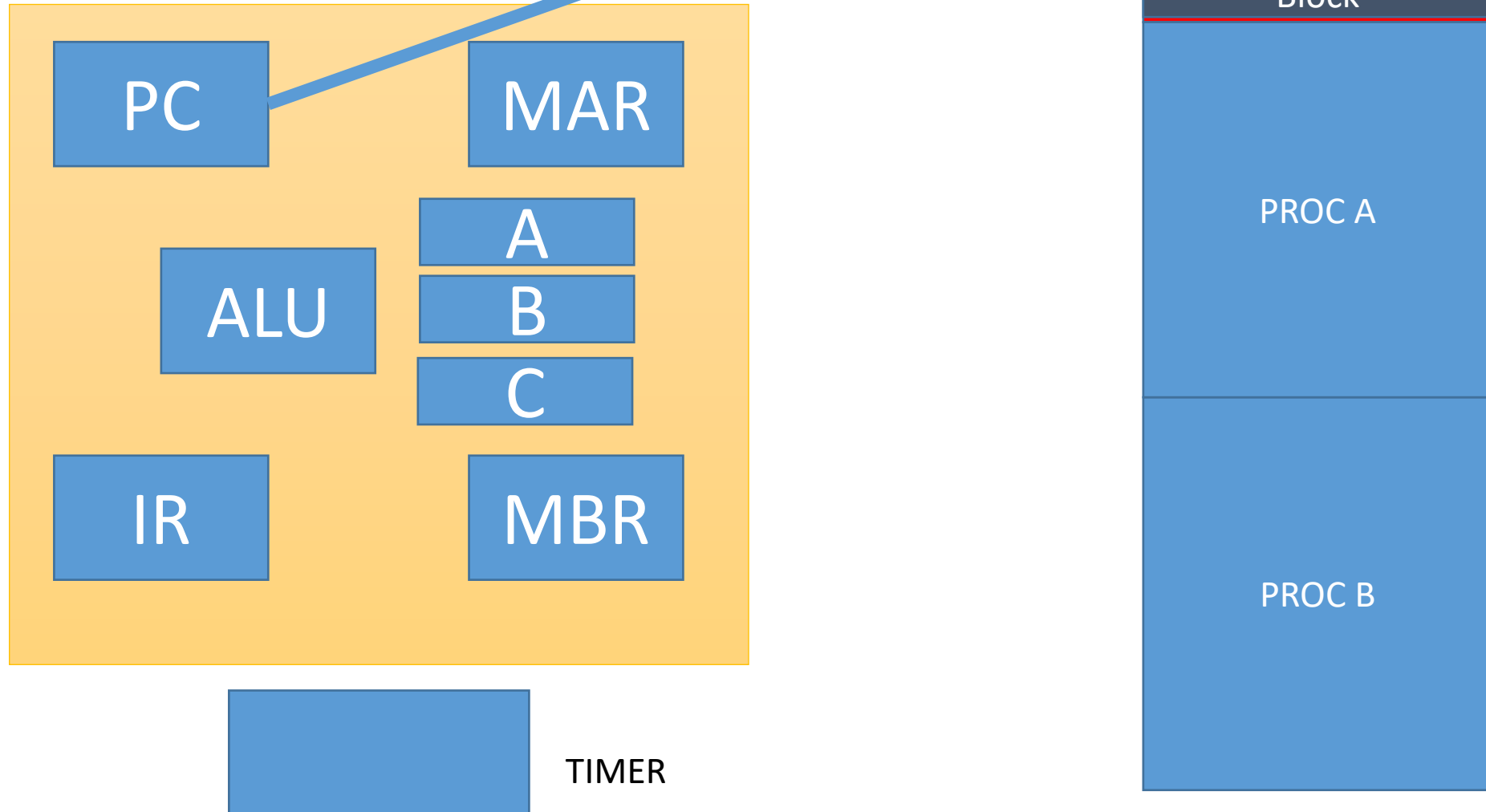
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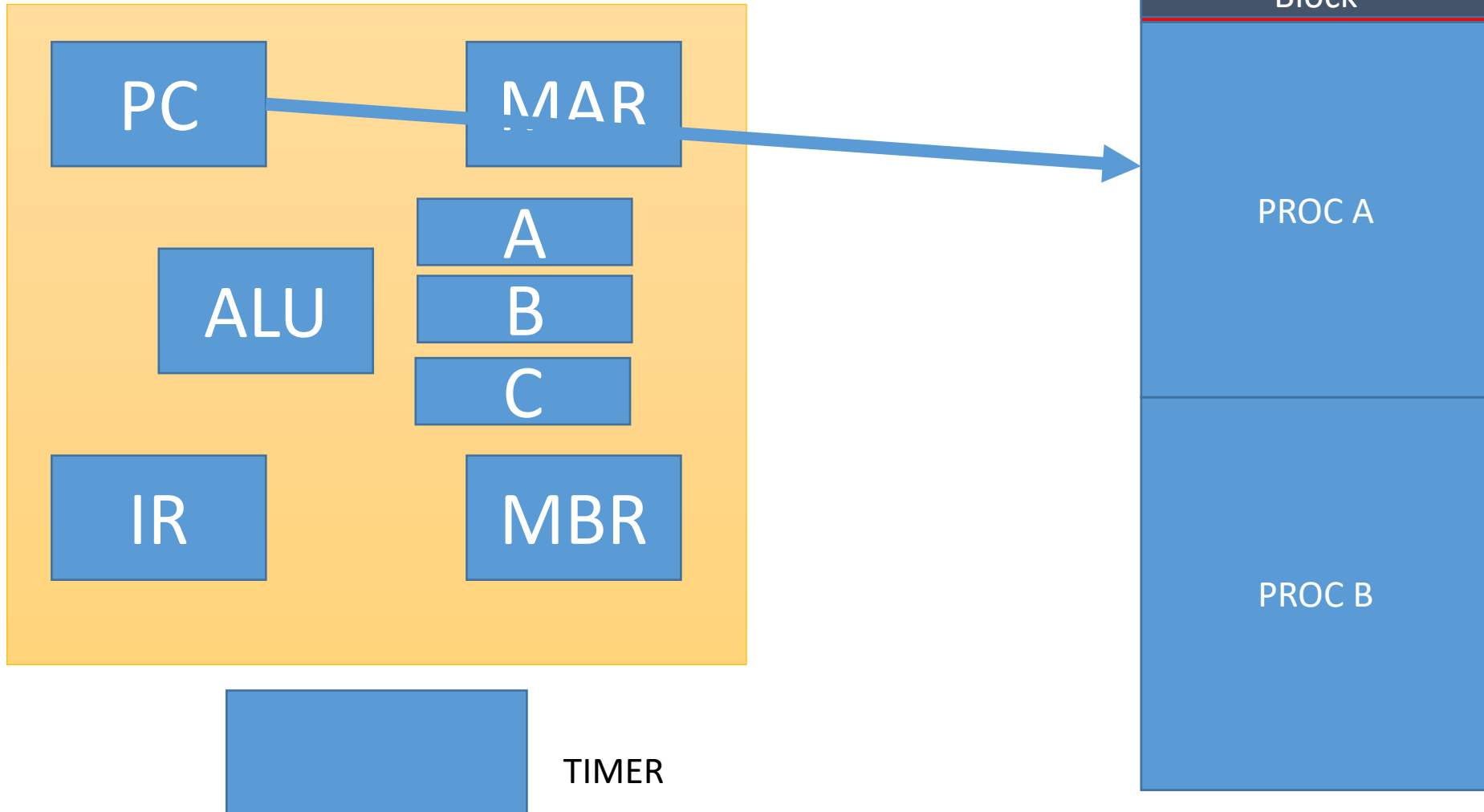
Putting together the Timer and PCB



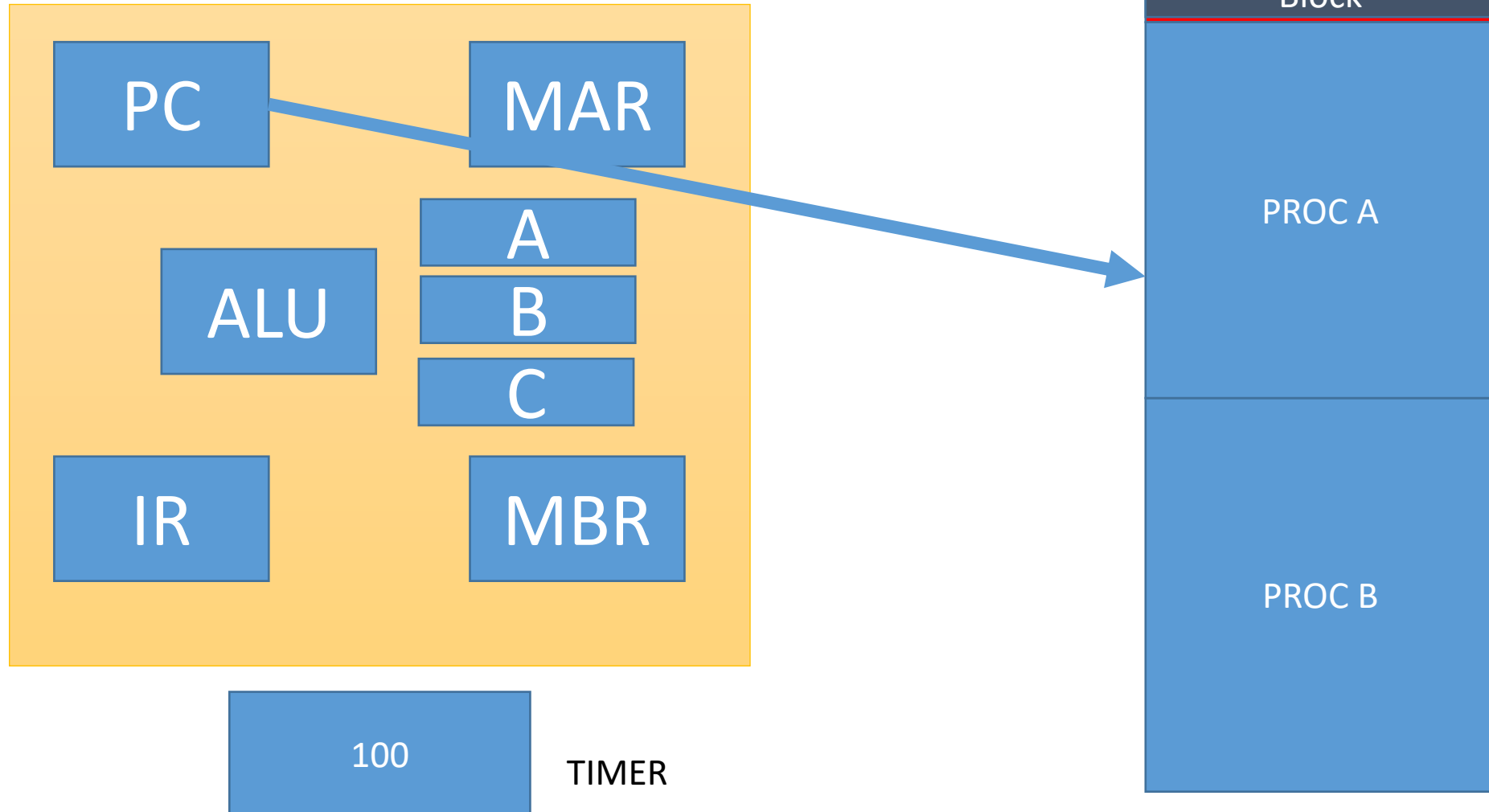
Putting together the Timer and PCB

The **Proc A**
Has been
rescheduled
to run **again**

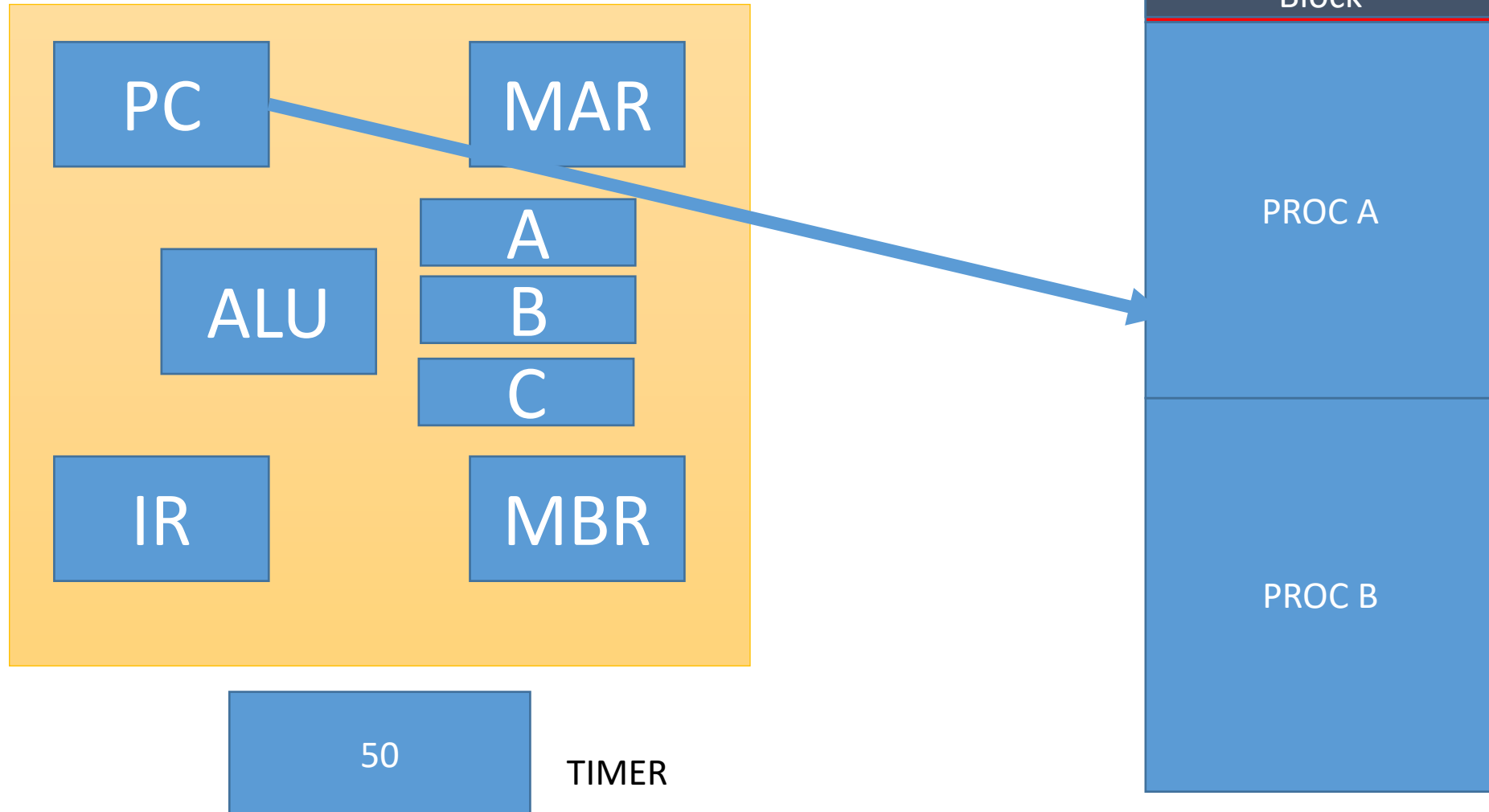
Since all its
information ,
Were
preserved, it
is starting
From the
same place
where it was
before



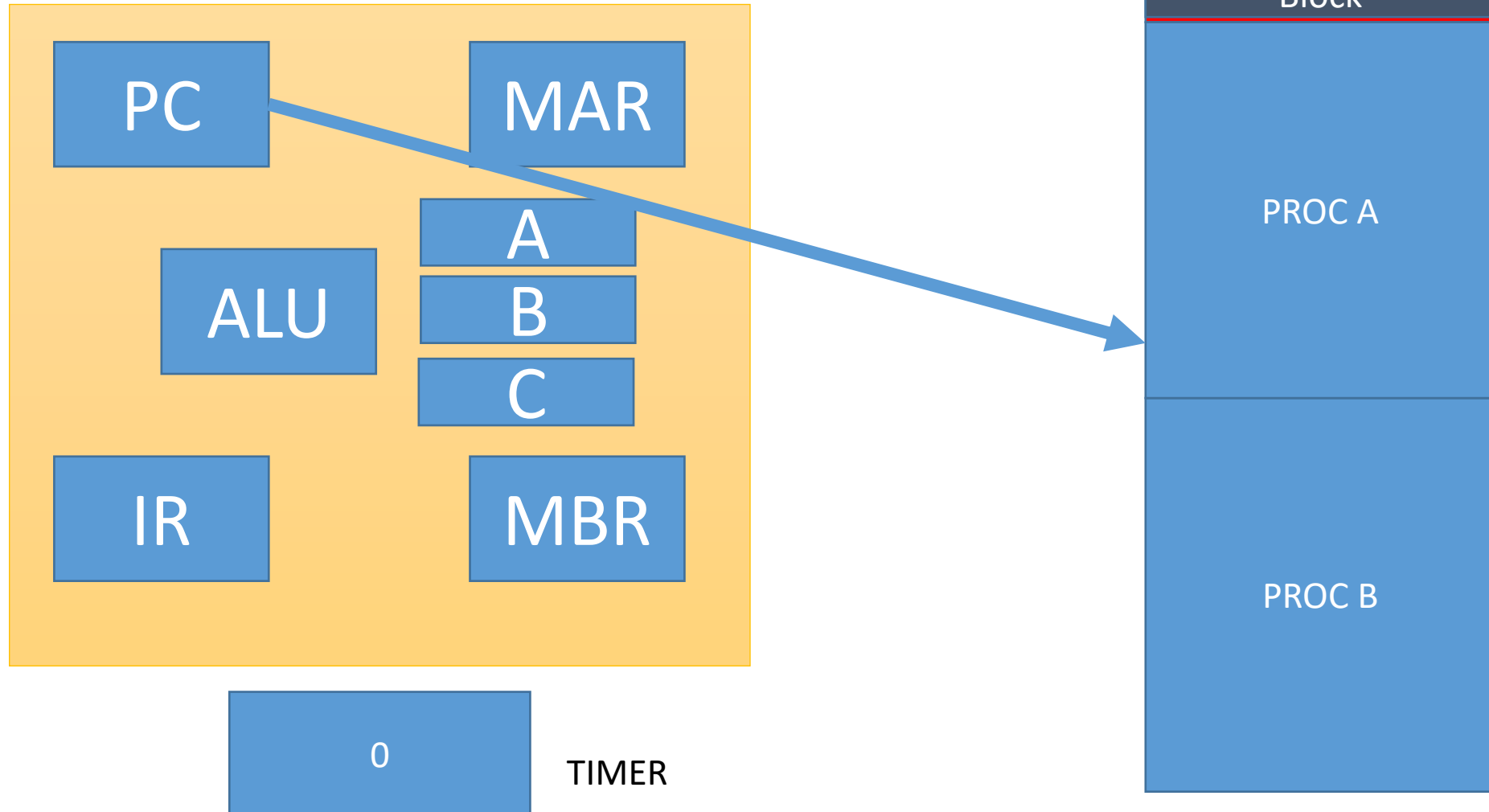
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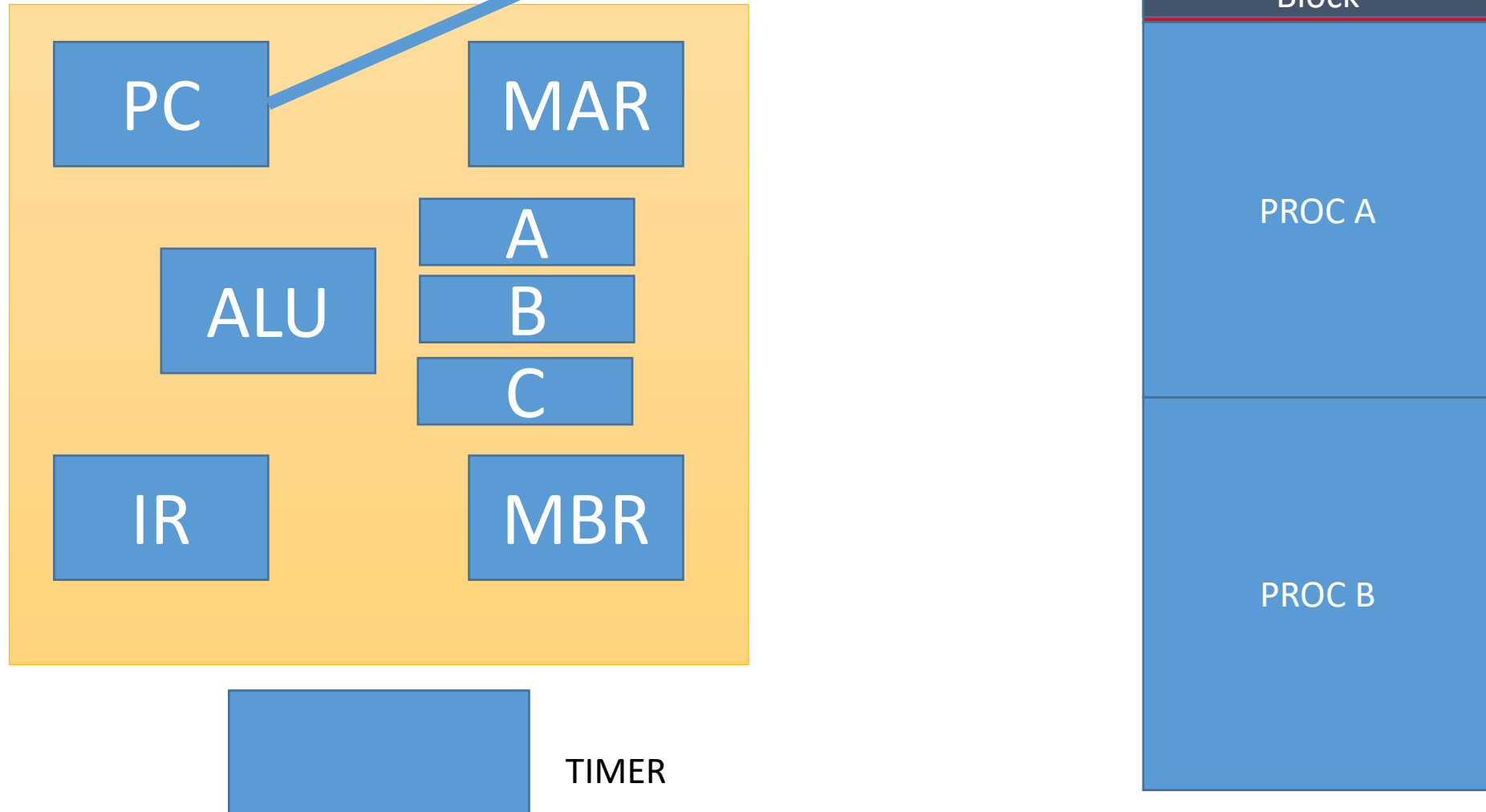
Putting together the Timer and PCB



Putting together the Timer and PCB



Putting together the Timer and PCB



2.2.Different States of a process

Different States of a Process

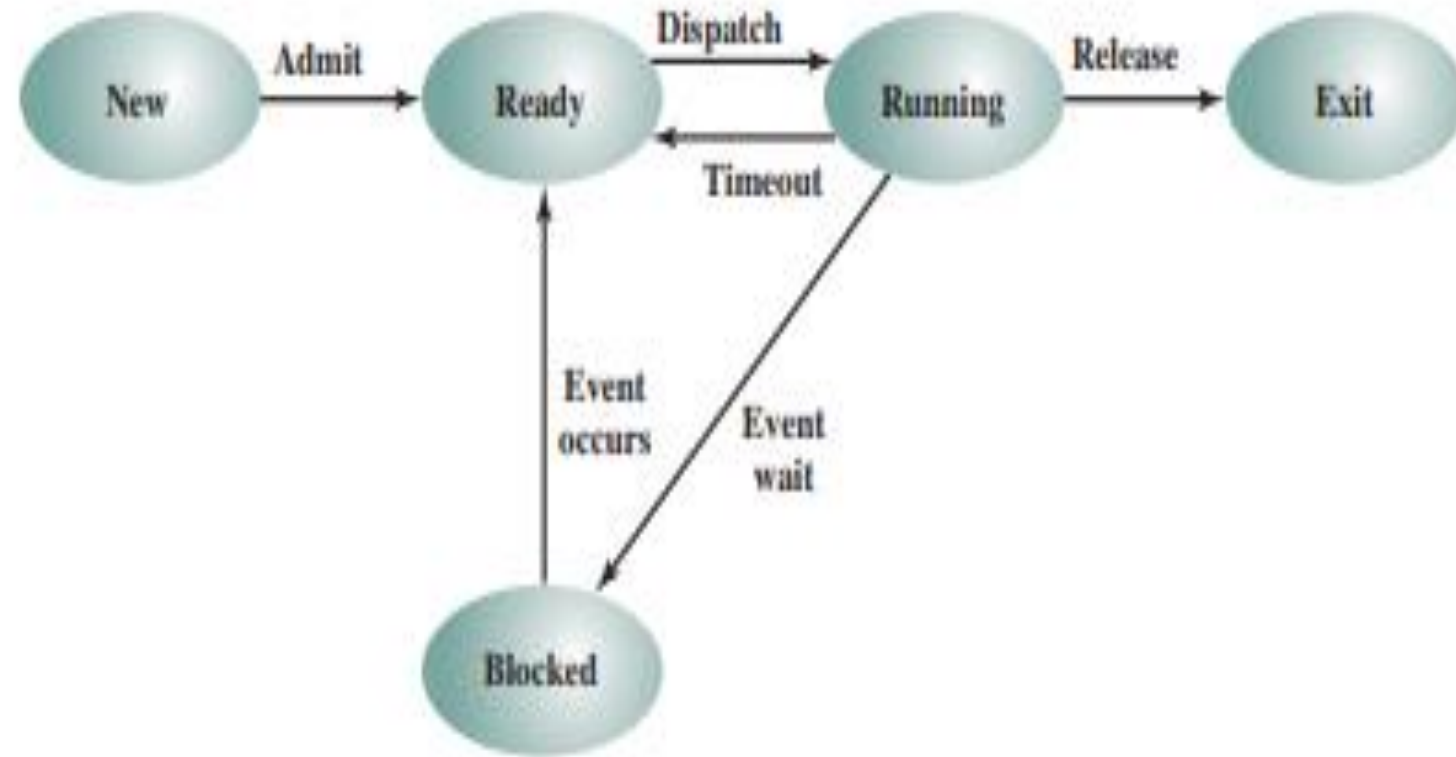


Figure 8.7 Five-State Process Model

New- program clicked to be initiated.

Ready-The process's code is in the memory along with meta data in PCB

Running-The process is being executed in processor

Blocked- Not running, but it may run later on, its necessary information are stored before switching to another processor.

Exit-The process has terminated, soon its code and meta data will be evicted.

Putting the bits and bytes of scheduling together

The data structure maintained by OS:

OS maintains some queues.

Long term queue - List of programs that are **waiting to enter the system**. (say the user has clicked on 4 different programs)

This queue is used by the **high level scheduler**. Based on this queue, it will allocate memory for process codes and hence bring them into the **ready** state.

Short term queue - Consists of all the processes in the **ready state**.

The short term scheduler will pick which process to run next.

Intermediate queue: A blocked process which was running in the memory, but blocked due to some operations and is no longer in the memory (we will see this in detail **later**)

I/O Queue - Multiple processes may **request** for an **input/output device** at a time. Hence these requests are inserts into a queue. From which later on the access is given.

Different States of a Process

Suppose the user wants to run **prog1.exe**

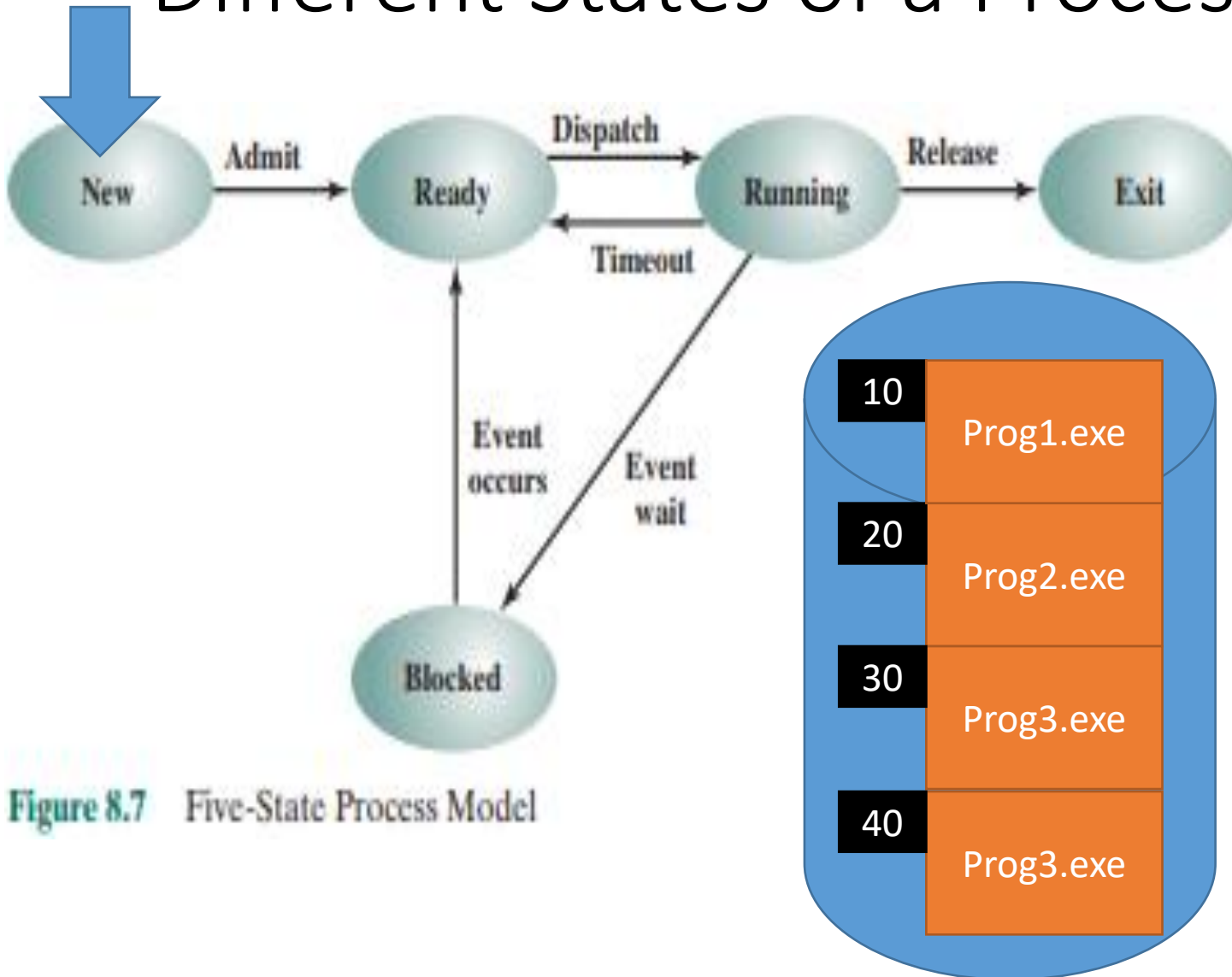


Figure 8.7 Five-State Process Model



Different States of a Process

Its address will be provided to the **long term queue** of the OS.

0	5		
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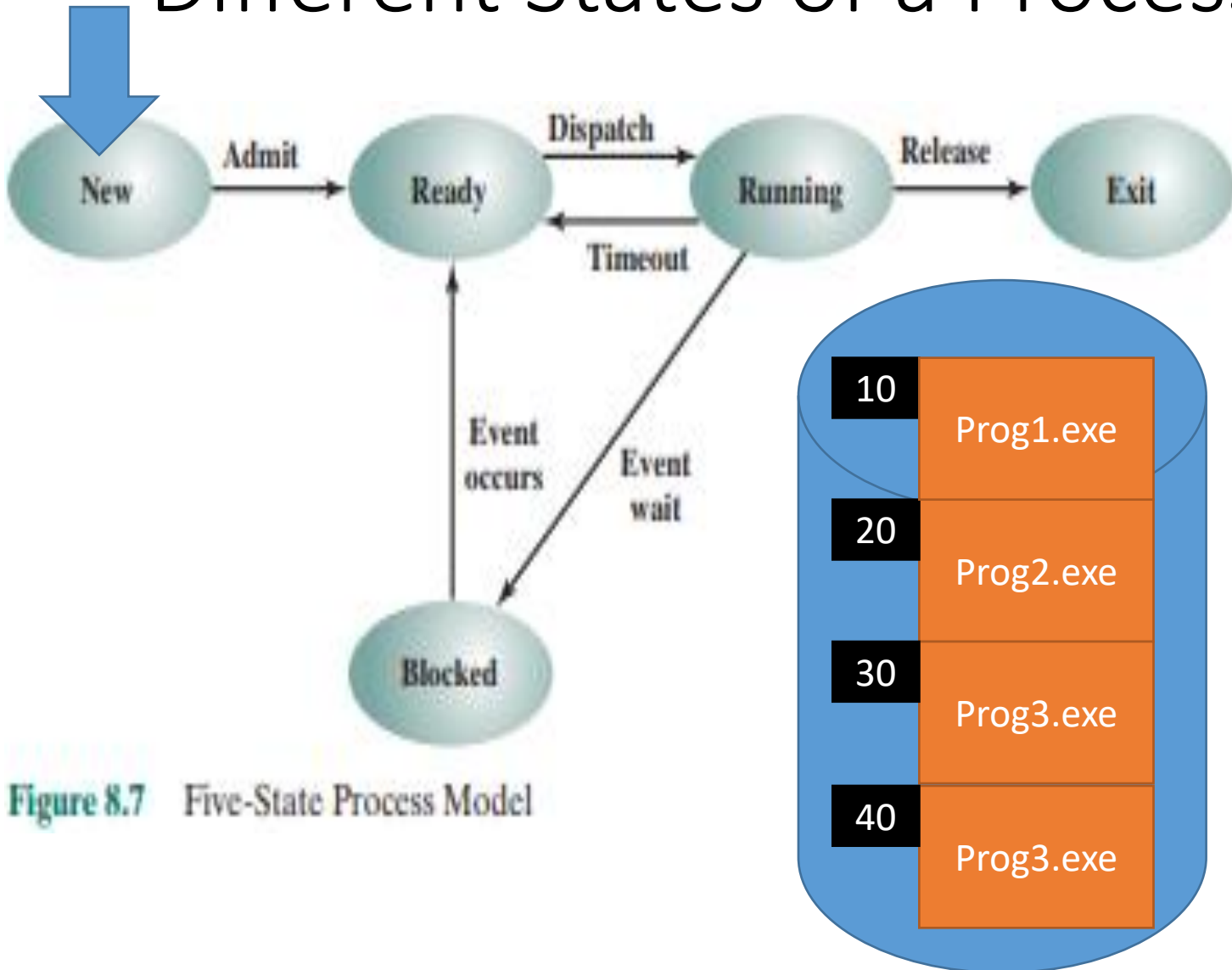
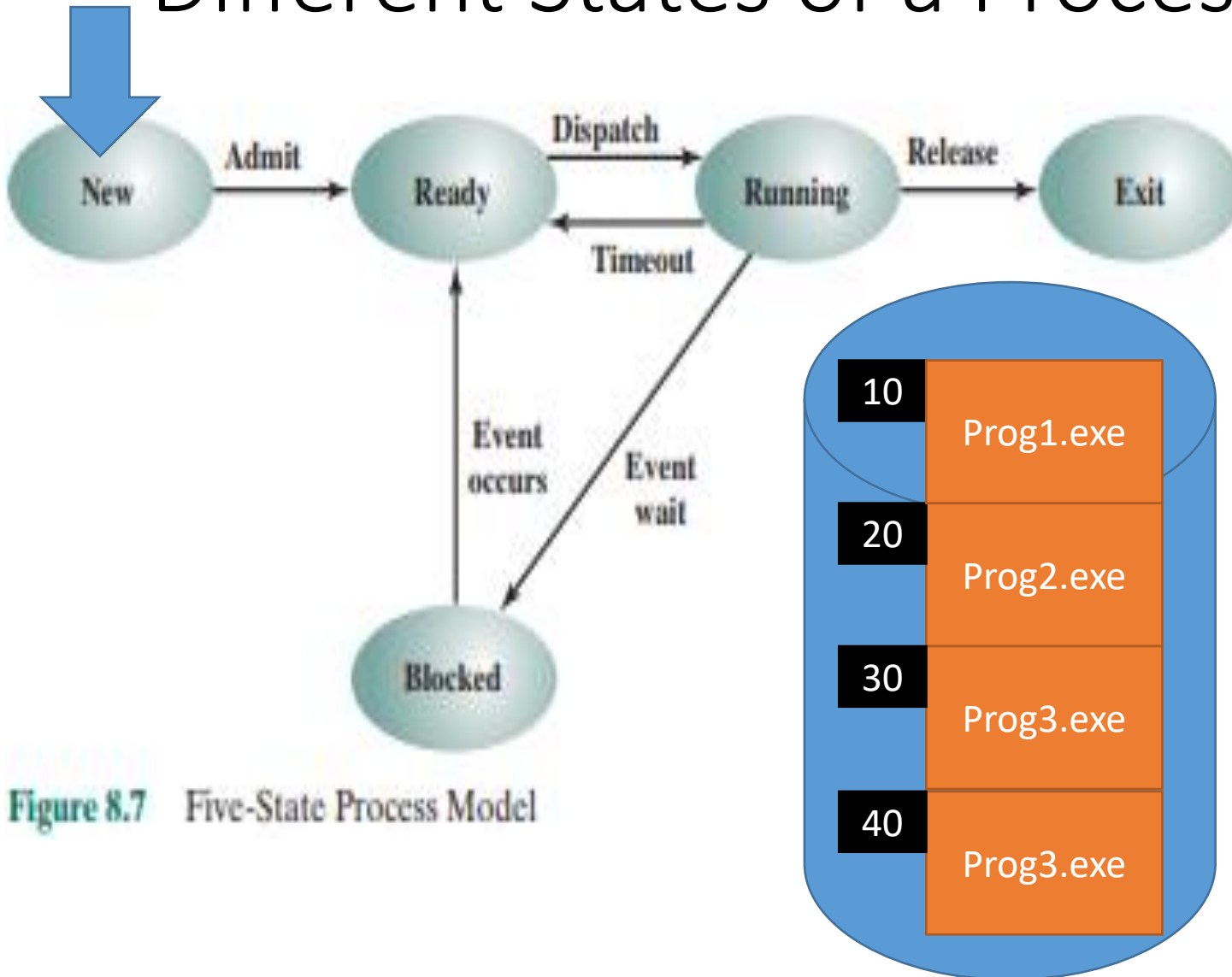


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Different States of a Process



Its address will be provided to the **long term queue** of the OS.

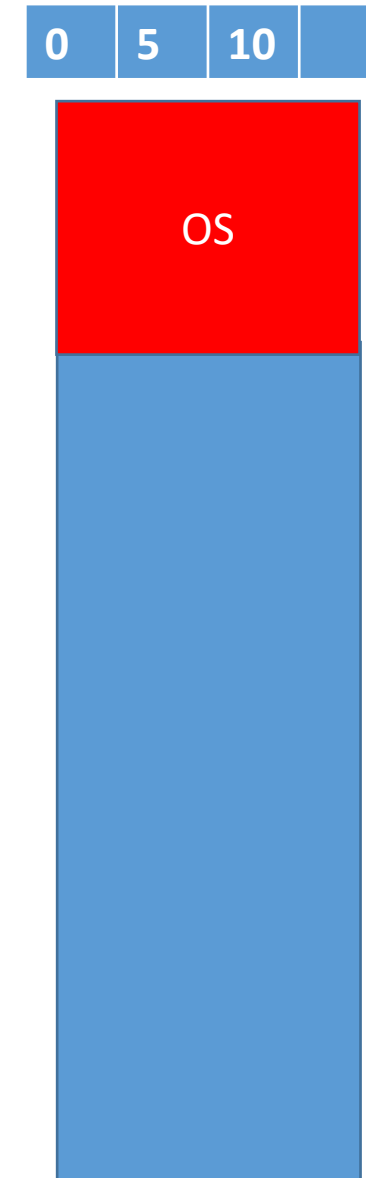
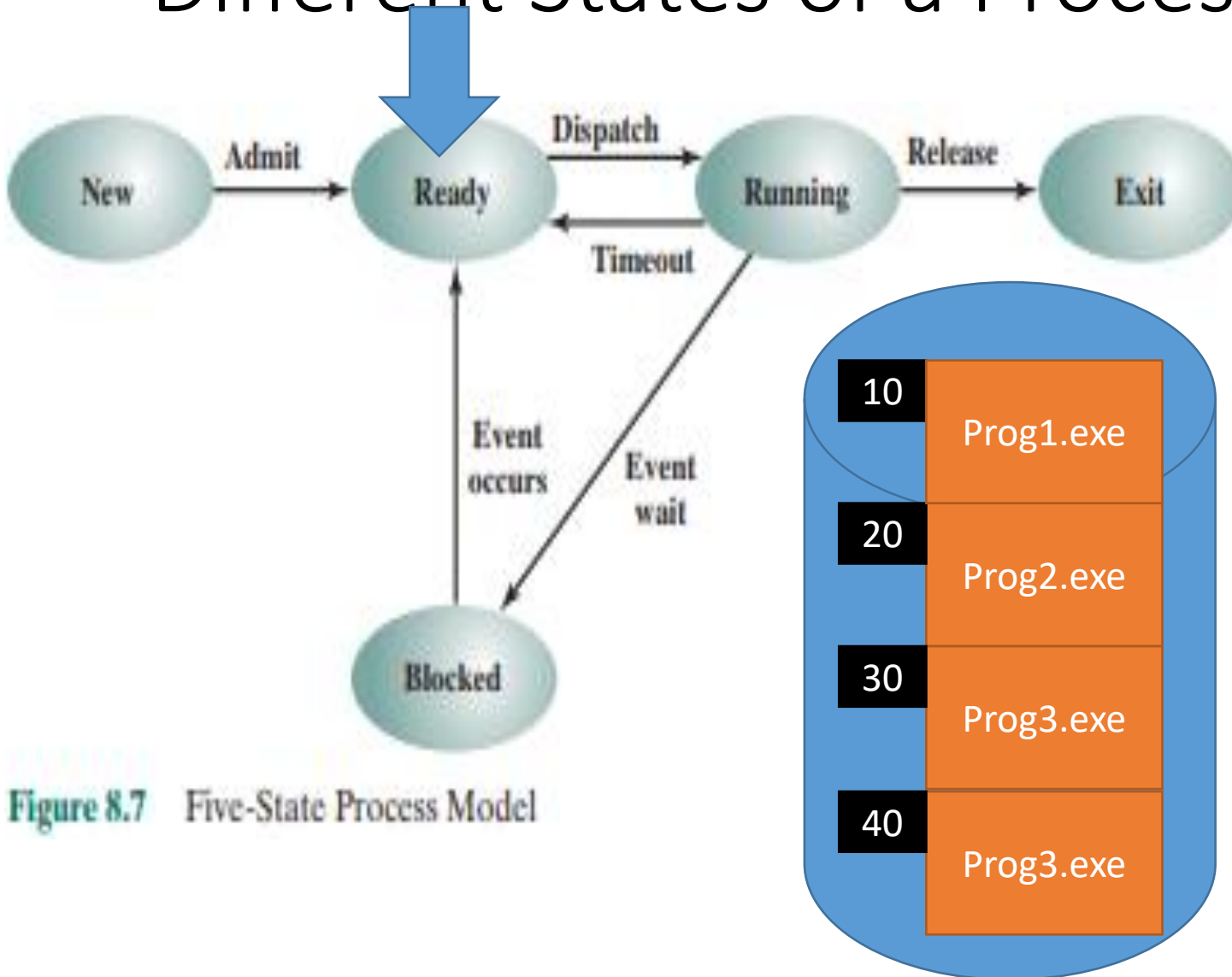


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Different States of a Process



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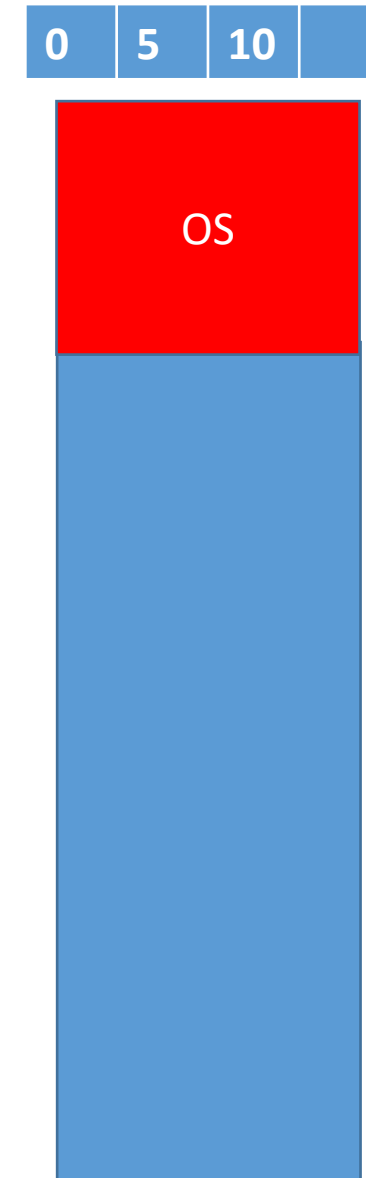


Figure 8.7 Five-State Process Model

Different States of a Process

Now its code and metadata
Are provided into the RAM

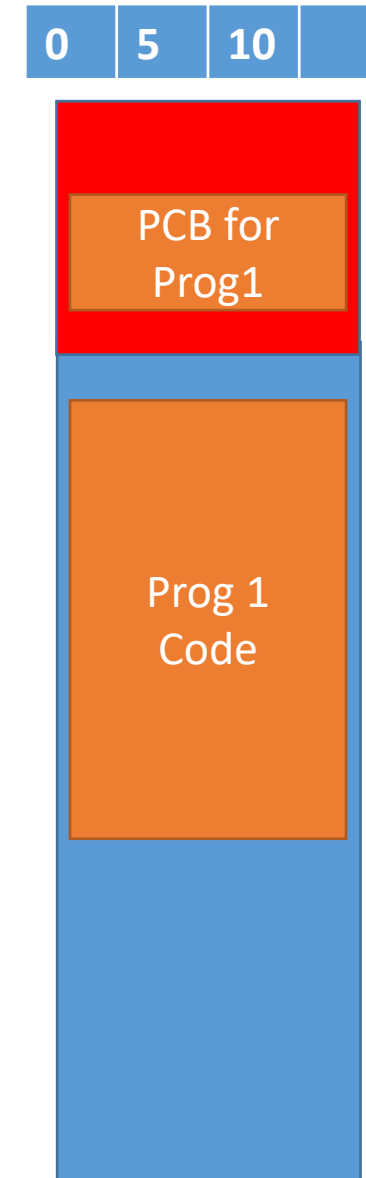
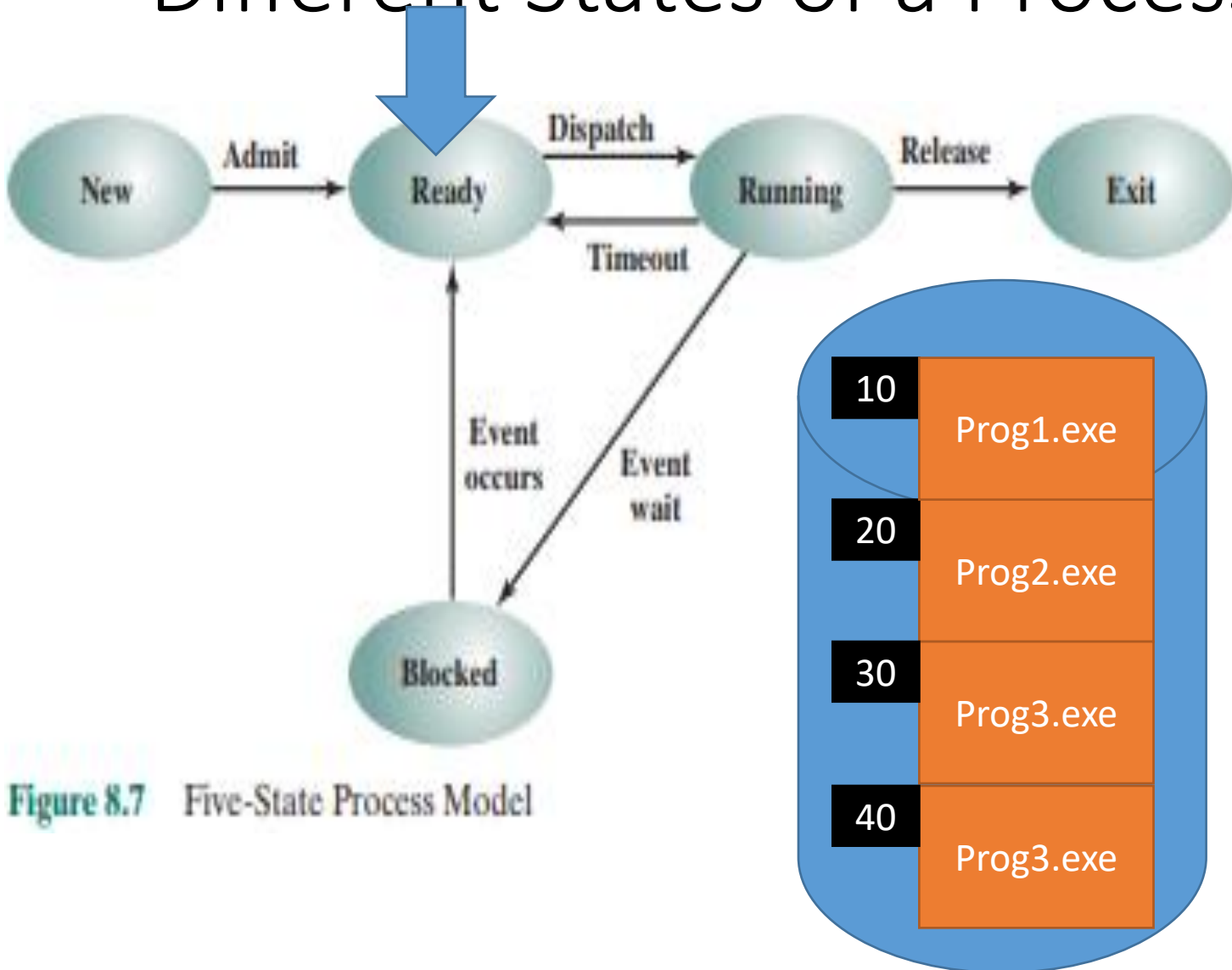


Figure 8.7 Five-State Process Model

Different States of a Process

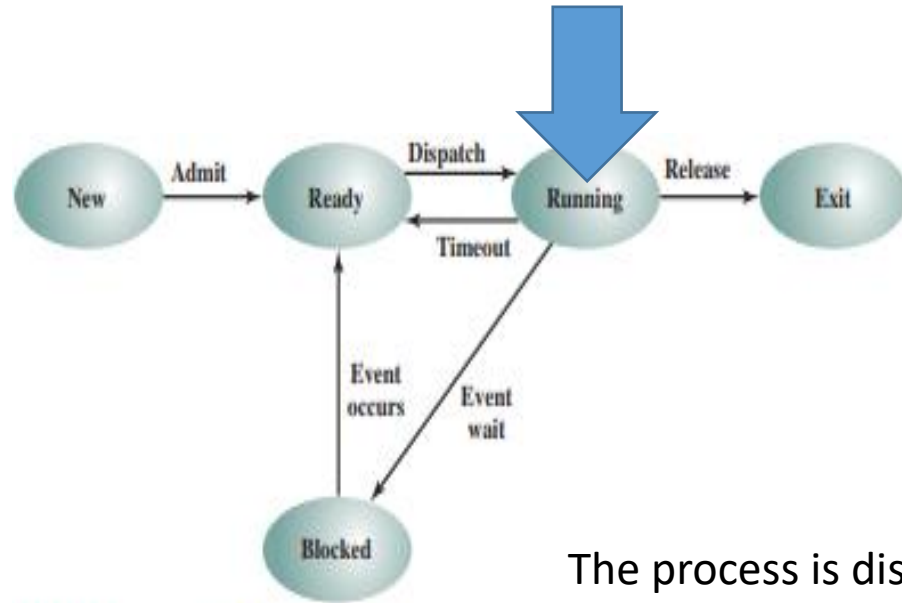
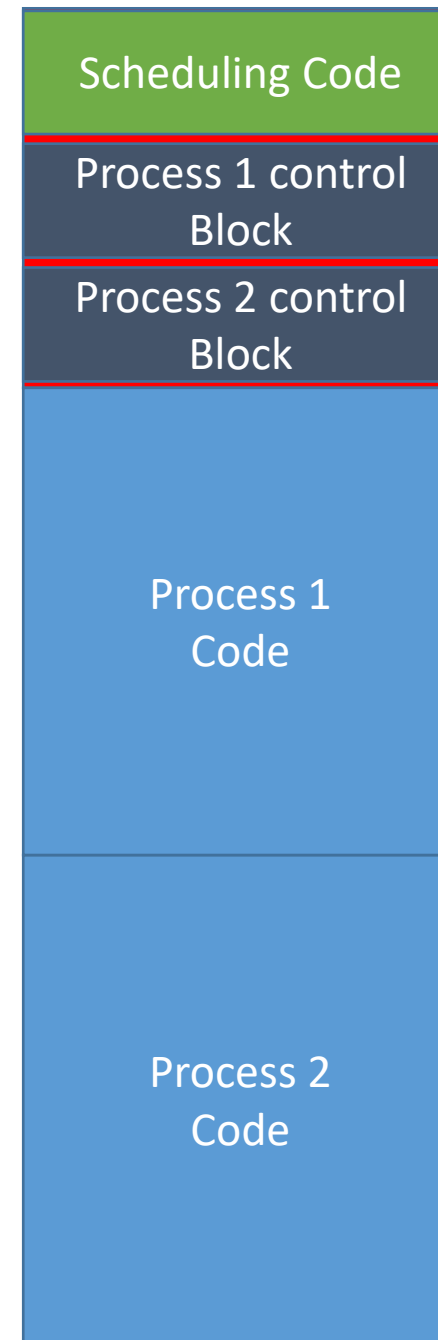


Figure 8.7 Five-State Process Model

The process is dispatched by the scheduler.

i.e the PC begins to take in instruction from it



Different States of a Process

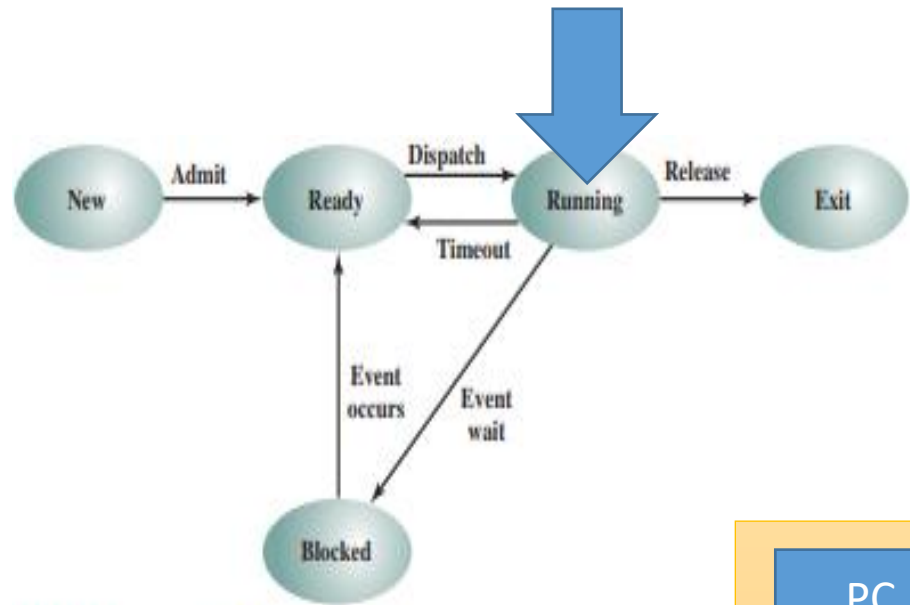
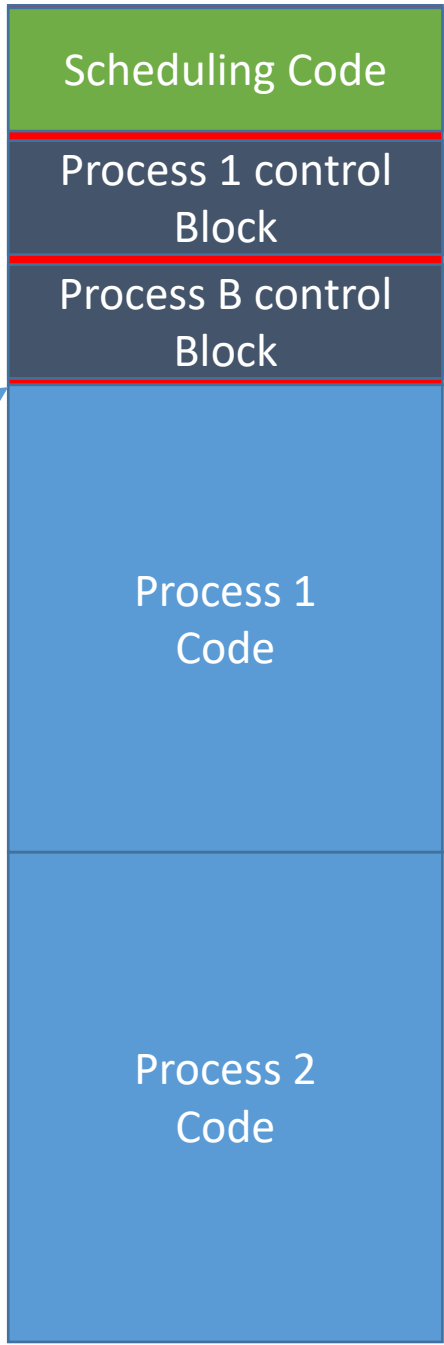
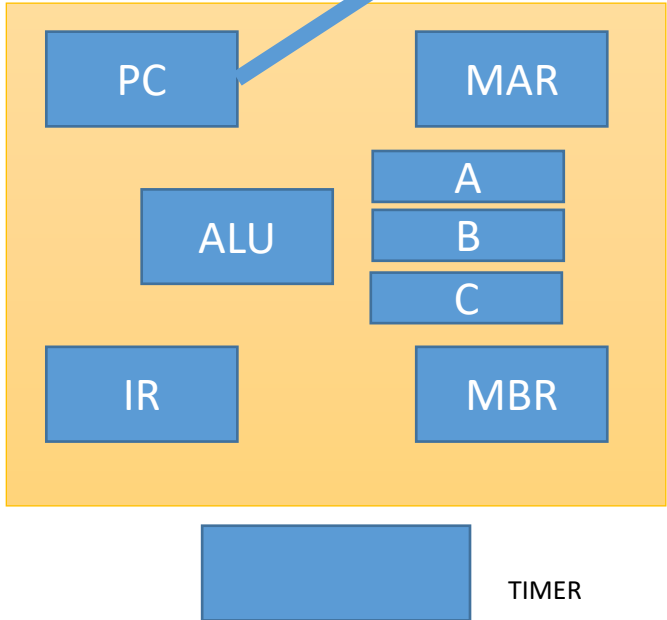


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Different States of a Process

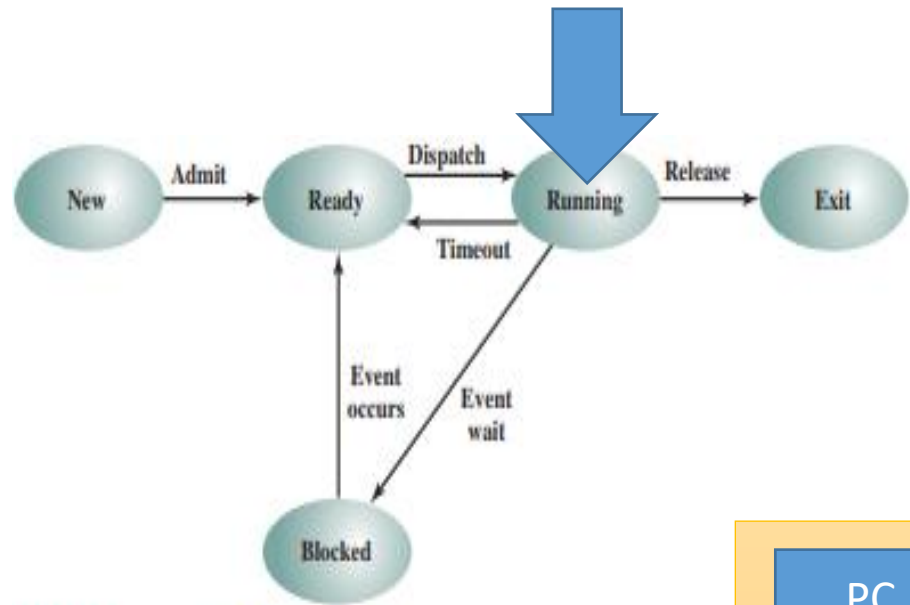
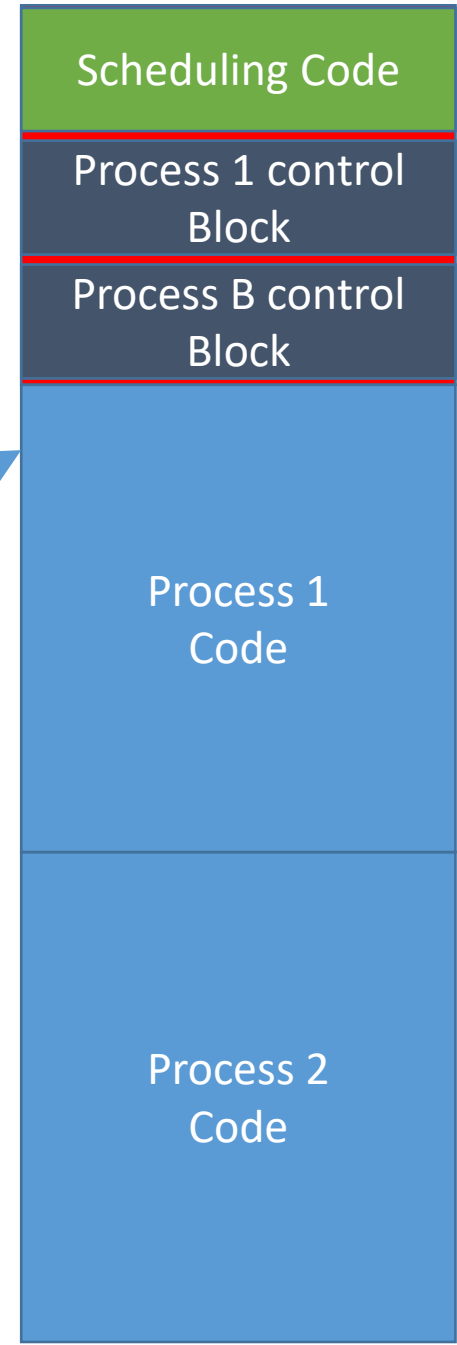
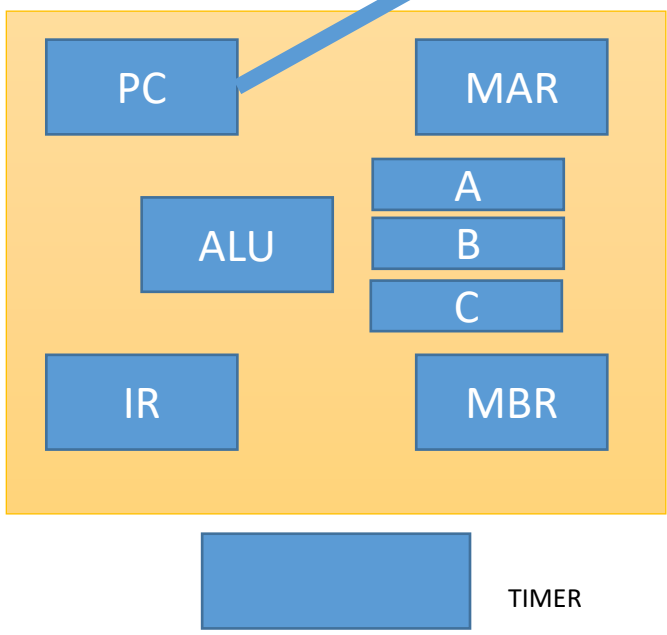


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Different States of a Process

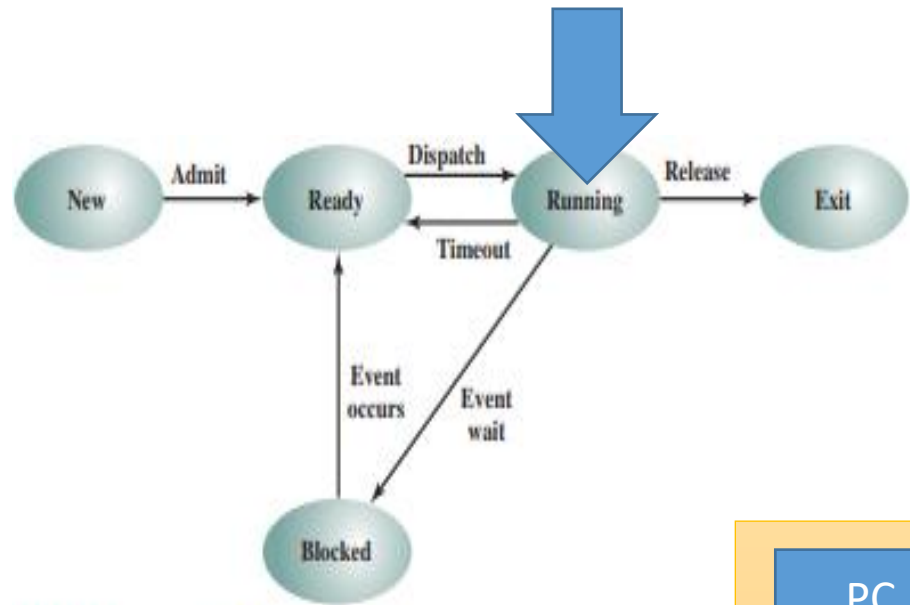
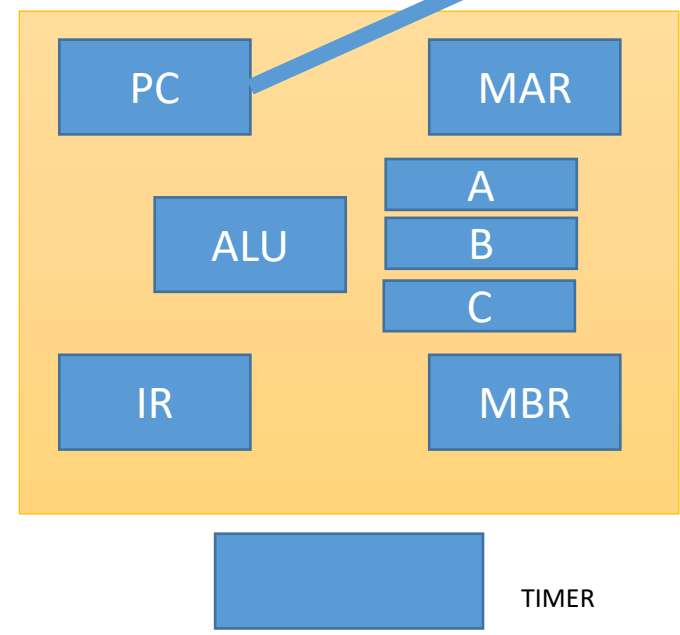
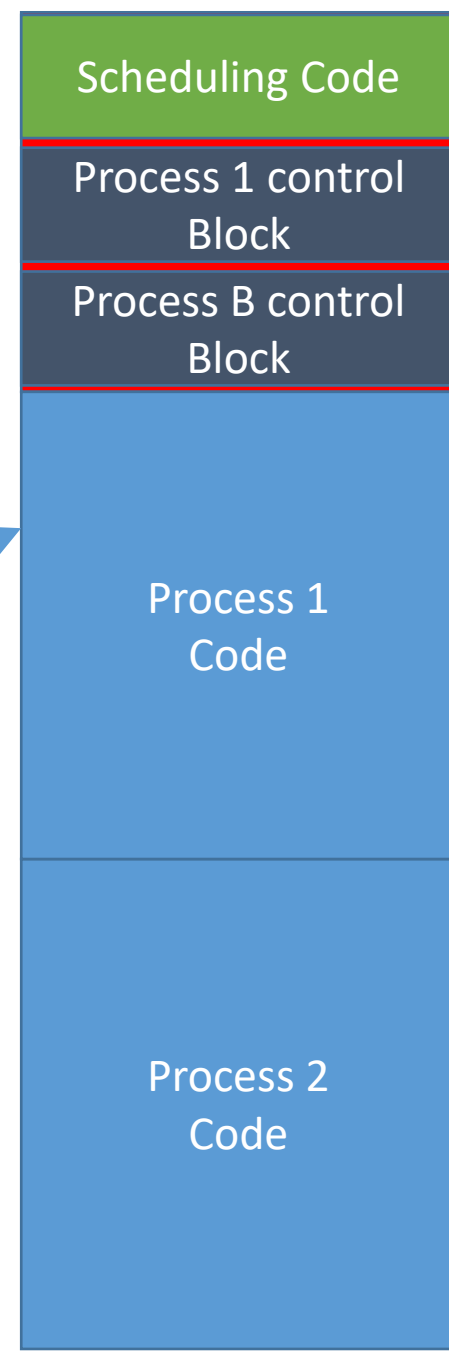


Figure 8.7 Five-State Process Model



Time OUT



Different States of a Process

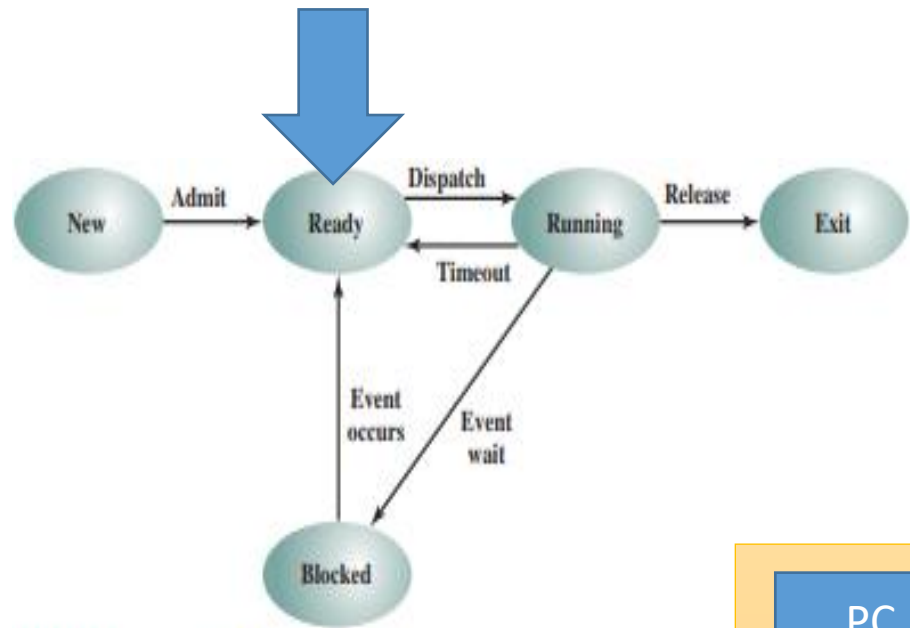
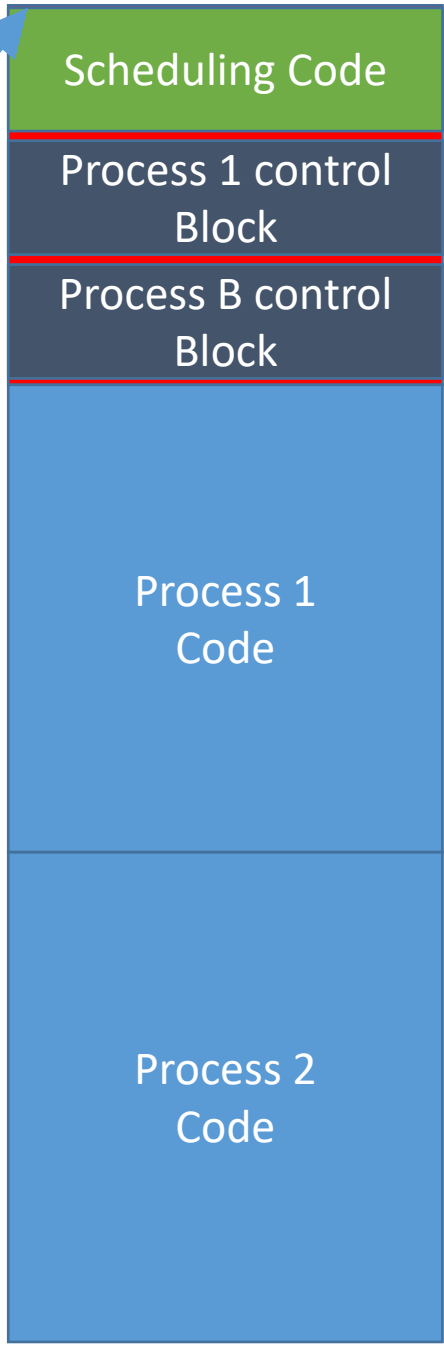
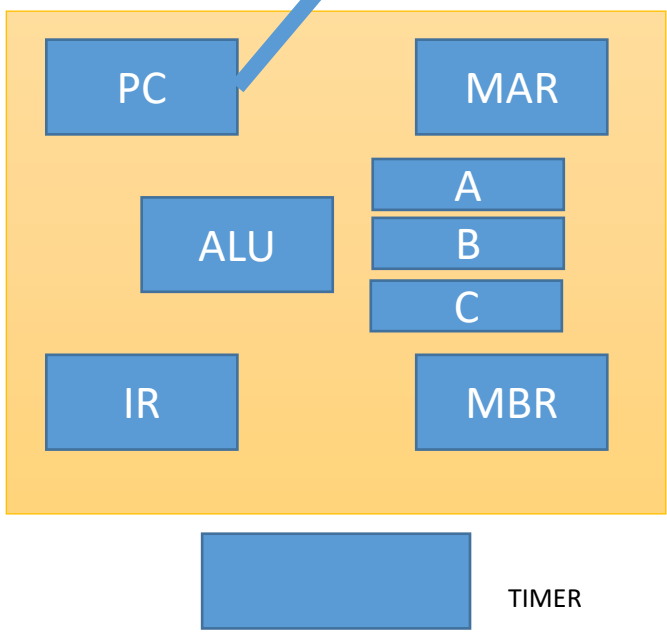


Figure 8.7 Five-State Process Model

The process is in ready state again



Different States of a Process

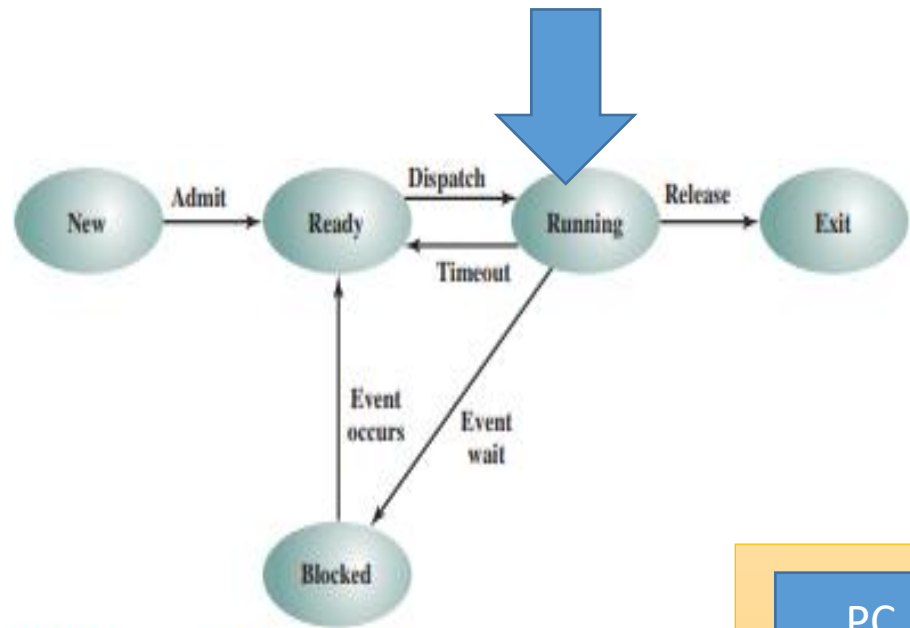
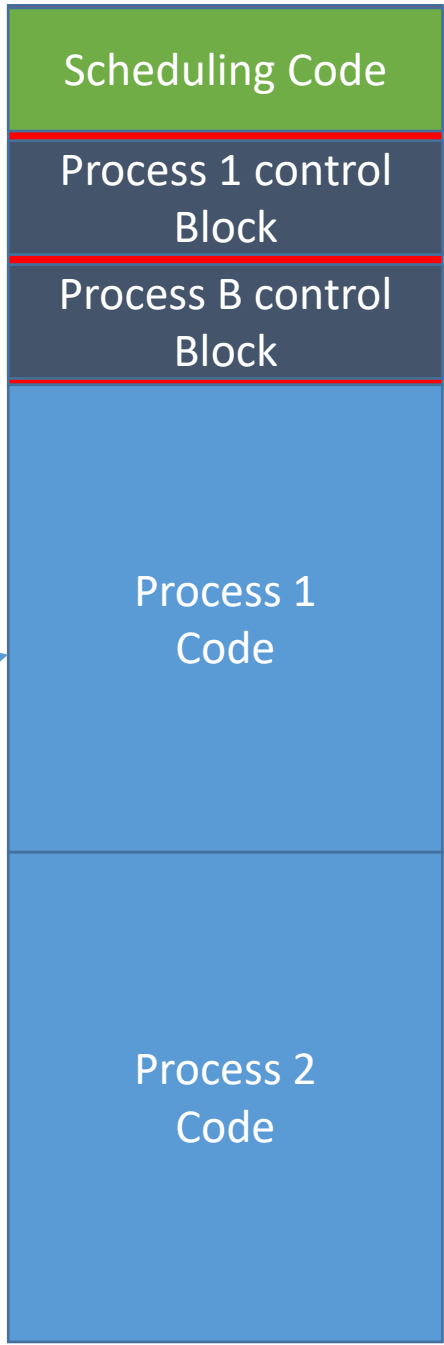
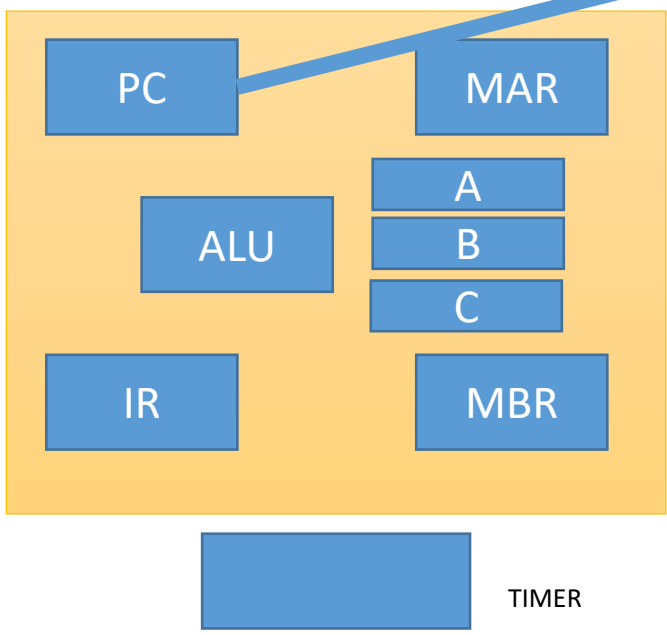


Figure 8.7 Five-State Process Model

Lets assume, that the scheduler decided to run this process again



Different States of a Process

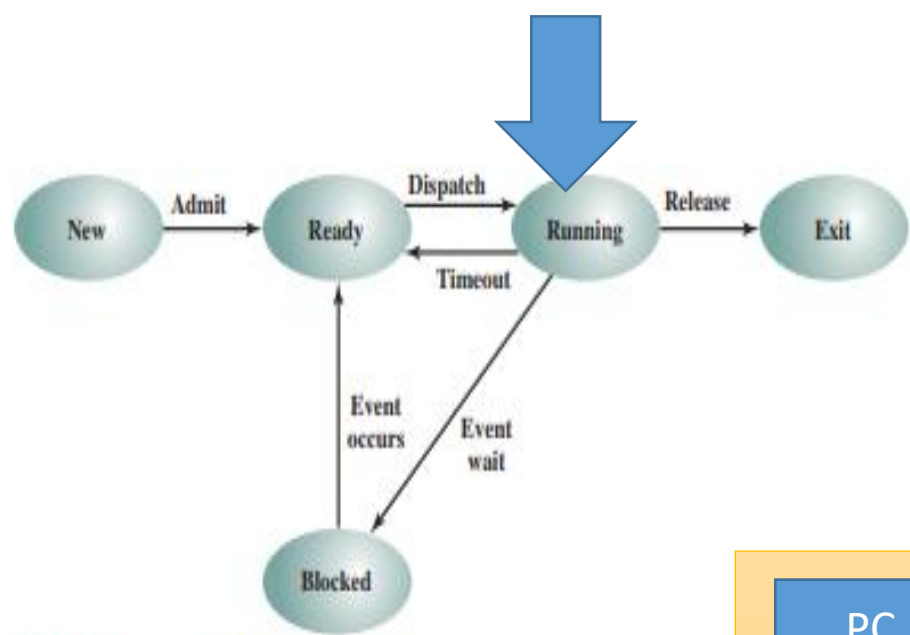
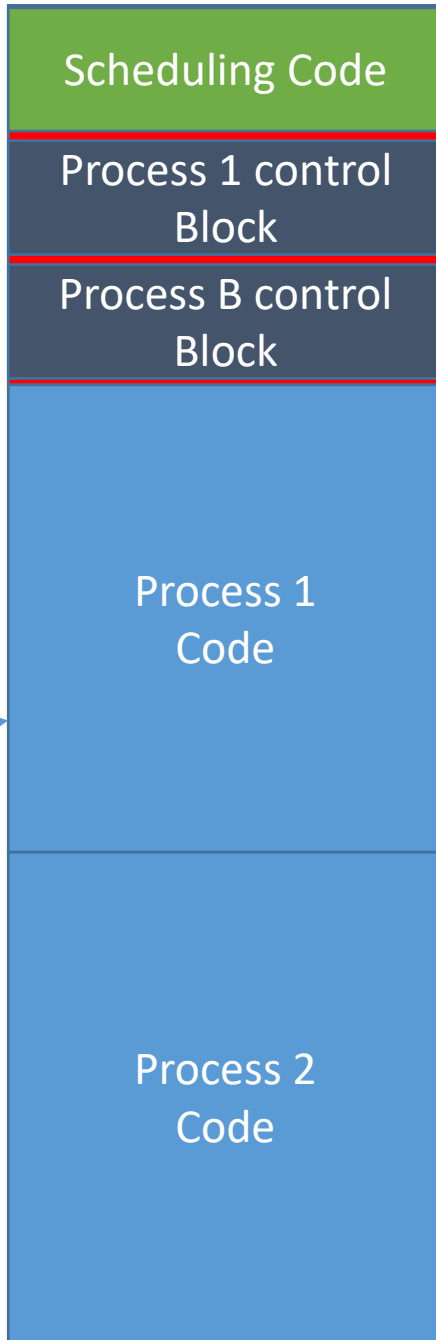
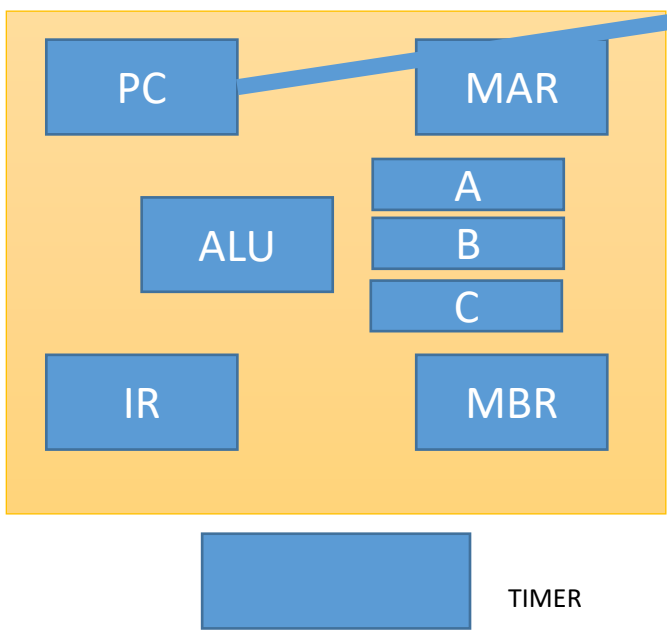


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Different States of a Process

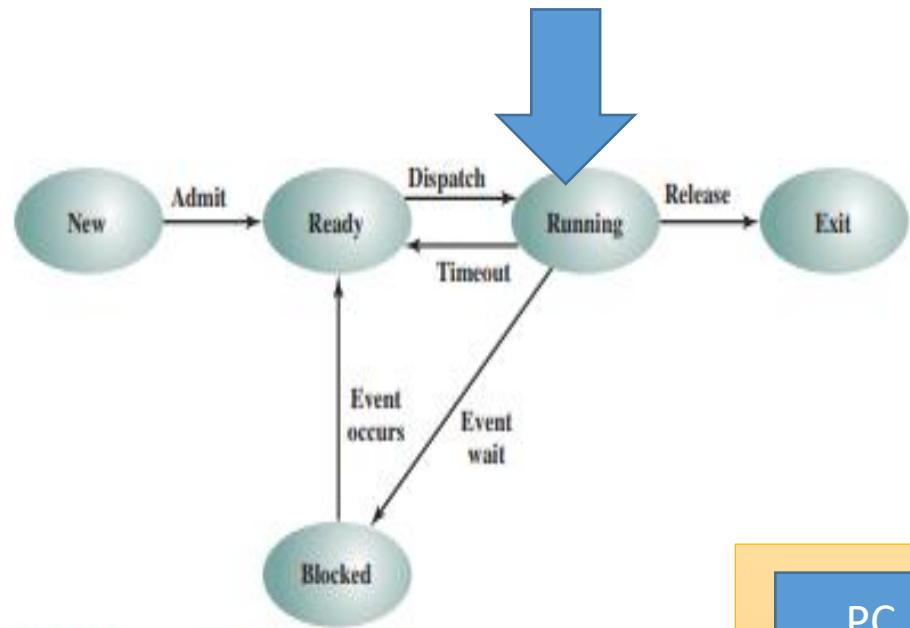
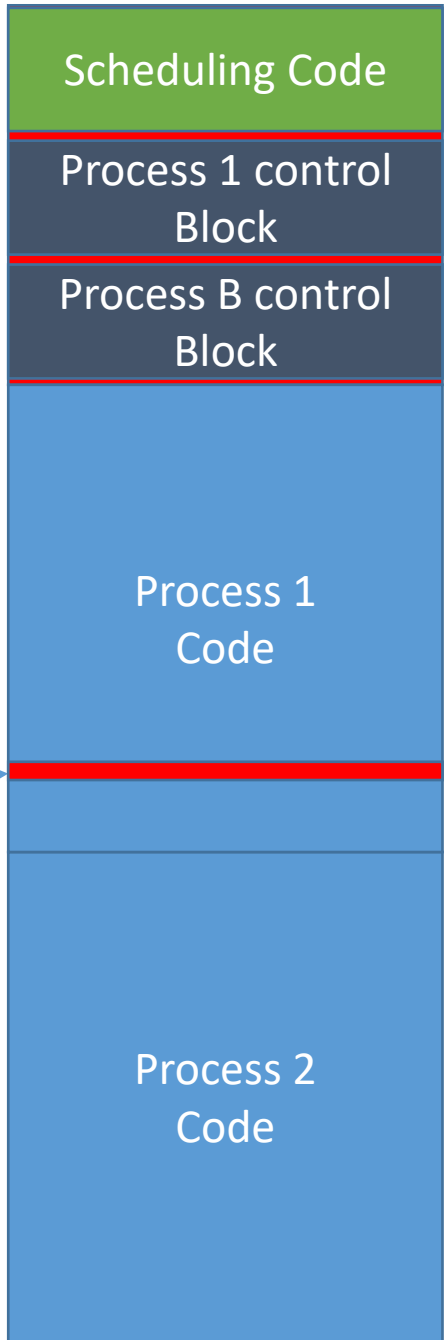
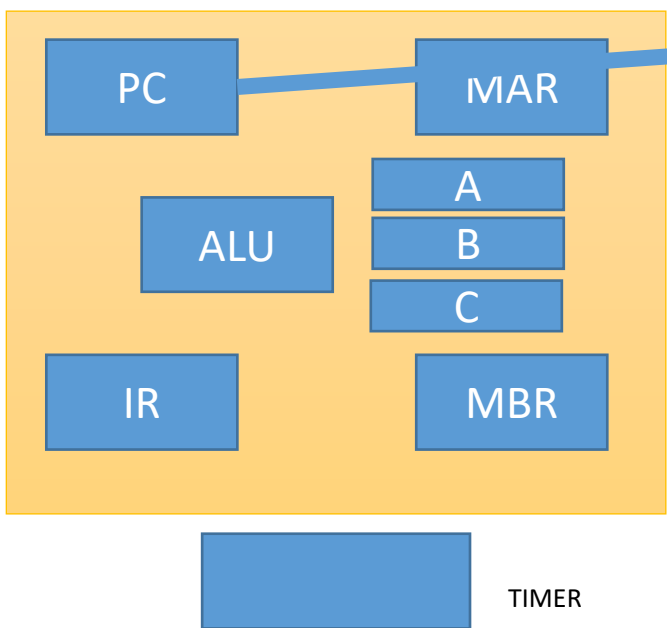


Figure 8.7 Five-State Process Model

Lets assume,
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scheduler
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this process
again



Different States of a Process

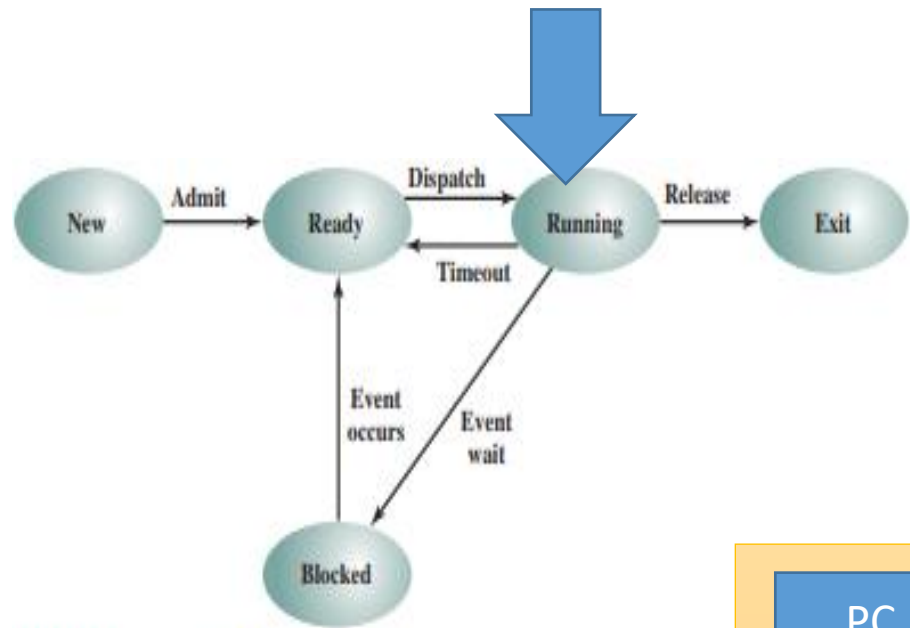
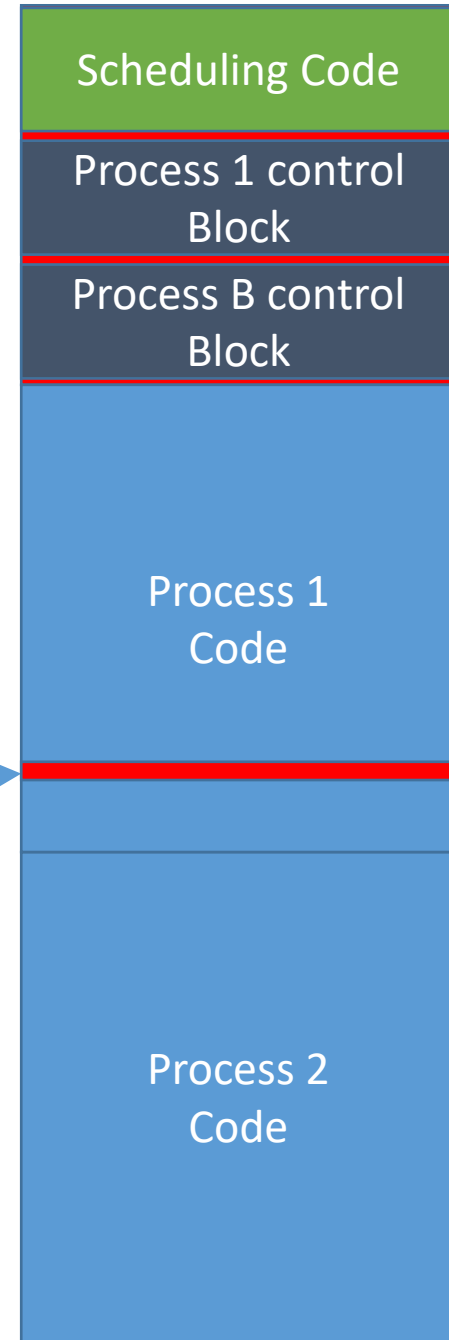
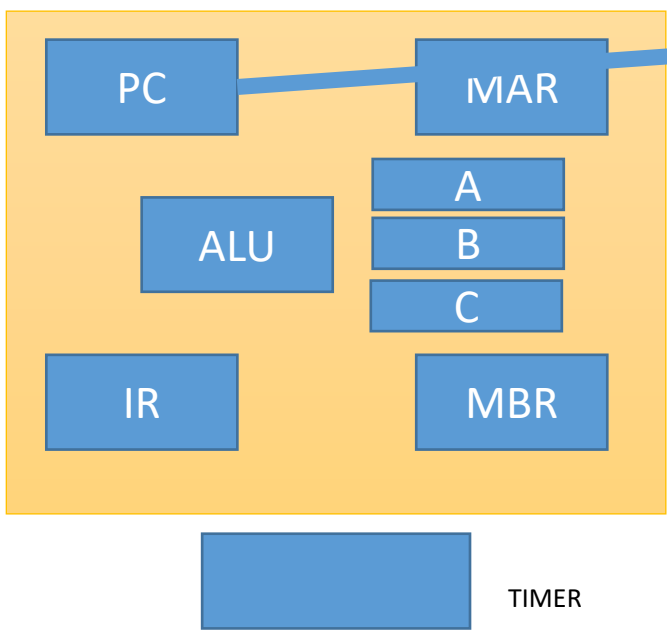
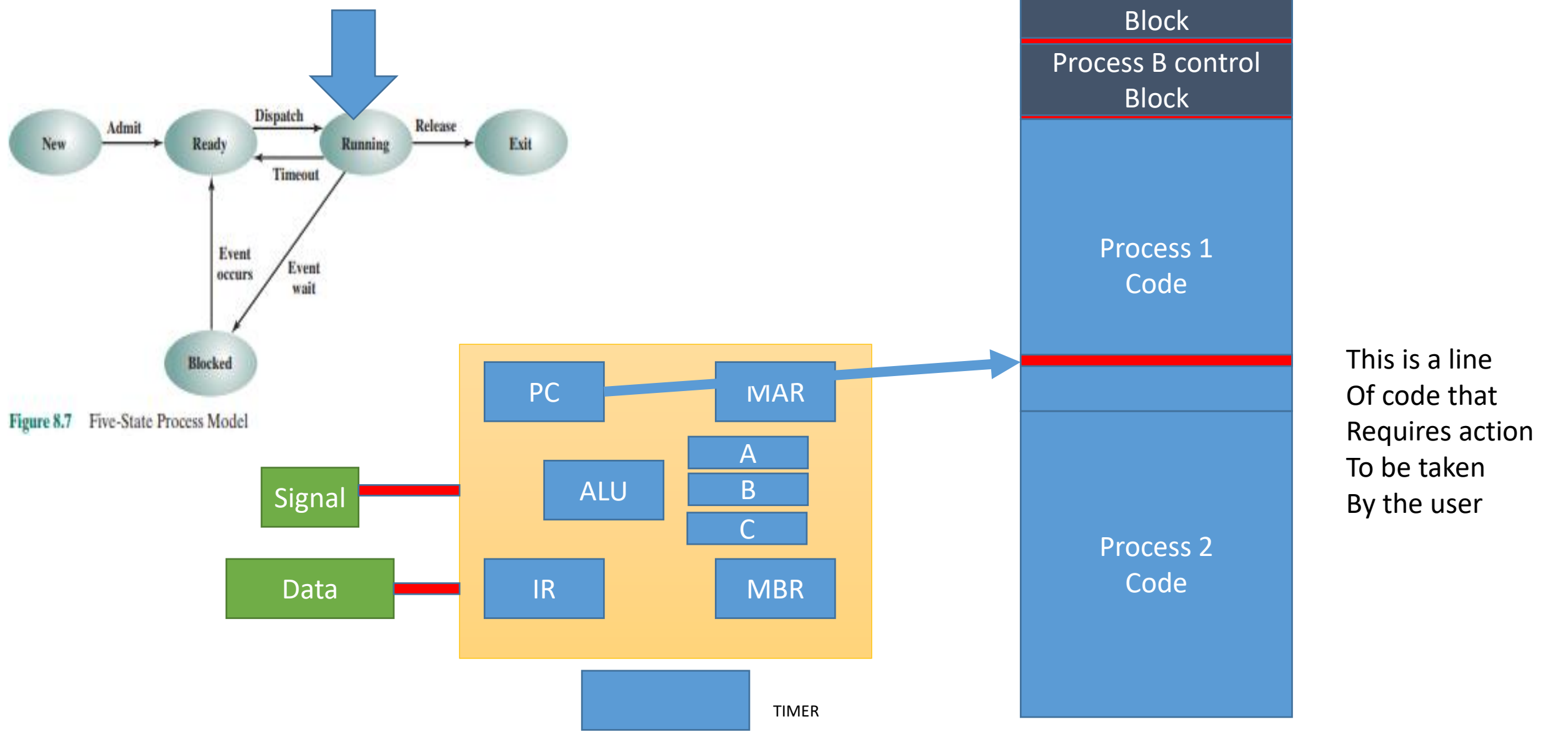


Figure 8.7 Five-State Process Model



This is a line Of code that Requires **action** To be taken By the **user**

Different States of a Process



Different States of a Process

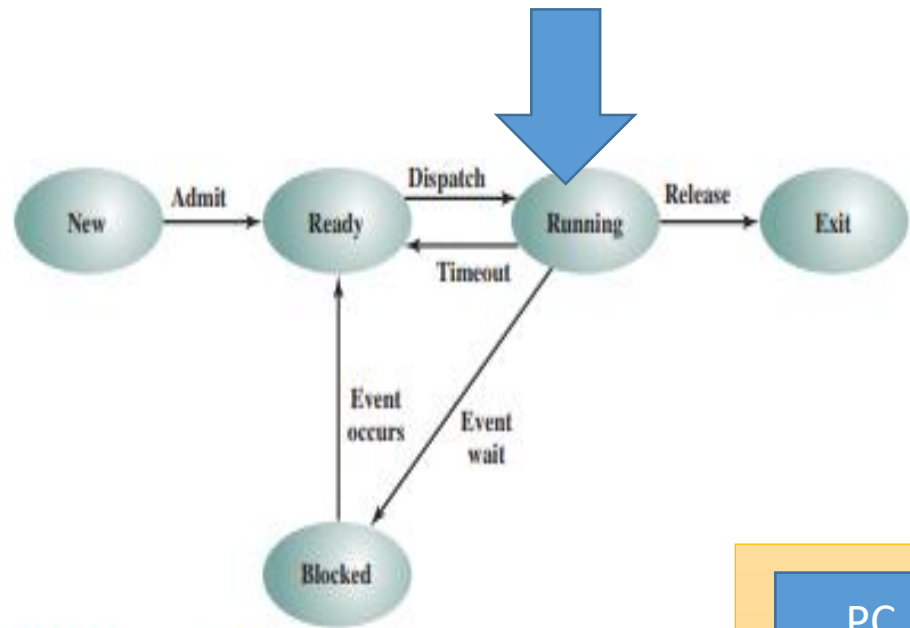
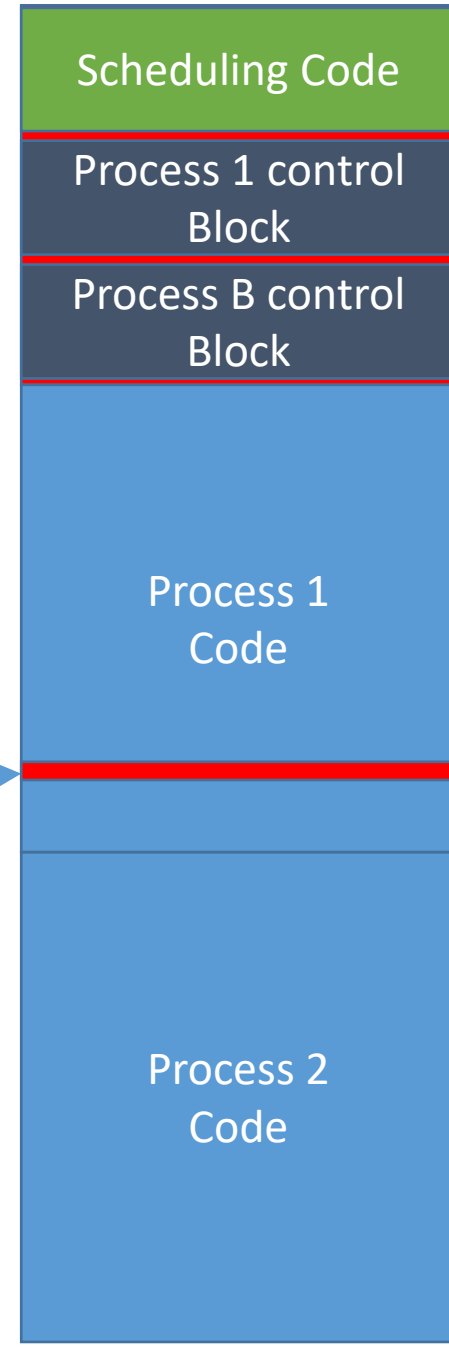
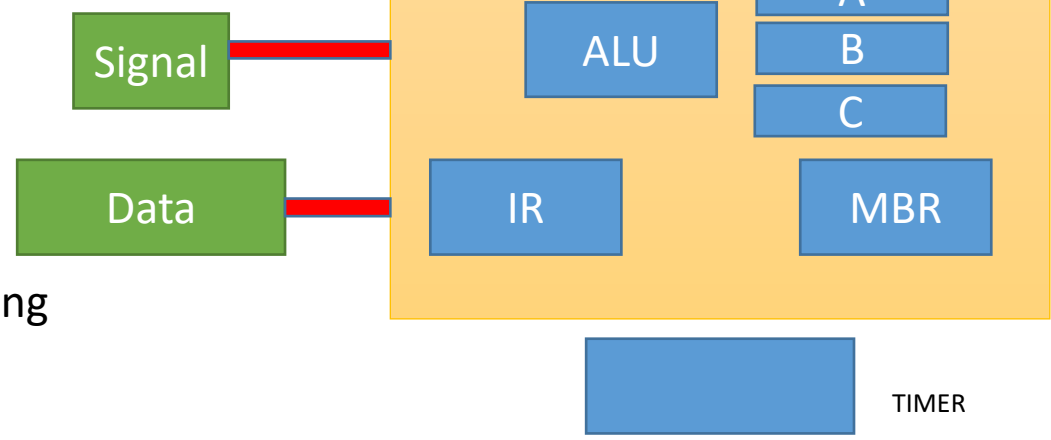


Figure 8.7 Five-State Process Model

Let us assume That the device Connected is a **Sensor** which Provides **data** along With a **signal**



This is a line Of code that Requires **action** To be taken By the **user**

Which basically, Means that the **Processor will** Have to **wait** Before executing the **Next line.**

Different States of a Process

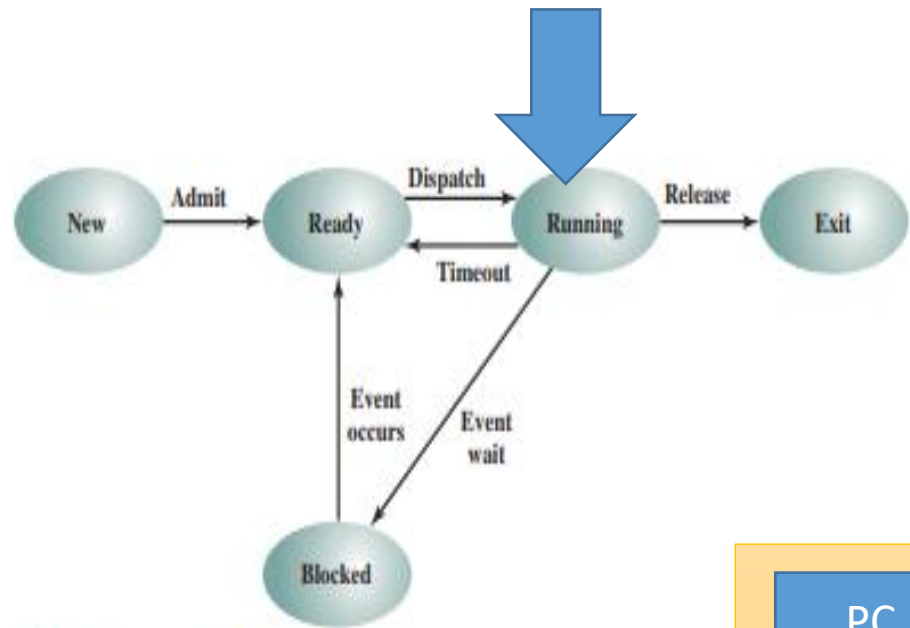
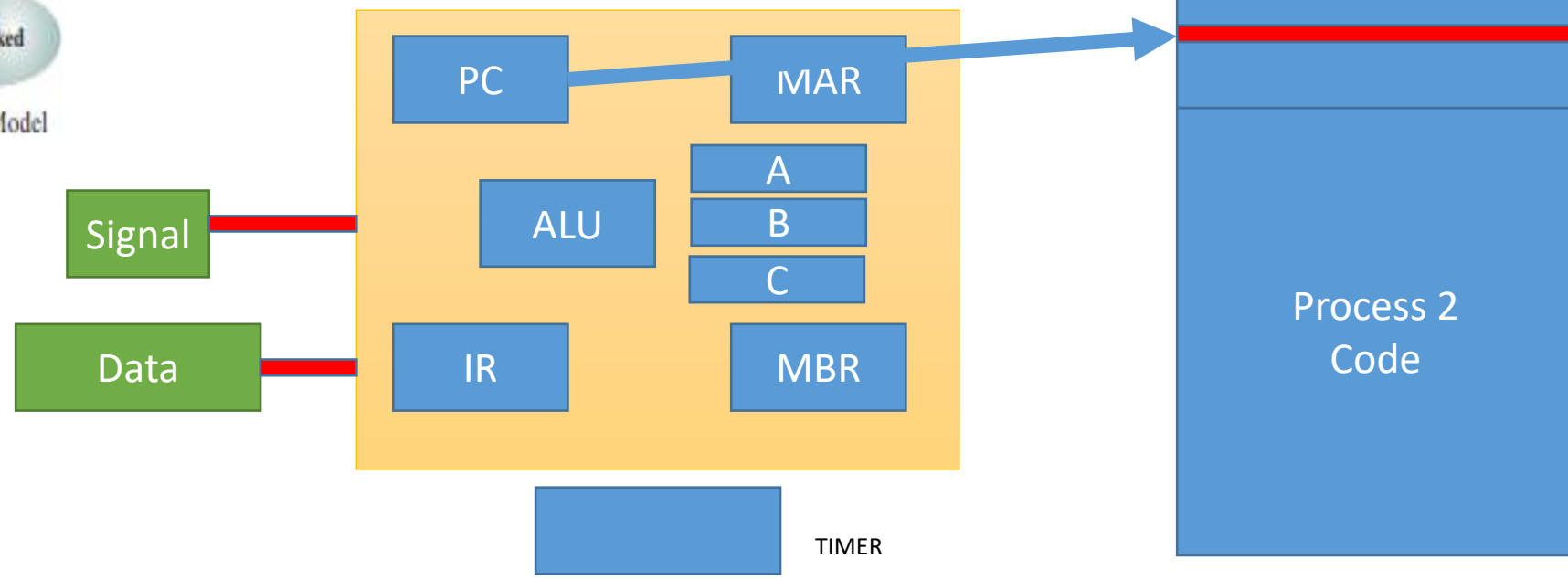


Figure 8.7 Five-State Process Model



Time runs
Out for this
Instruction!

Different States of a Process

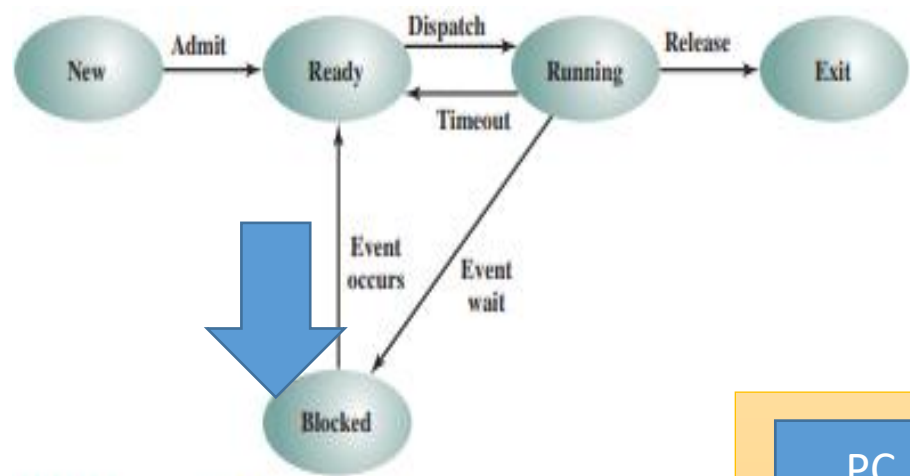
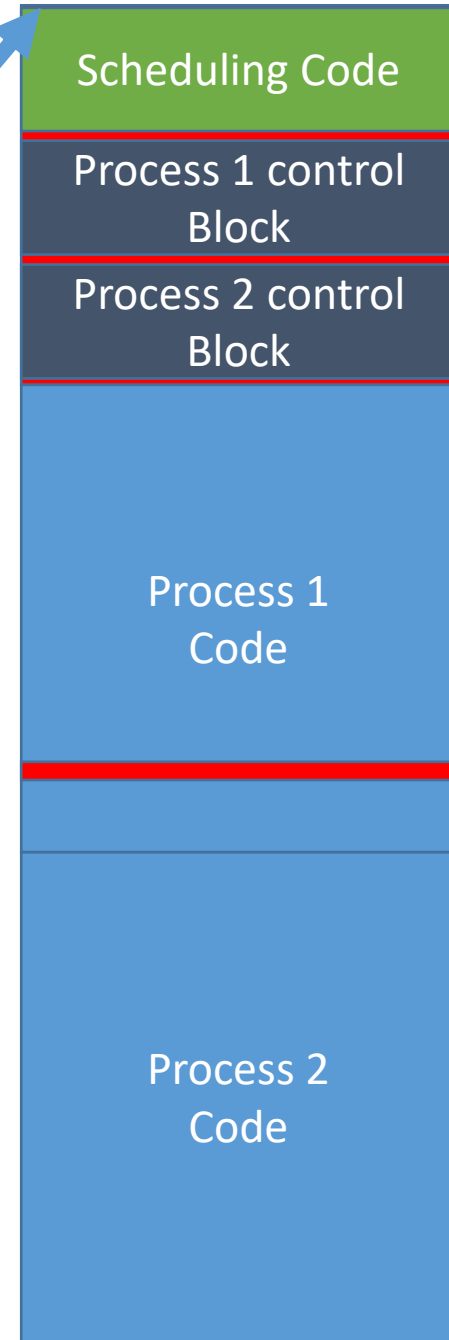
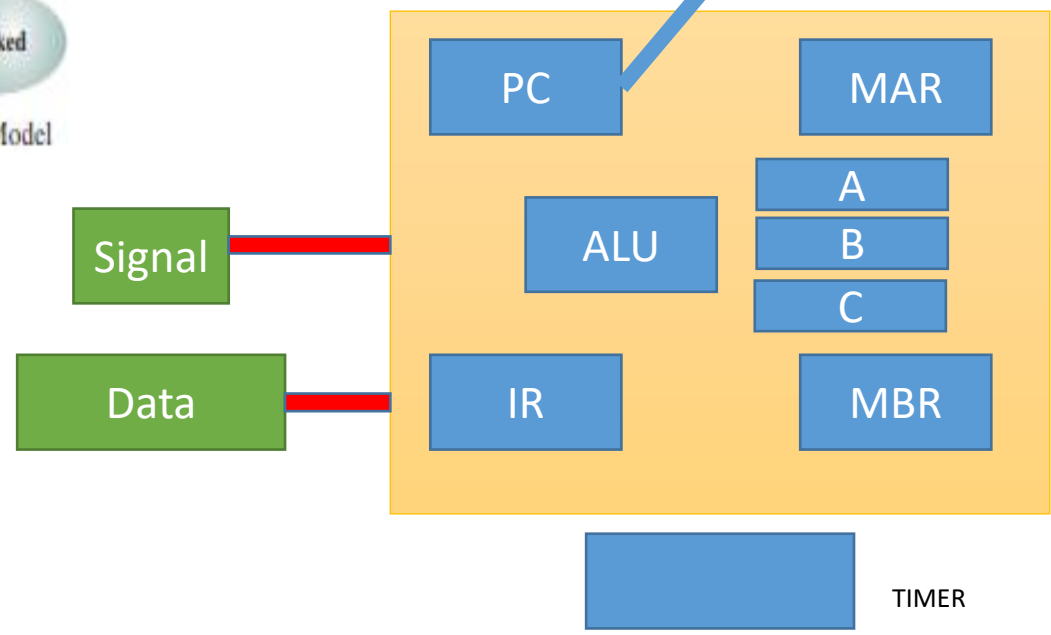


Figure 8.7 Five-State Process Model



Time runs **Out** for this Instruction!

Since it was Waiting for an Event, the OS Marks it as blocked

Different States of a Process

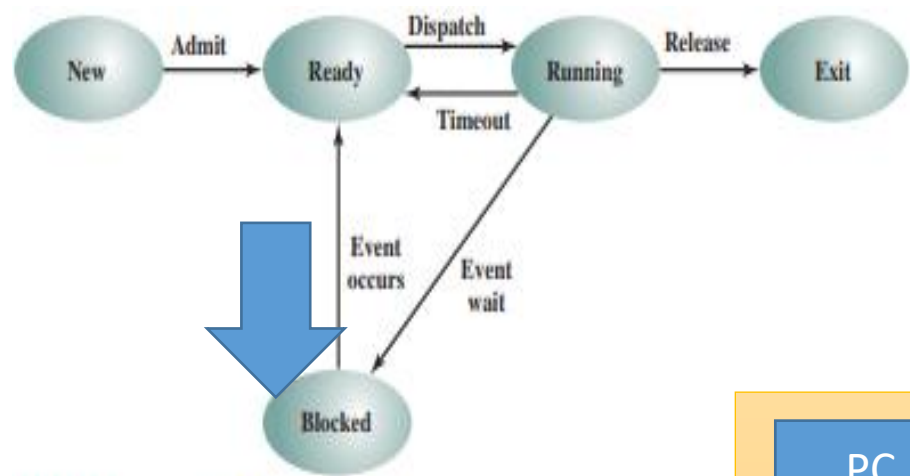
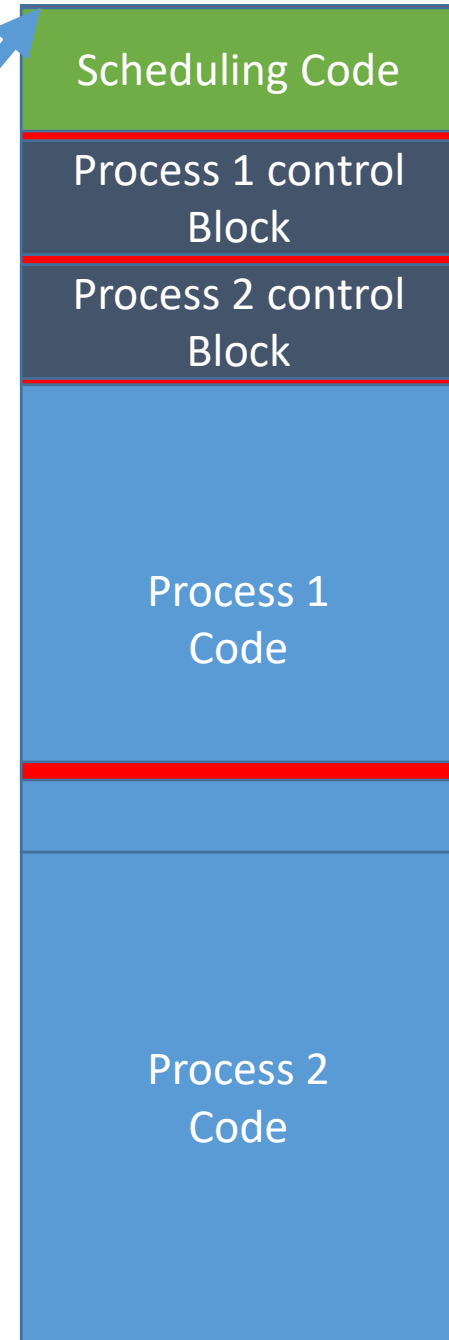
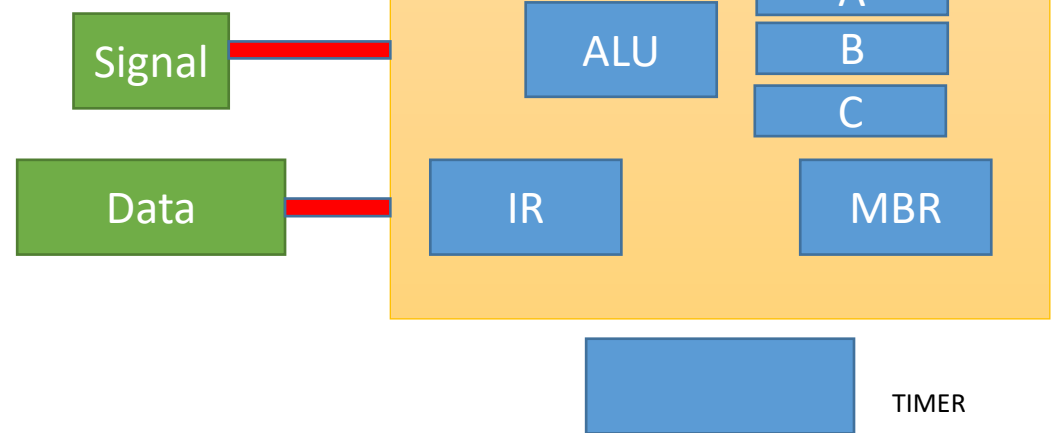


Figure 8.7 Five-State Process Model



The scheduler will
Schedule process 1
Again only if it
Gets the **input**
And the **signal**

Different States of a Process

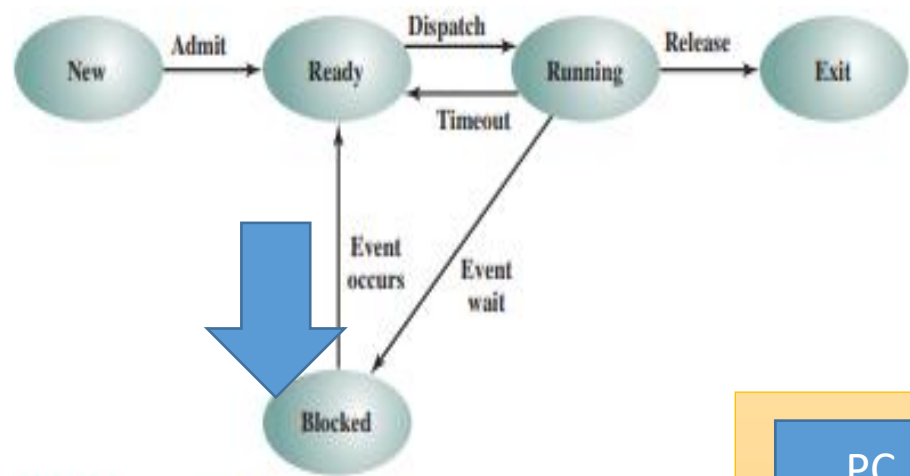
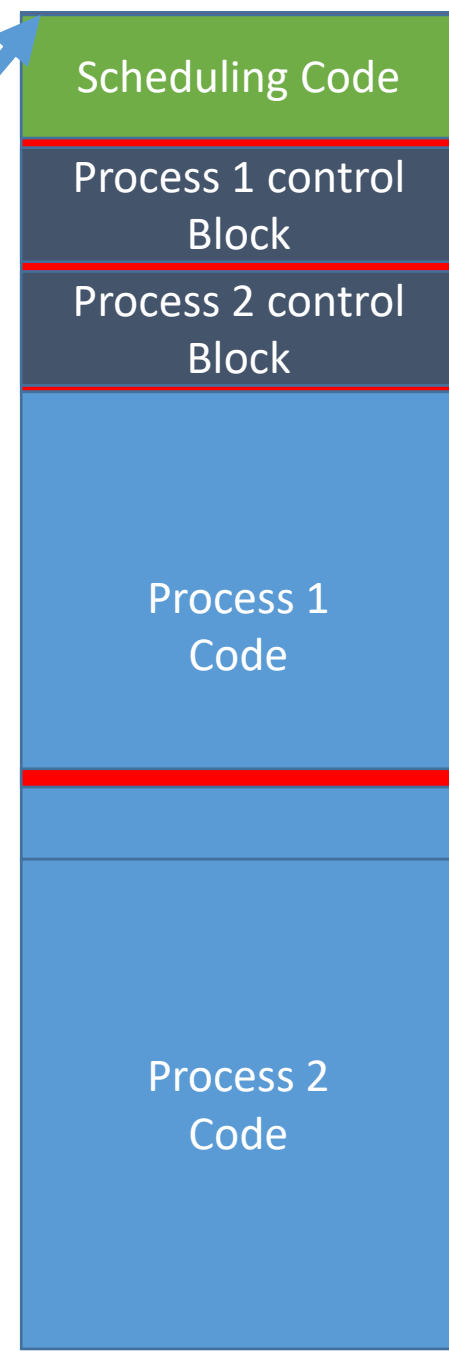
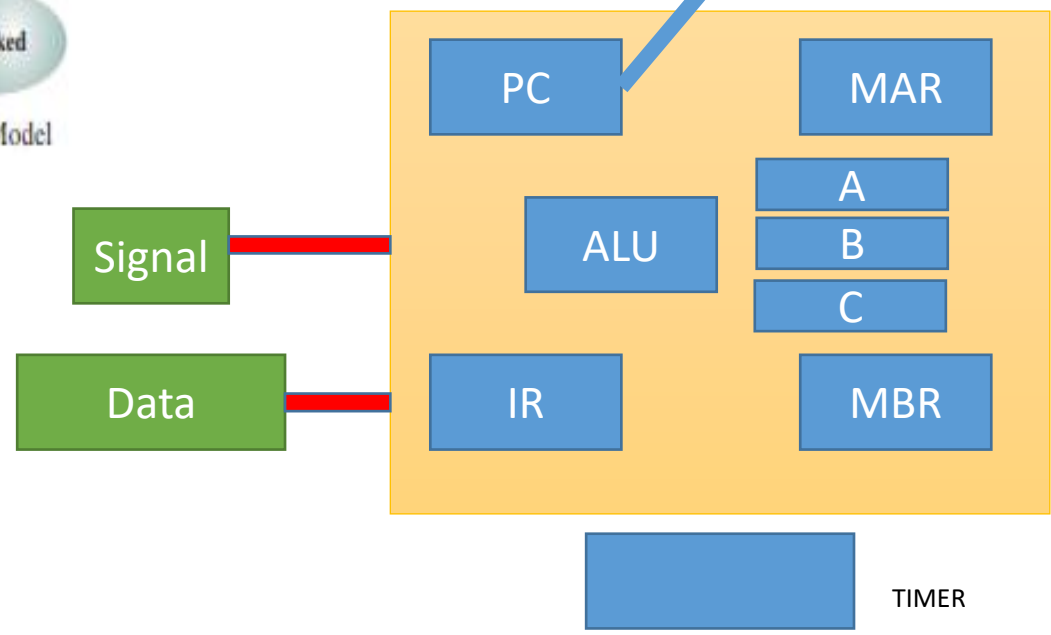


Figure 8.7 Five-State Process Model



The scheduler will
Schedule process 1
Again only if it
Gets the input
And the signal

Every time
before
Scheduling a
process,
It will **check
whether,**
The **blocked
process**
Events occurred
ot not

Different States of a Process

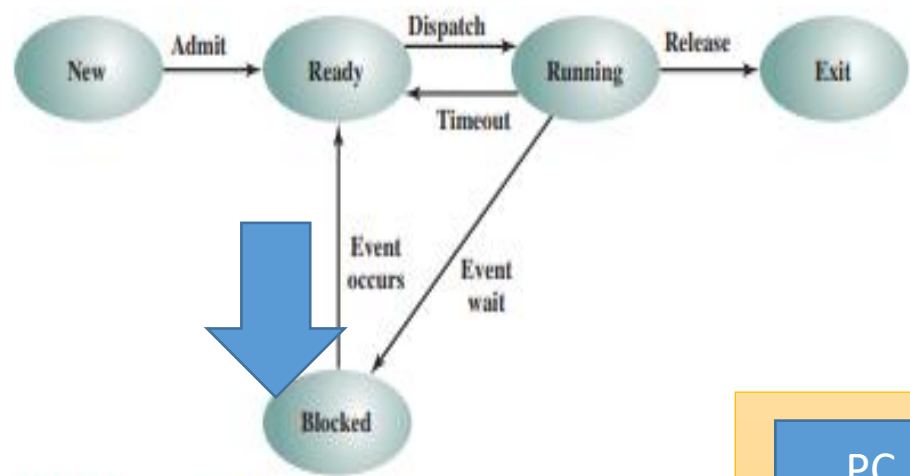
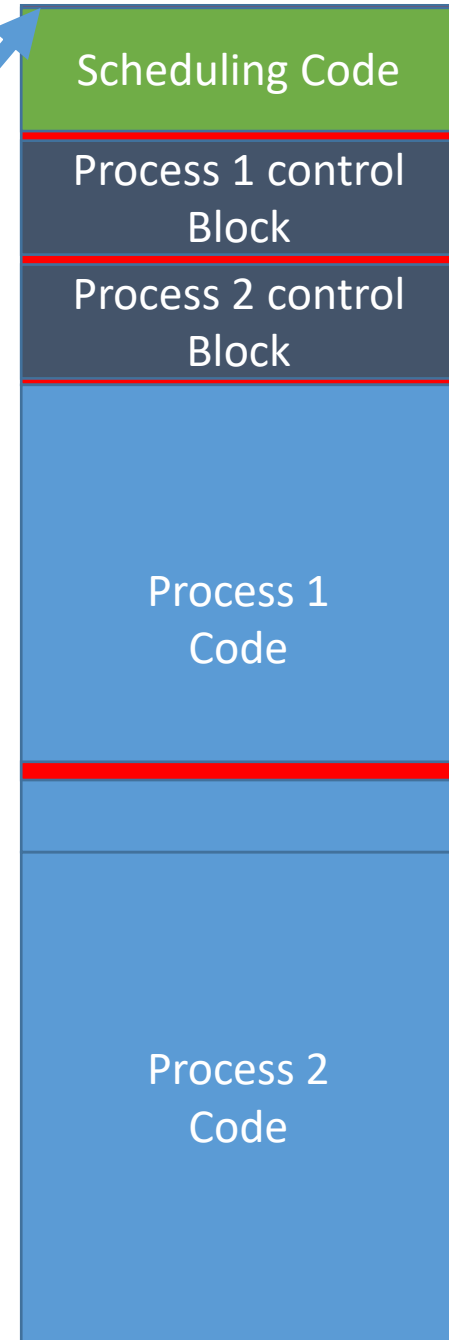
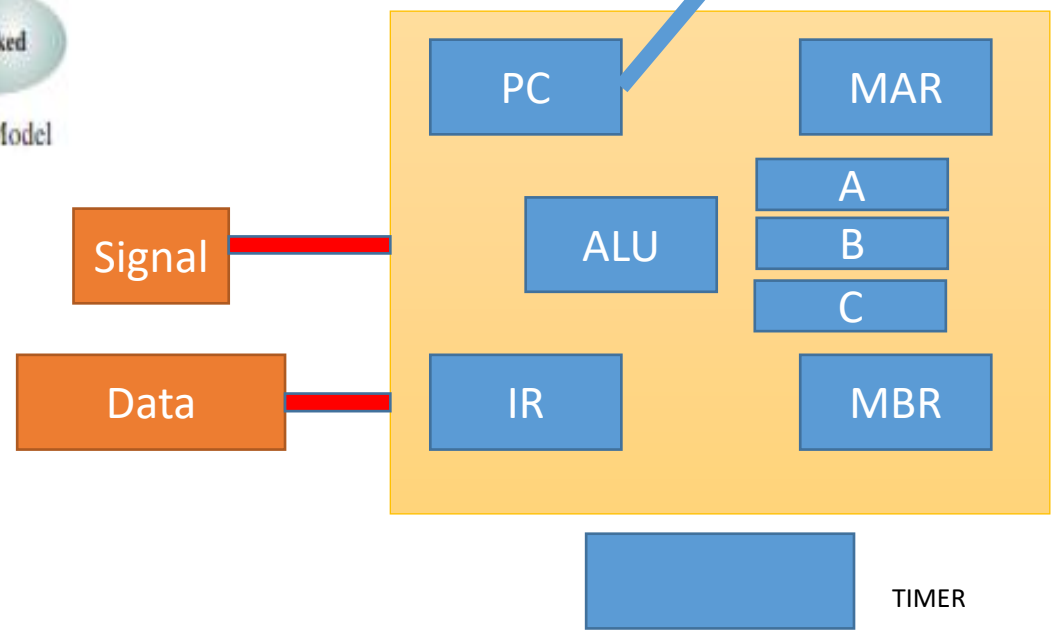


Figure 8.7 Five-State Process Model

If the **particular Event occurs**



The scheduler will Schedule process 1 Again only if it Gets the input And the signal

Every time before Scheduling a process, It will check whether, The blocked process Events occurred ot not

Different States of a Process

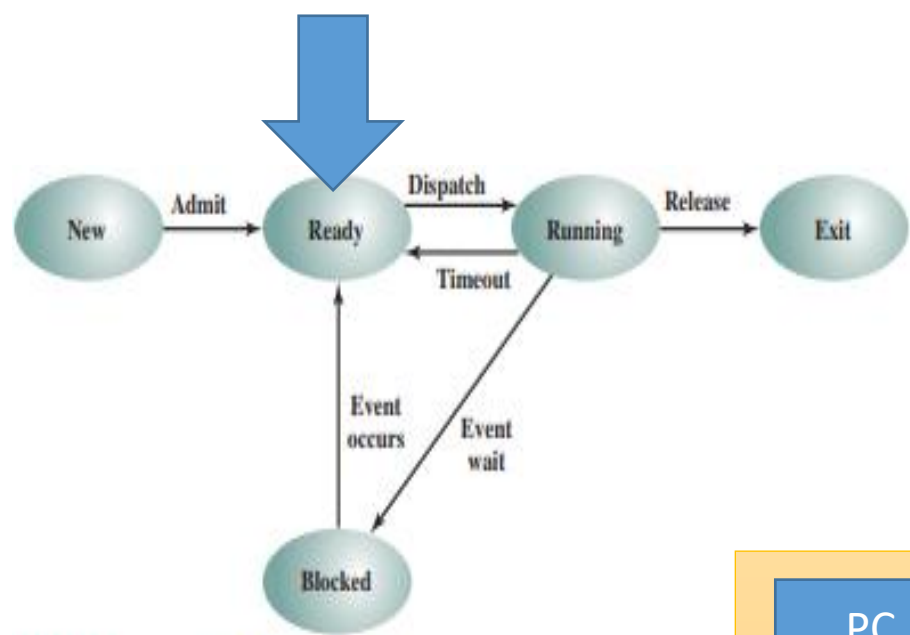
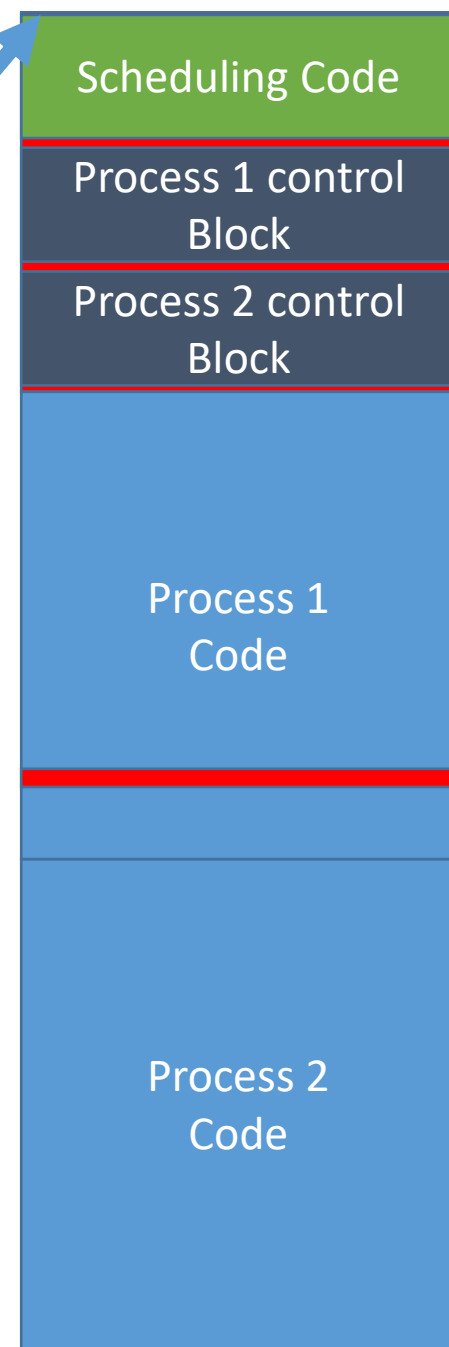
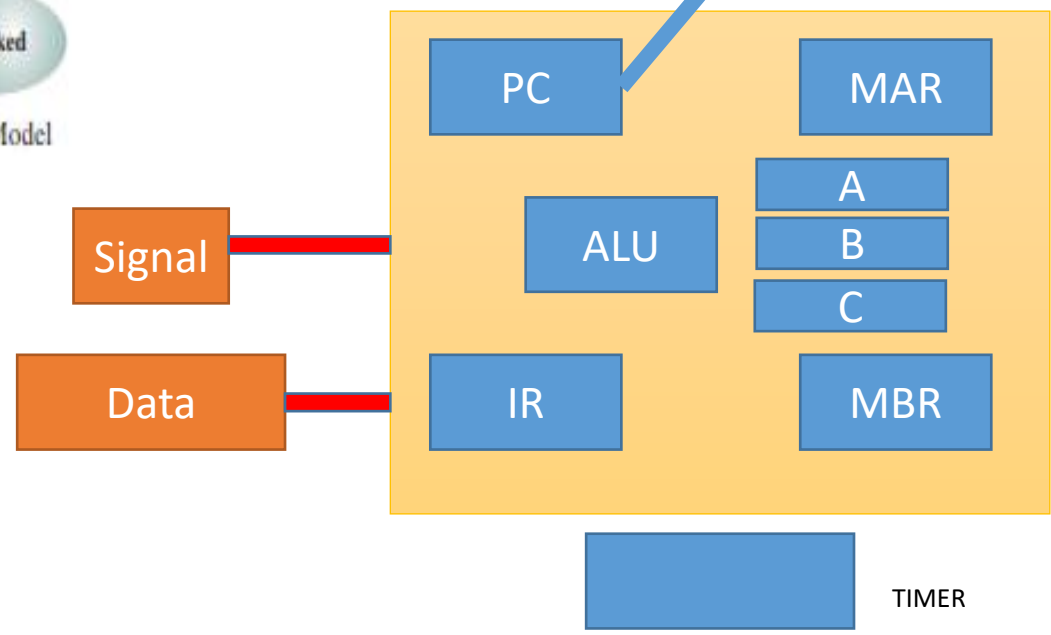


Figure 8.7 Five-State Process Model

If the particular Event occurs

It will be **marked As ready again**



The scheduler will Schedule process 1 Again only if it Gets the input And the signal

Every time before Scheduling a process, It will check whether, The blocked process Events occurred ot not

Different States of a Process

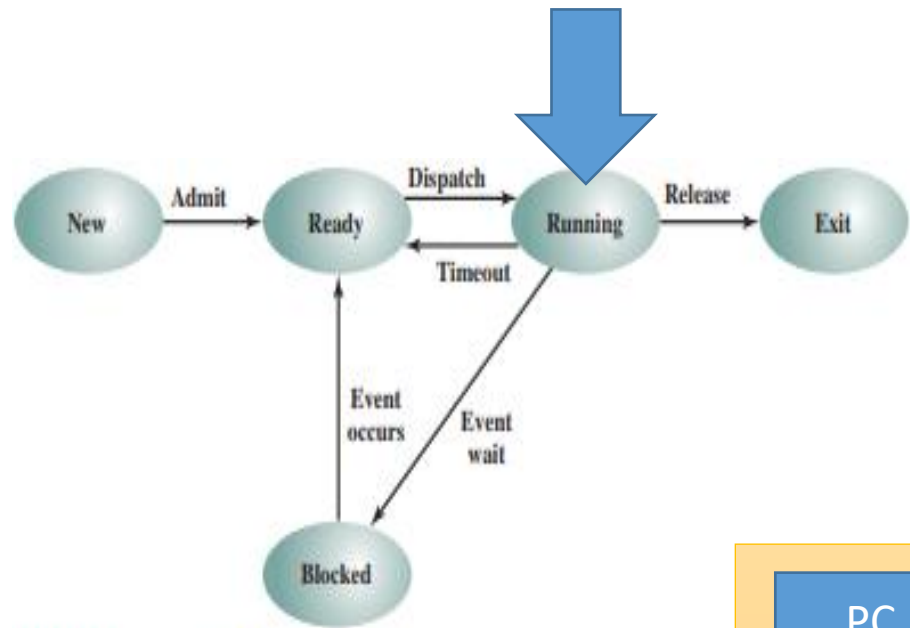
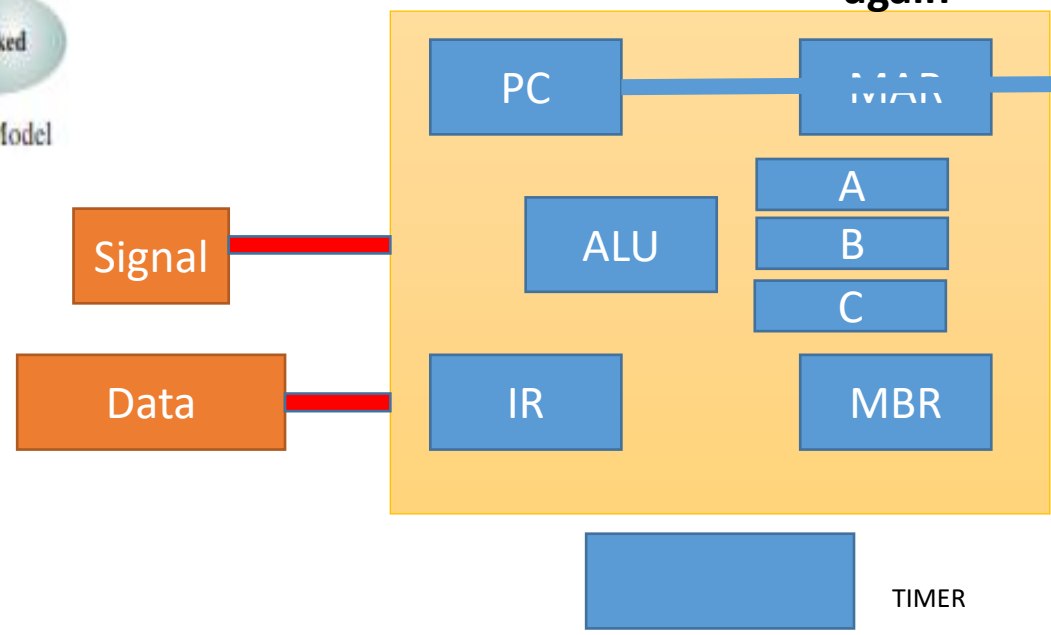
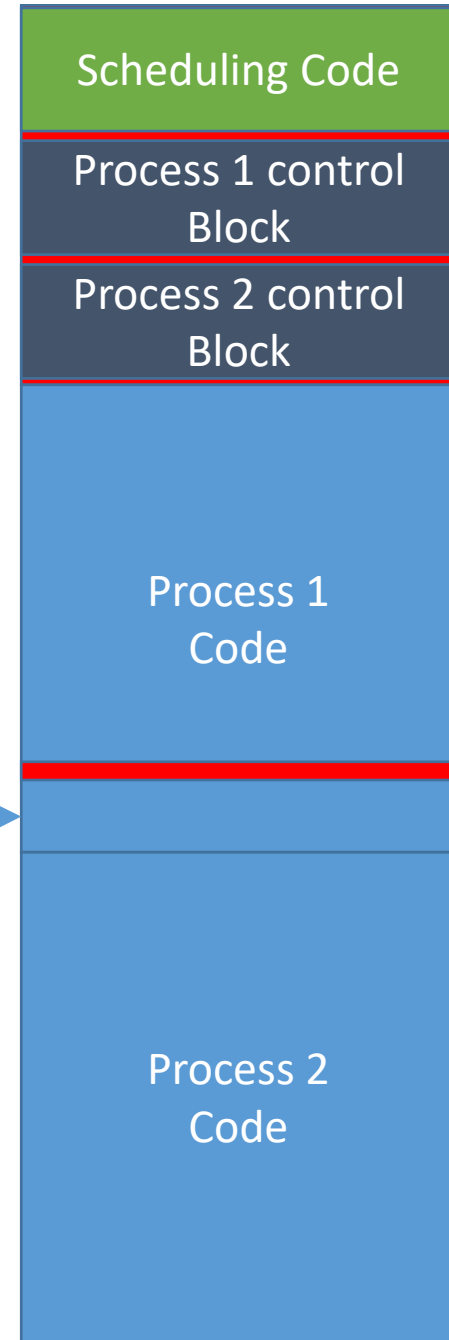


Figure 8.7 Five-State Process Model

If the particular Event occurs
It will be marked As ready again



And can be **Scheduled** to run again



The scheduler will Schedule process 1 Again only if it Gets the input And the signal

Every time before Scheduling a process, It will check whether, The blocked process Events occurred ot not

Different States of a Process

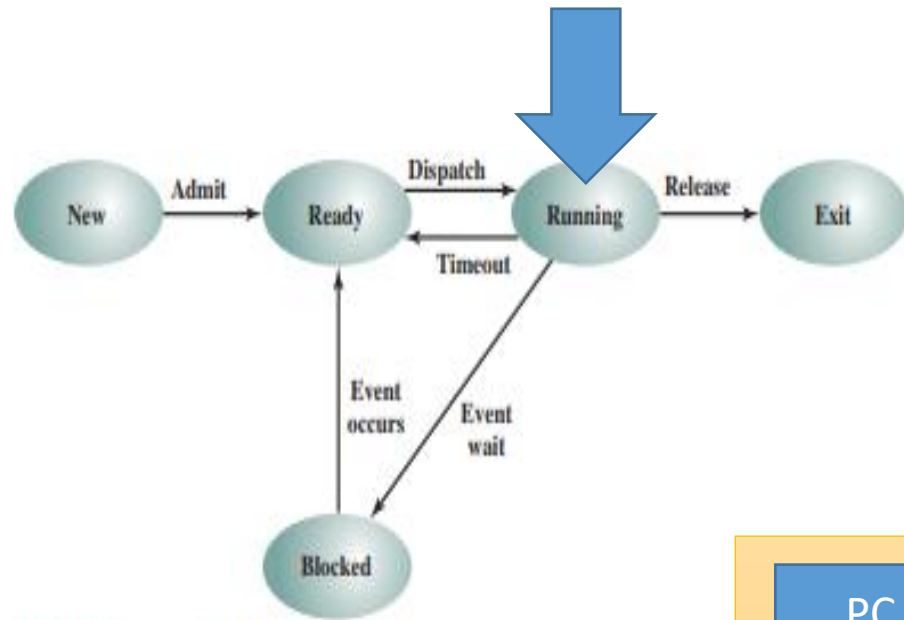
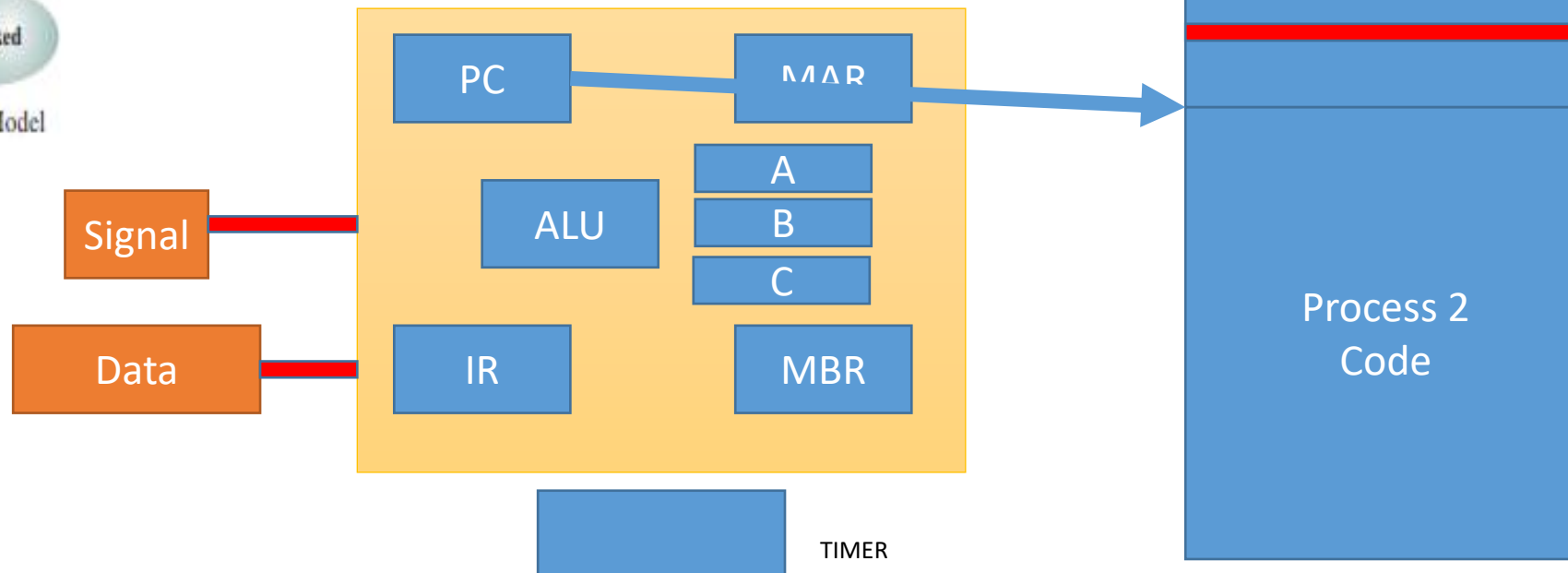


Figure 8.7 Five-State Process Model

Once its **final**
Line of code
Has been
executed



Different States of a Process

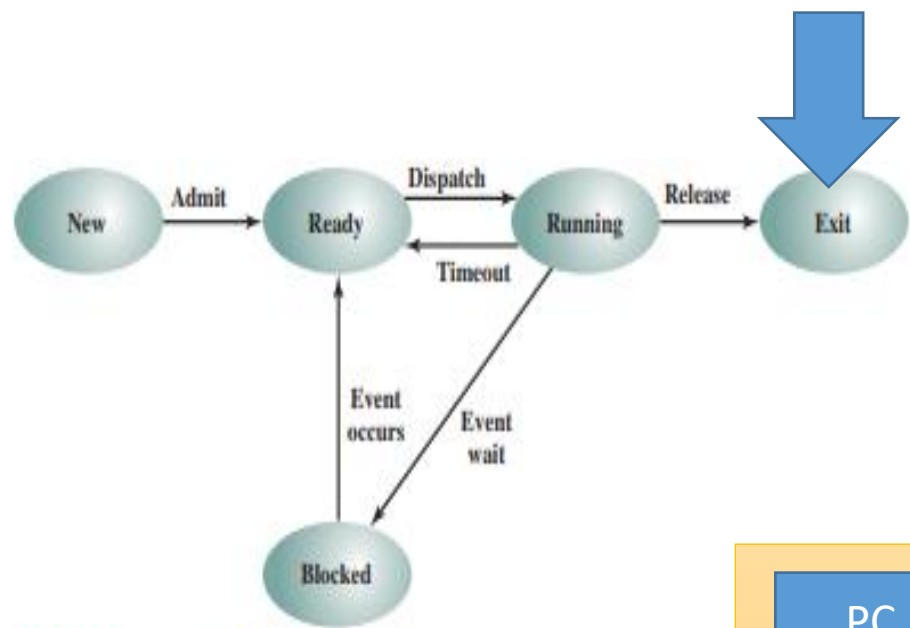
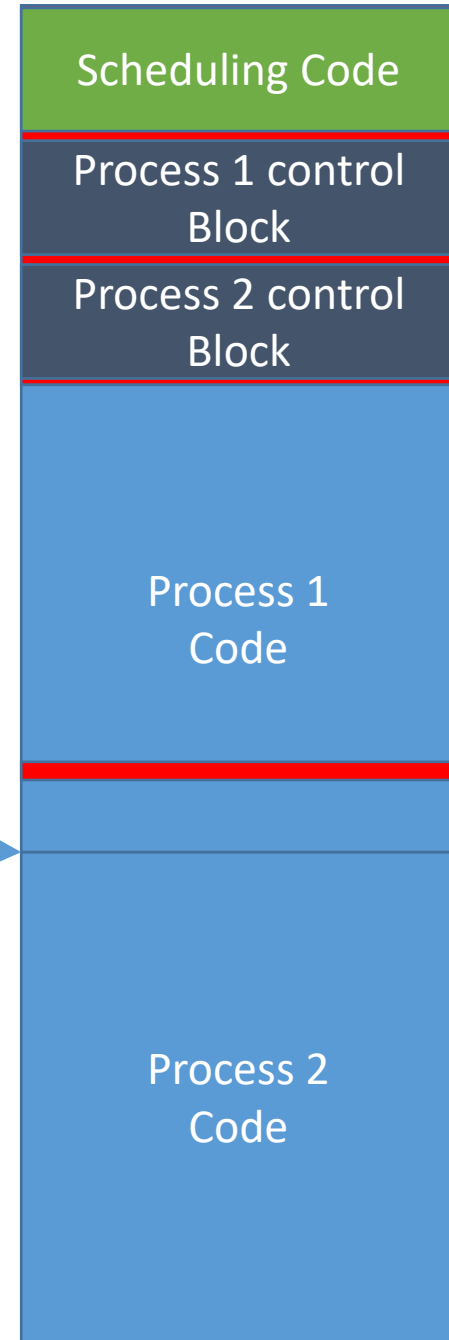
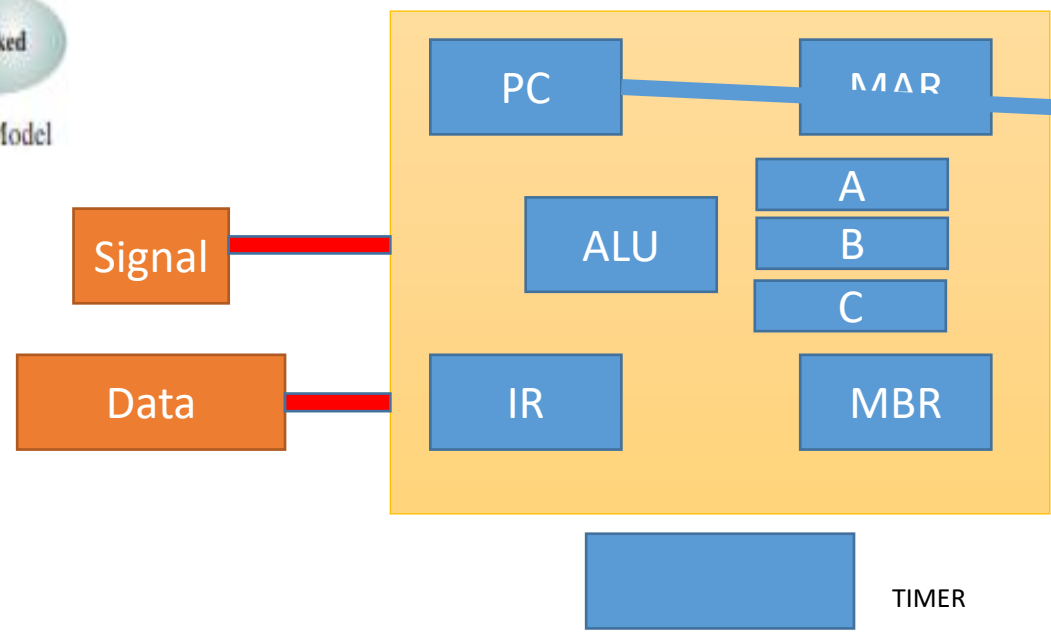


Figure 8.7 Five-State Process Model

Once its final Line of code Has been executed



The memory having the code and PCB can be declared as **free memory**, and can Be **overwritten** by **other processes**.

Different States of a Process

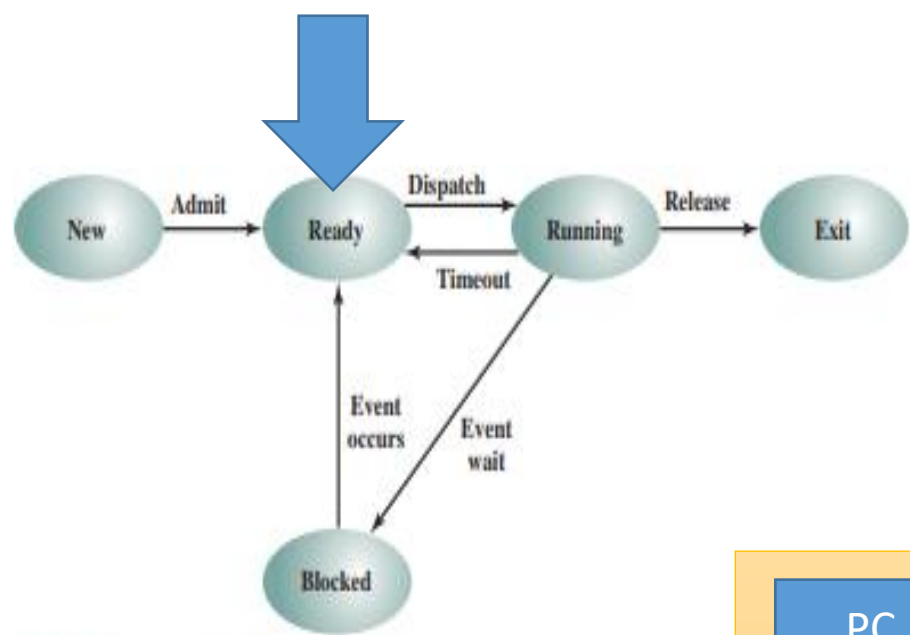
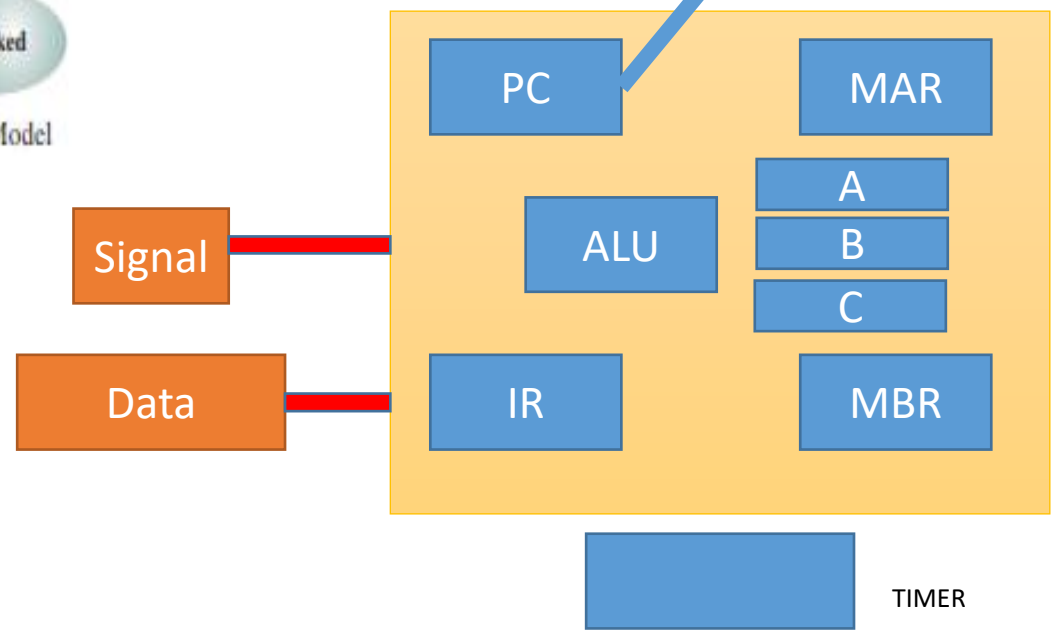
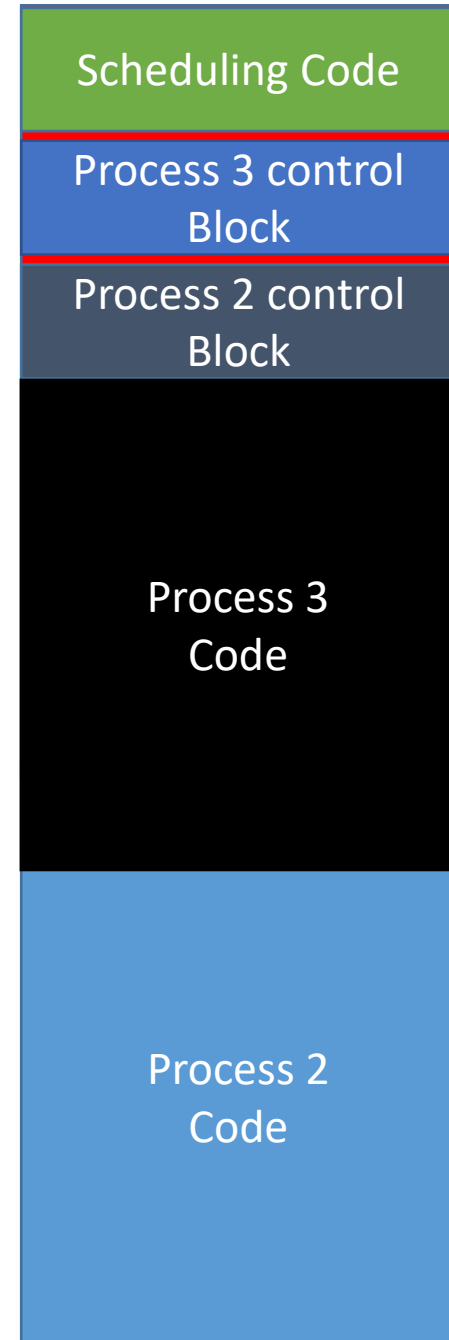


Figure 8.7 Five-State Process Model



Once its final Line of code Has been executed



The memory having the code and PCB can be declared as free memory, and can Be overwritten by other processes.

This state of the process is known as **Exit state**.

Different Types of Scheduling

Long Term Scheduling

- Basically determining which instructions will be brought from the New state to the Ready state.
- i.e. from the Storage (Hard Disc) to the Memory

Short Term Scheduling

- Determines which process will be getting the processor
- i.e. which process will go from ready state to running state

3.1 Memory Management and its necessities

Memory Management

- If multiple programs were not being run simultaneously.
- And there was a lot of memory space.
- We could reserve just one part of the memory for OS and the other part for the processes.
- But multiple processes, finite memory -> efficient memory management required.
- A situation may occur where all the processes are blocked

Memory Management

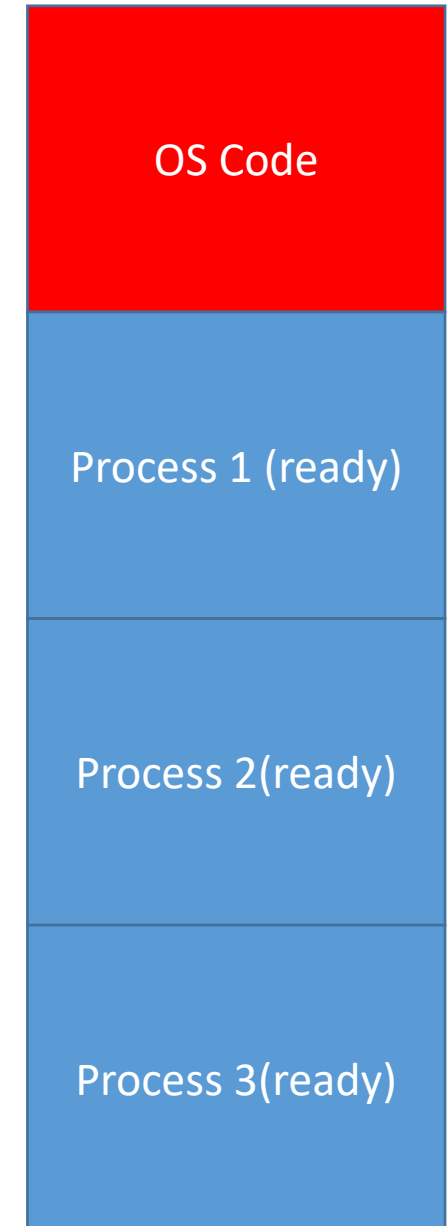
- If **multiple** programs were **not** being run simultaneously.
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Memory Management

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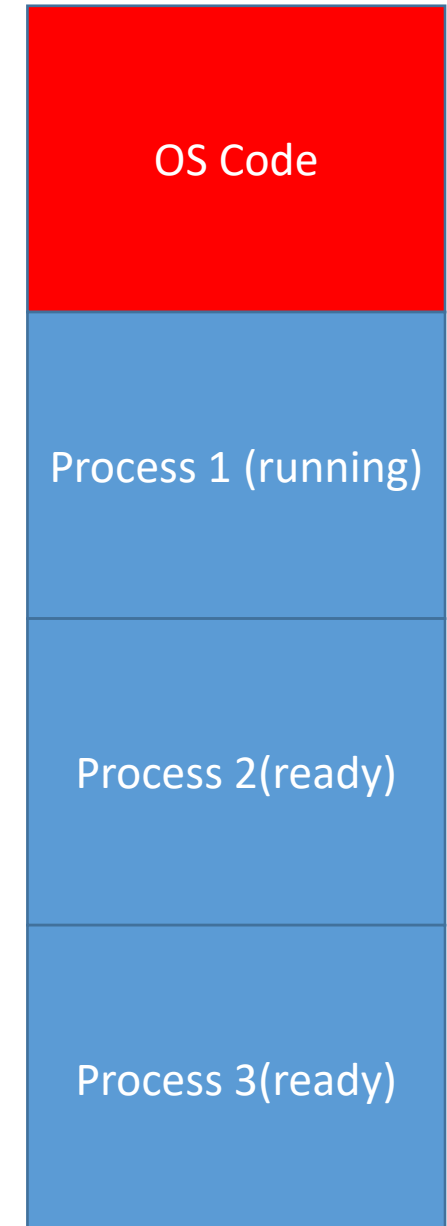
Memory Management

- If multiple programs were not being run simultaneously.
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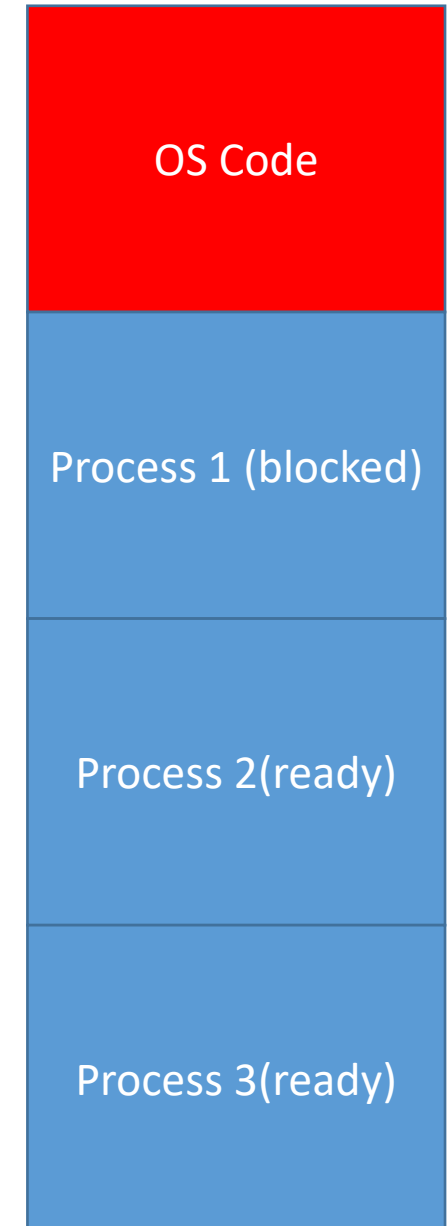
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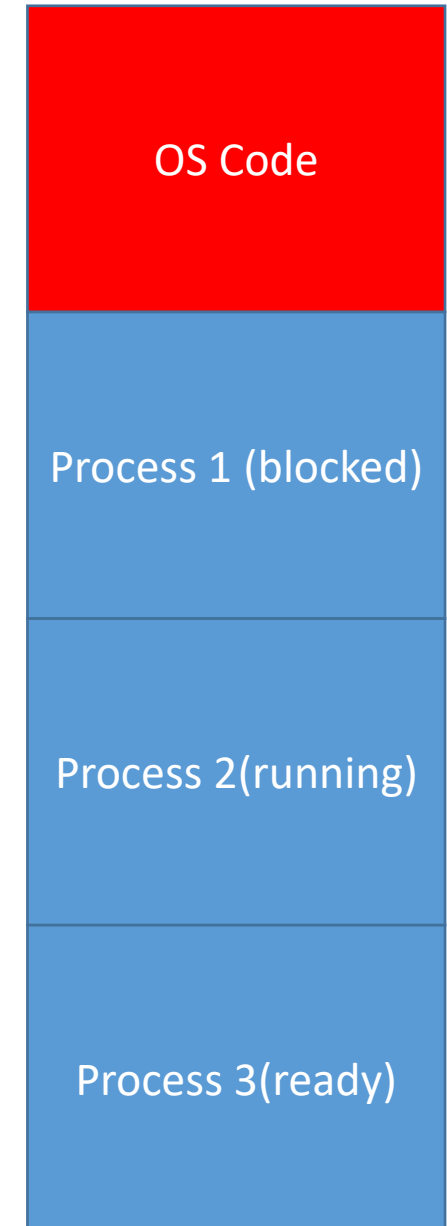
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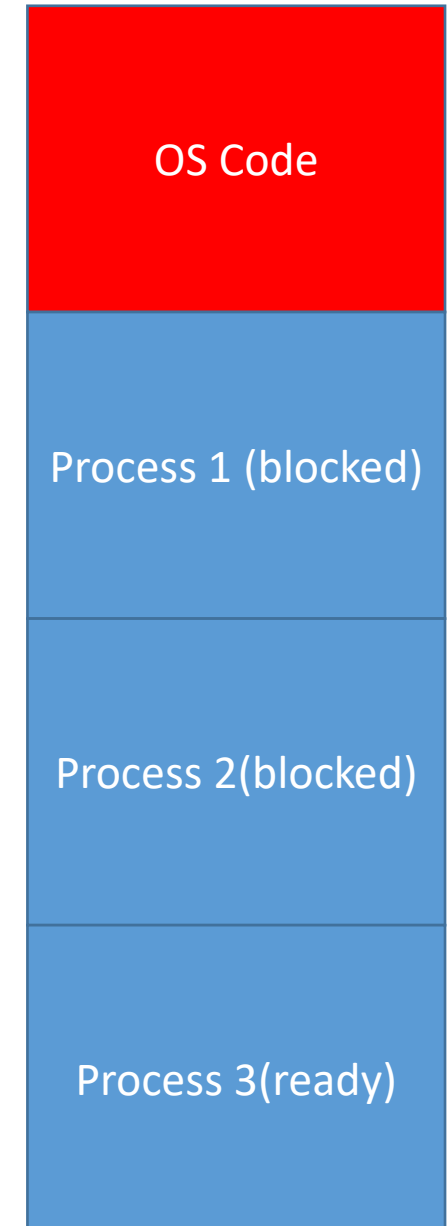
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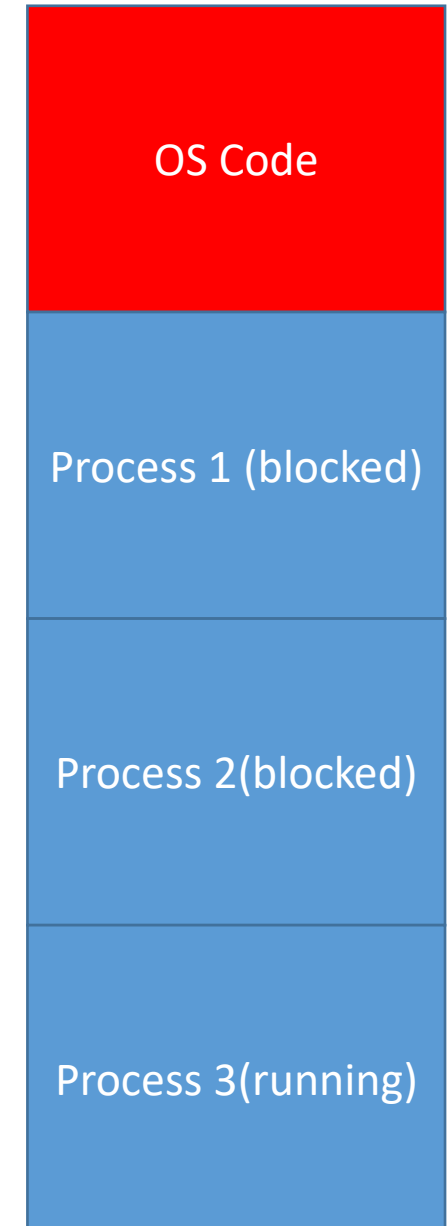
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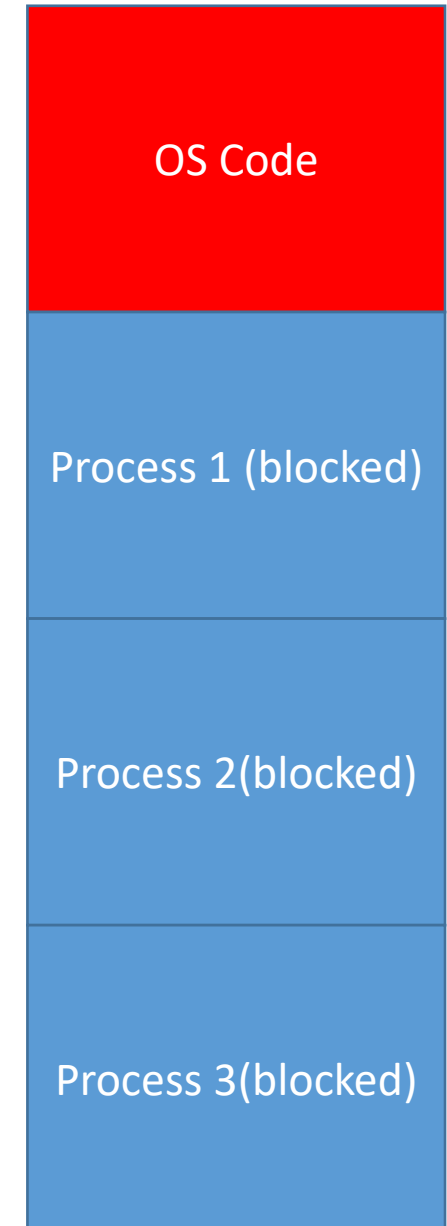
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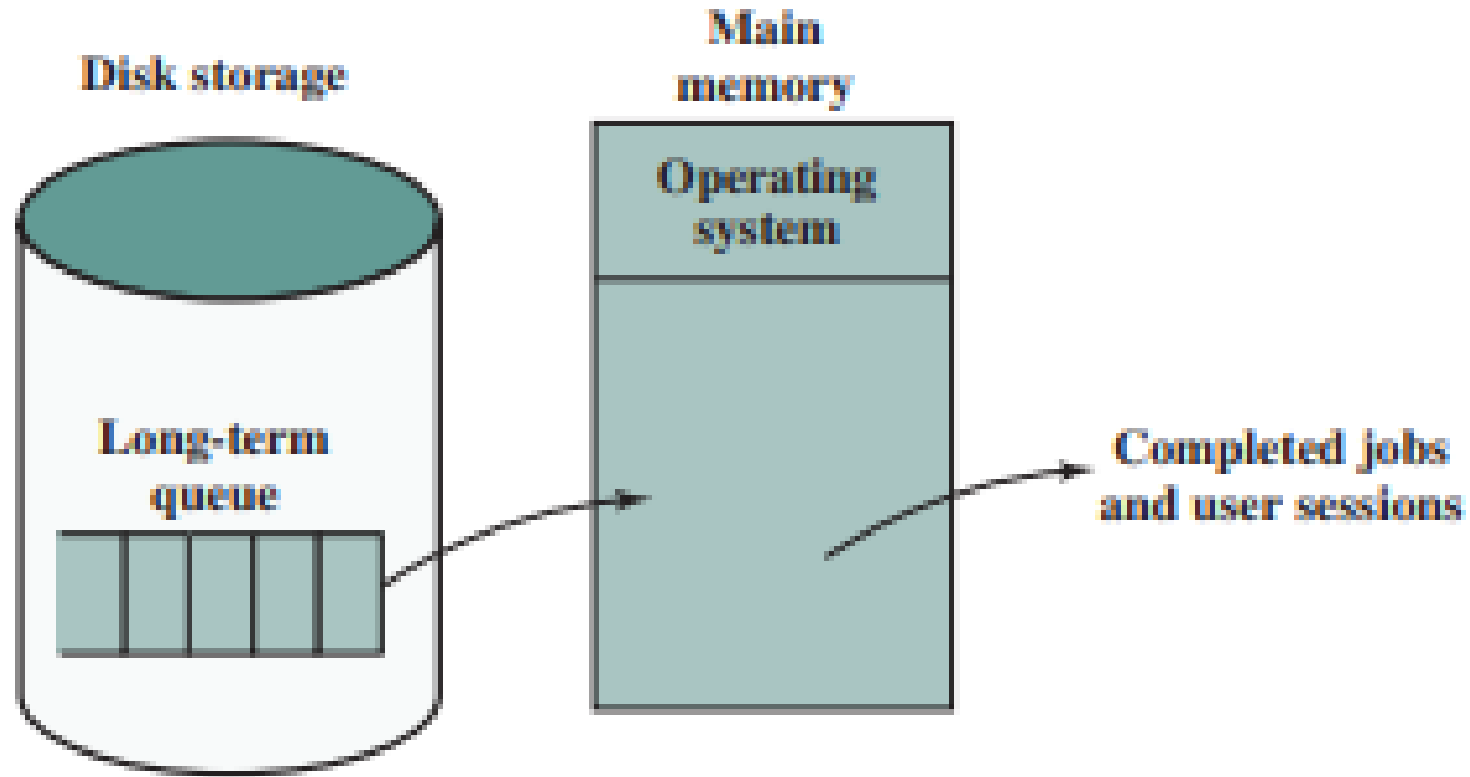
Memory Management

- If multiple programs were not being run simultaneously.
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3.2 Swapping

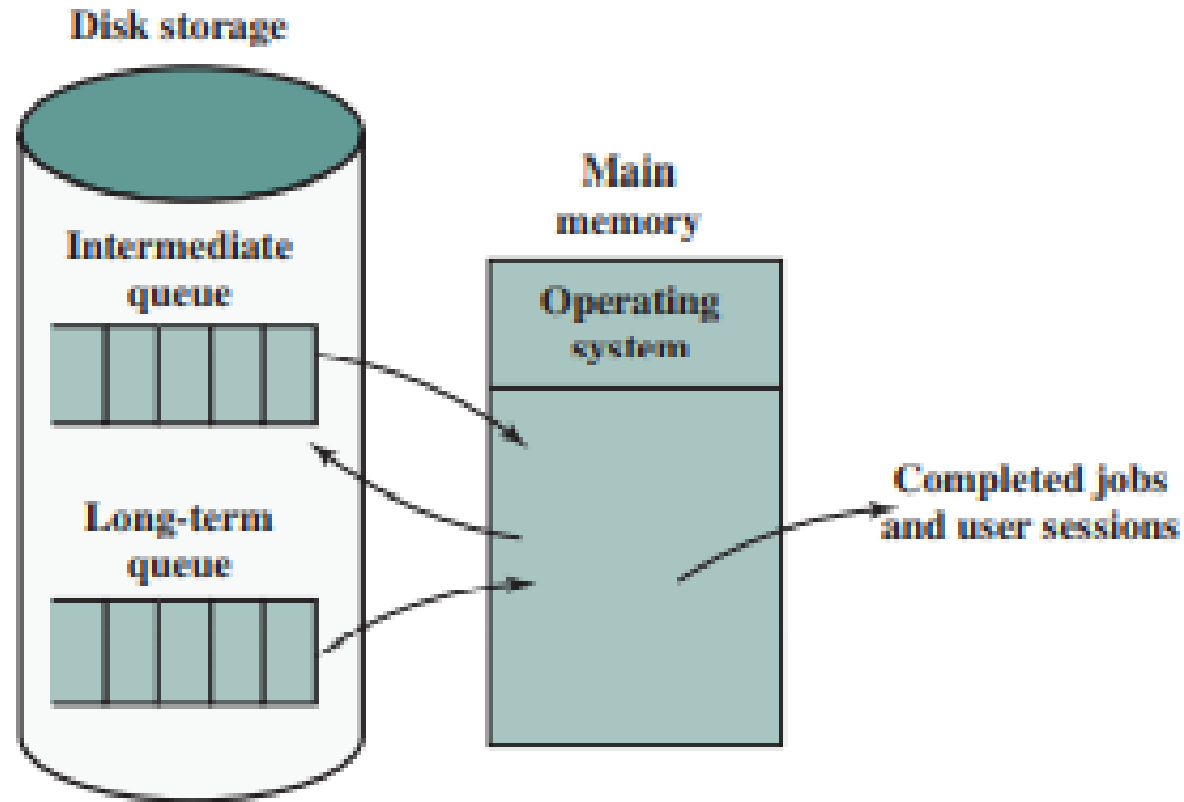
Solution: Swapping



(a) Simple job scheduling

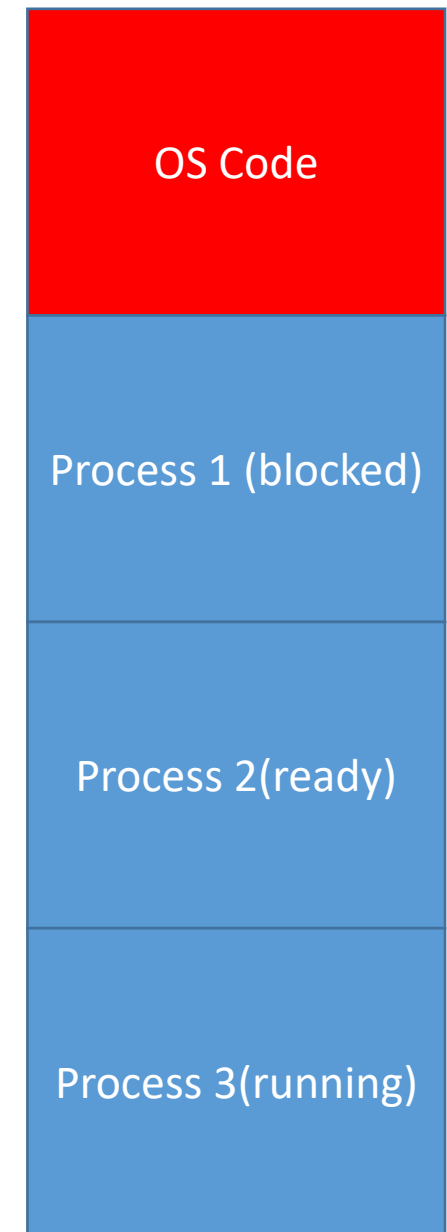
WE ARE AQUAINTED
WITH THIS
SCENARIO

Solution: Swapping (Cont.)

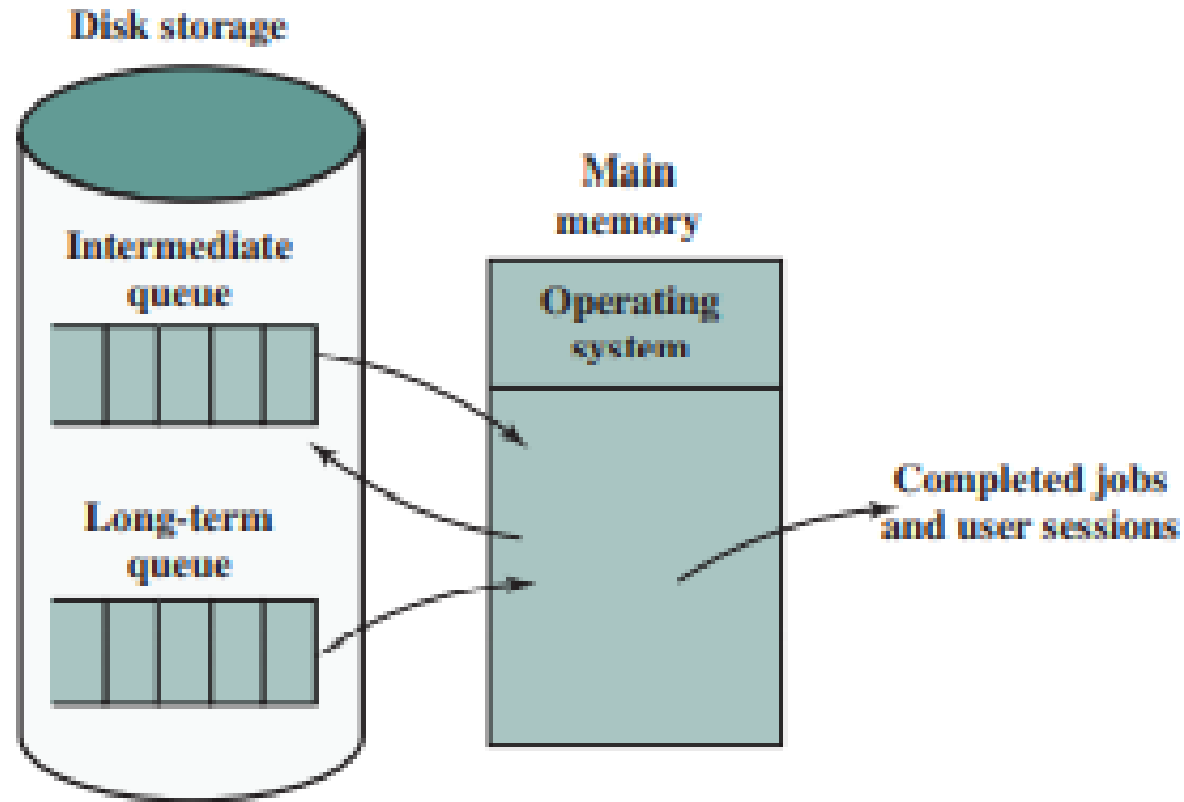


(b) Swapping

Figure 8.12 The Use of Swapping



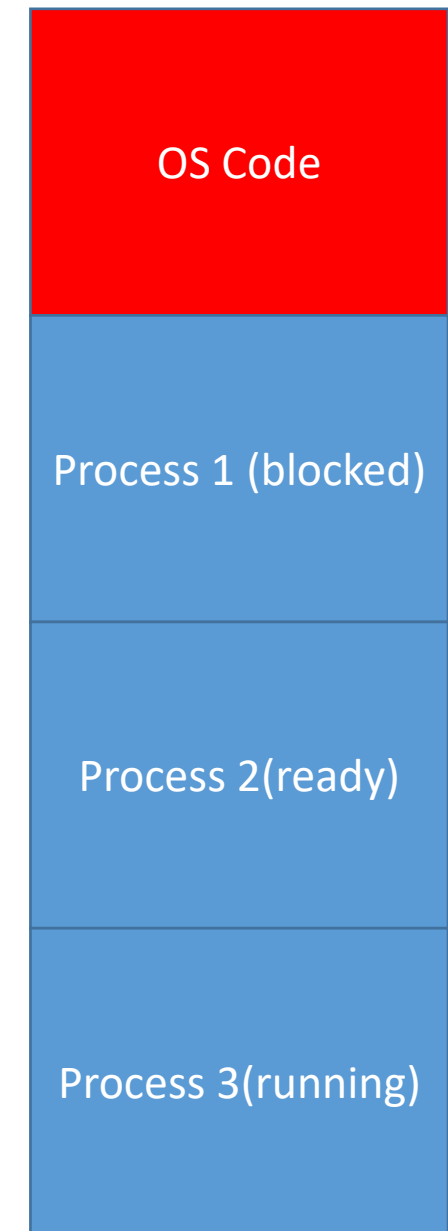
Solution: Swapping (Cont.)



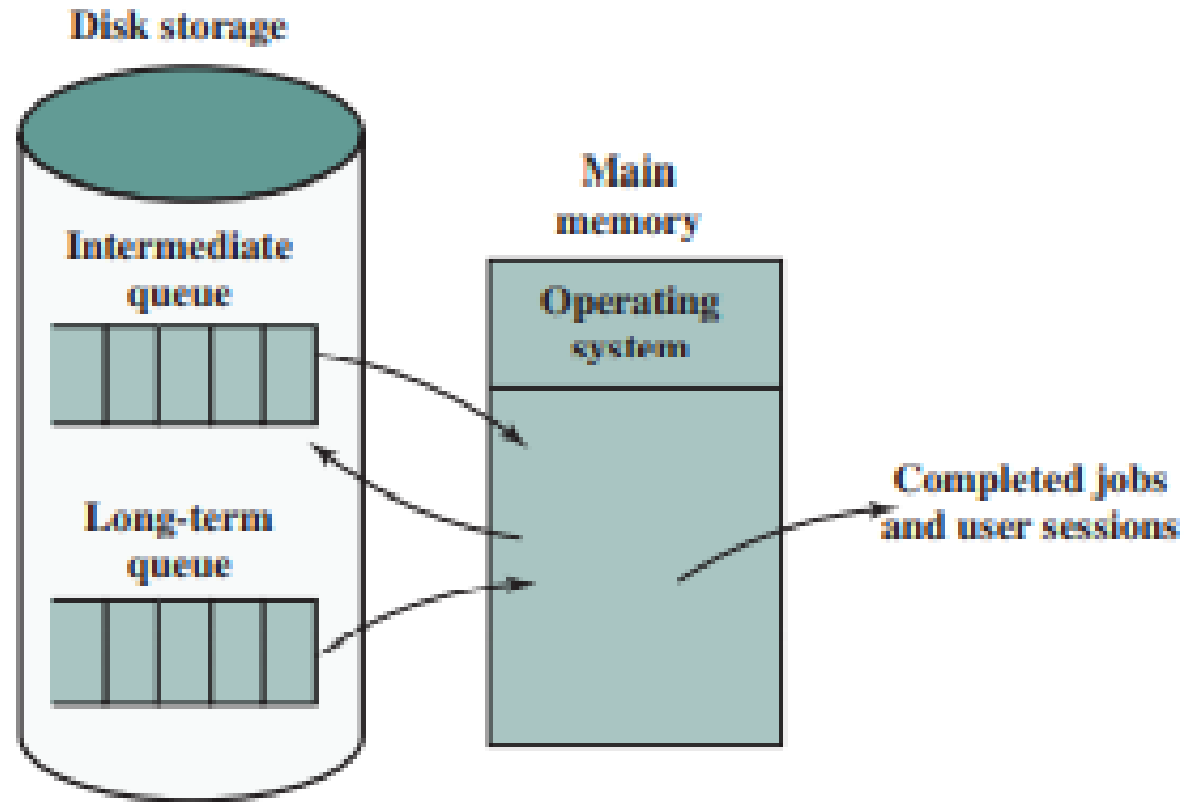
(b) Swapping

Figure 8.12 The Use of Swapping

This process is **Occupying space.**
And will be **idle** for
A **long time** compared
To the non-blocked
Processes.



Solution: Swapping (Cont.)



(b) Swapping

Figure 8.12 The Use of Swapping

This process is
Occupying space.
And will be idle for
A long time compared
To the non-blocked
Processes.

We can insert
Another process
In place of this one
Using the addresses in
The **long term queue**

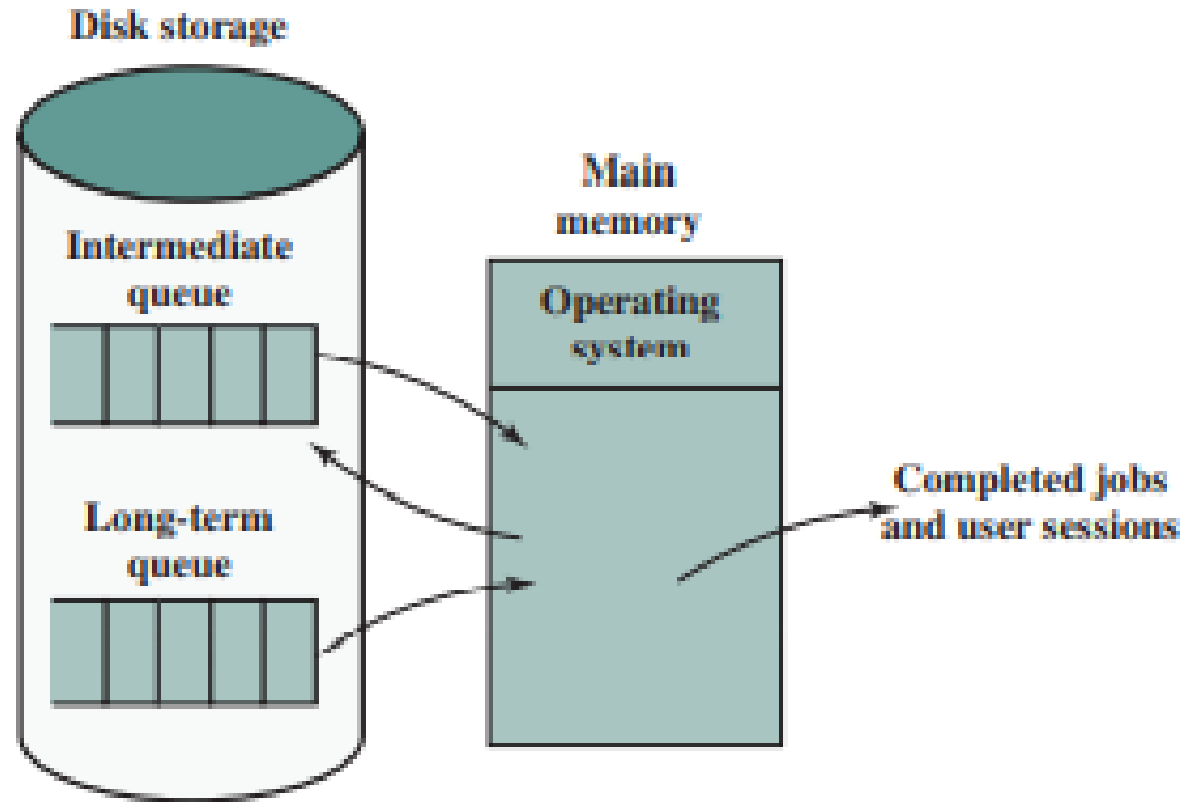
OS Code

Process 1 (blocked)

Process 2 (ready)

Process 3 (running)

Solution: Swapping (Cont.)

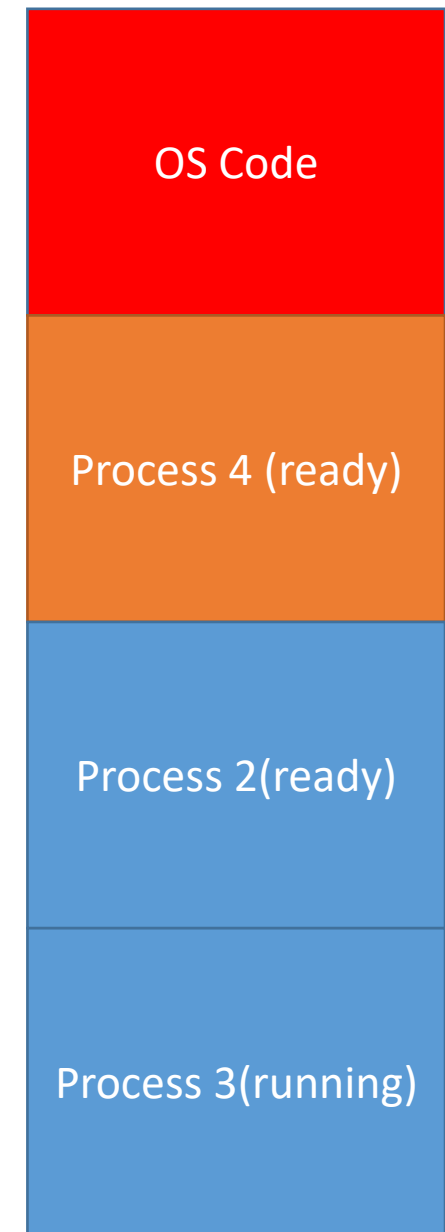


(b) Swapping

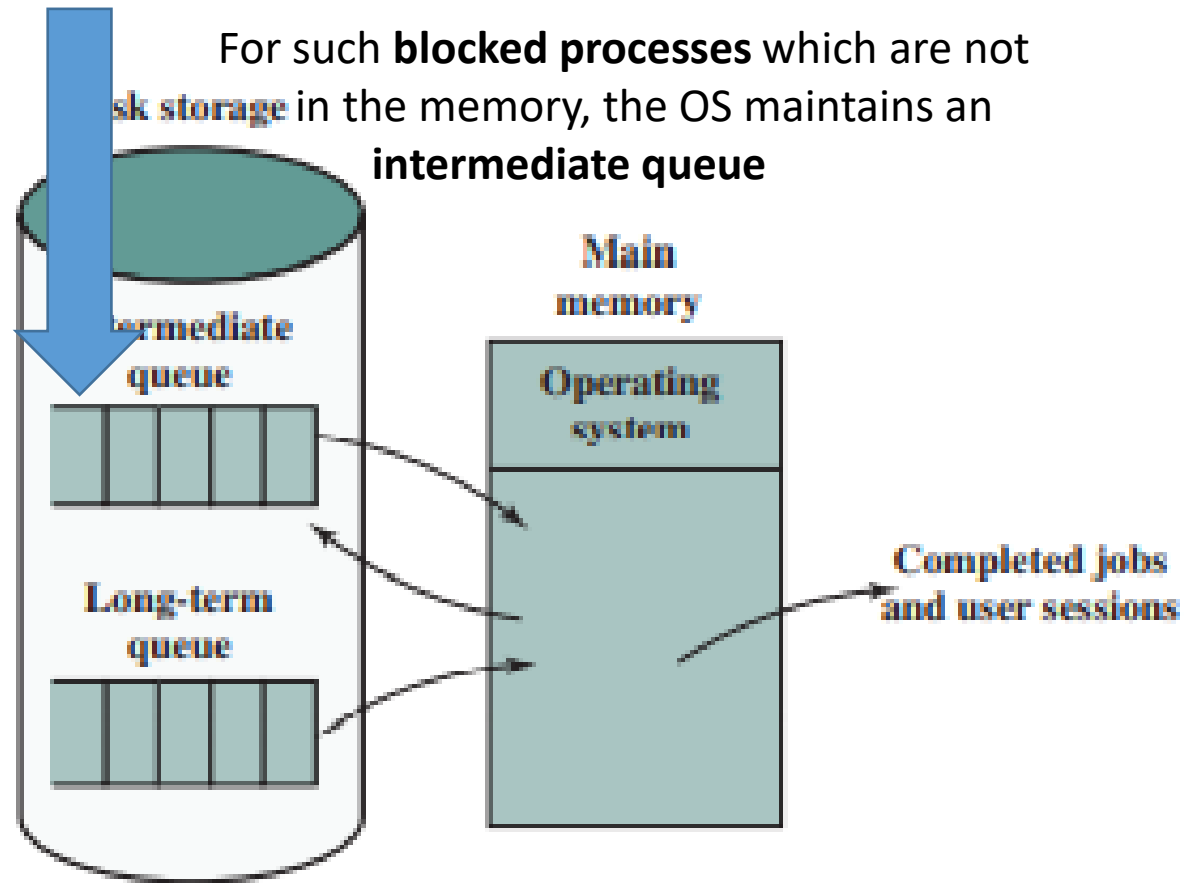
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Solution: Swapping (Cont.)

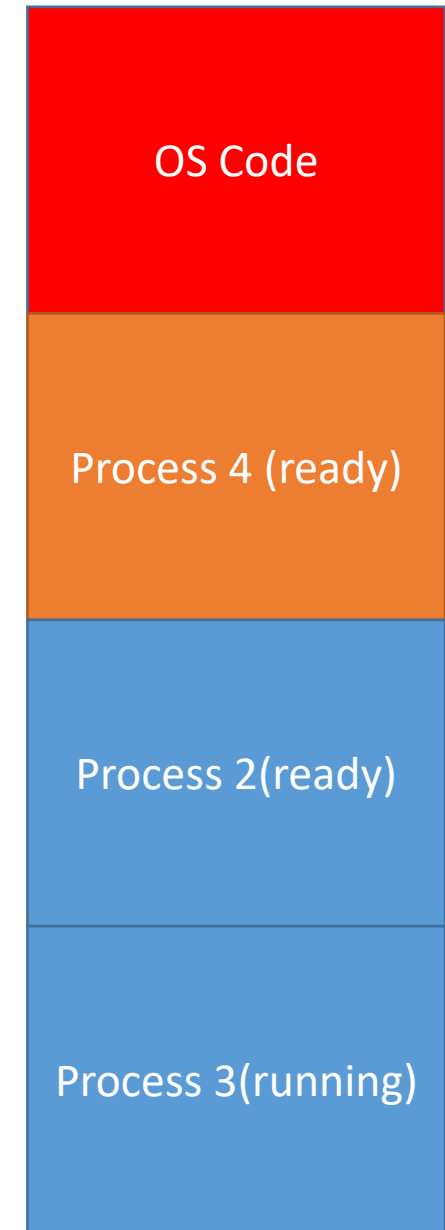


(b) Swapping

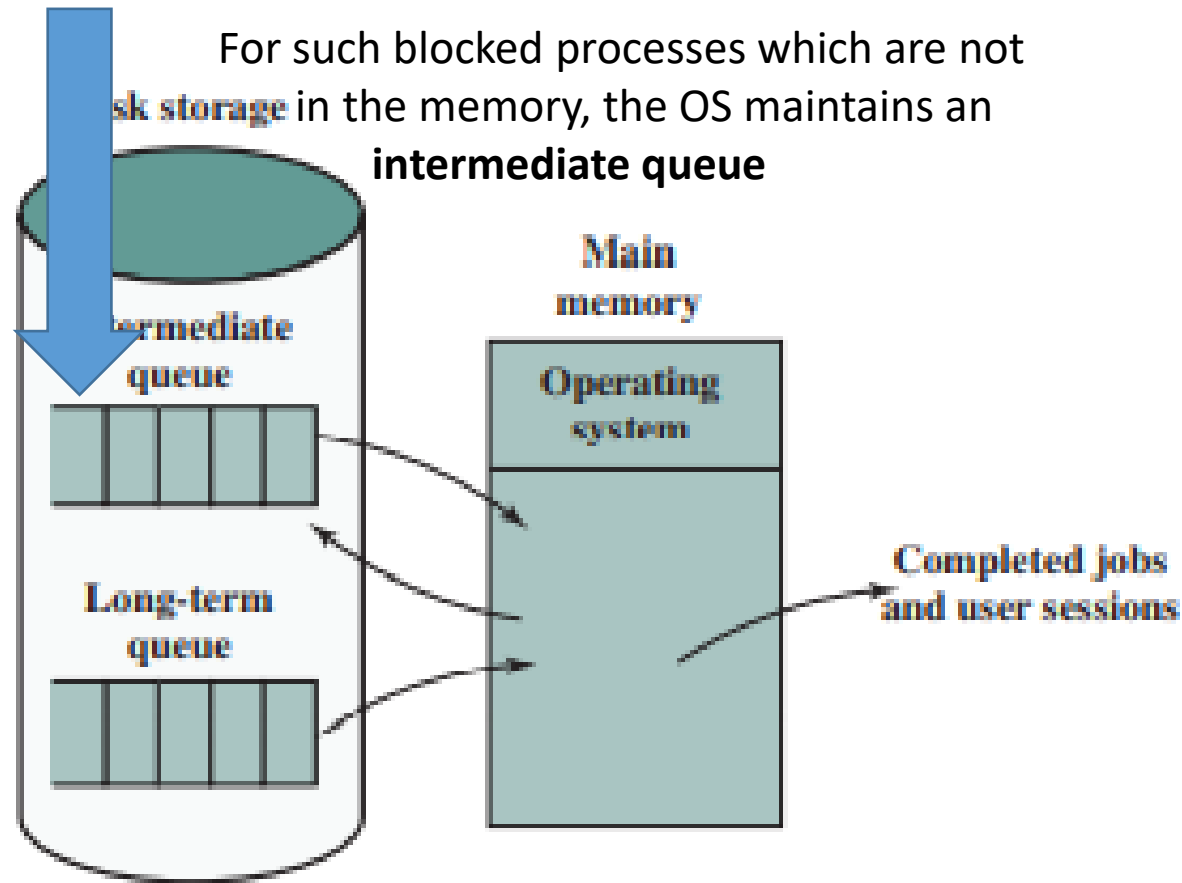
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We can insert
Another process
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The long term queue



Solution: Swapping (Cont.)



(b) Swapping

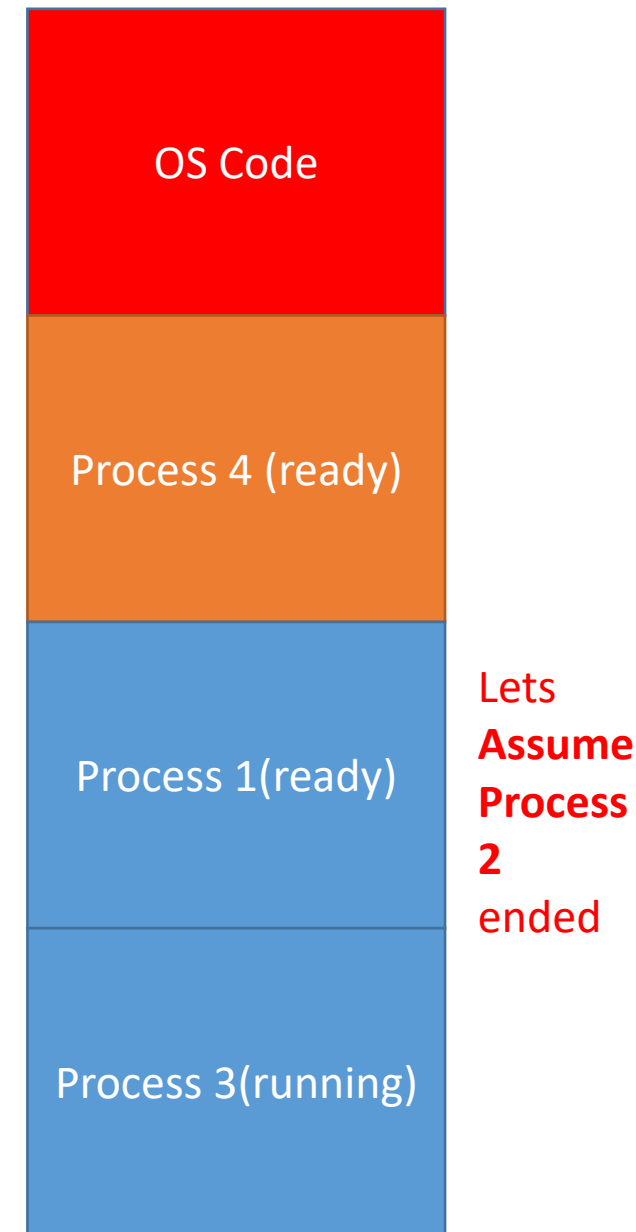
Figure 8.12 The Use of Swapping

This process is Occupying space. And will be idle for A long time compared To the non-blocked Processes.

We can insert Another process In place of this one Using the addresses in The long term queue

Later on, If the OS's scheduler finds the process to be **unblockable**, then it will simply load its code into the memory.

Remove its info from the **intmdt** queue and mark it as **ready**.



- Swapping is I/O operation so there is a chance of making things worse
- But disk I/O is comparatively faster than other I/O (printer or tape etc.)
- Usually improve performance

3.3 Partitioning

Partitioning

- We have understood swapping.
- Basically it is referring to swapping the blocked process codes in the RAM with the new process codes in the disc.
- (Though it is not an actual swap as no write operation is done in the DISC)
- However, every time the OS tries to bring in a **new process**, it will have to be **careful** about whether or not its code is becoming **overlapped** with another process's code.
- There is **no organized approach** for this so far.
- Hence we introduce the concept of Partitioning .

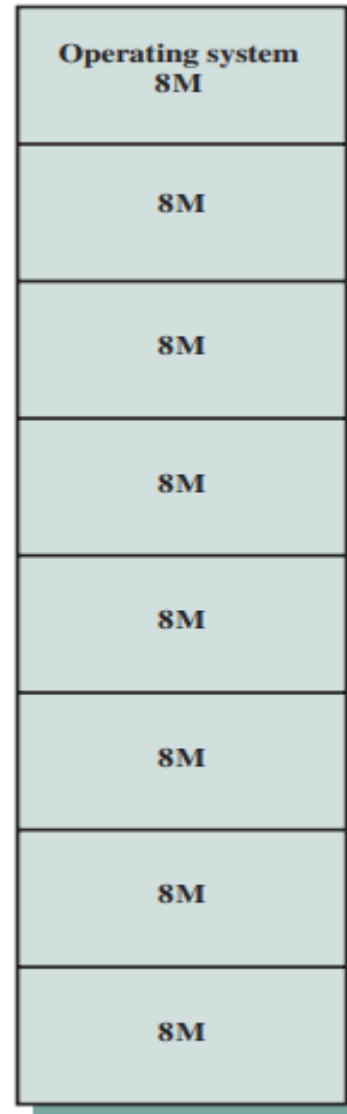
Partitioning

- Equal sized partitions
- Variable sized partitions

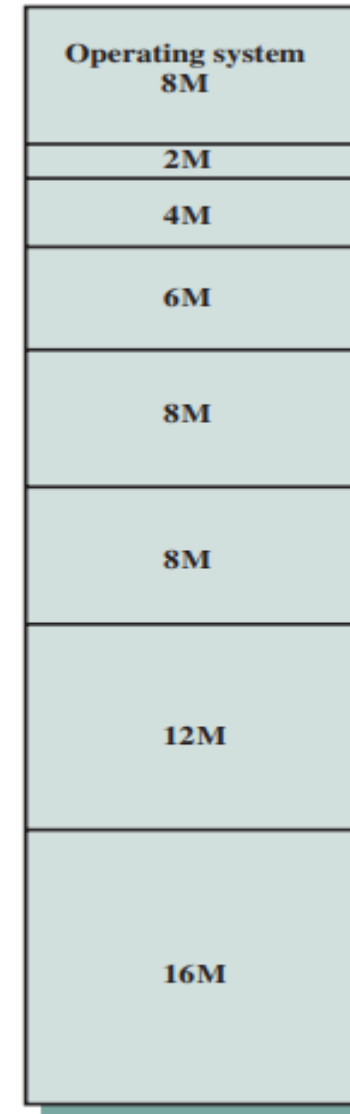
Now it is not **required to check**
Other processes,

The OS just needs to keep info about
Whether a **partition is filled up or not.**

Then while placing a new process, it
Just has to place the **codes** in the
Unoccupied partitions.



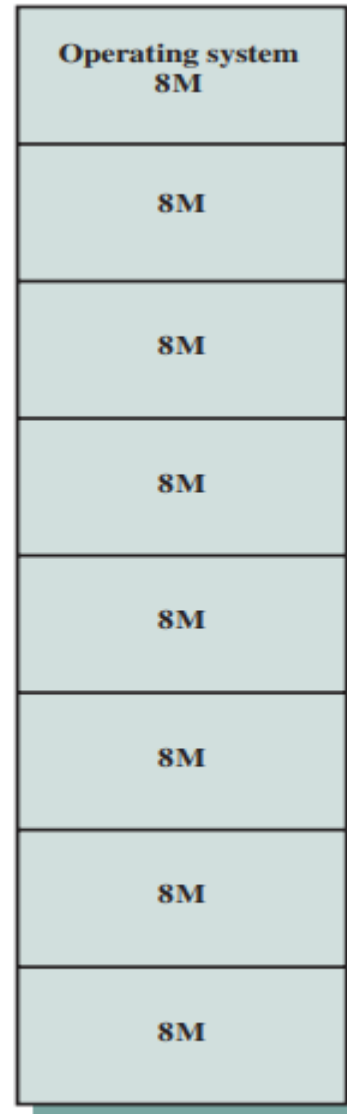
(a) Equal-size partitions



(b) Unequal-size partitions

Partitioning

- Equal sized partitions
- Variable sized partitions



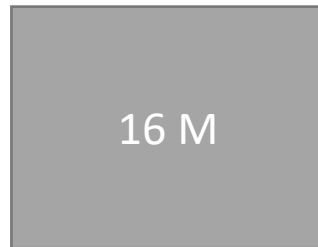
(a) Equal-size partitions



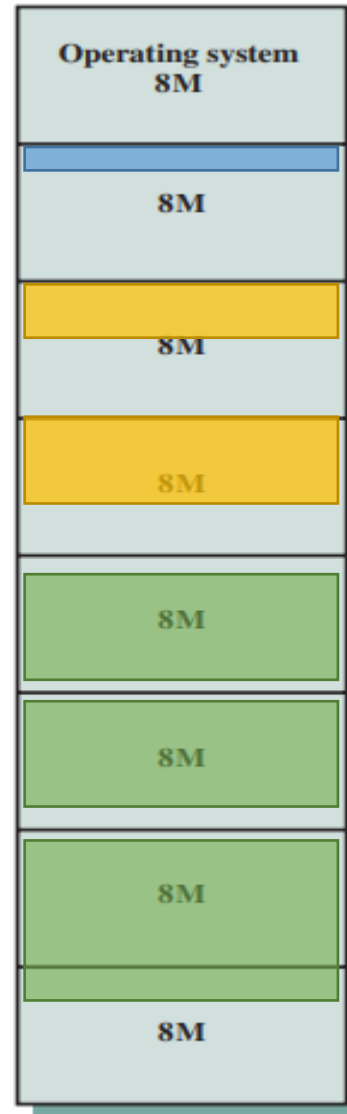
(b) Unequal-size partitions

Partitioning

- Equal sized partitions
- Variable sized partitions



Variable sized partitions are **better**



(a) Equal-size partitions

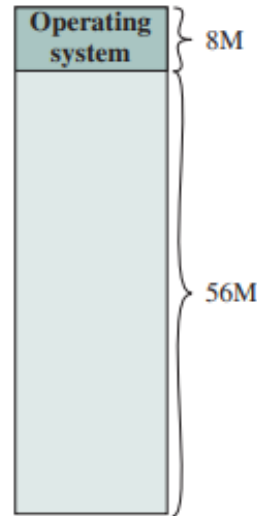


(b) Unequal-size partitions

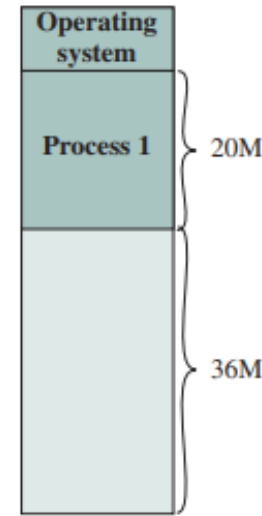
Partitioning

- Issues with **variable sized partitions**

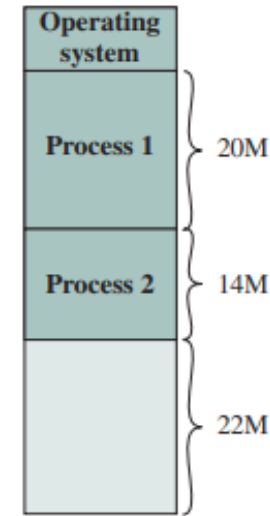
- **FRAGMENTATION**
- Leads to small holes in memory
- Compaction is required but time consuming



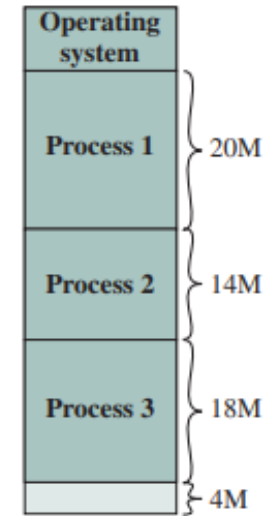
(a)



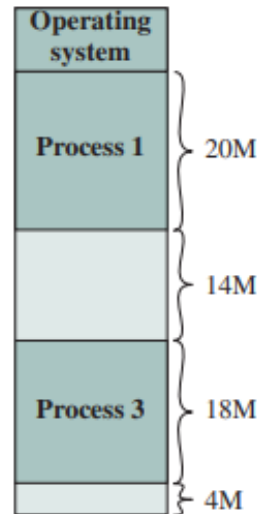
(b)



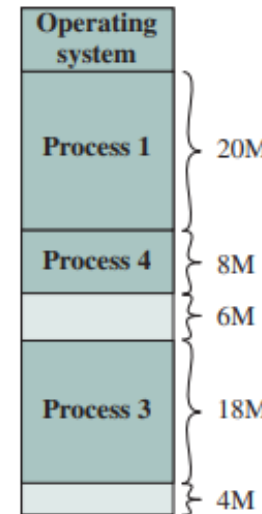
(c)



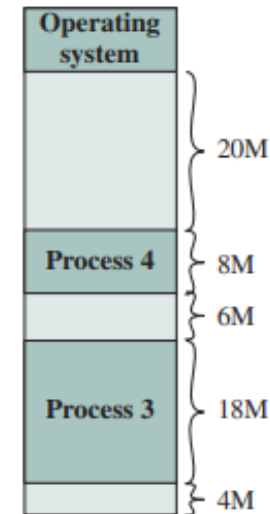
(d)



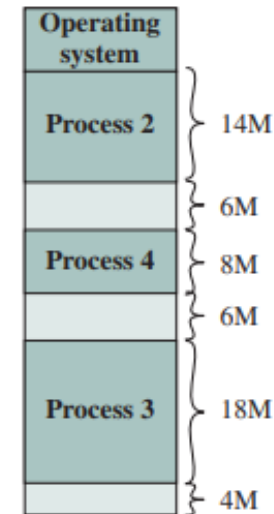
(e)



(f)



(g)

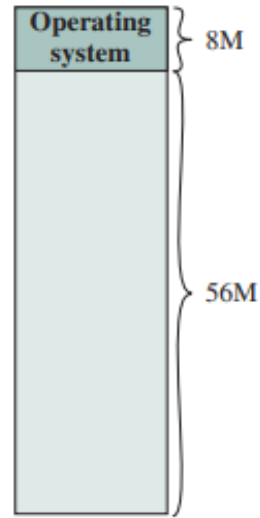


(h)

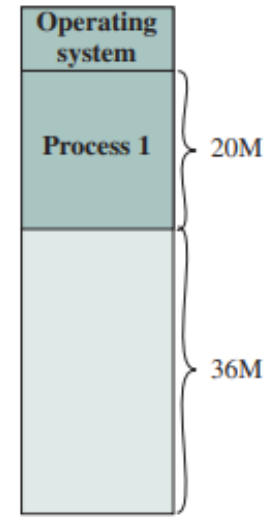
Partitioning

- **SOLUTION:**

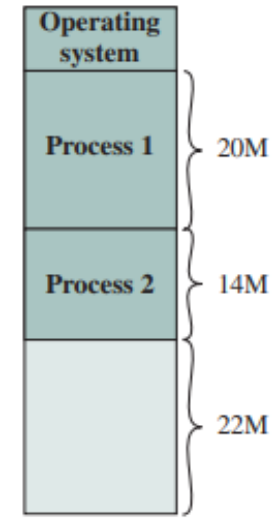
Dynamic
variable
partitions with
compaction



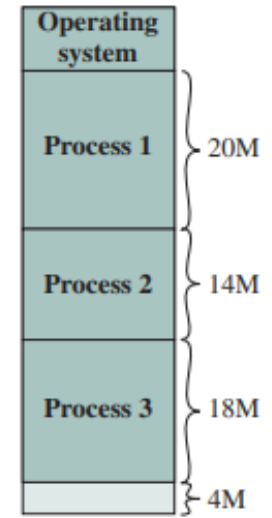
(a)



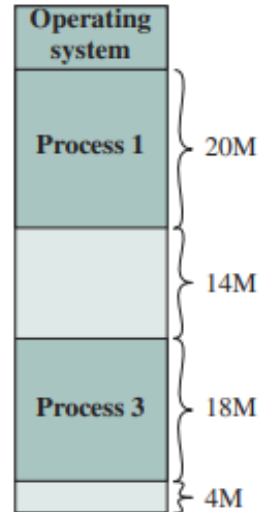
(b)



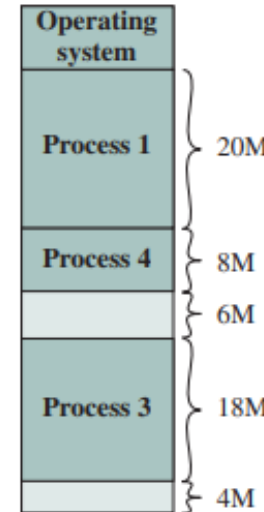
(c)



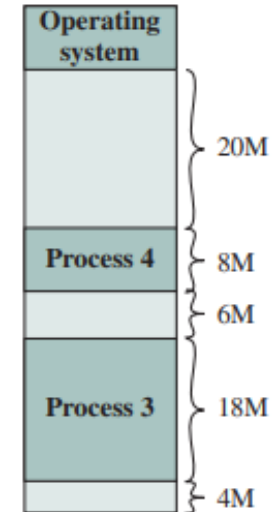
(d)



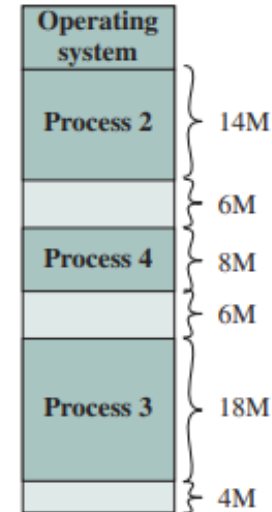
(e)



(f)



(g)

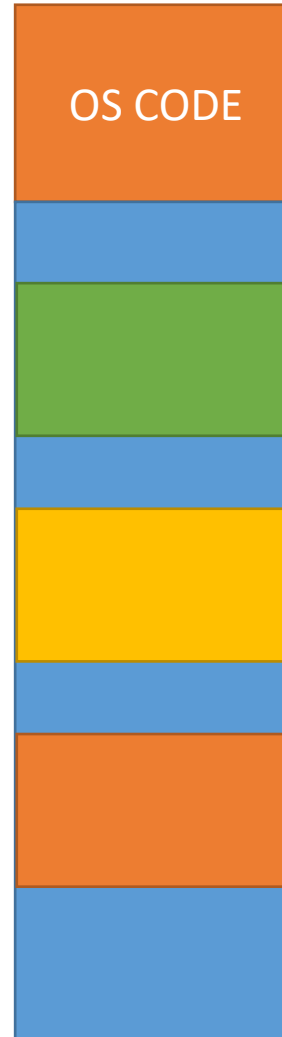


(h)

Partitioning

- SOLUTION:

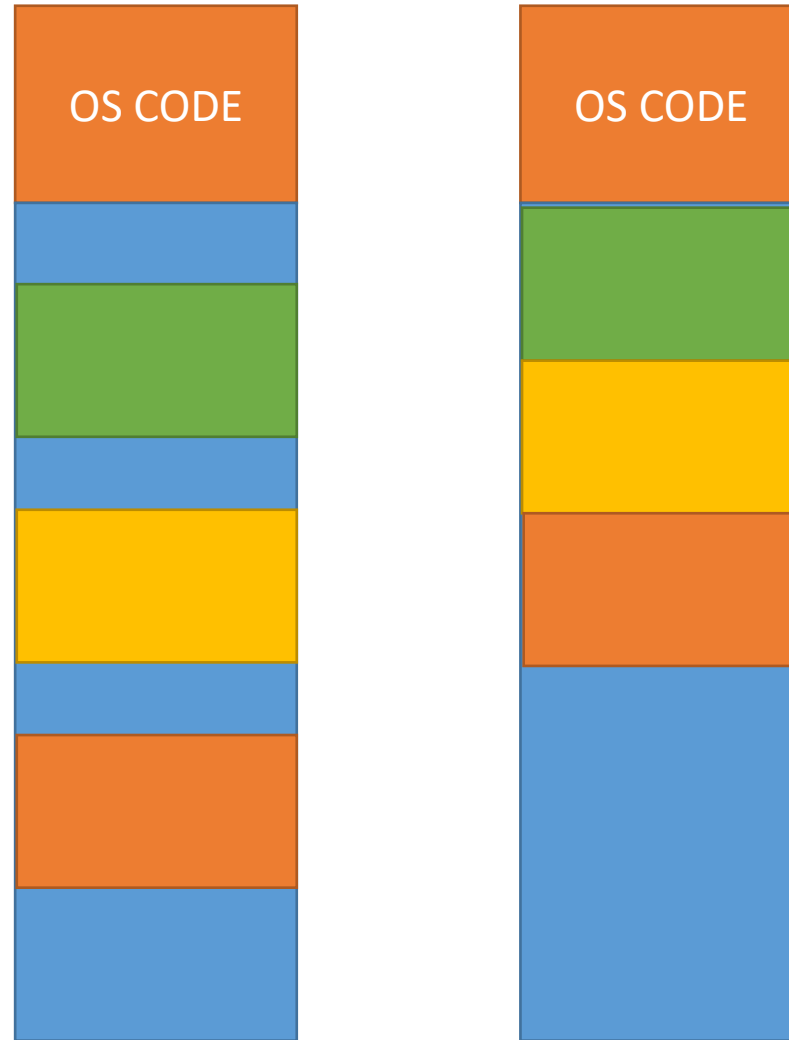
Dynamic
variable
partitions with
compaction



Partitioning

- SOLUTION:

Dynamic
variable
partitions with
compaction

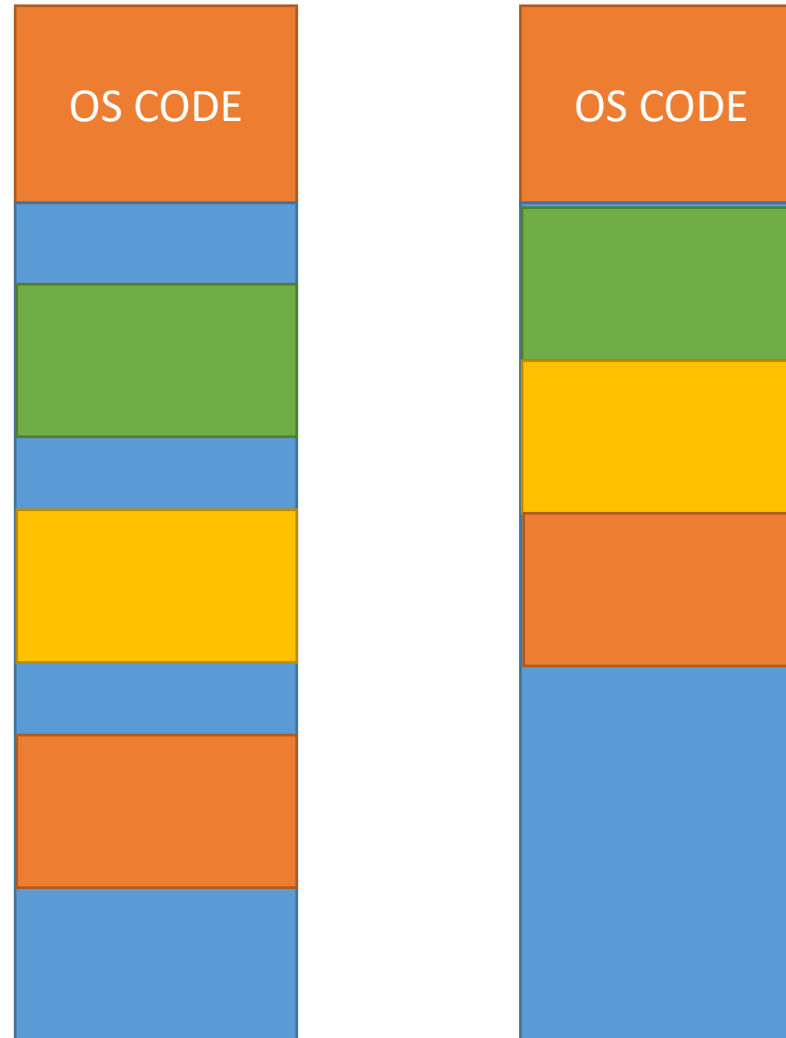


Partitioning

- SOLUTION:

Dynamic
variable
partitions with
compaction

Compaction is
requiring several
memory read
write operations



Note that :

We need to use

Displacement addressing

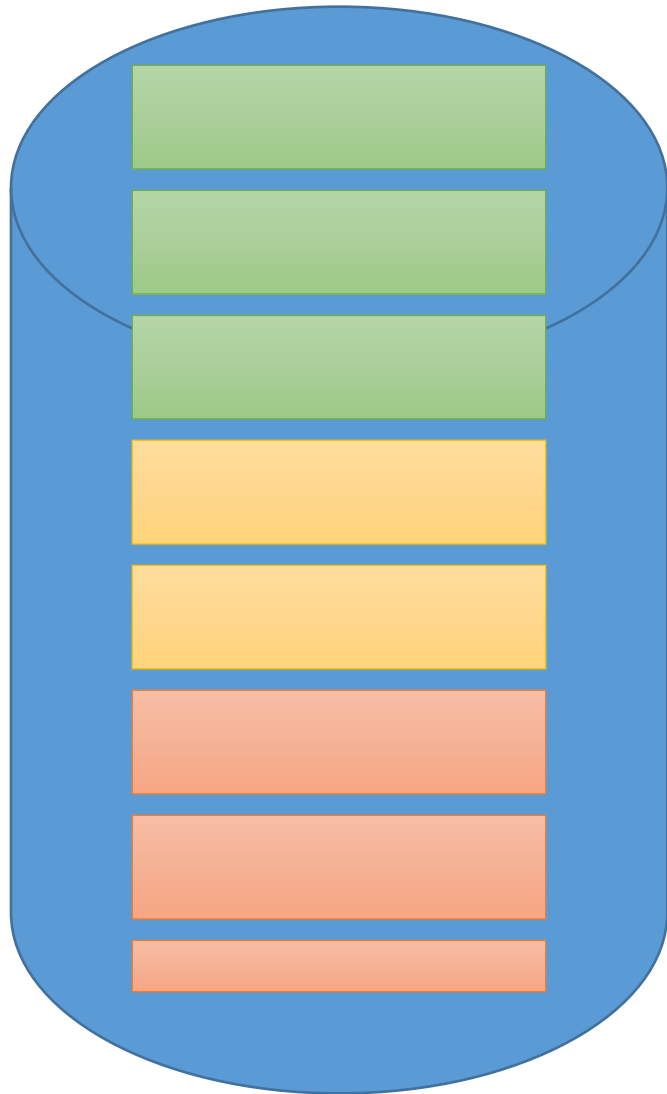
Here for the process codes
as the physical
Processes can be placed
at any part of the memory.

3.4 Paging and Page Tables

A more efficient approach : Paging

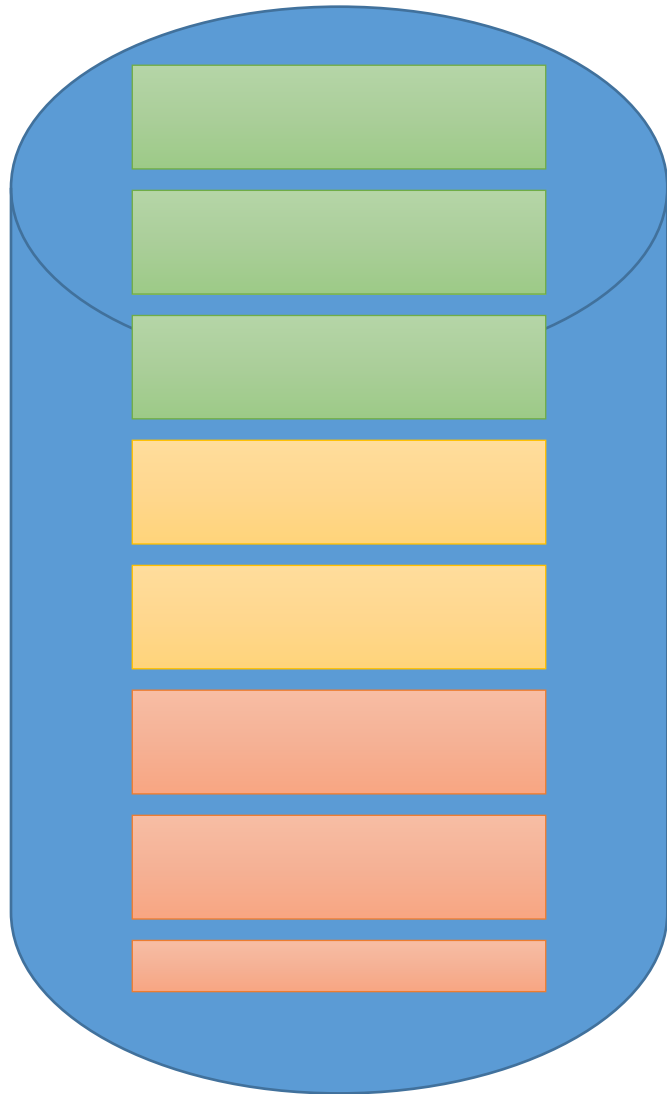
- Both of the fixed and unfixed **partitioning** mechanisms are **inefficient**.
May result in waste of a lot of space.
- Compaction requires several **memory read write operations**.
- Thus we try another mechanism called **Paging**.

A more efficient approach : Paging



Programs with **fixed sized pages**

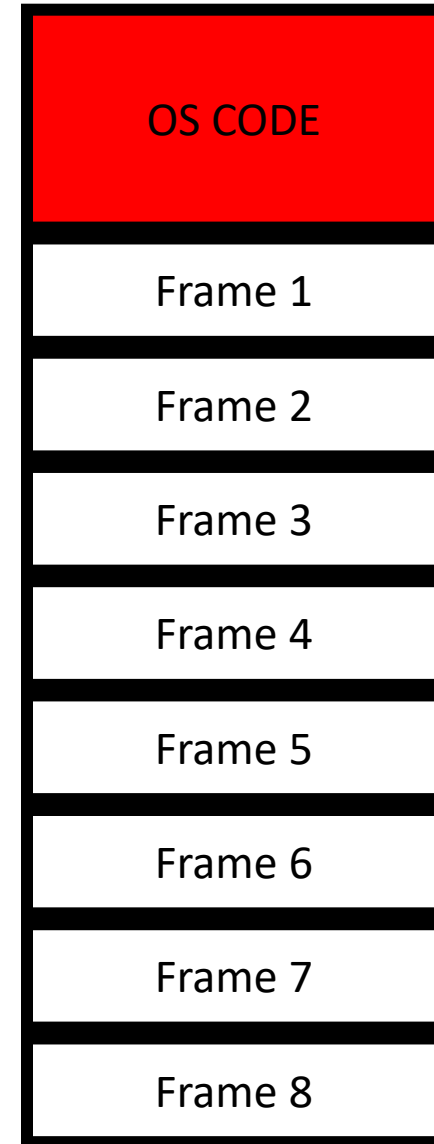
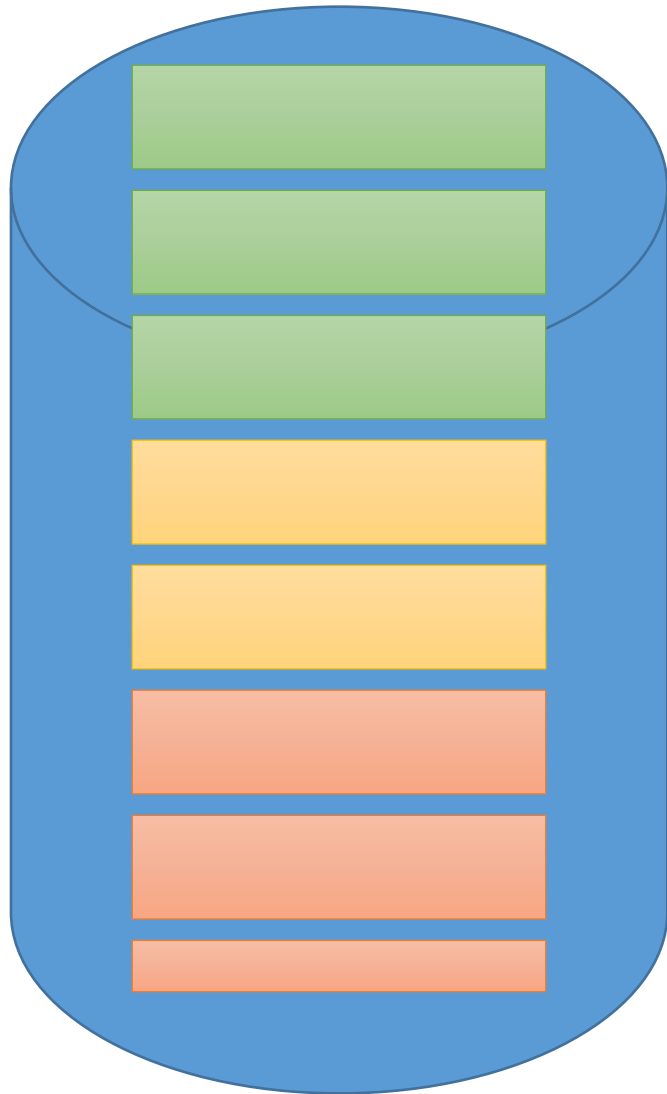
A more efficient approach : Paging



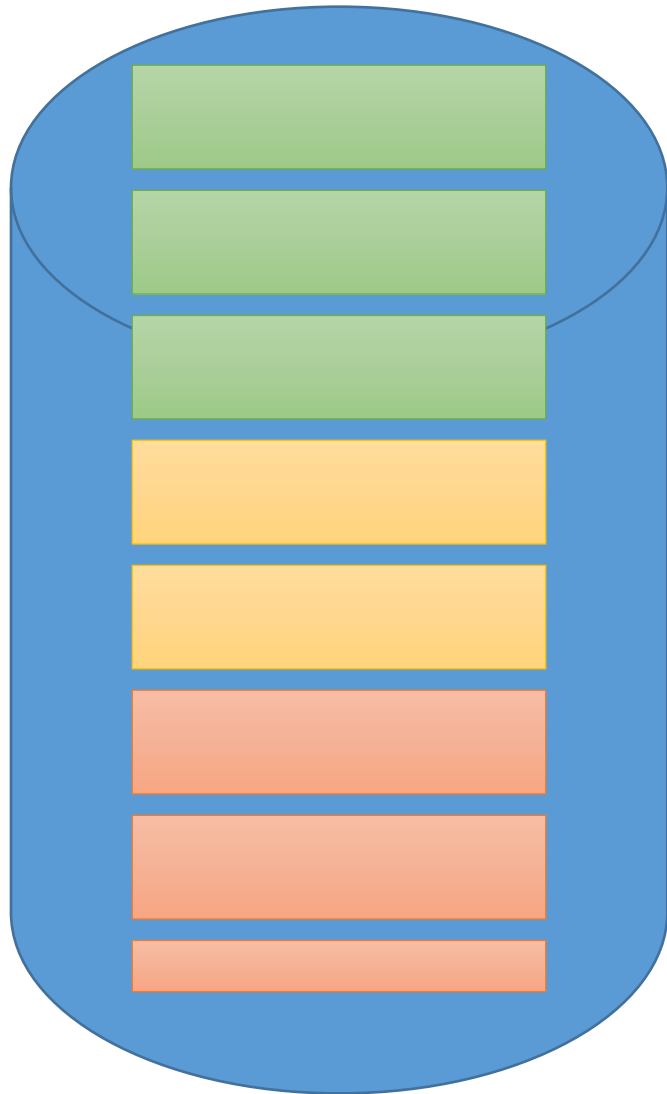
Programs with fixed sized pages

Note that some programs may have
Partial page sizes.

A more efficient approach : Paging

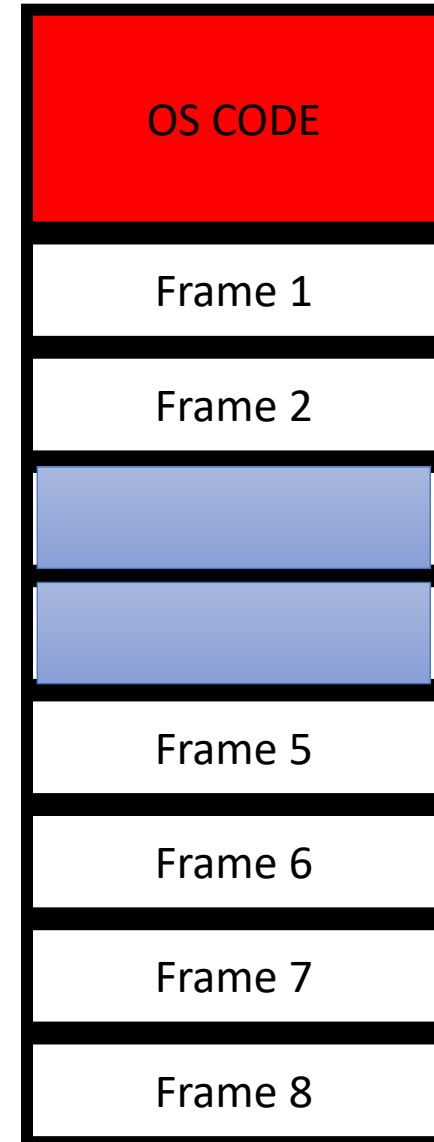


A more efficient approach : Paging

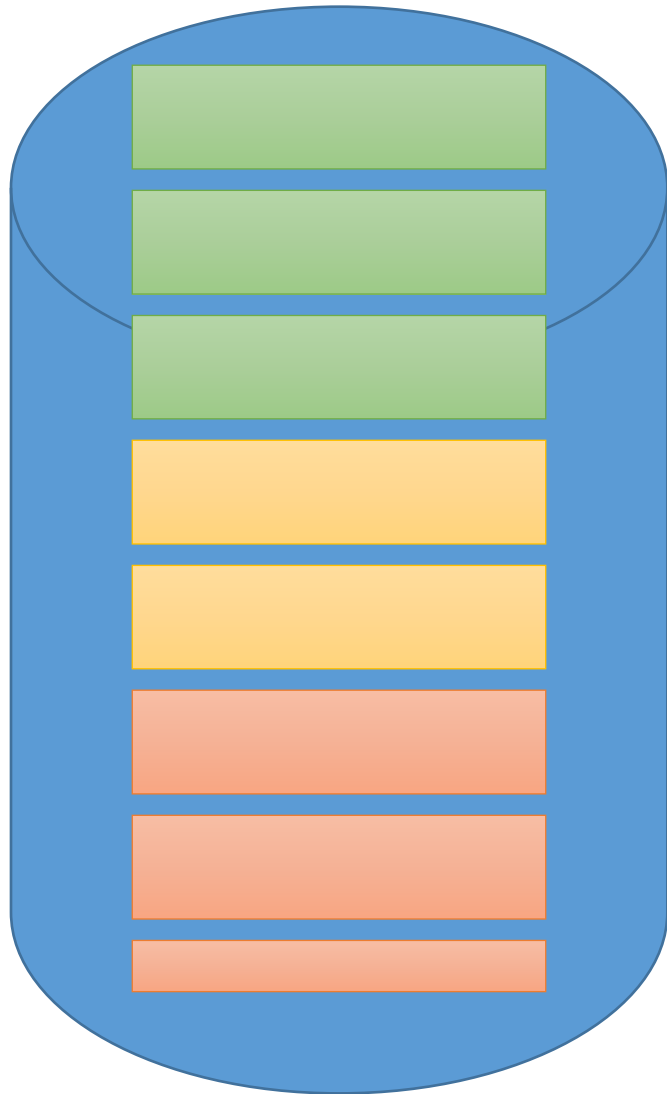


Available
chunks of
memory
referred to as
frames

Assume that
This program
With **two pages**
Was already there

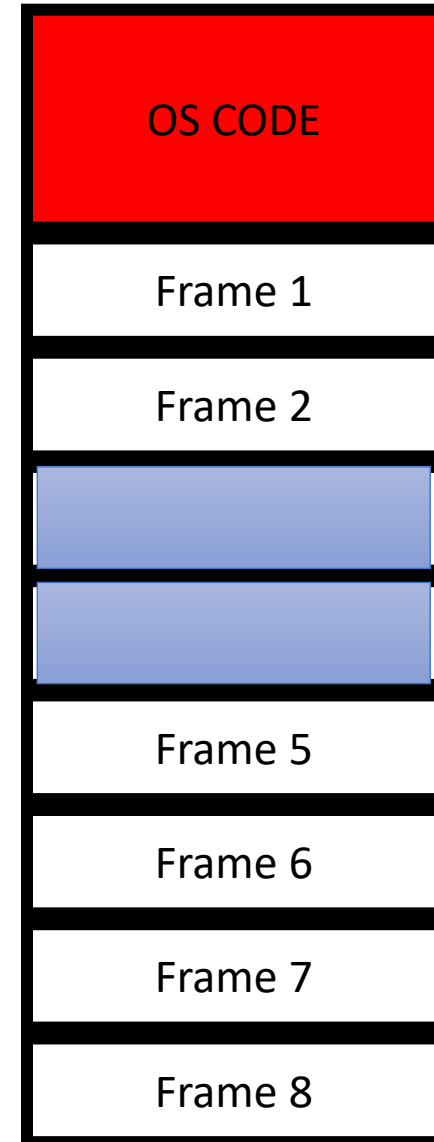


A more efficient approach : Paging

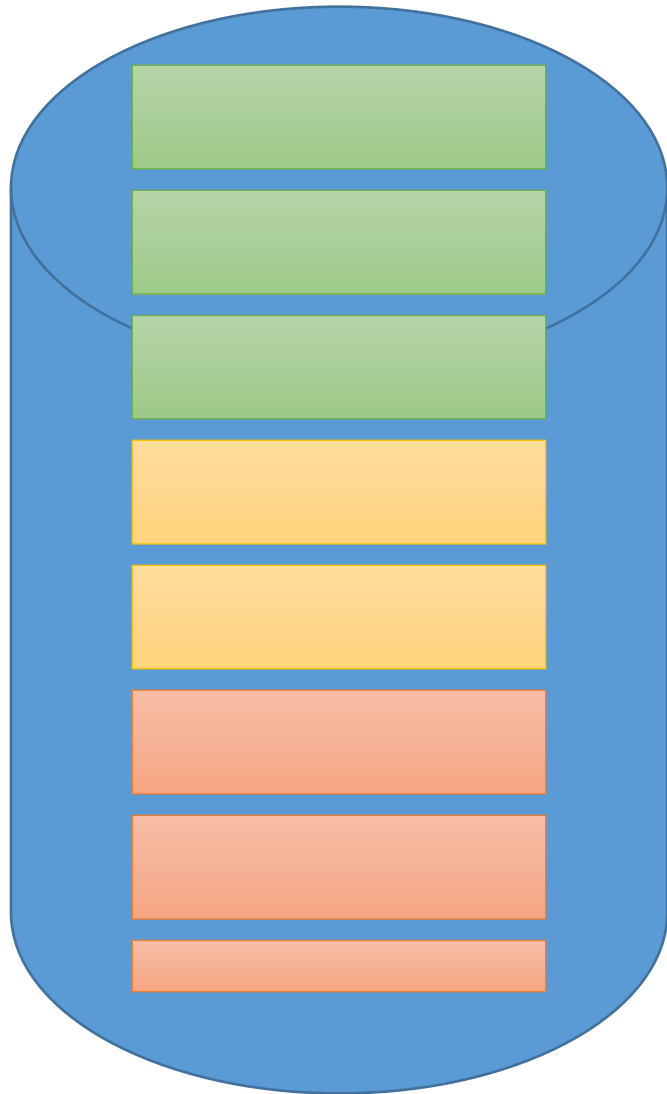


We want to **bring in**
This program

Assume that
This program
With two pages
Was already there

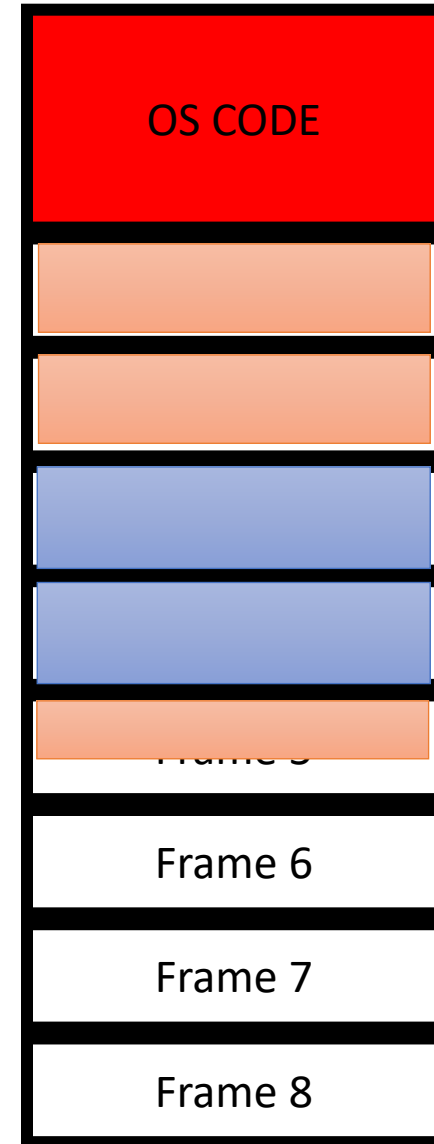


A more efficient approach : Paging

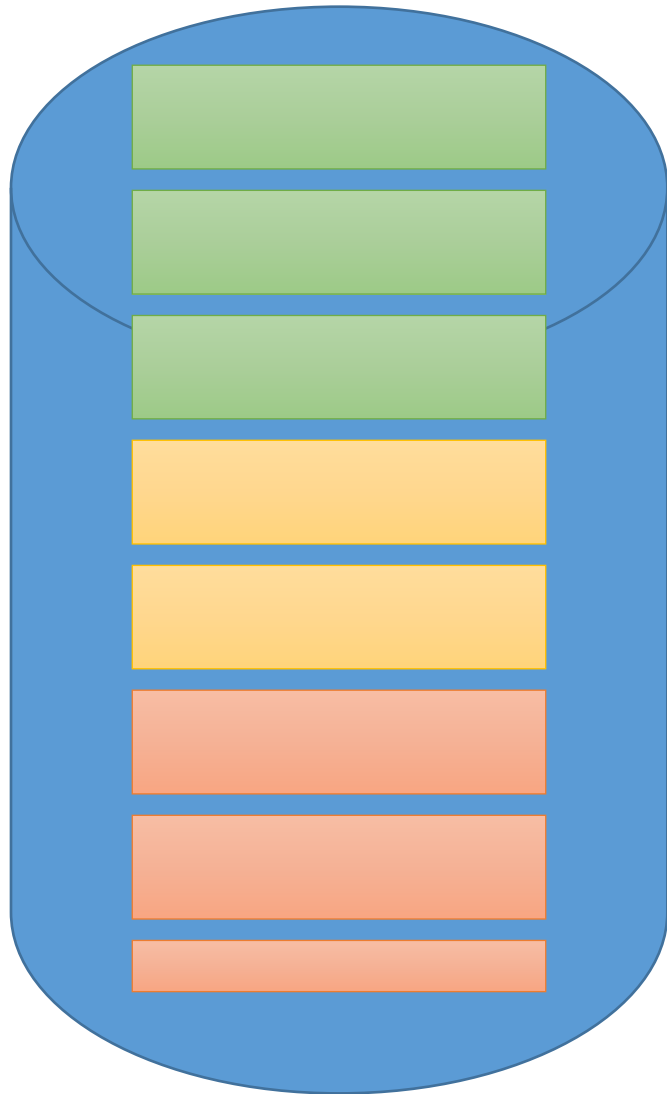


We want to bring in
This program

Assume that
This program
With two pages
Was already there

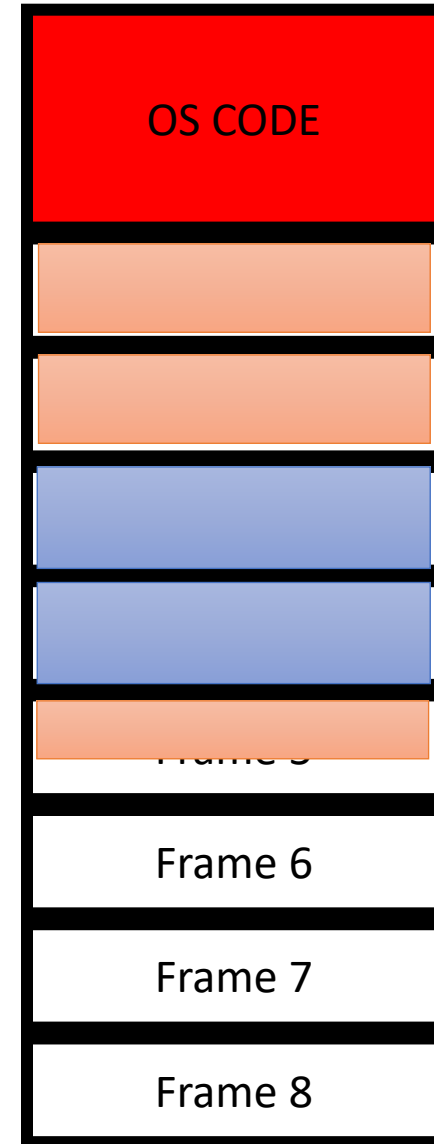


A more efficient approach : Paging



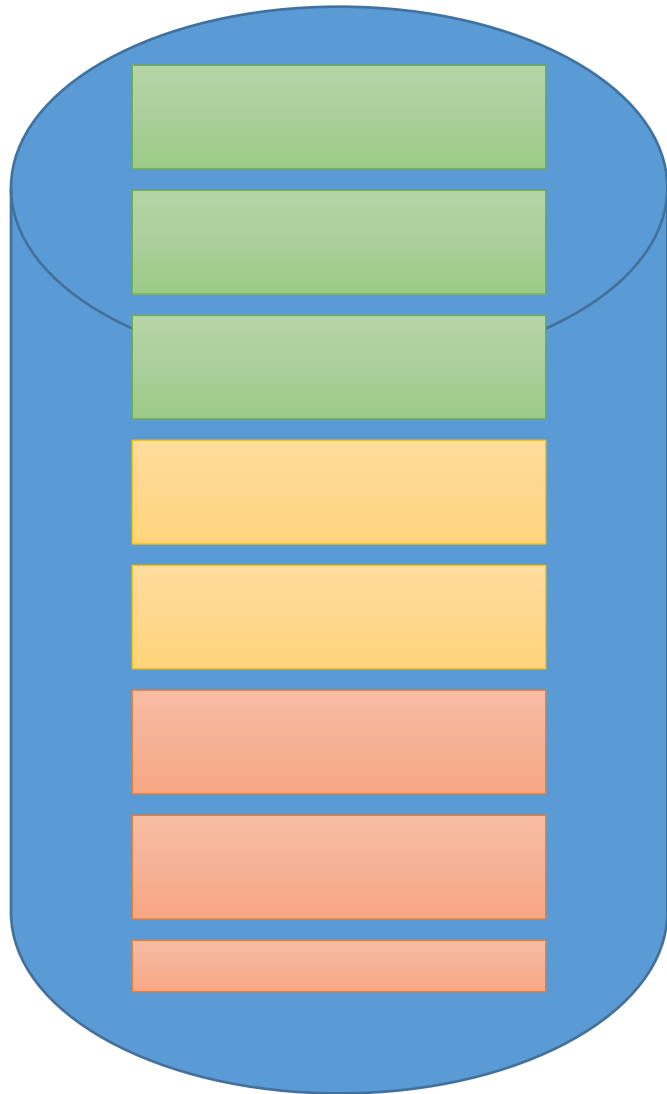
We want to bring in
This program

Assume that
This program
With two pages
Was already there



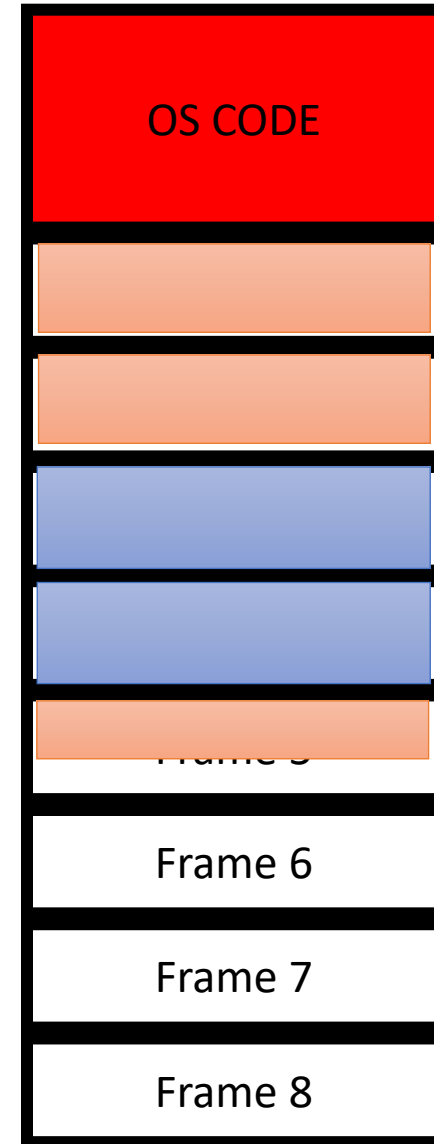
Very little wastage

A more efficient approach : Paging



We want to bring in
This program

Assume that
This program
With two pages
Was already there



But observe that
The code is no longer
Present in a
Sequential
manner

Very little wastage

Page table

- A **mapping** is required to be maintained.
- For keeping track :
 - Which **page** of a program is in which **frame**
 - We need to use a **new kind of addressing** mode.
 - Now when a processor gets an instruction with an address it will be in the form (**page no, relative address**)
 - it will change it into the format (**frame, relative address**) using the page table.
- For **each process**, OS will maintain a **page table**.

Example

```
CMP AX,BX  
JGE #100  
MOV AX, BX  
ADD AX, BX  
LOAD AX, #200
```

....

...

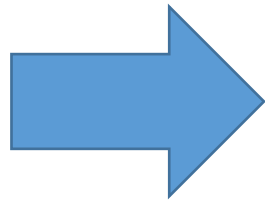
...

...

Example

```
CMP AX,BX
JGE #100
MOV AX, BX
ADD AX, BX
LOAD AX, #200
```

....
...
...
...



The
Program
Is divided
Into pages

```
CMP AX,BX
JGE #100
MOV AX, BX
ADD AX, BX
LOAD AX, #200
```

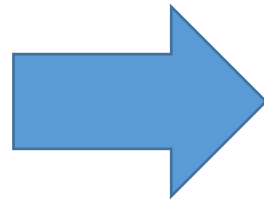
...
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...
..
...

Example

```
CMP AX,BX
JGE #100
MOV AX, BX
ADD AX, BX
LOAD AX, #200
```

....
...
...
...



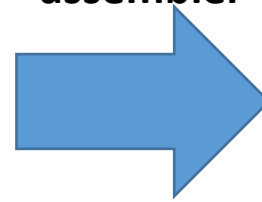
The
Program
Is divided
Into pages

```
CMP AX,BX
JGE #100
MOV AX, BX
ADD AX, BX
LOAD AX, #200
```

...
..
...
...
..
...

...
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...

**Observe
that
The
addresses
are
written
In a new
format
By the
assembler**

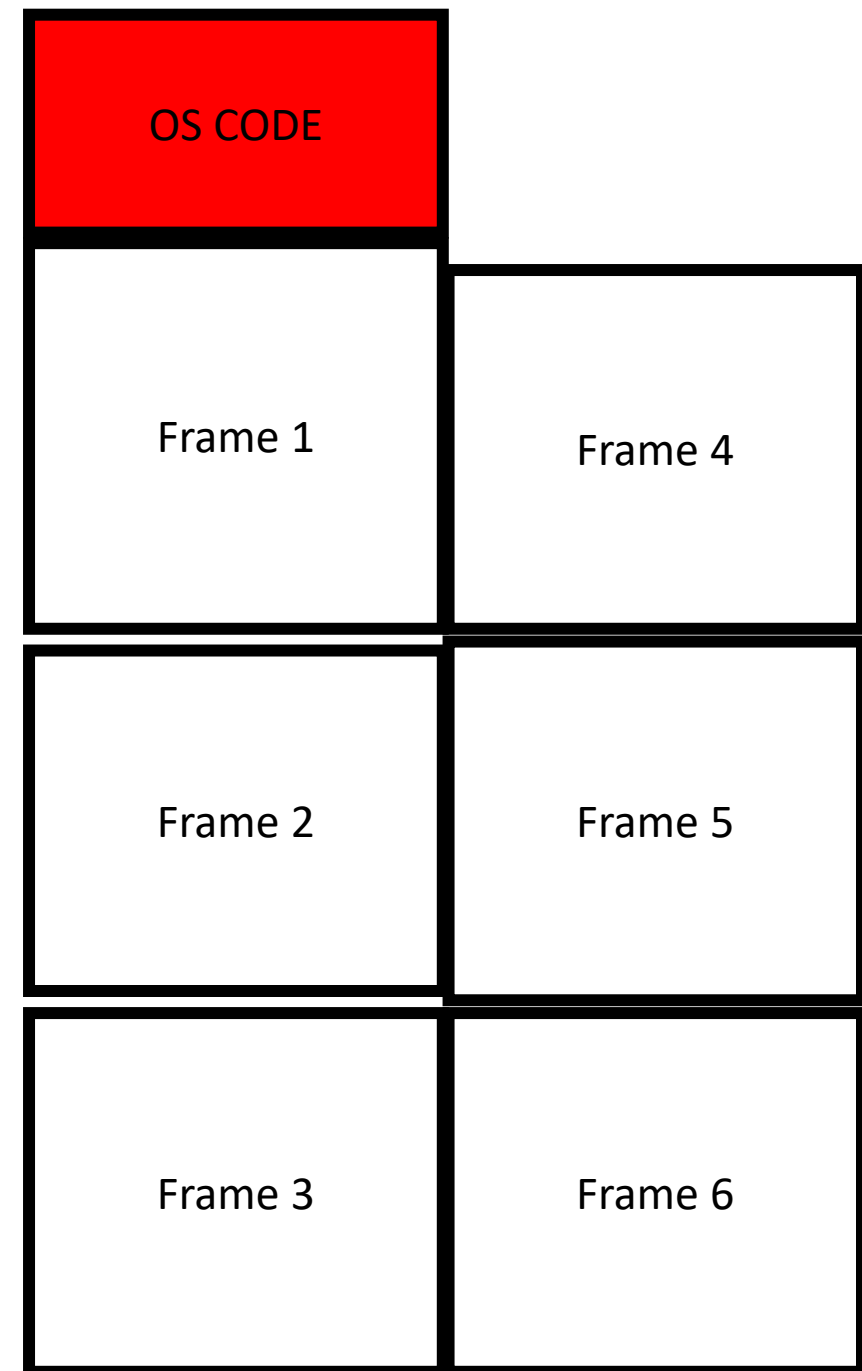
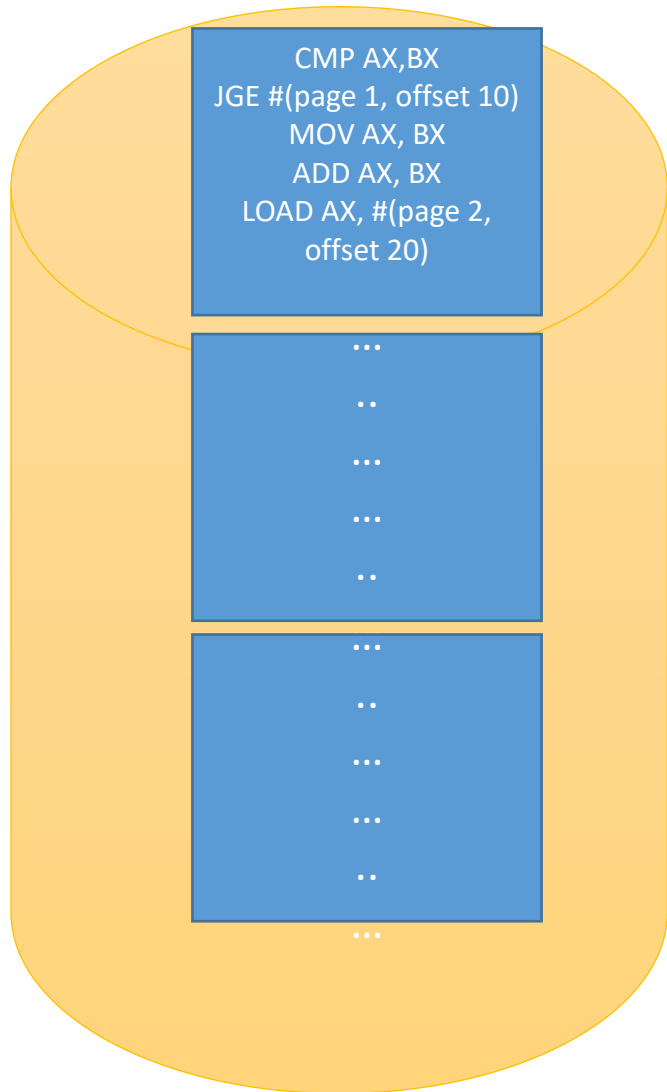


```
CMP AX,BX
JGE #(page 1, offset 10)
MOV AX, BX
ADD AX, BX
LOAD AX, #(page 2, offset 20)
```

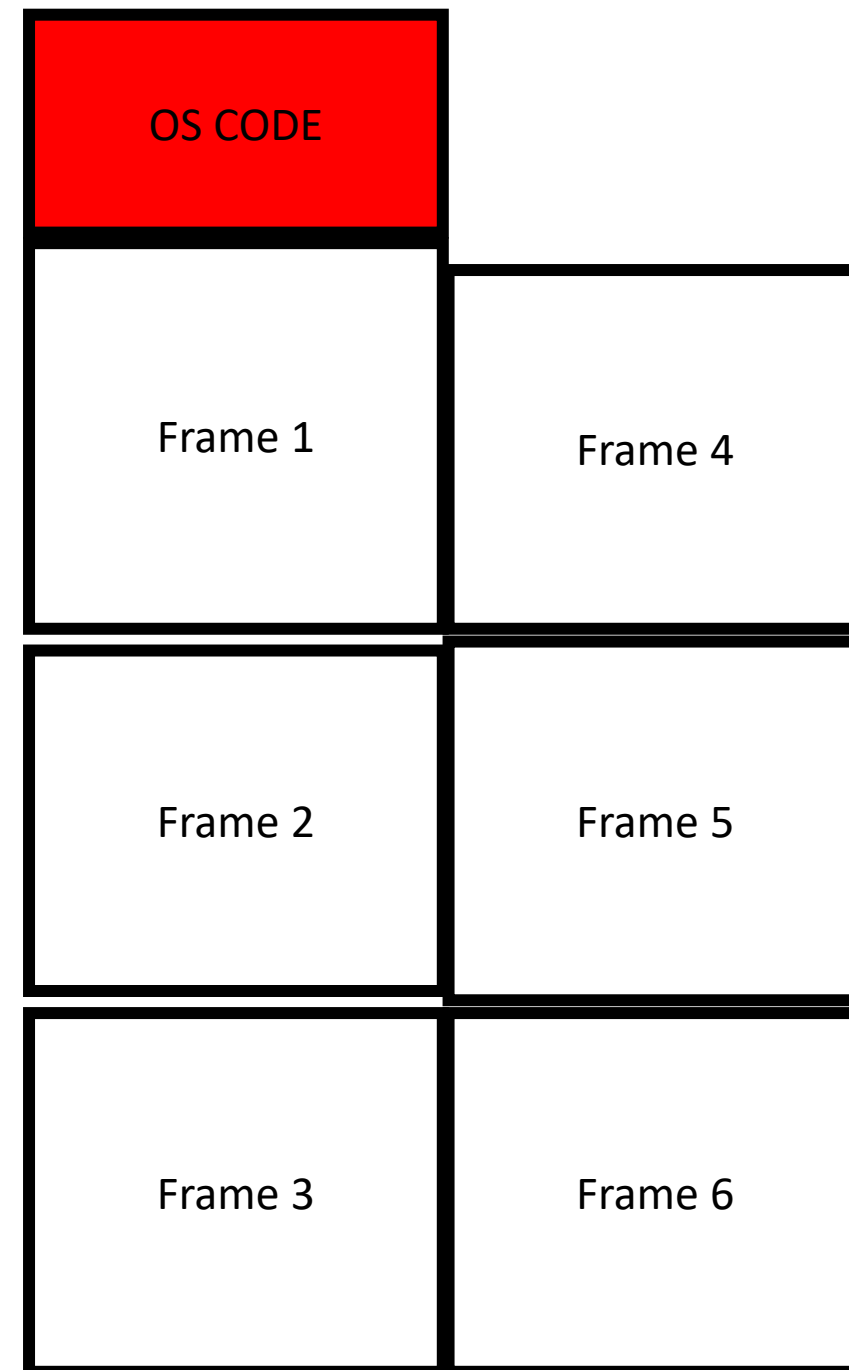
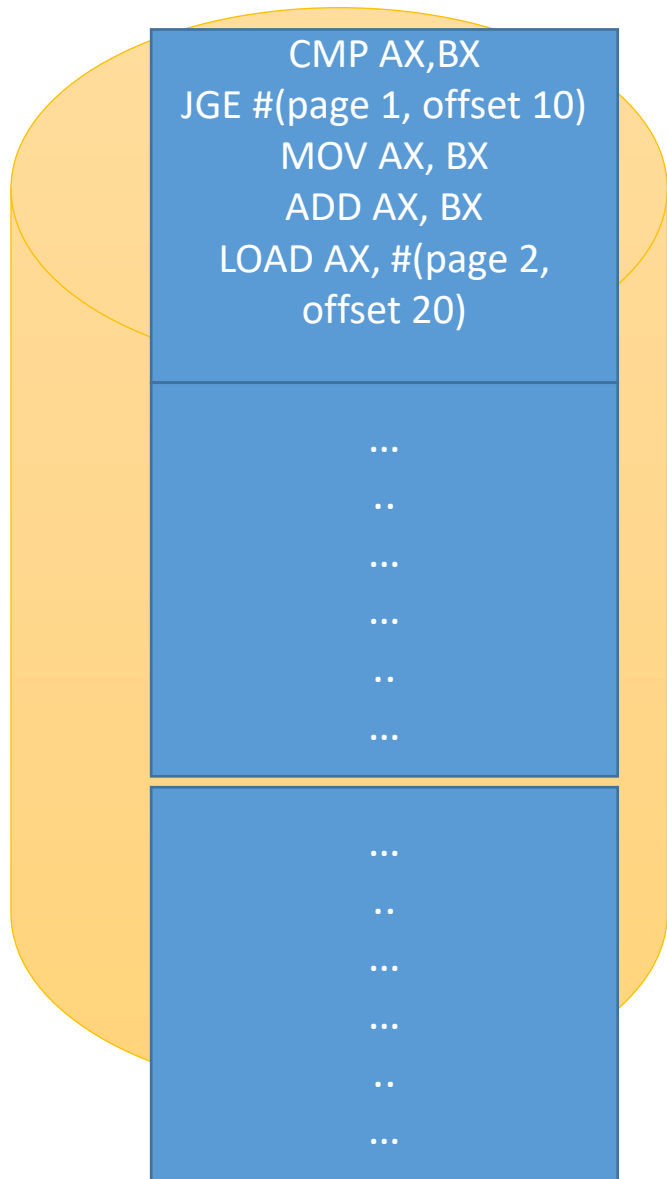
...
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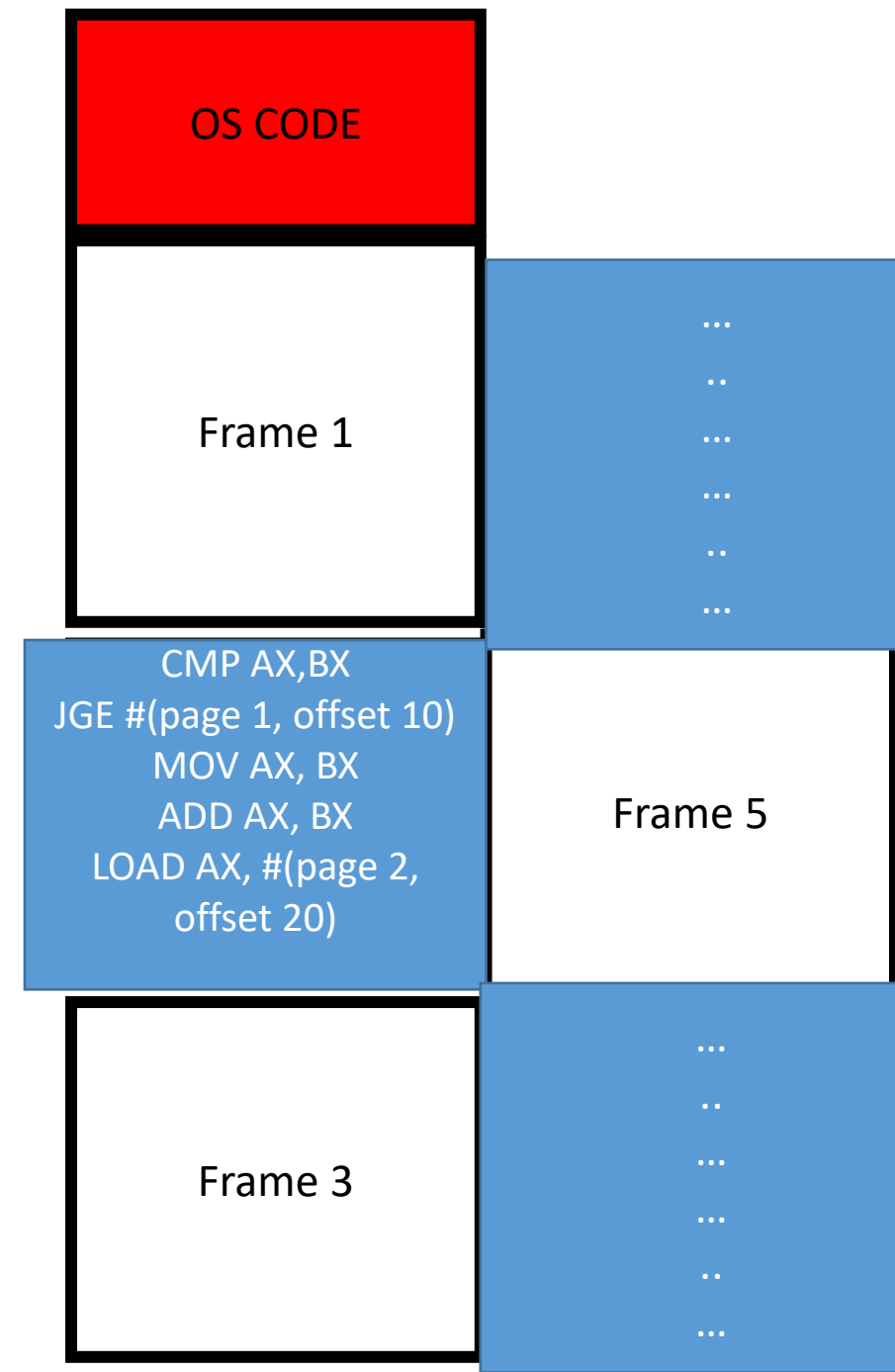
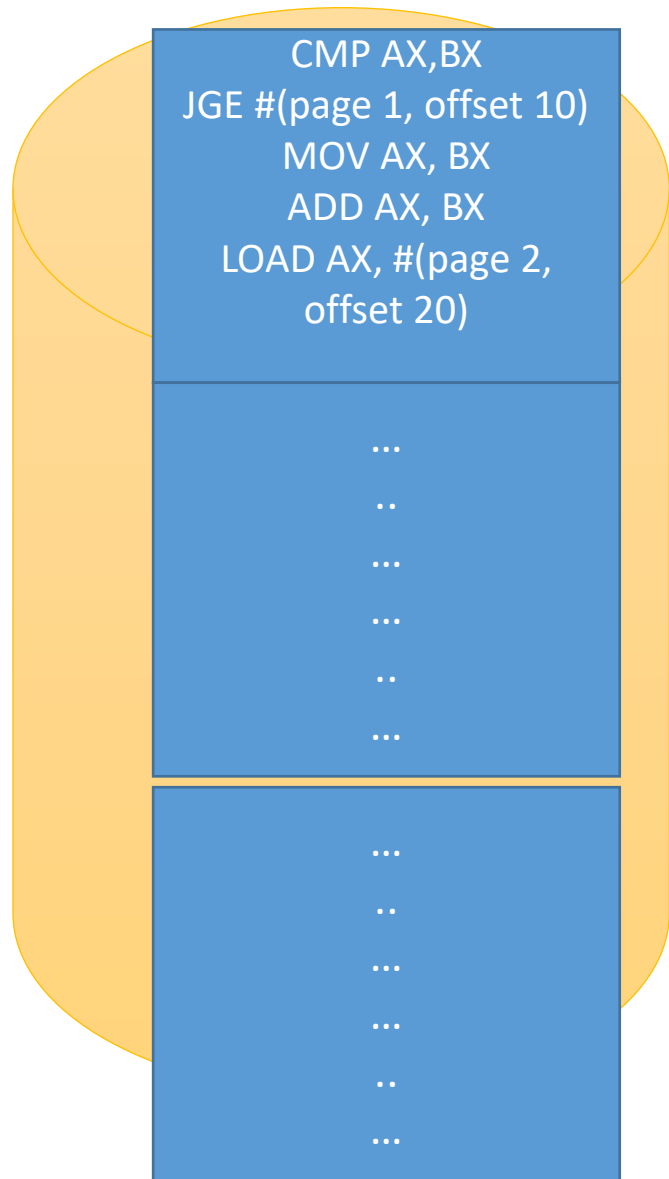
A more efficient approach : Paging



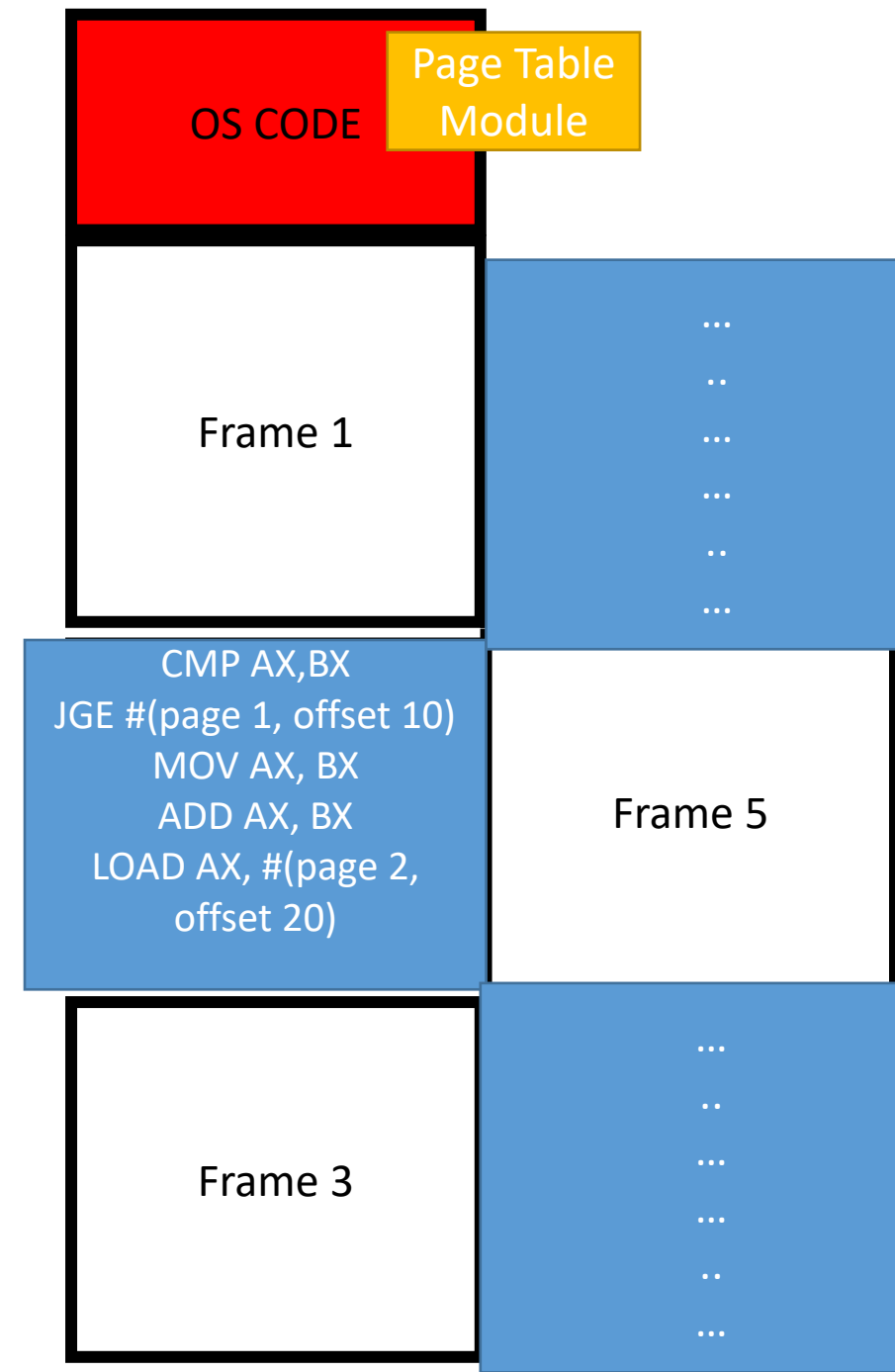
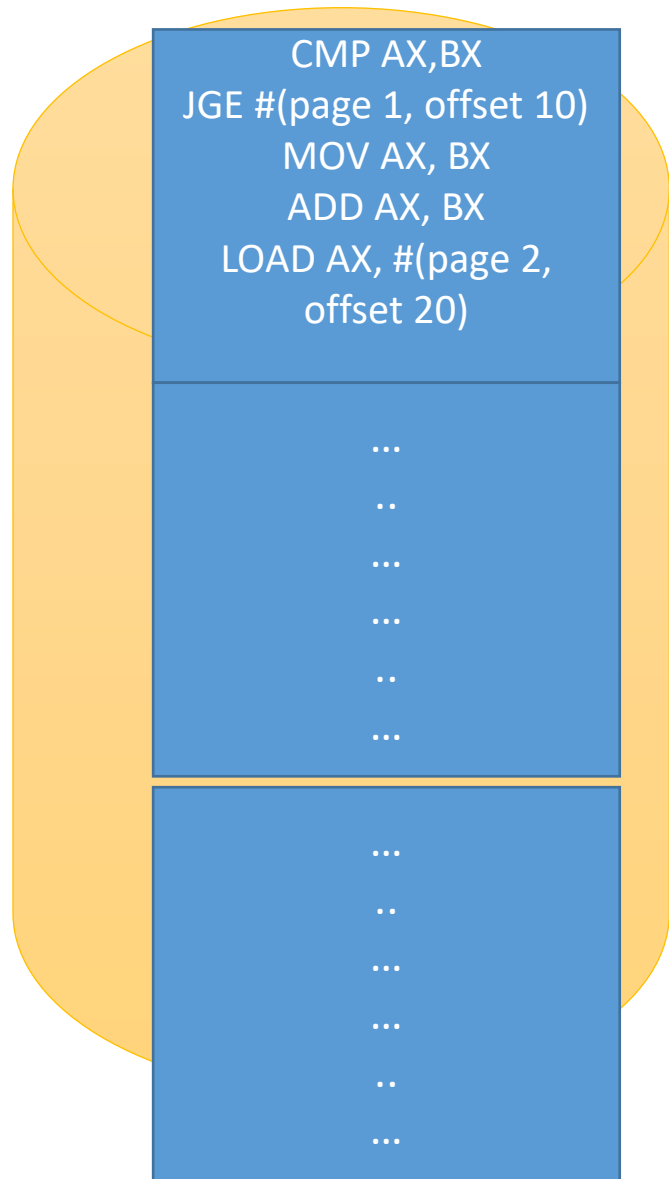
A more efficient approach : Paging



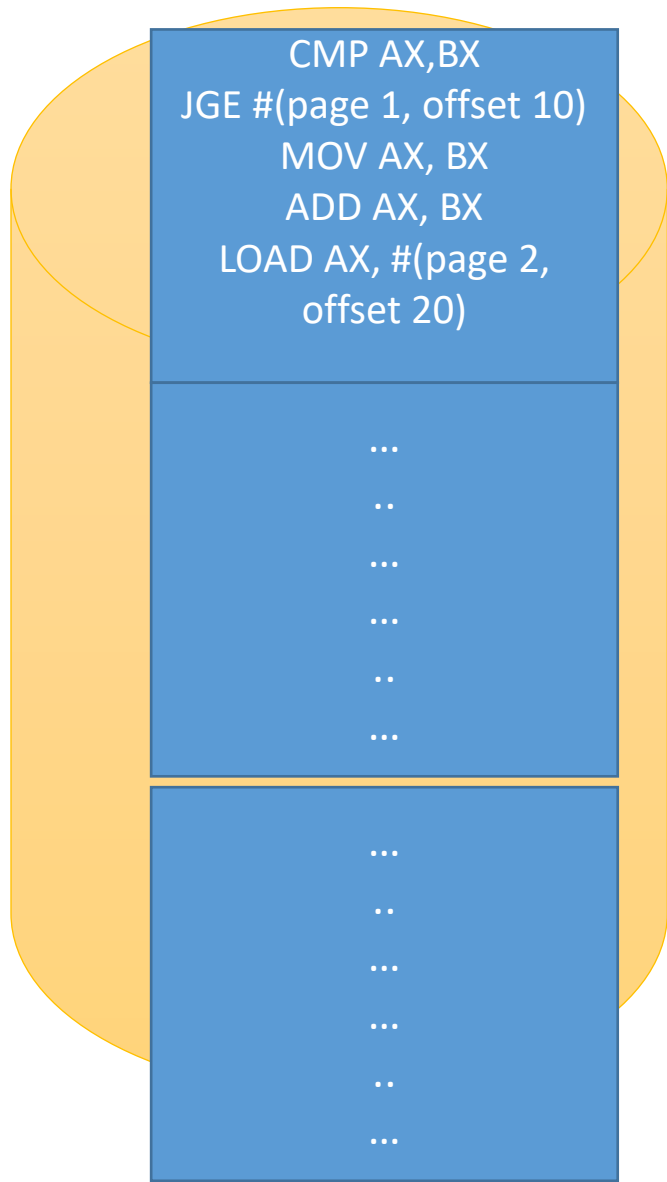
A more efficient approach : Paging



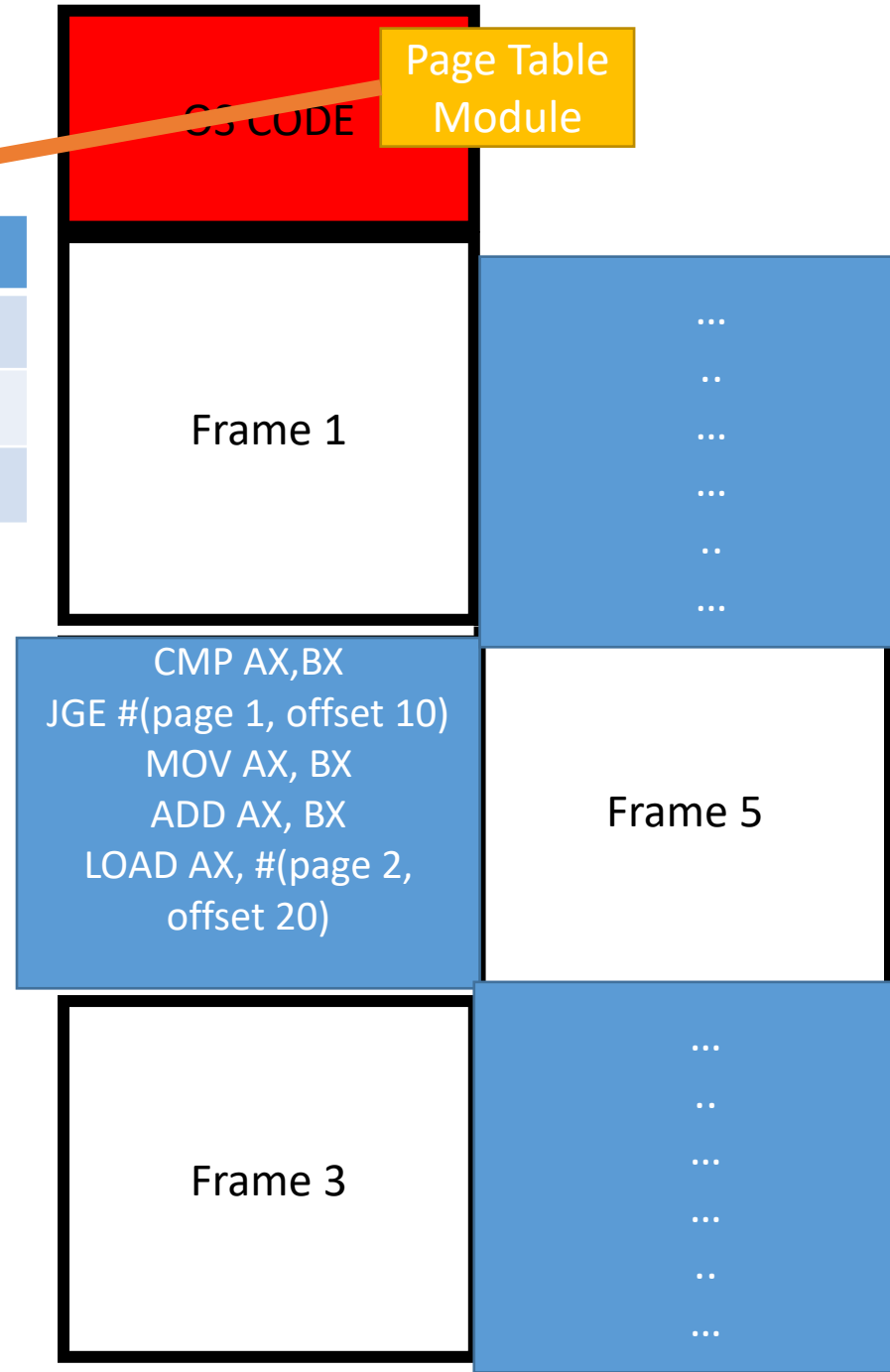
A more efficient approach : Paging



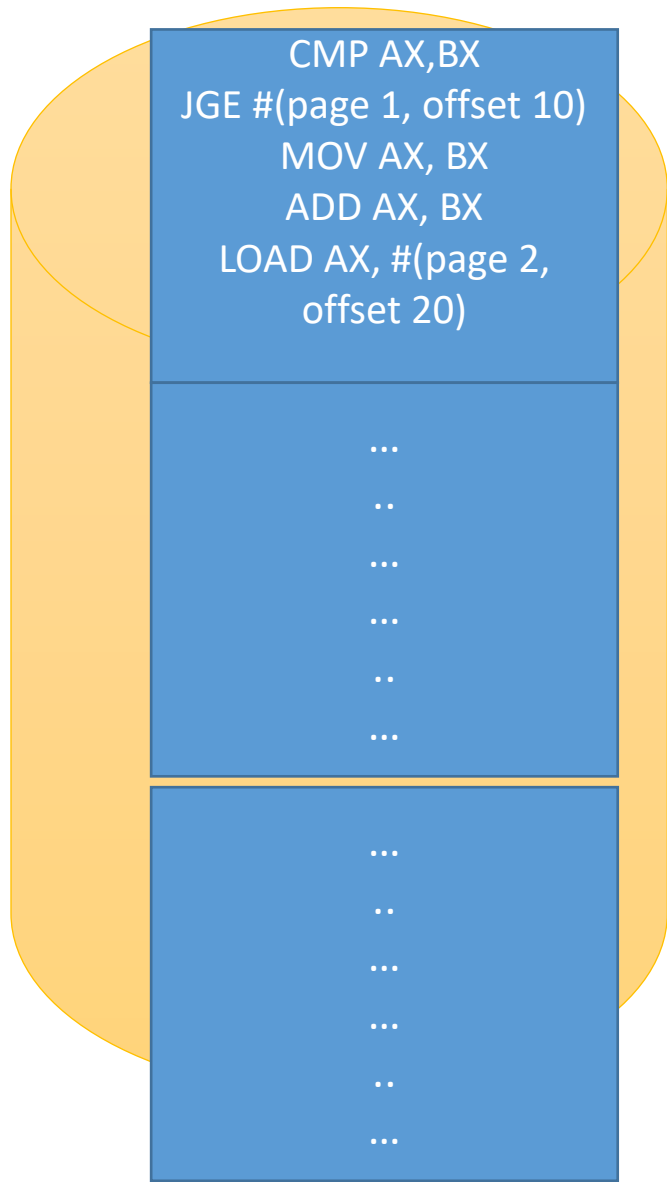
A more efficient approach : Paging



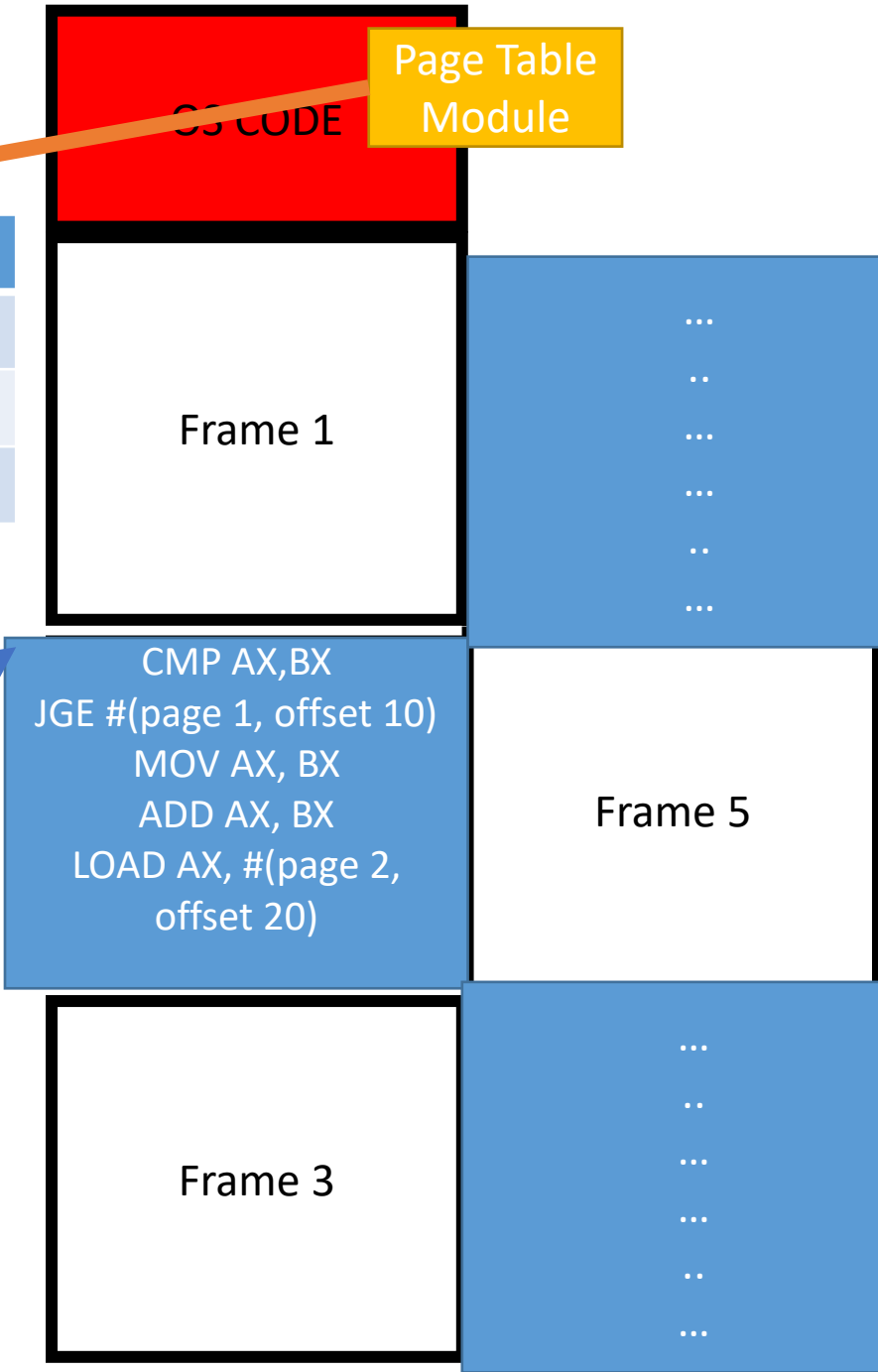
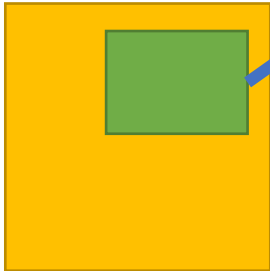
Page	Frame
Page 1	Frame 2
Page 2	Frame 4
Page 3	Frame 6



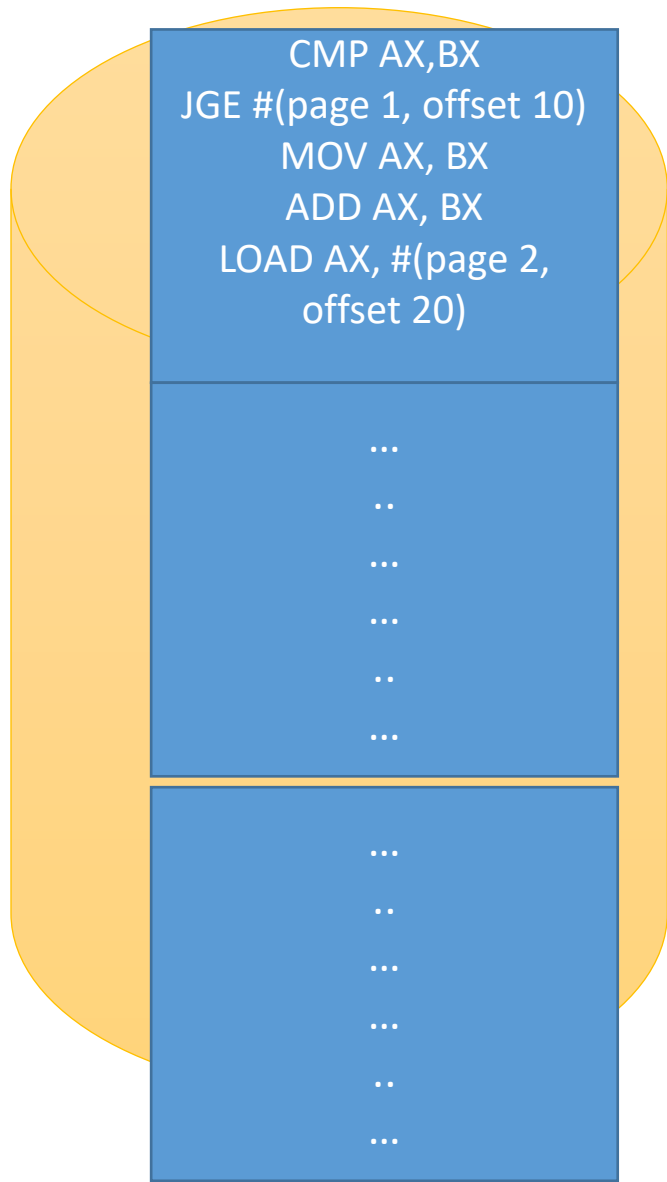
A more efficient approach : Paging



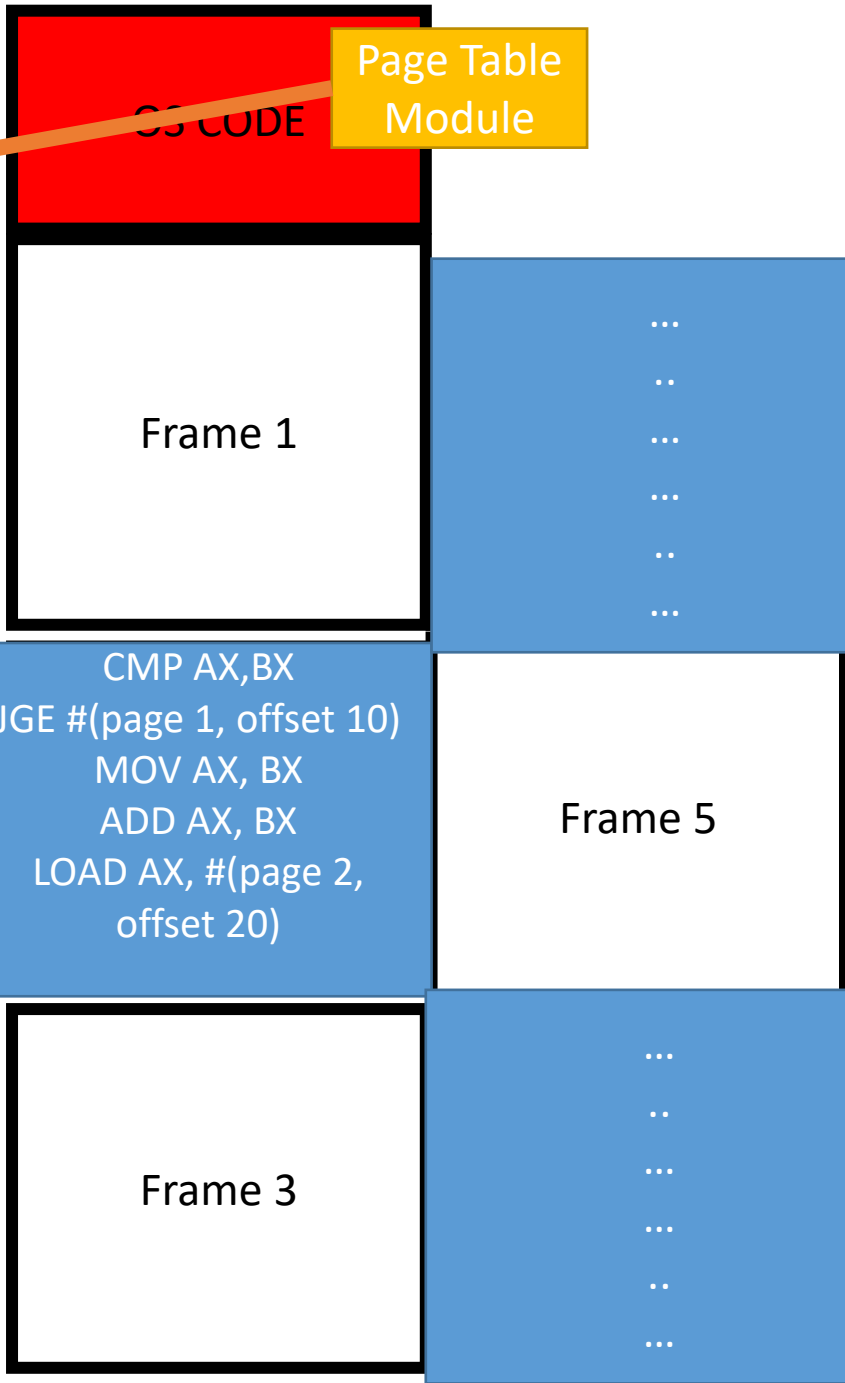
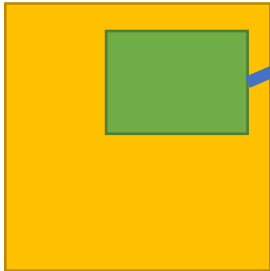
Page	Frame
Page 1	Frame 2
Page 2	Frame 4
Page 3	Frame 6



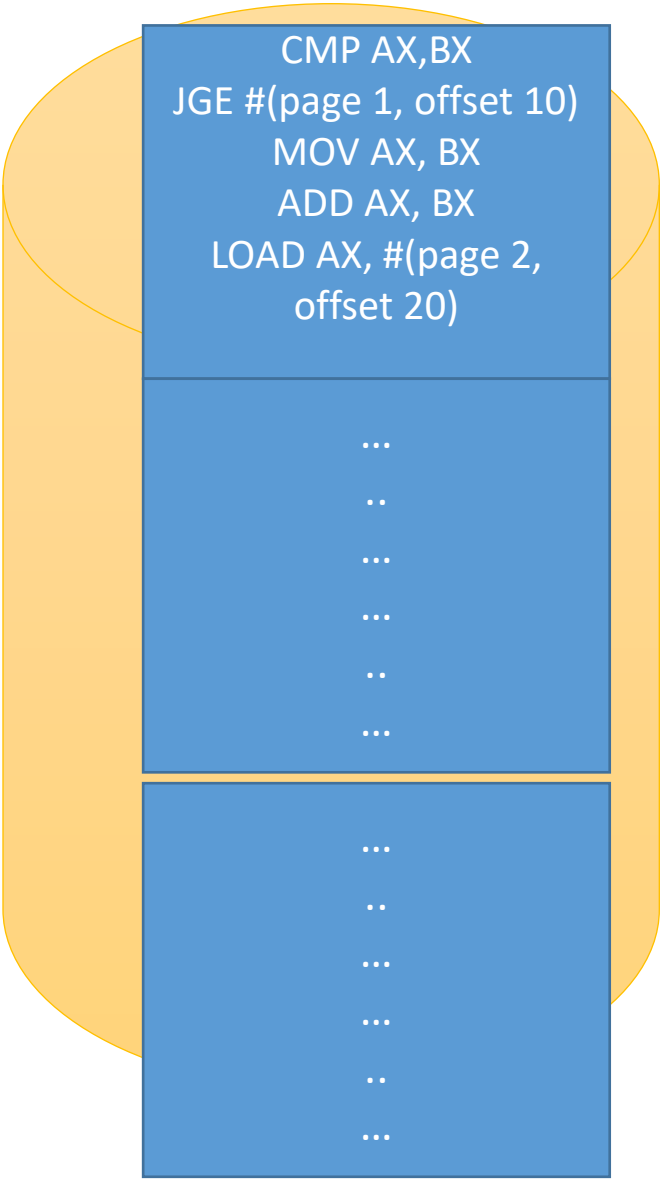
A more efficient approach : Paging



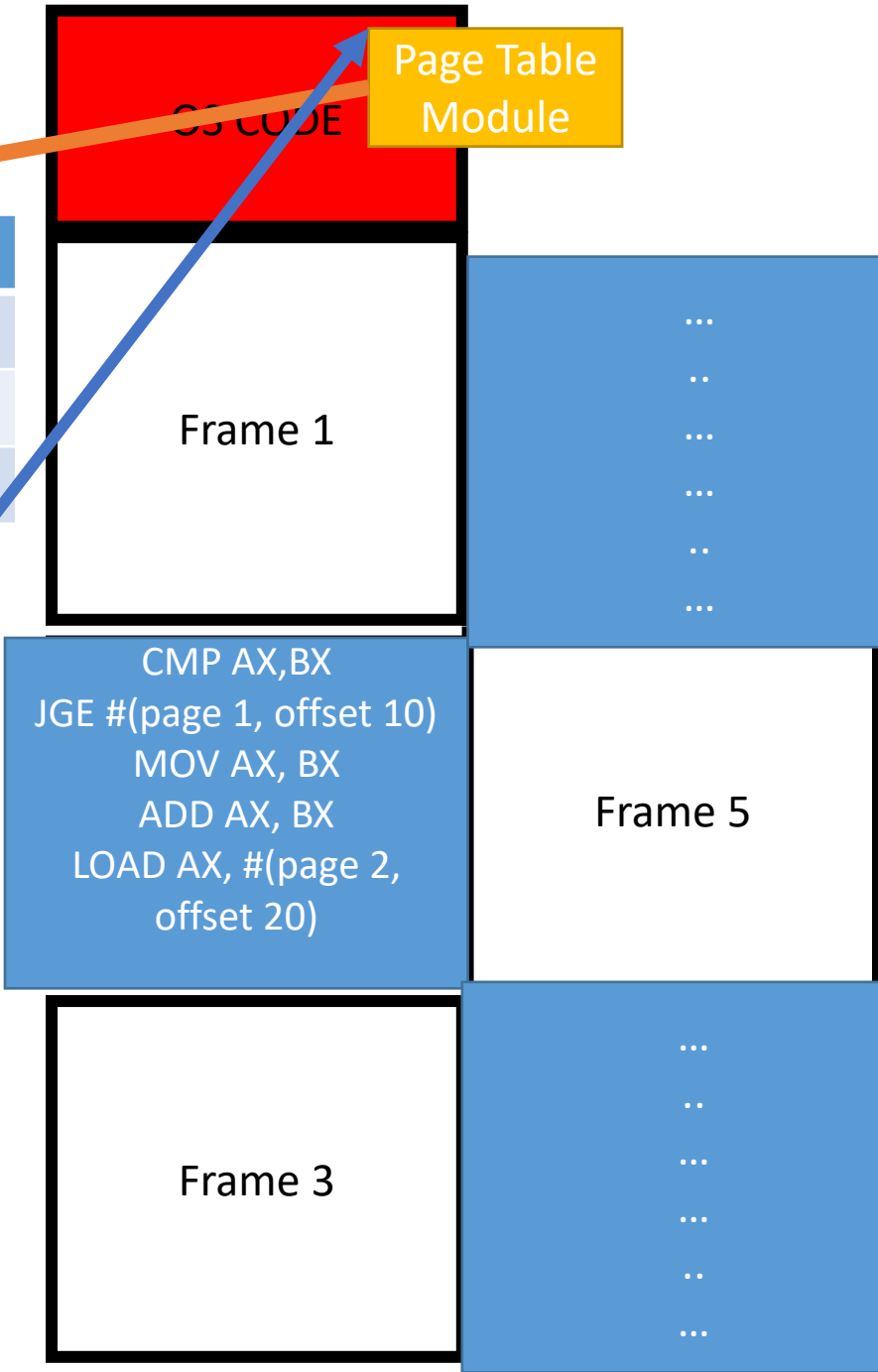
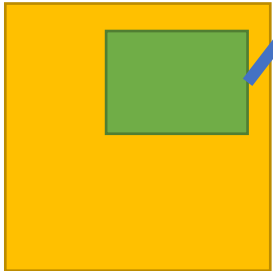
Page	Frame
Page 1	Frame 2
Page 2	Frame 4
Page 3	Frame 6



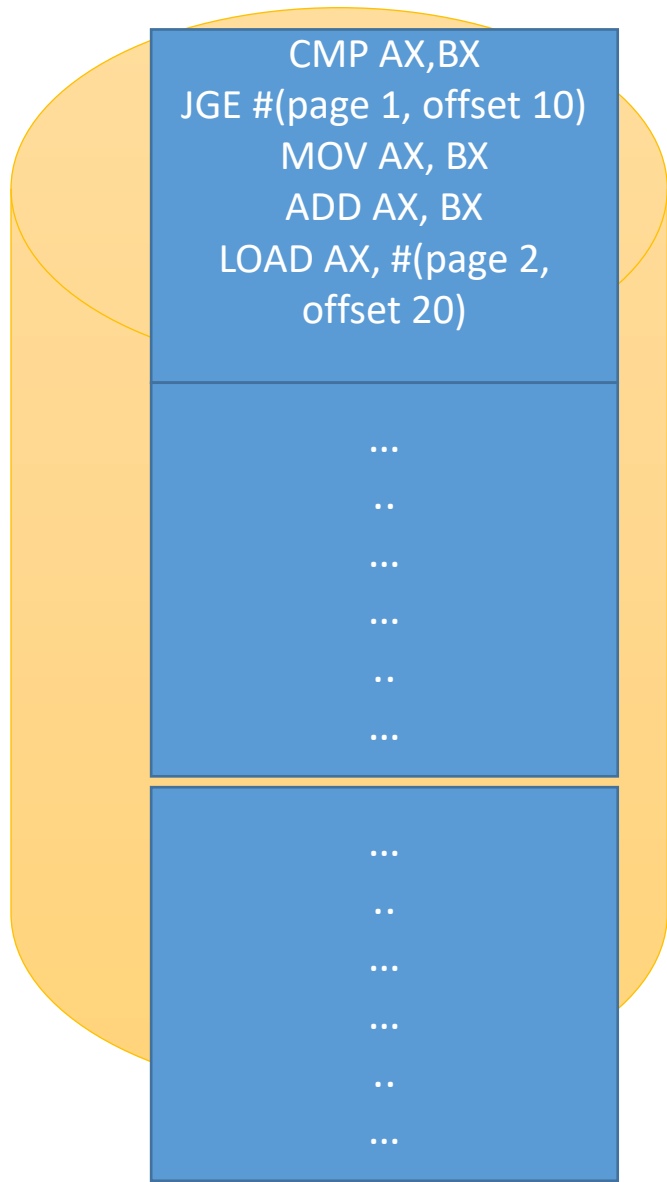
A more efficient approach : Paging



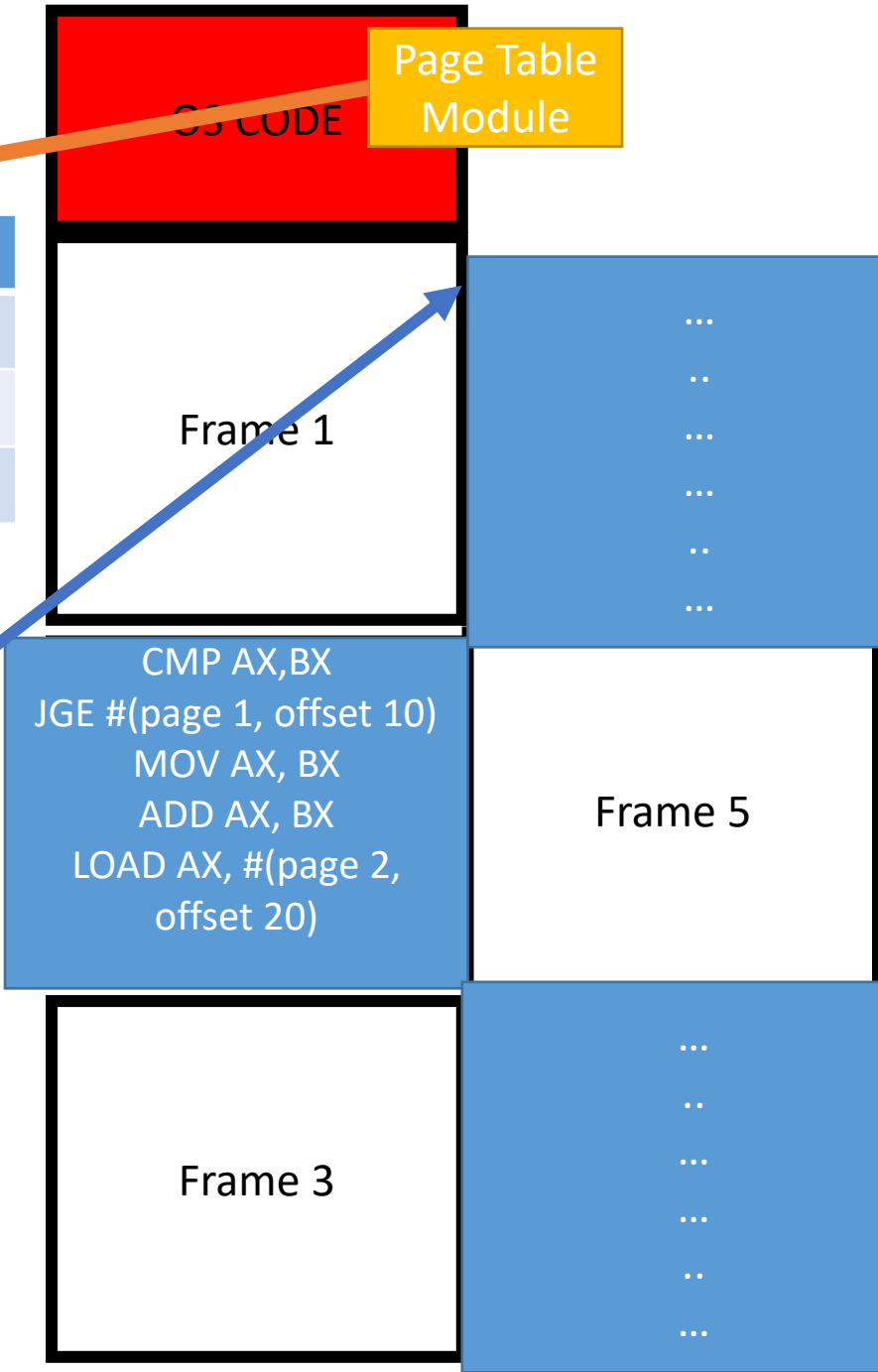
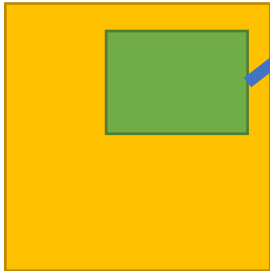
Page	Frame
Page 1	Frame 2
Page 2	Frame 4
Page 3	Frame 6



A more efficient approach : Paging



Page	Frame
Page 1	Frame 2
Page 2	Frame 4
Page 3	Frame 6



Demand Paging

- It is not wise to bring in **all the pages of a program** (as we did with the 3 pages of the previous program)
- We should bring in a program's page only when it is **required**.
- **Principle of locality** : A program's execution is confined to some particular pages (because of loops, functions, conditions).
- That is the **execution time of few pages** are way more compared to the **other pages** of the program

4.1 Demand Paging

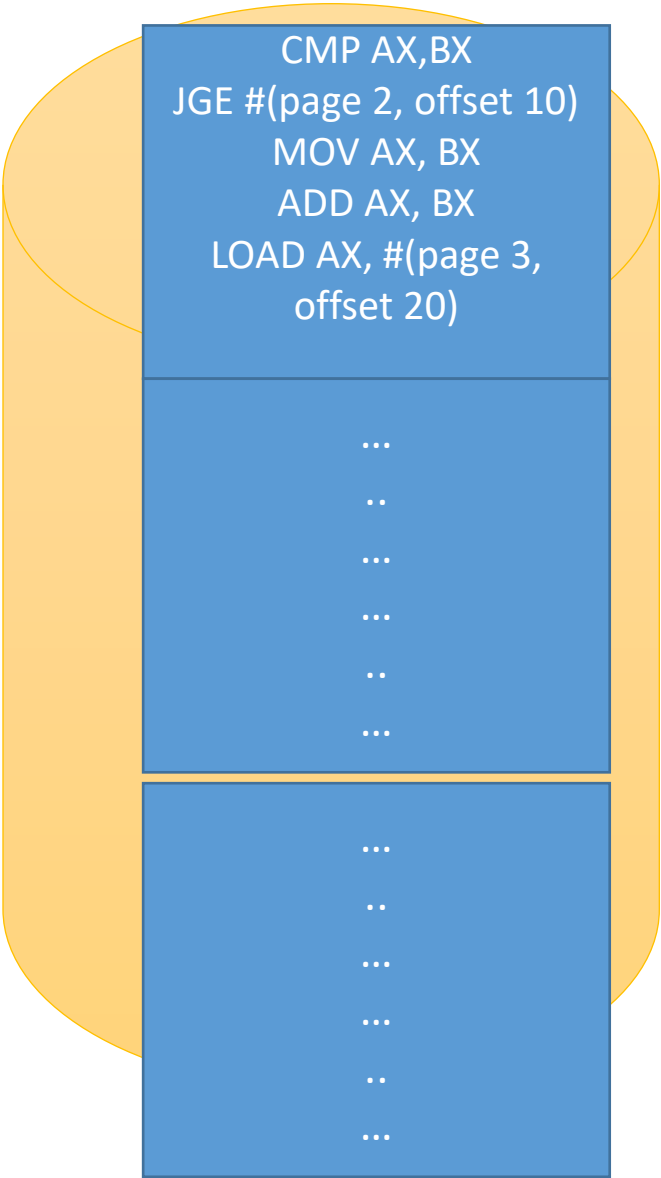
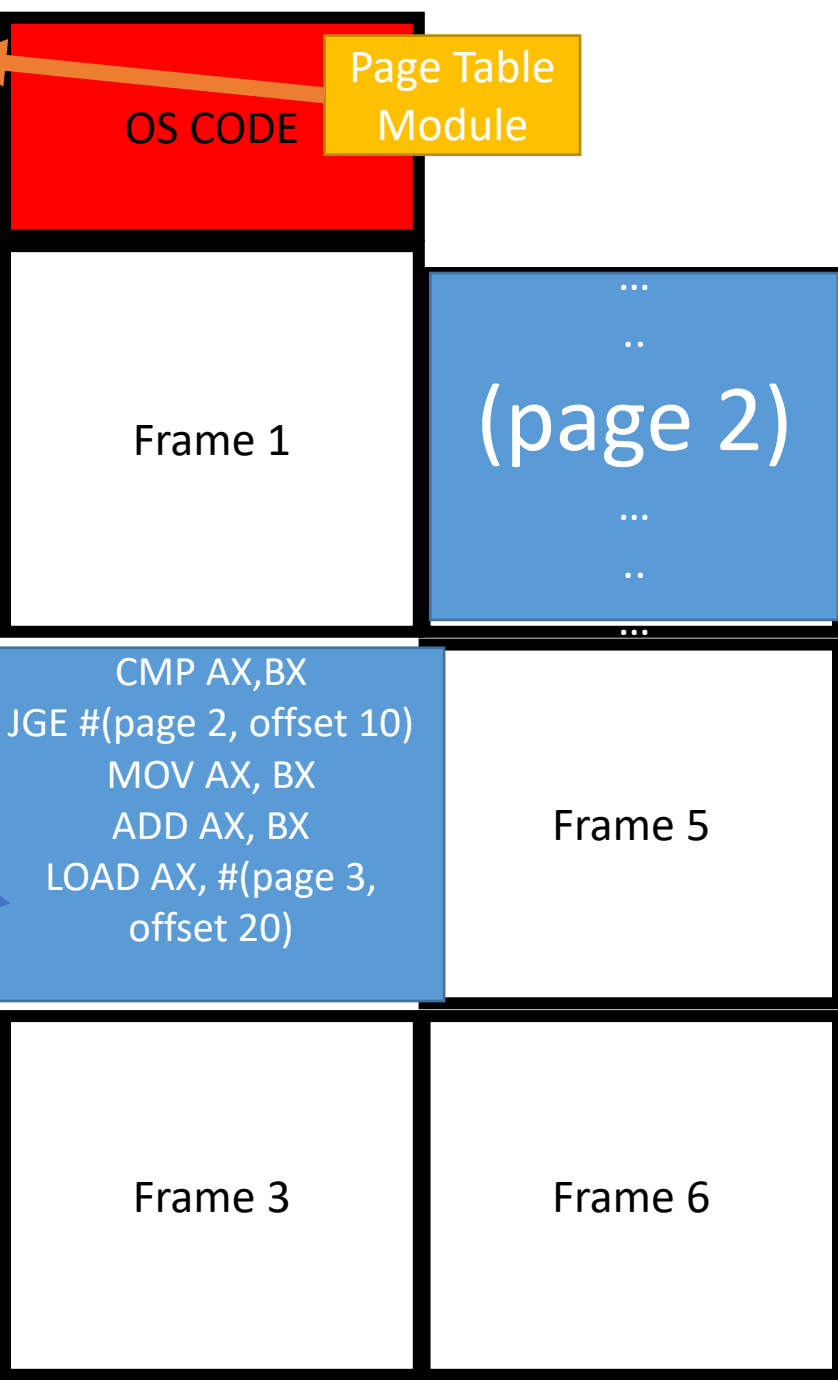
Demand Paging

Three terms related to Demand Paging

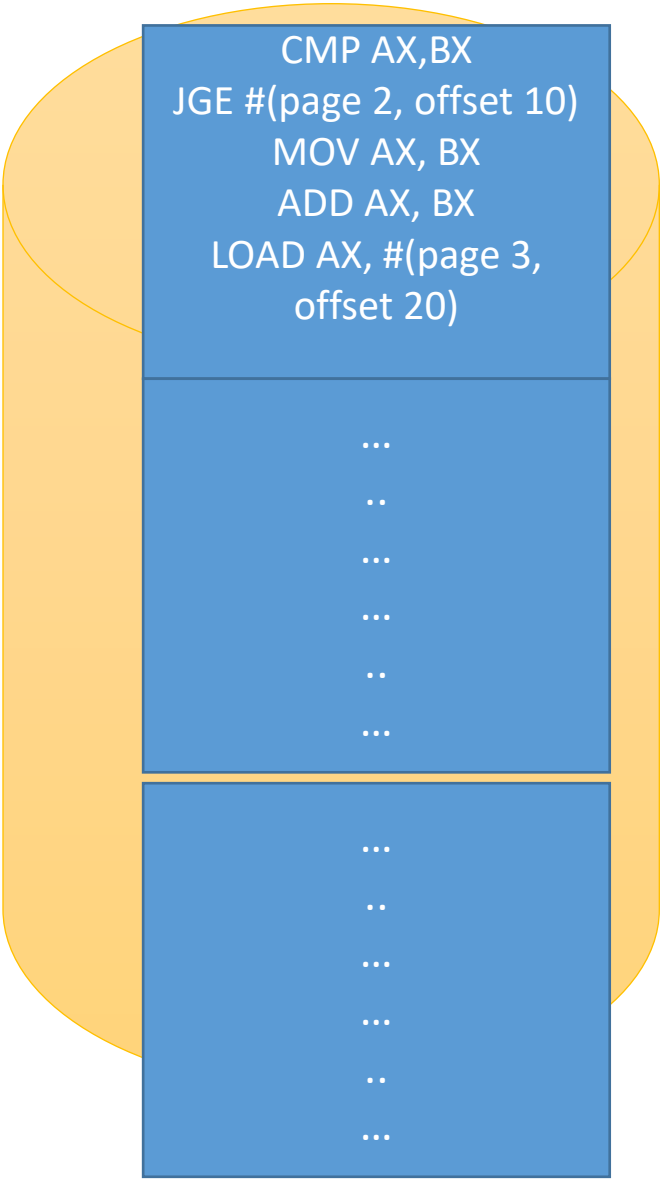
- Page Fault
- Replacement Algorithm
- Thrashing

Demand Paging

Page	Frame
Page 1	Frame 2
Page 2	Frame 4

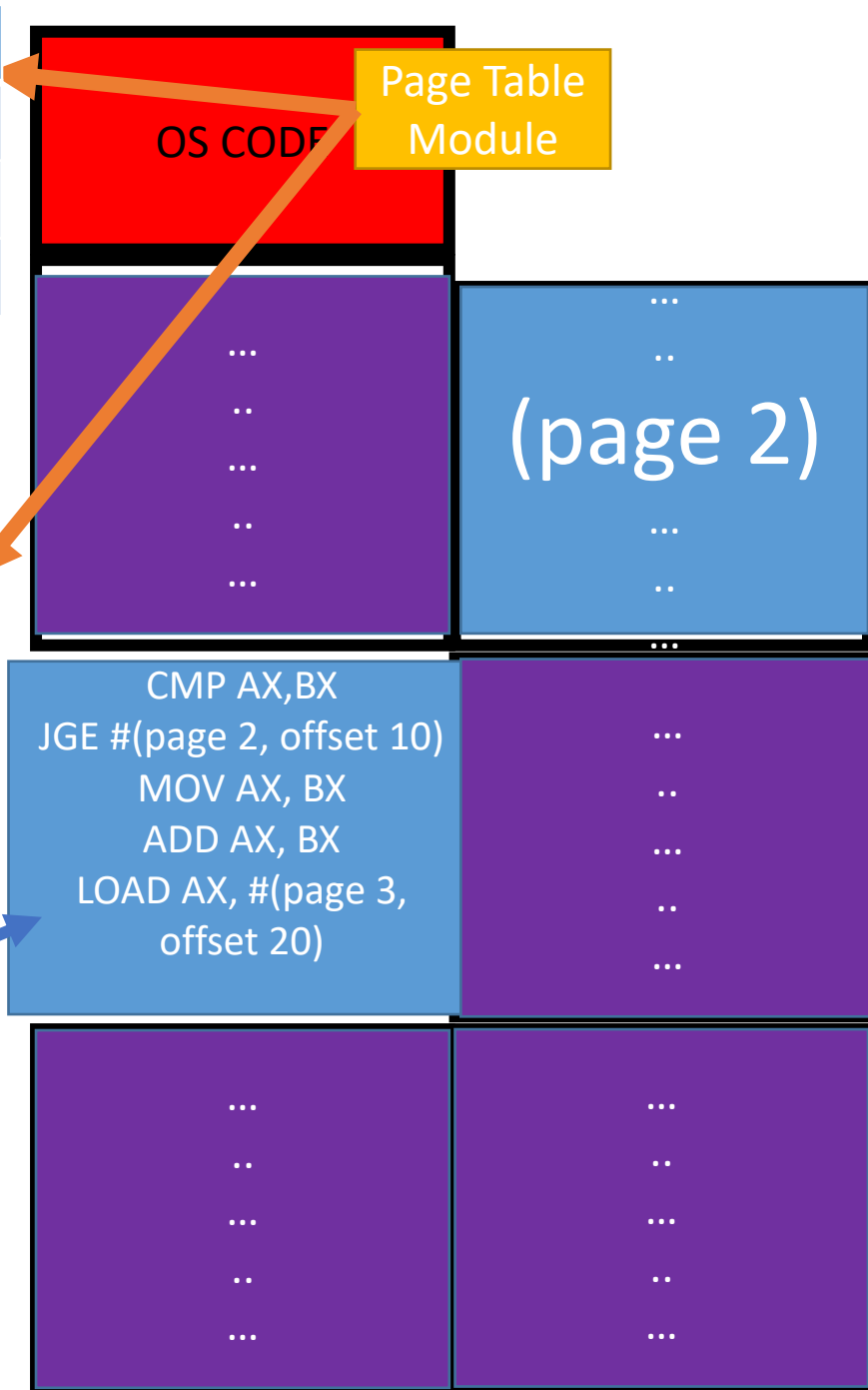
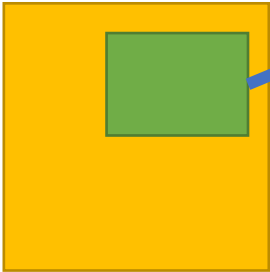


Demand Paging



Page	Frame
Page 1	Frame 2
Page 2	Frame 4

Page	Frame
Page 1	Frame 1
Page 2	Frame 3
Page 3	Frame 5
Page 4	Frame 6

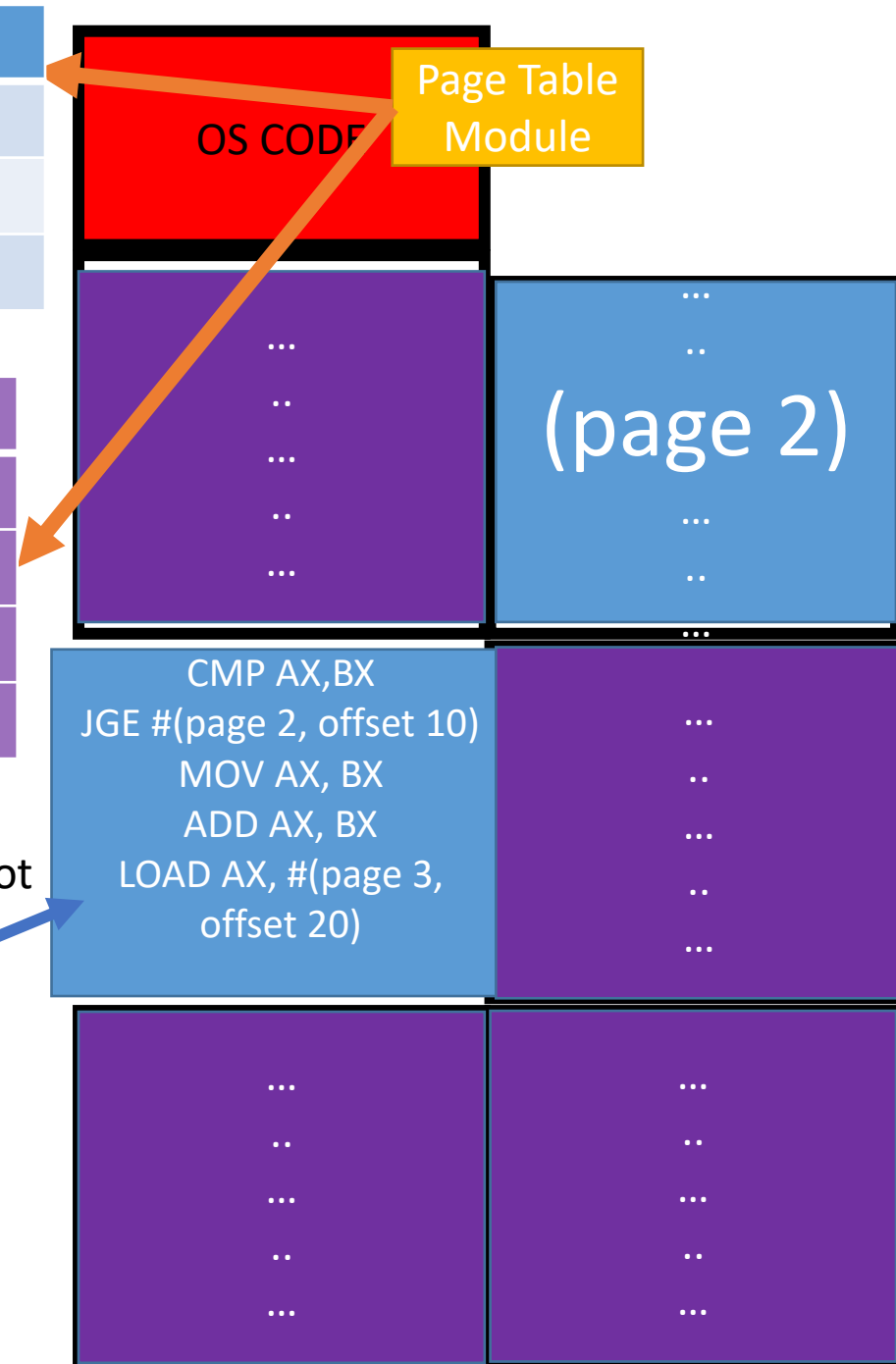


Demand Paging

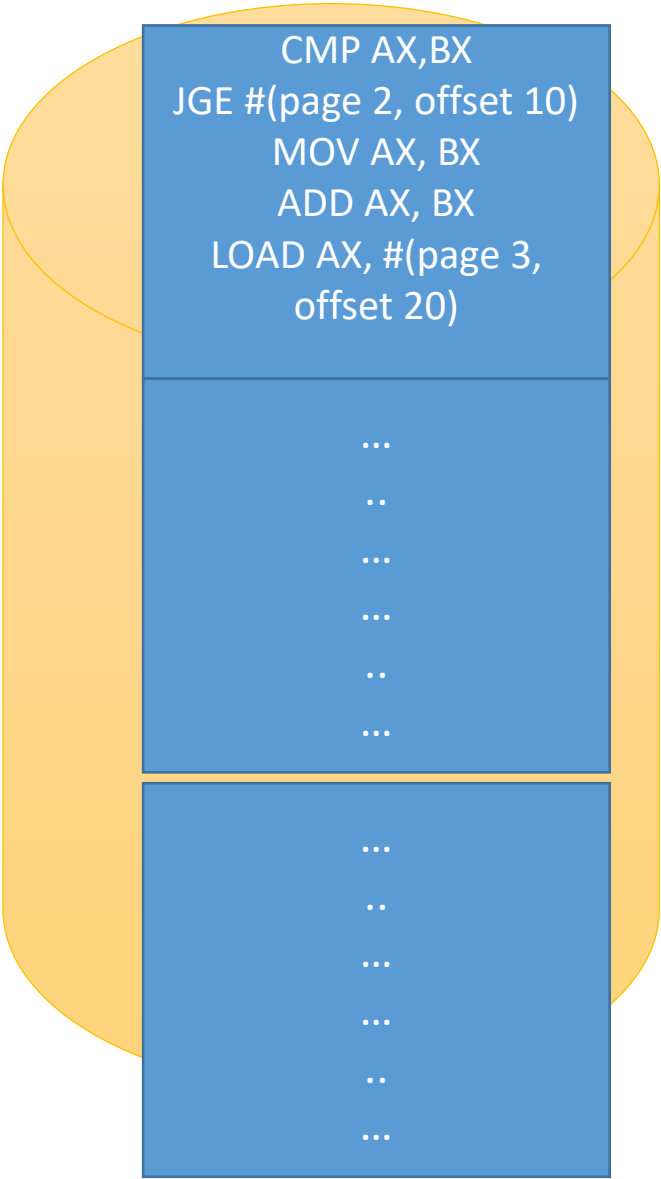
Page	Frame
Page 1	Frame 2
Page 2	Frame 4

Page	Frame
Page 1	Frame 1
Page 2	Frame 3
Page 3	Frame 5
Page 4	Frame 6

Observe that this instruction is
Requiring data from a page that is not
In the memory (**page 3**)



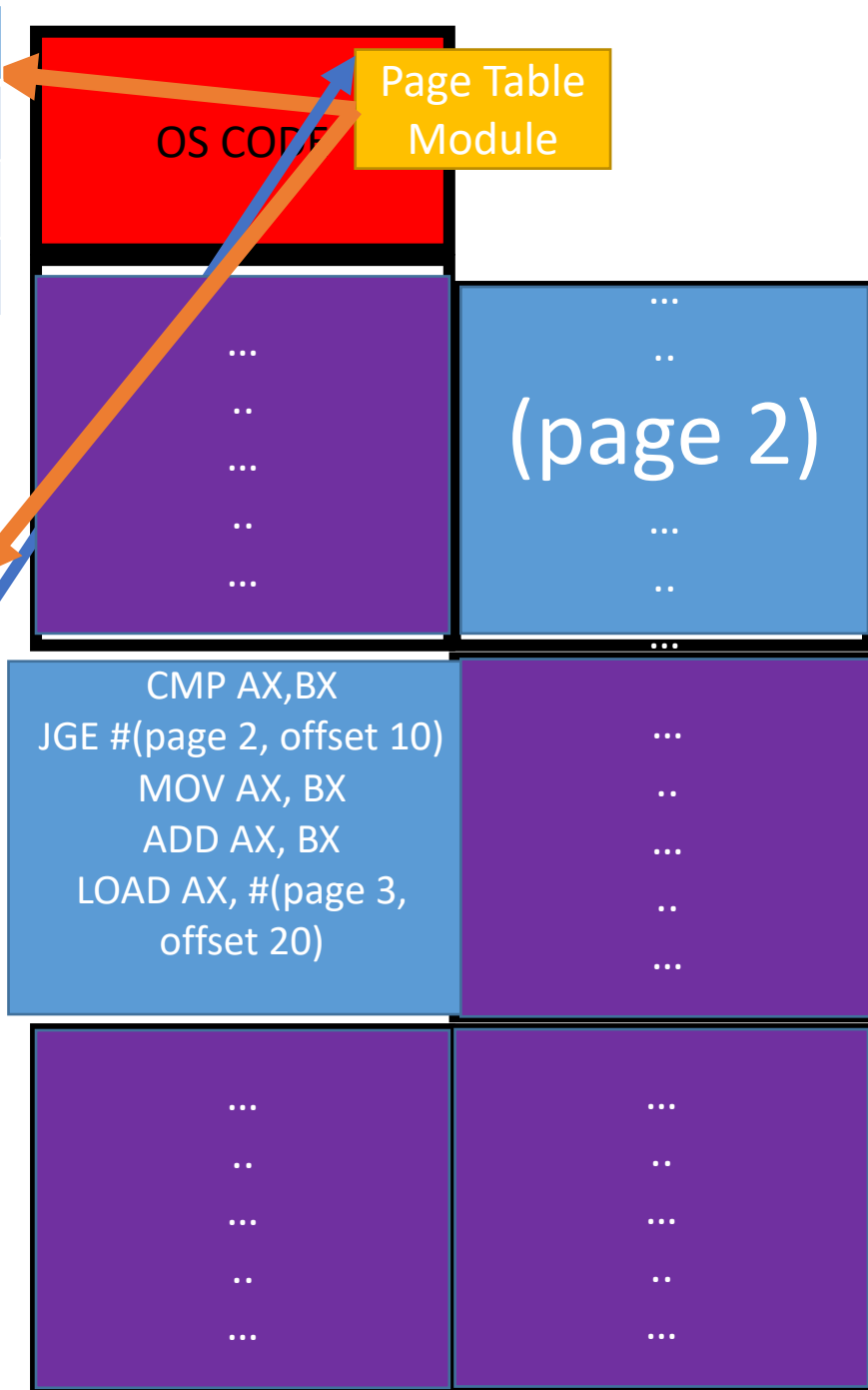
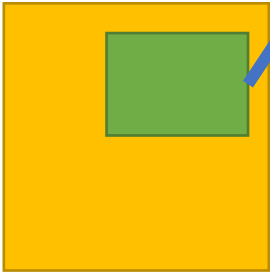
Demand Paging



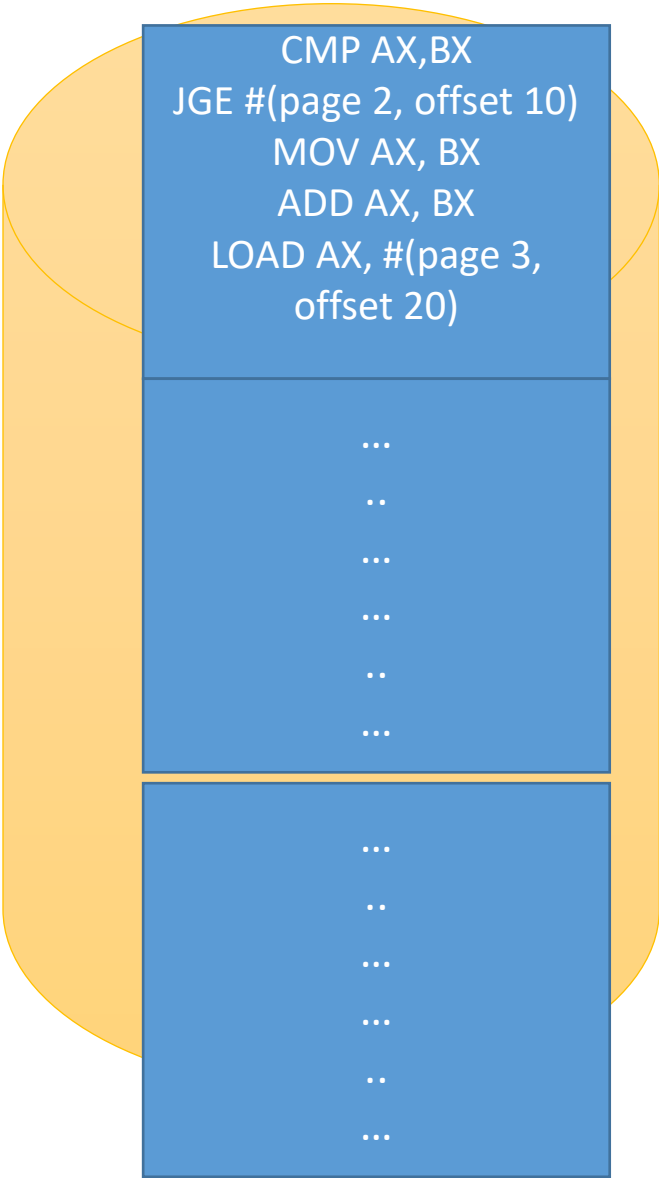
Page	Frame
Page 1	Frame 2
Page 2	Frame 4

Page	Frame
Page 1	Frame 1
Page 2	Frame 3
Page 3	Frame 5
Page 4	Frame 6

The Processor goes to the OS's page
Page table module



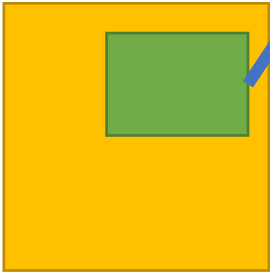
Demand Paging



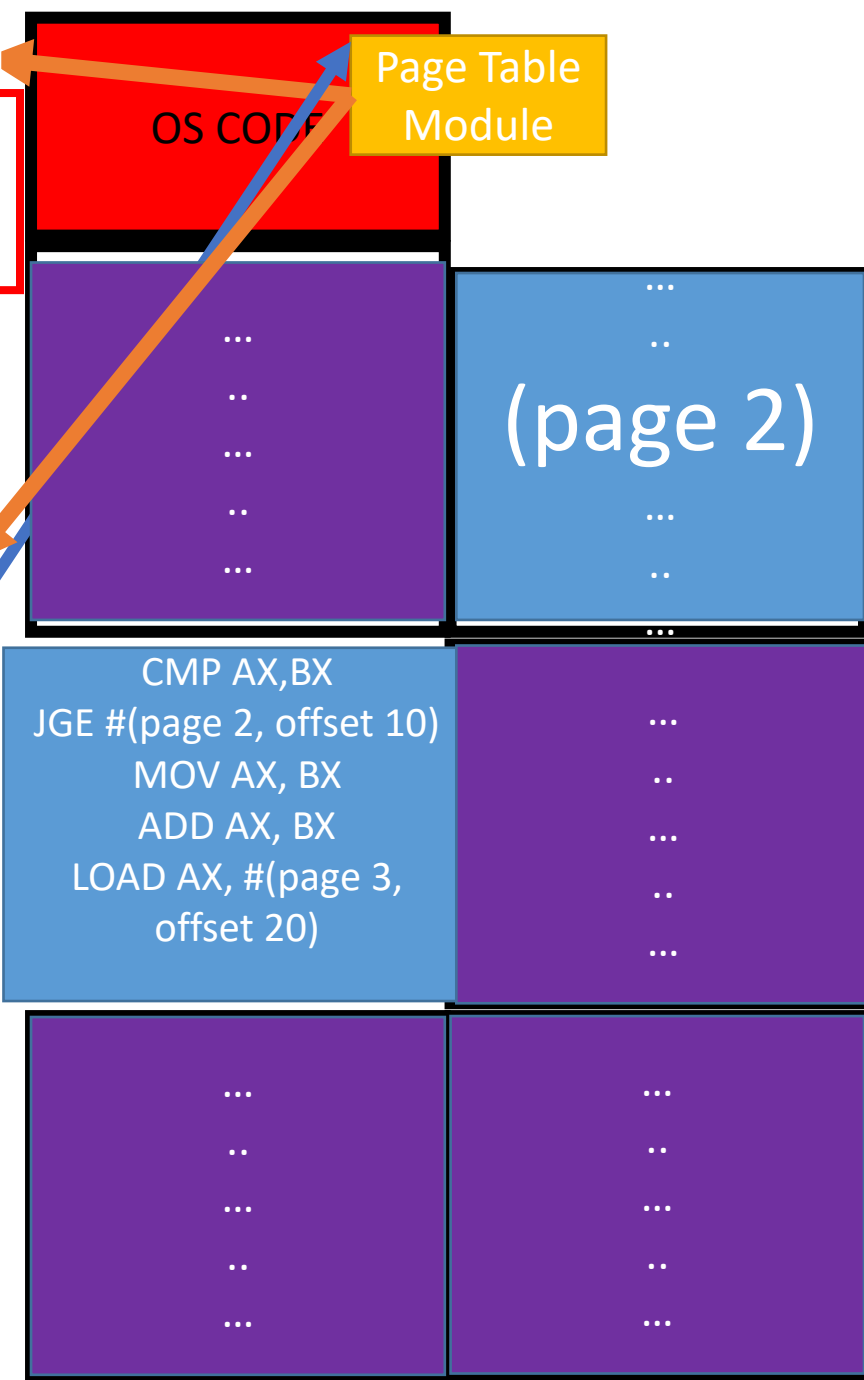
Page	Frame
Page 1	Frame 2
Page 2	Frame 4

Page	Frame
Page 1	Frame 1
Page 2	Frame 3
Page 3	Frame 5
Page 4	Frame 6

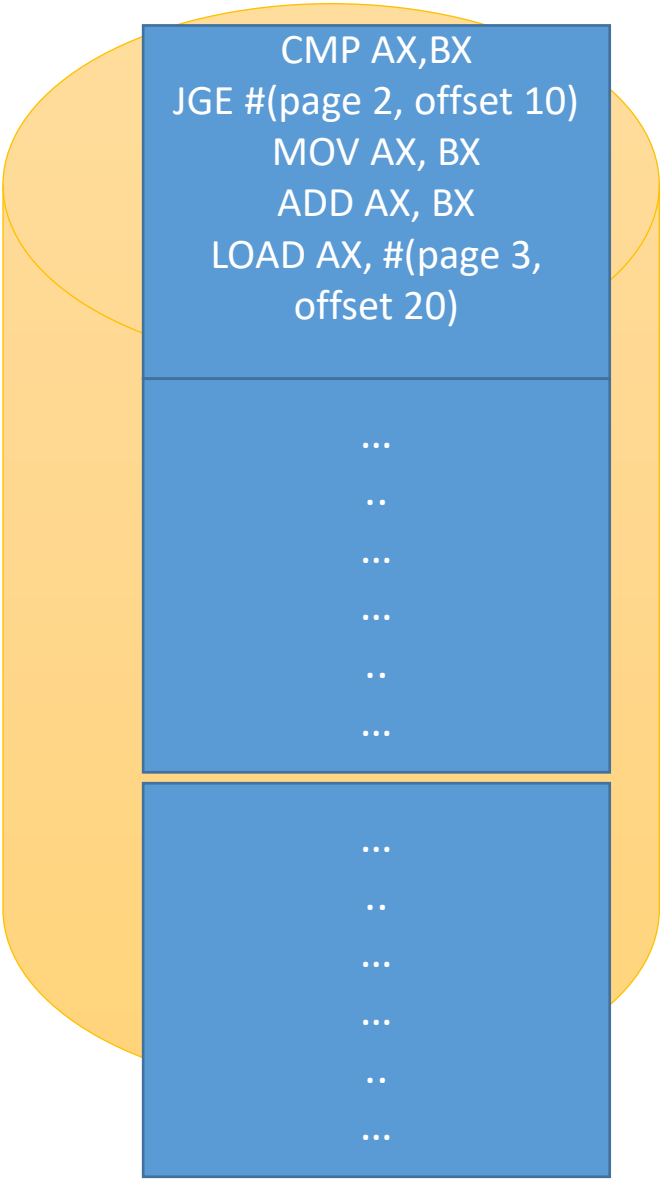
The Processor goes to the OS's page
Page table module



But no data of page 3 is there:
This situation is called **PAGE FAULT**



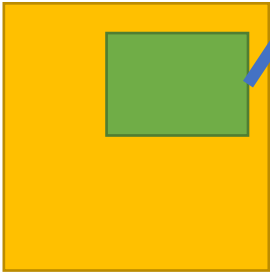
Demand Paging



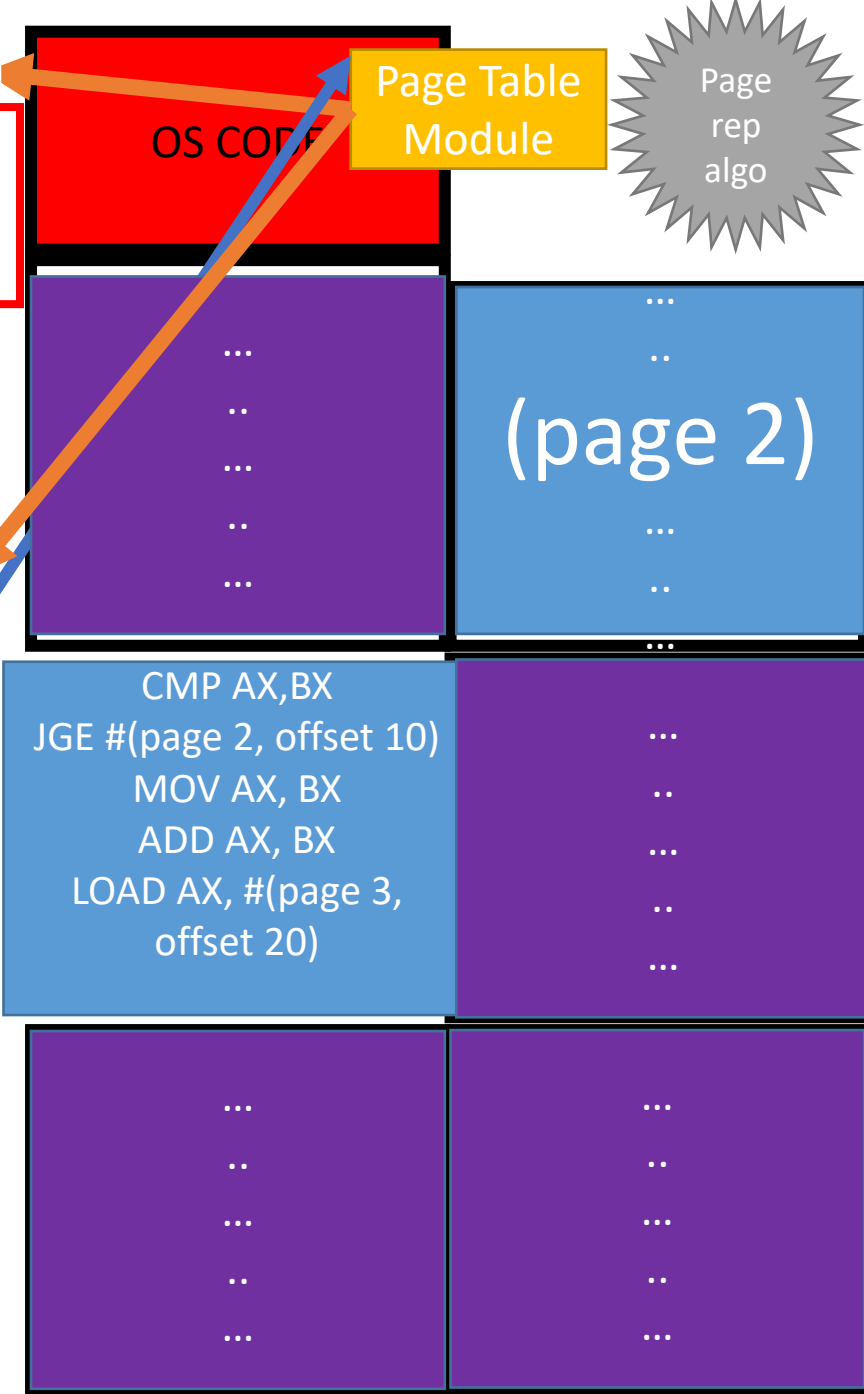
Page	Frame
Page 1	Frame 2
Page 2	Frame 4

Page	Frame
Page 1	Frame 1
Page 2	Frame 3
Page 3	Frame 5
Page 4	Frame 6

The Processor goes to the OS's page
Page table module



But no data of page 3 is there



Demand Paging

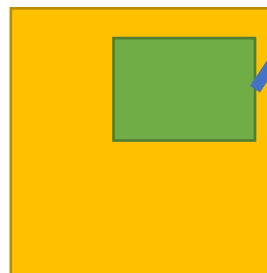
Since, **no empty Frame** is there, one of the Pages will be **replaced**



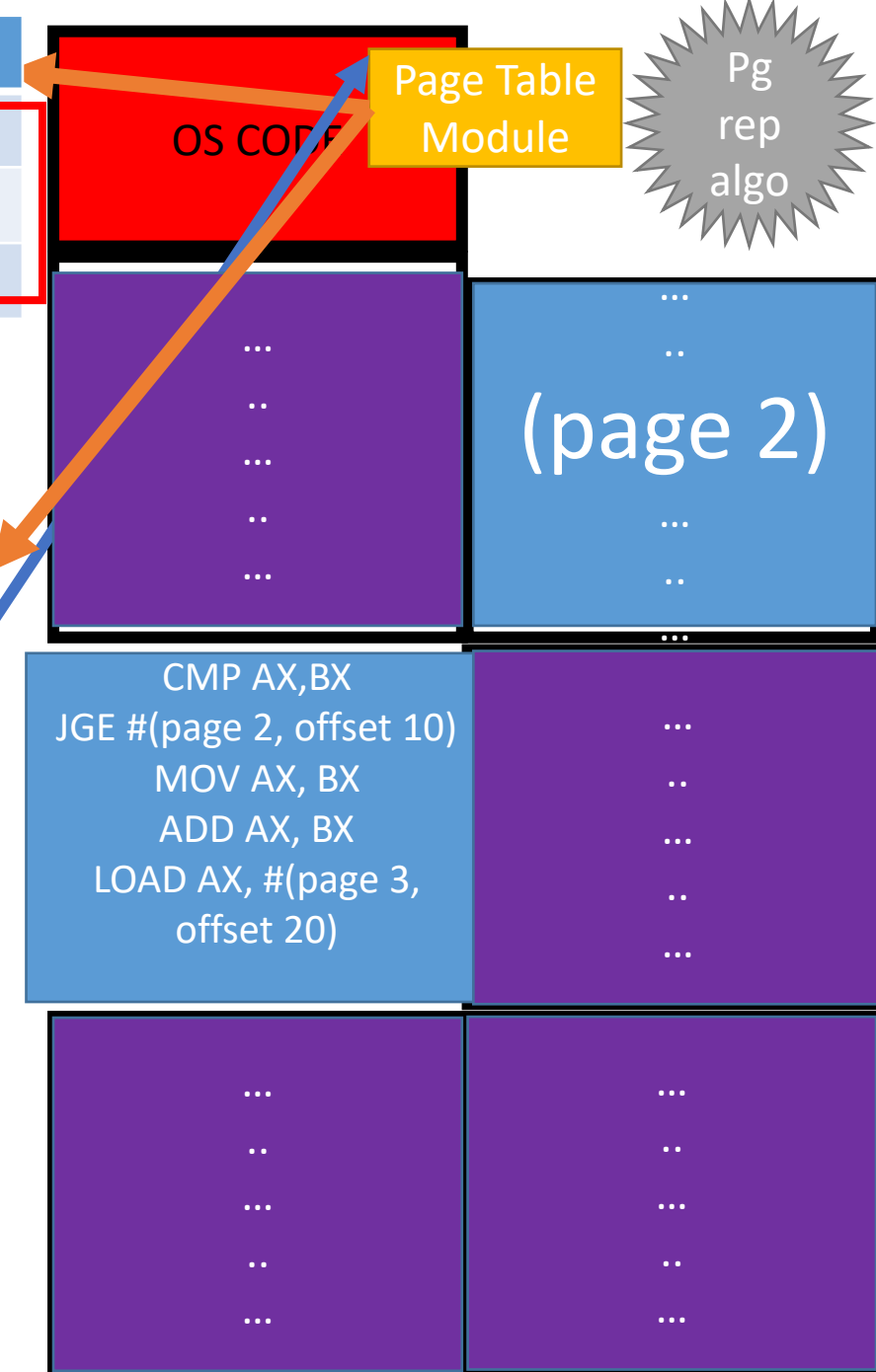
Page	Frame
Page 1	Frame 2
Page 2	Frame 4

Page	Frame
Page 1	Frame 1
Page 2	Frame 3
Page 3	Frame 5
Page 4	Frame 6

The Processor goes to the OS's page table module



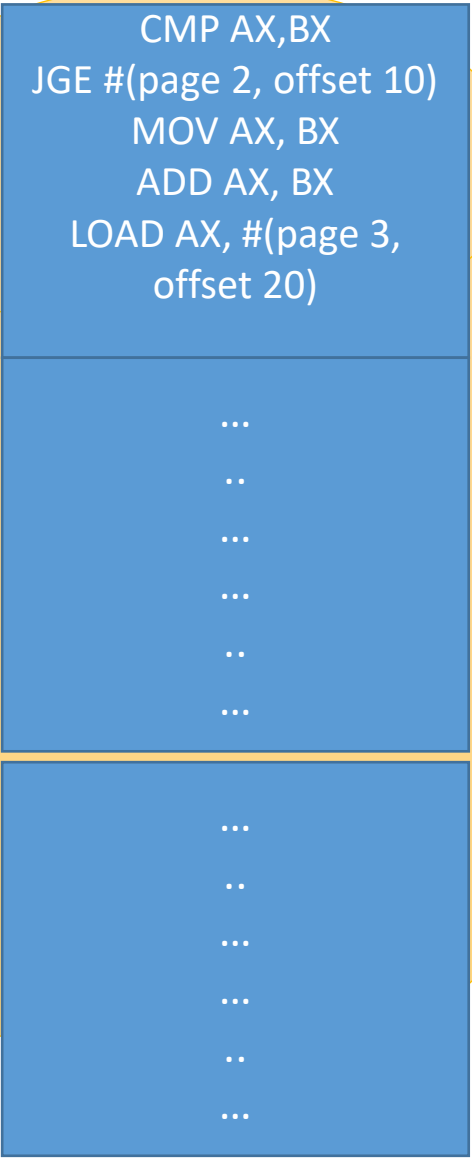
But no data of page 3 is there



Demand Paging

Since, no empty Frame is there, one of the Pages will be replaced

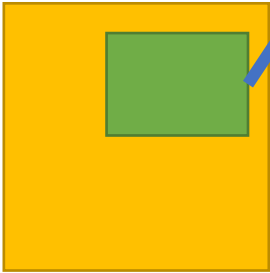
The new Page is Placed inside And the **page Tables** are **updated**



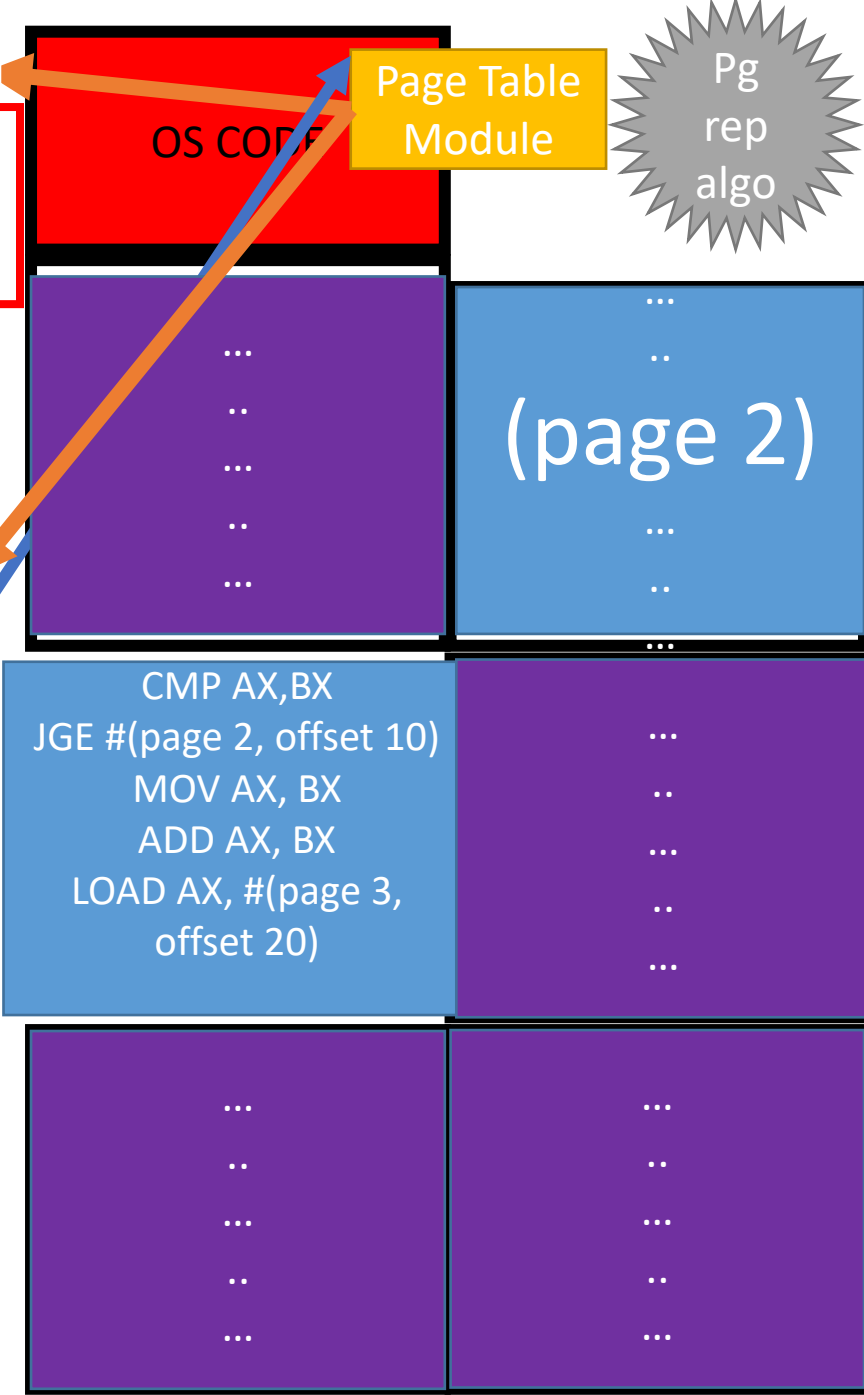
Page	Frame
Page 1	Frame 2
Page 2	Frame 4

Page	Frame
Page 1	Frame 1
Page 2	Frame 3
Page 3	Frame 5
Page 4	Frame 6

The Processor goes to the OS's page Page table module



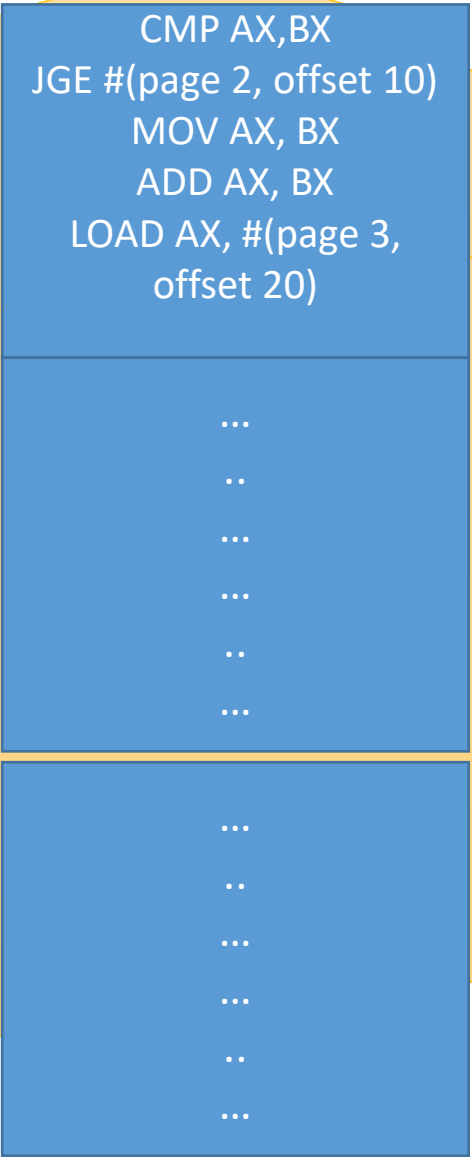
But no data of page 3 is there



Demand Paging

Since, no empty Frame is there, one of the Pages will be replaced

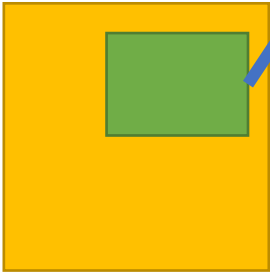
The new Page is Placed inside And the Page Tables are updated



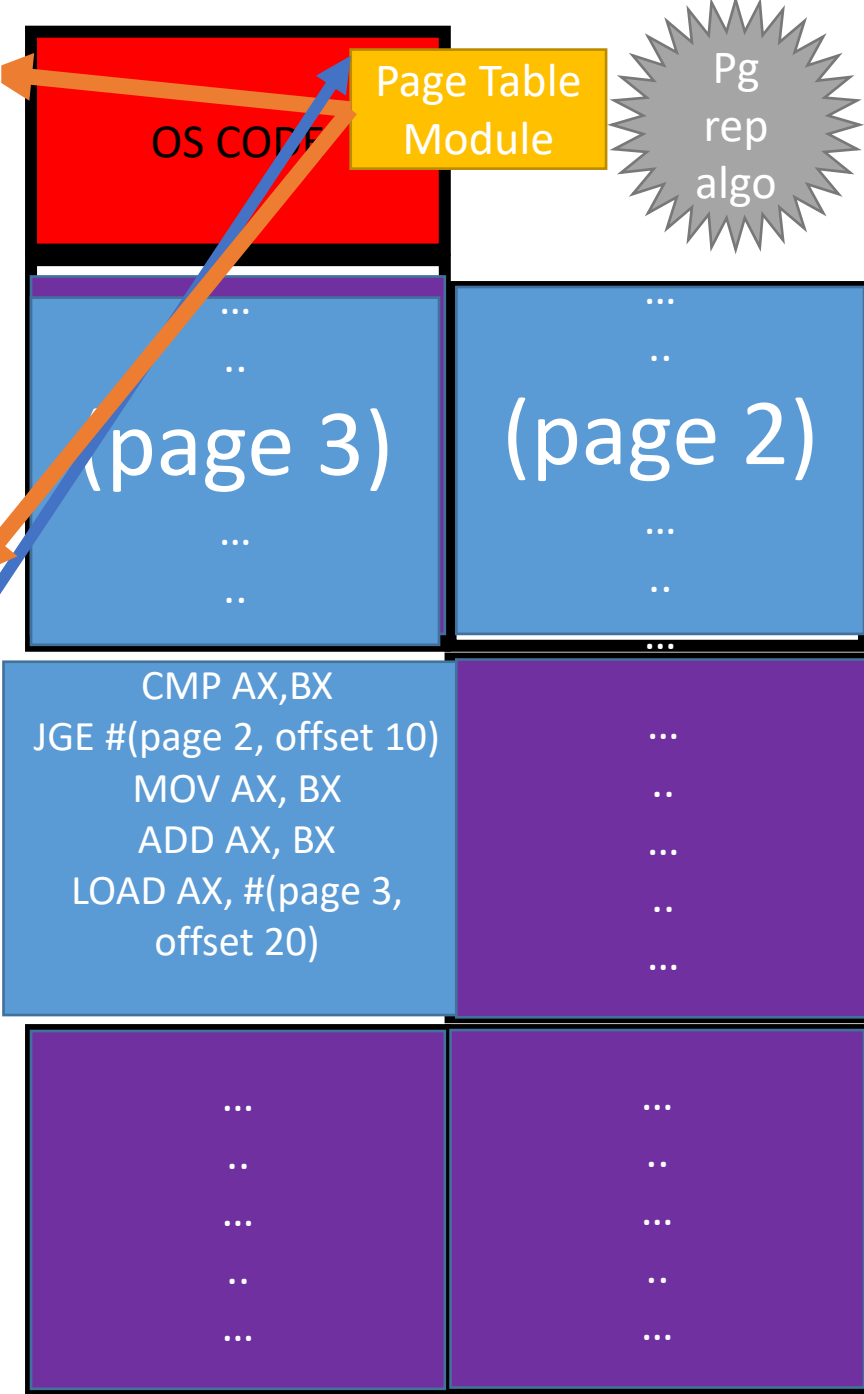
Page	Frame
Page 1	Frame 2
Page 2	Frame 4
Page 3	Frame 1

Page	Frame
Page 2	Frame 3
Page 3	Frame 5
Page 4	Frame 6

The Processor goes to the OS's page Page table module

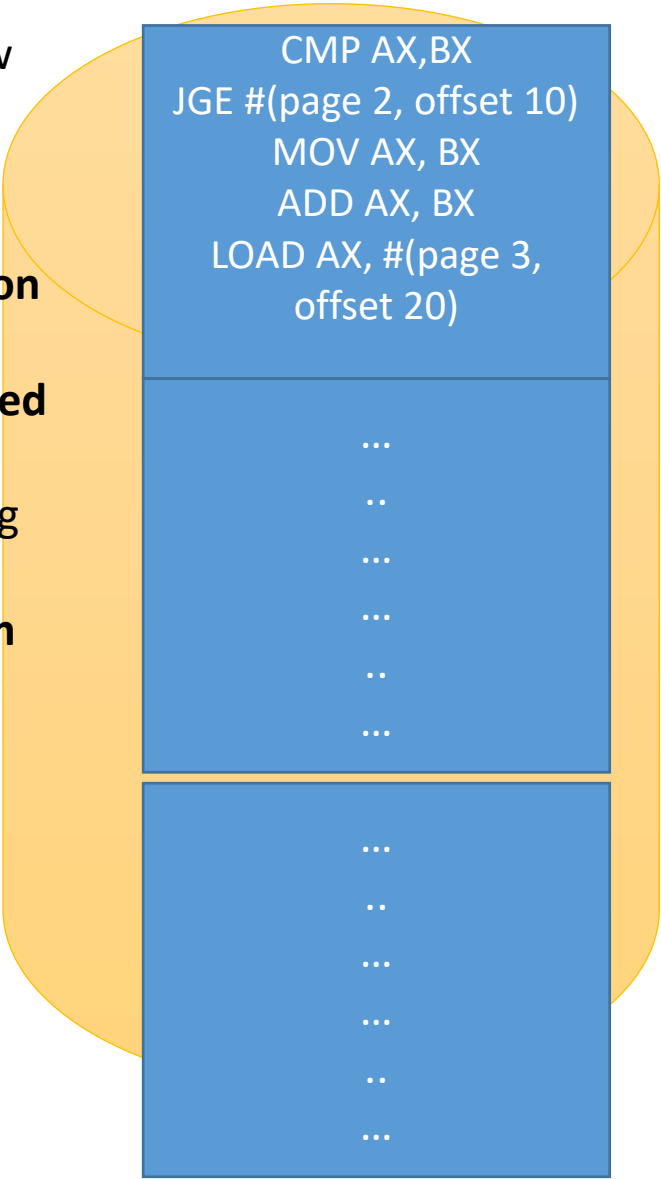


But no data of page 3 is there



Demand Paging

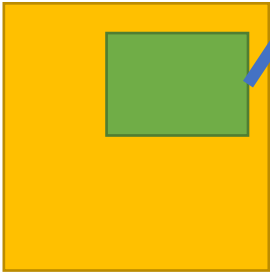
Using
The new
Entry
The
process
Execution
Is
continued
By
updating
The
program
counter



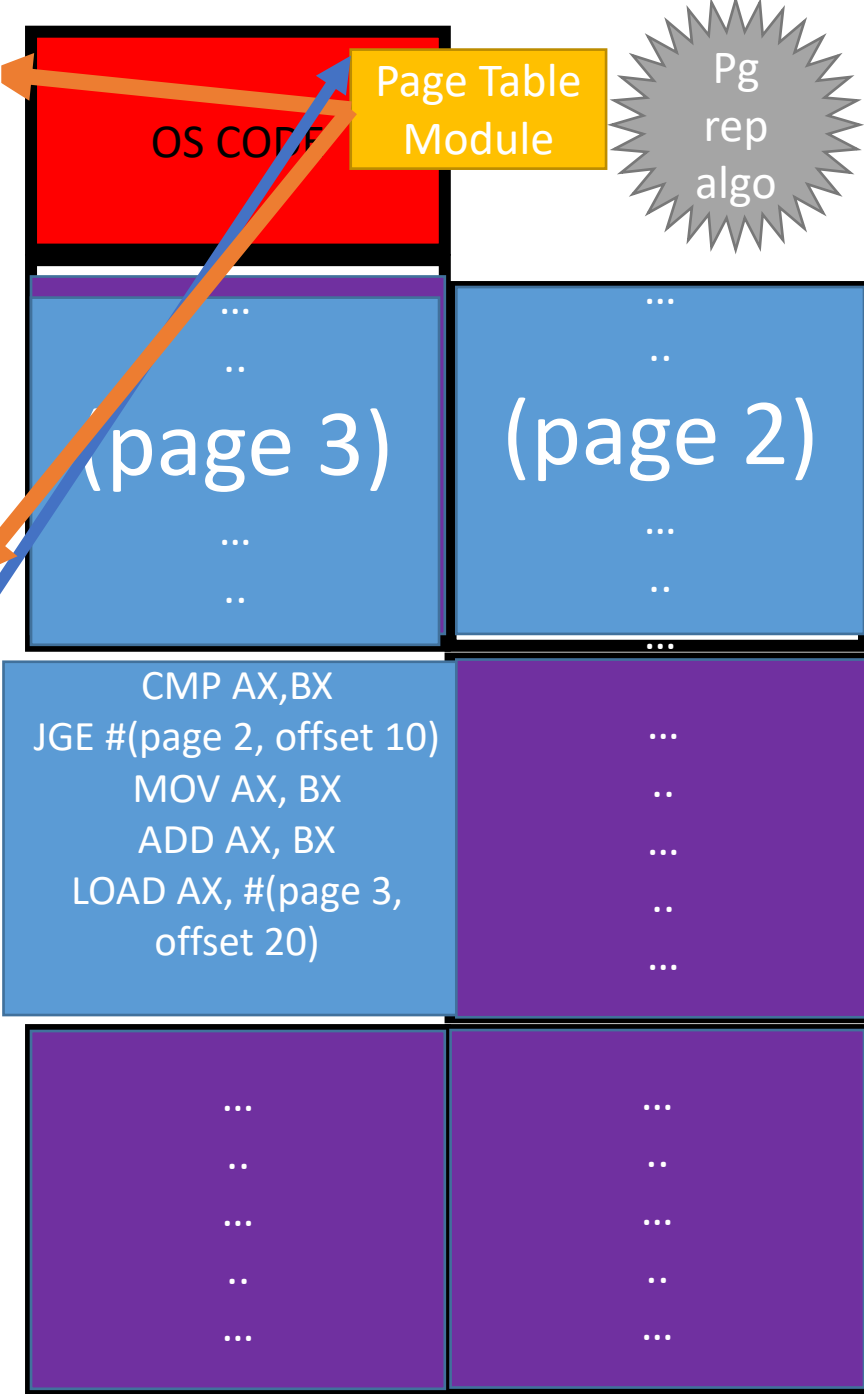
Page	Frame
Page 1	Frame 2
Page 2	Frame 4
Page 3	Frame 1

Page	Frame
...	...
Page 2	Frame 3
Page 3	Frame 5
Page 4	Frame 6

The Processor goes to the OS's page
Page table module

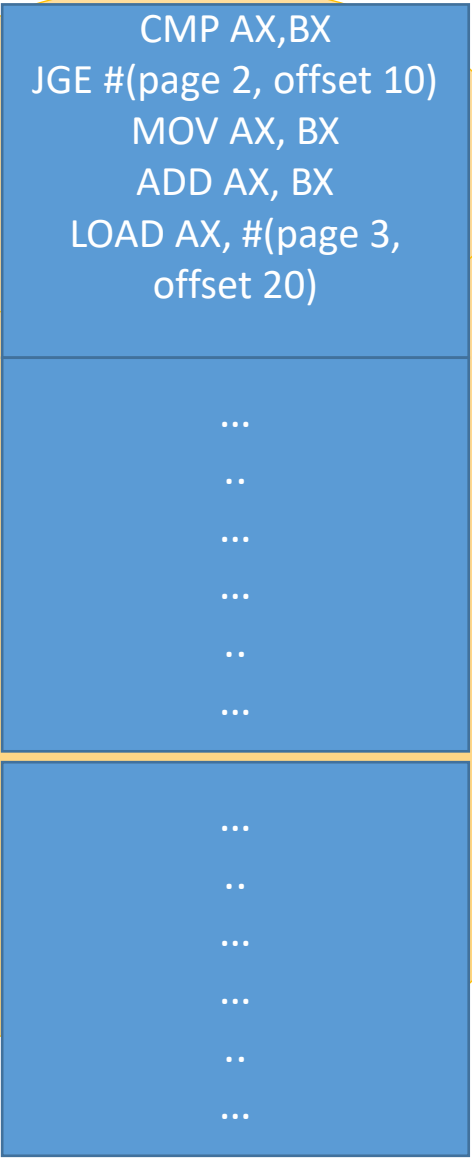


But no data of page 3 is there



Demand Paging

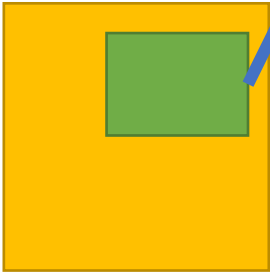
Using
The new
Entry
The
process
Execution
Is
continued
By
updating
The
**program
counter**



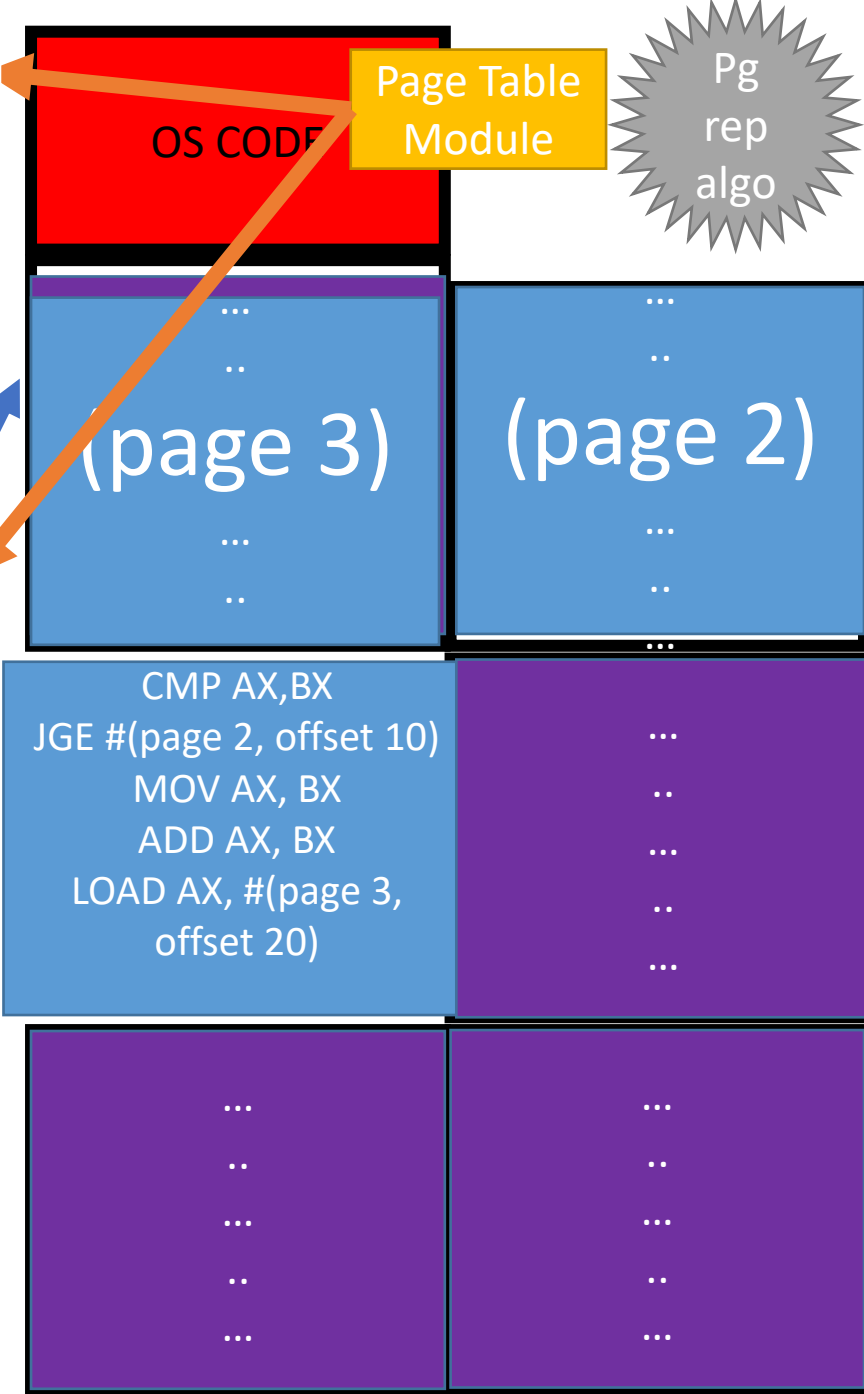
Page	Frame
Page 1	Frame 2
Page 2	Frame 4
Page 3	Frame 1

Page	Frame
...	...
Page 2	Frame 3
Page 3	Frame 5
Page 4	Frame 6

The Processor goes to the OS's page
Page table module

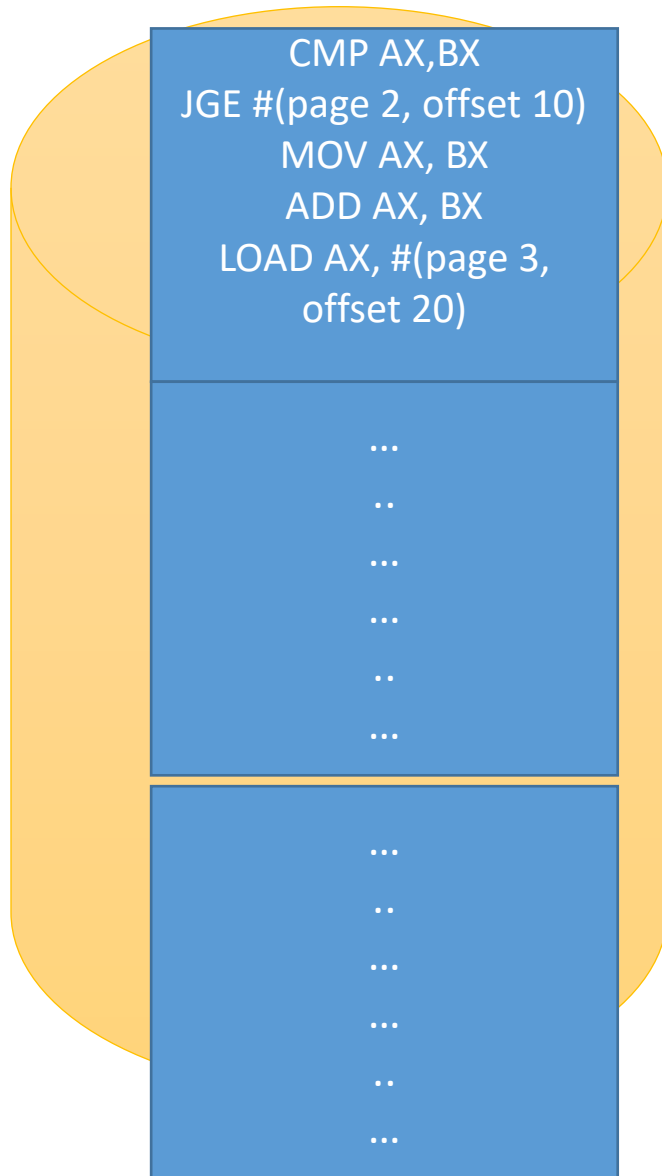


But no data of page 3 is there



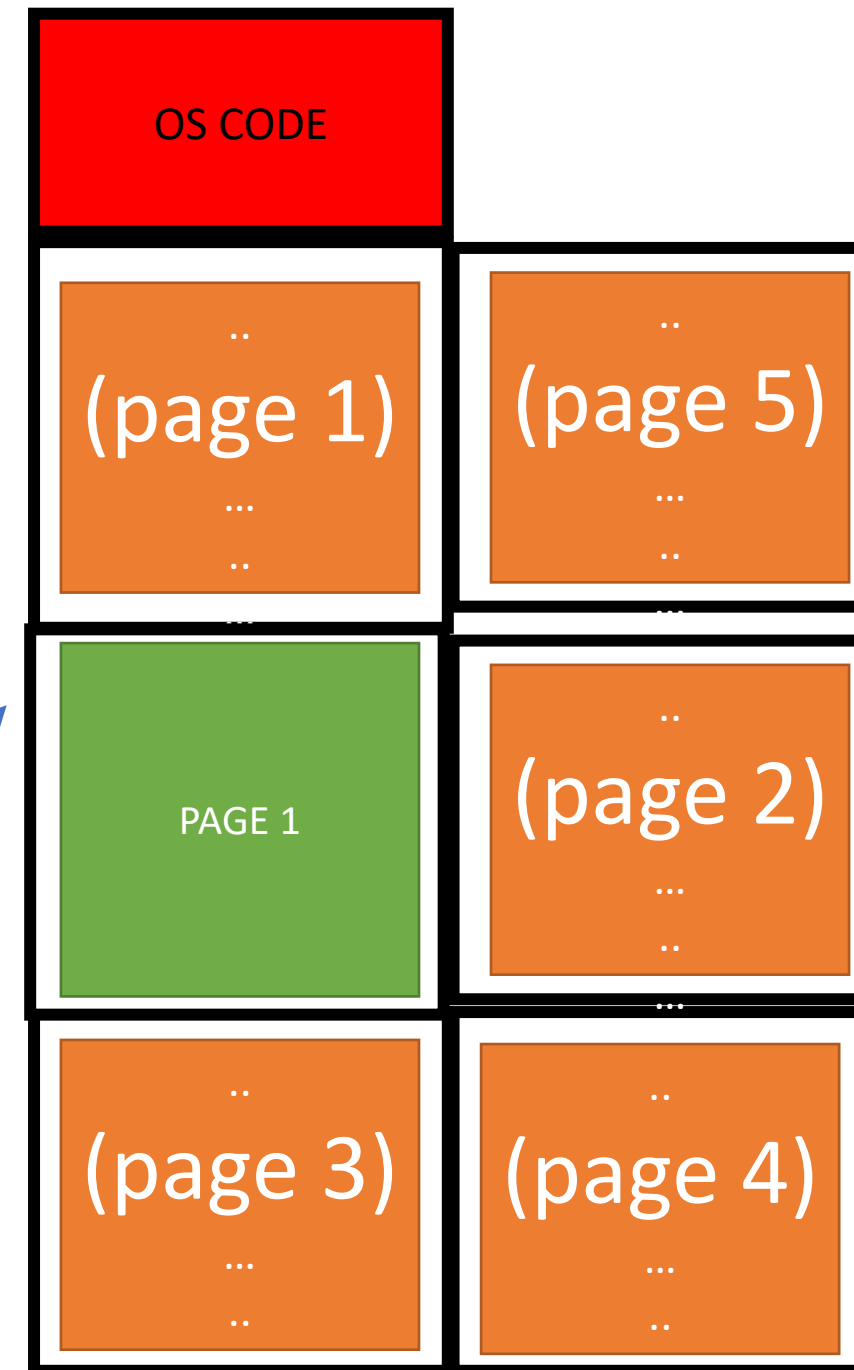
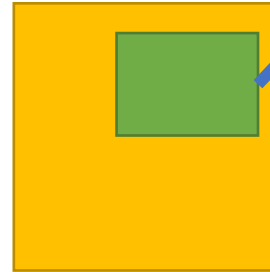
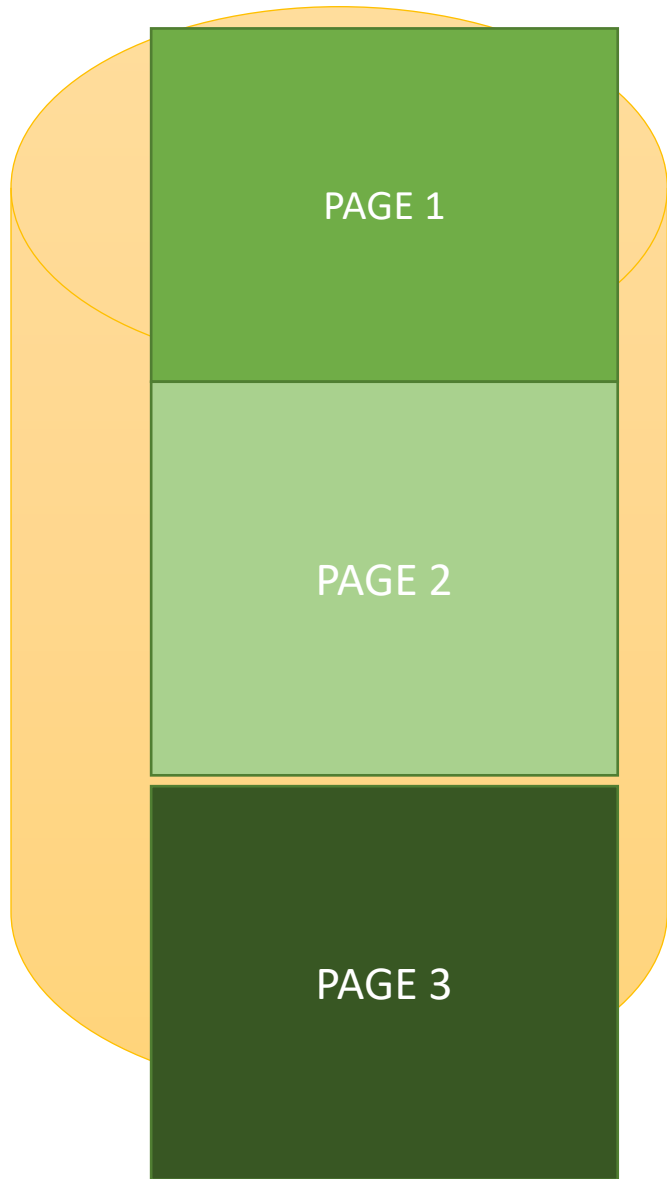
Demand Paging : Thrashing

- This happens due to **inefficient Page replacement algorithms**



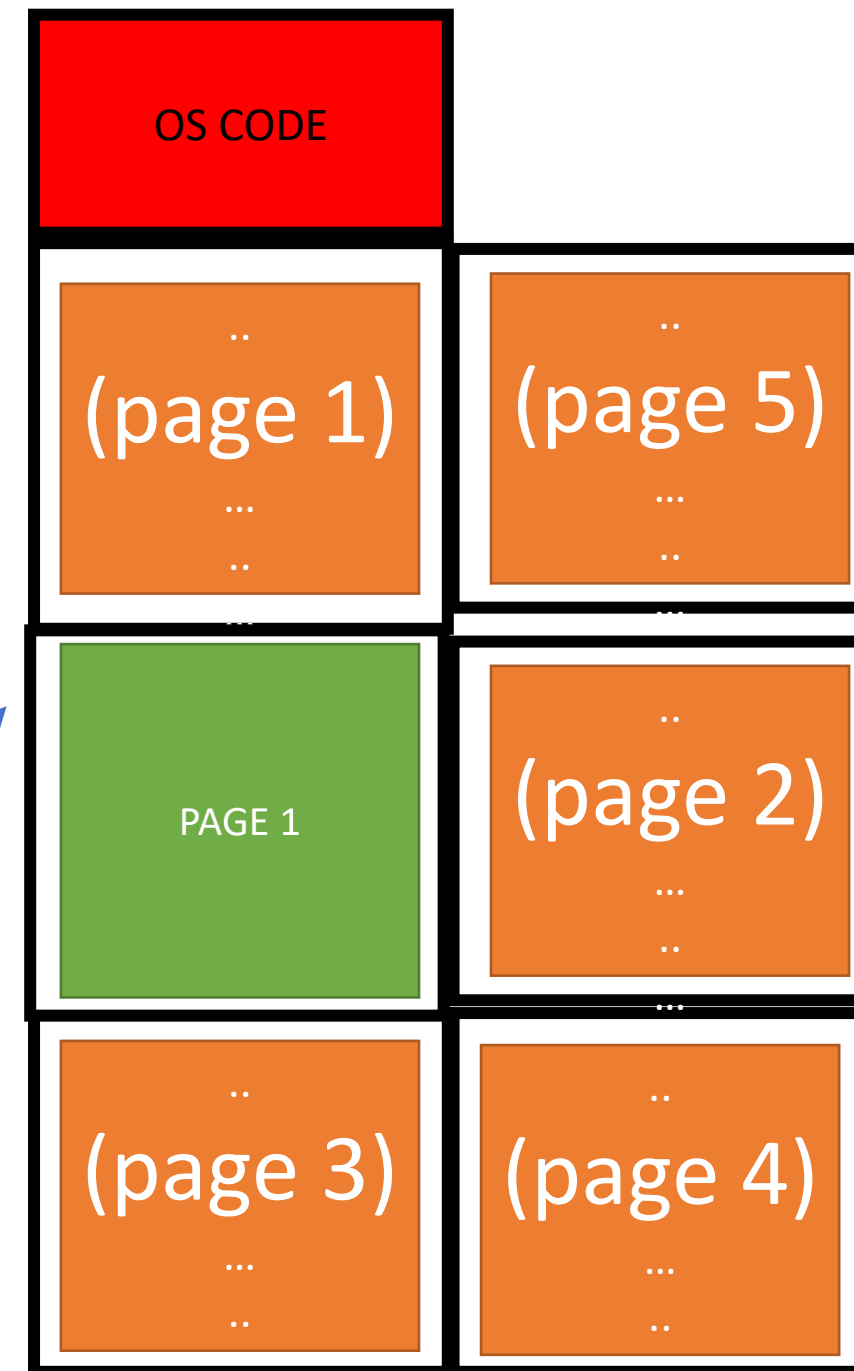
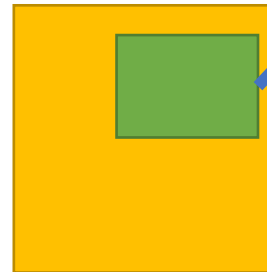
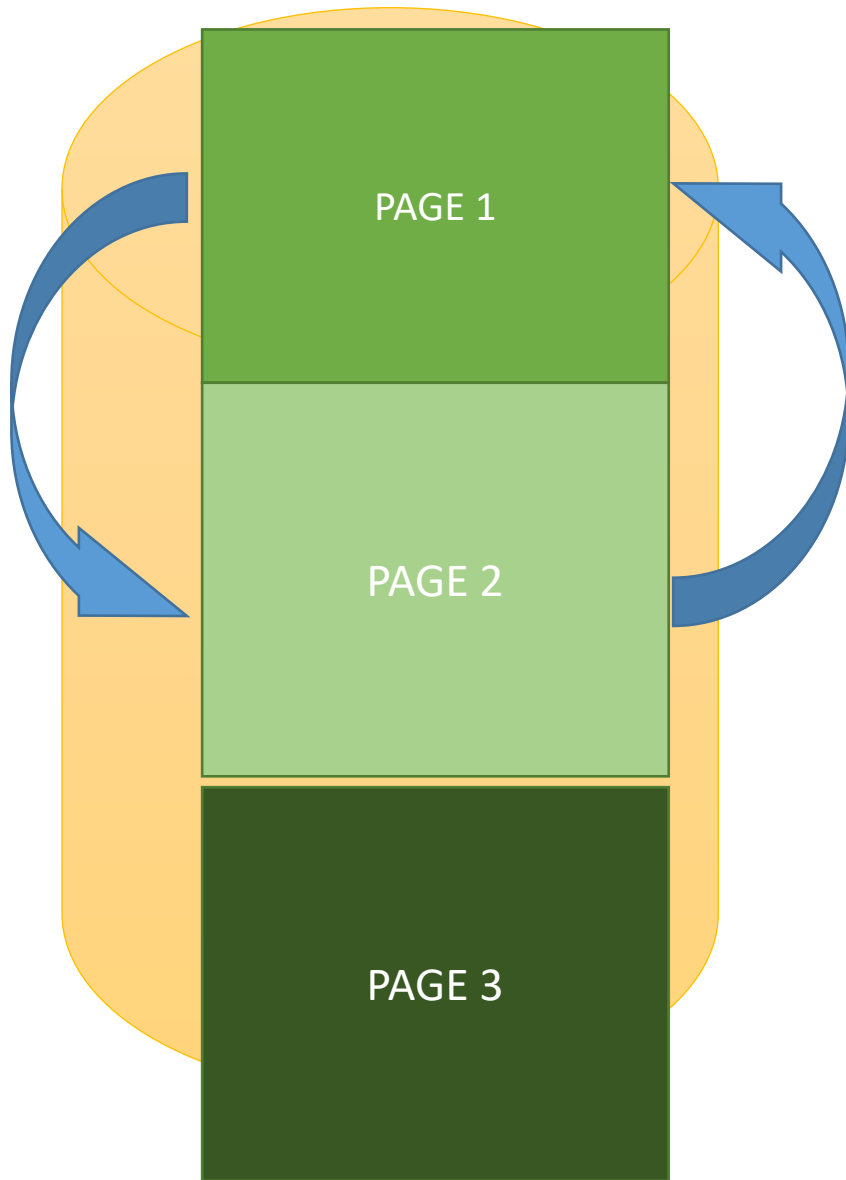
Demand Paging : Thrashing

- This happens due to inefficient Page replacement algorithms



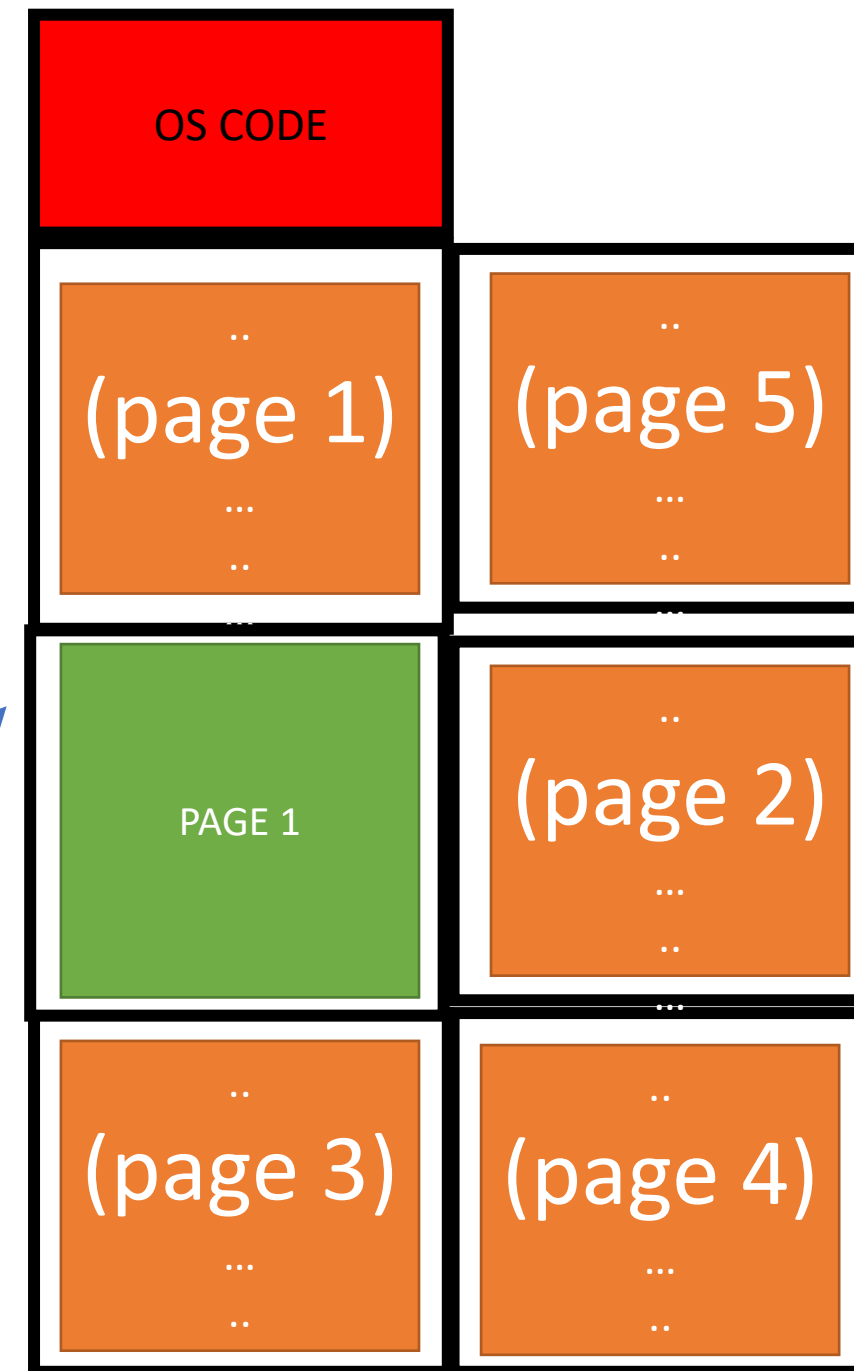
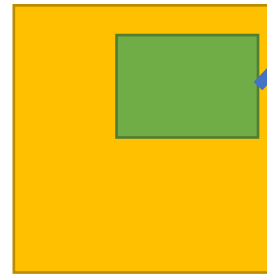
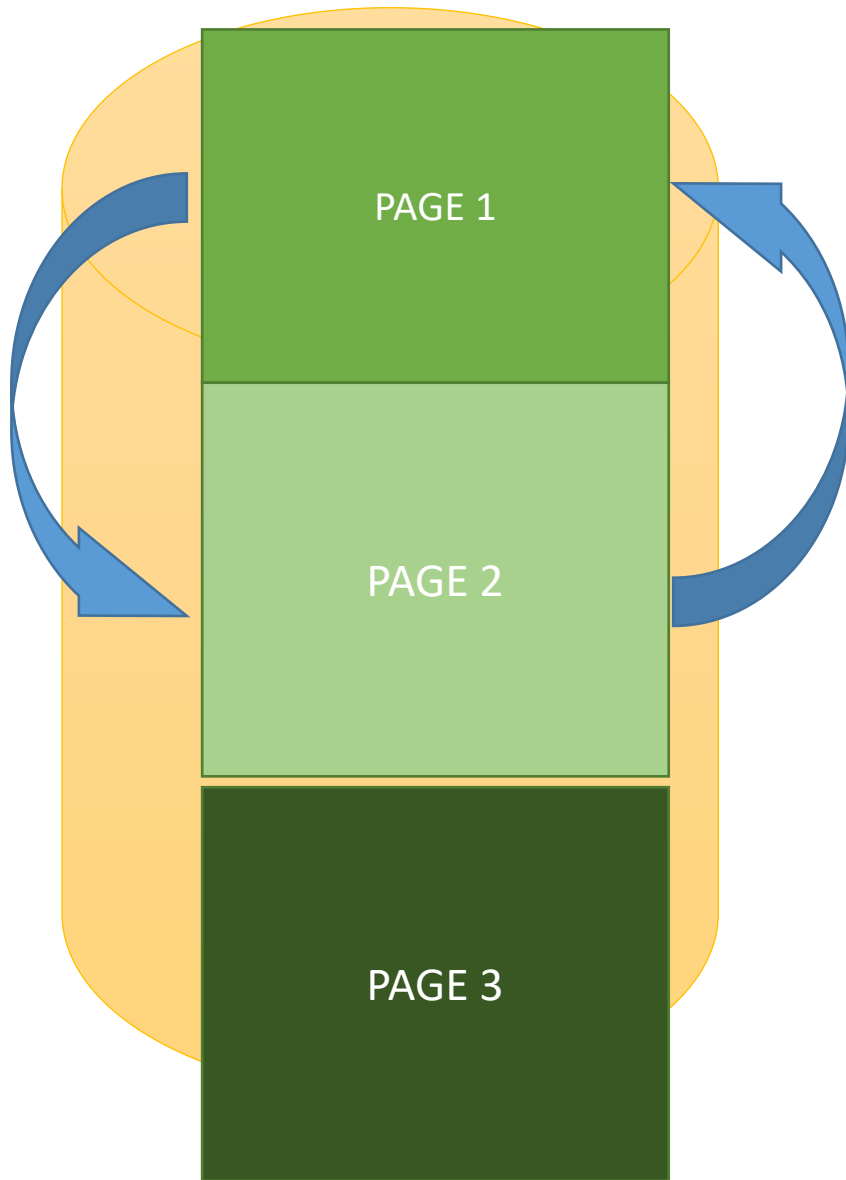
Demand Paging : Thrashing

- This happens due to inefficient Page replacement algorithms



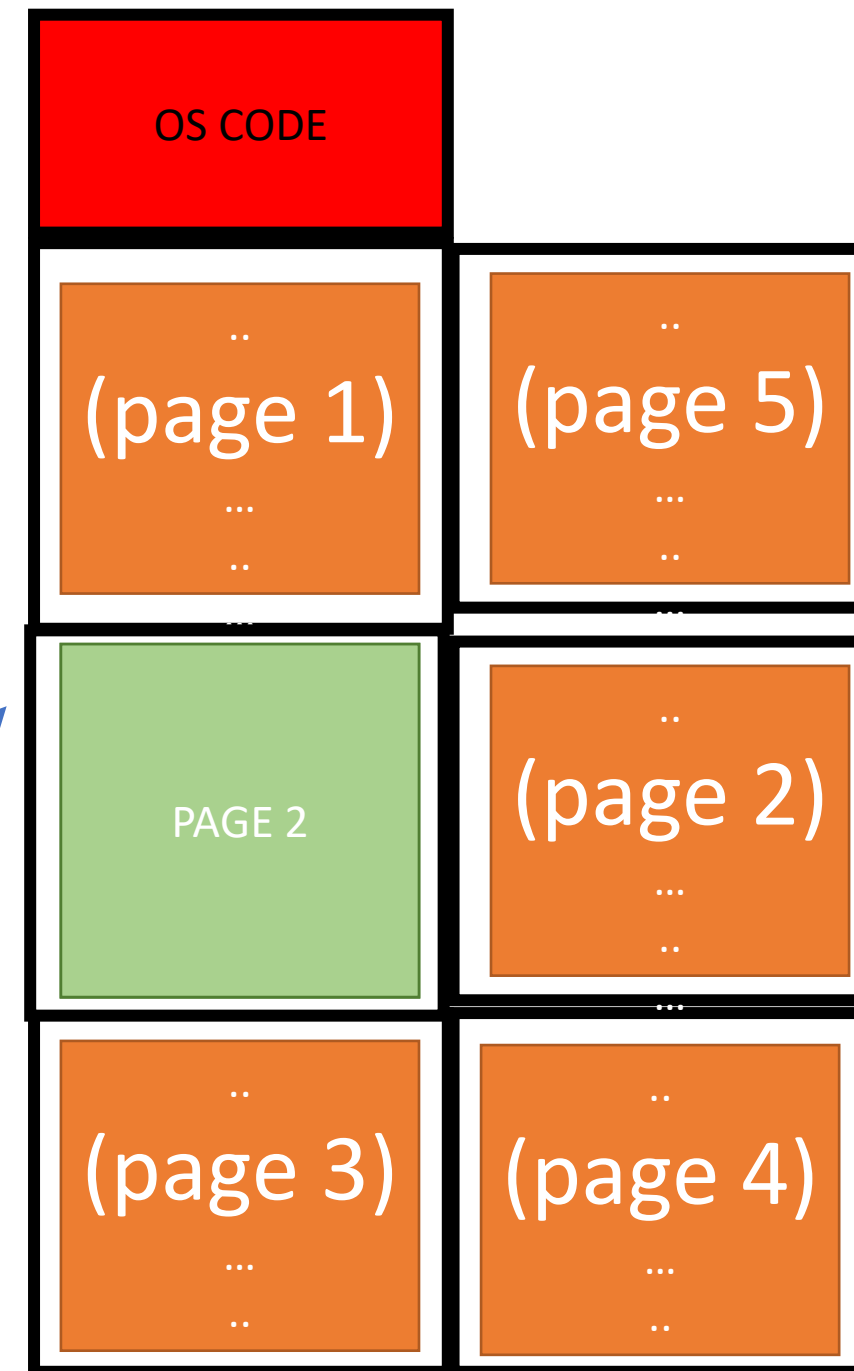
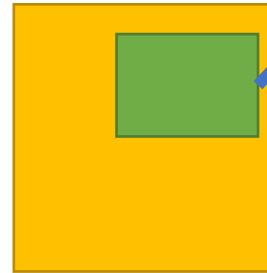
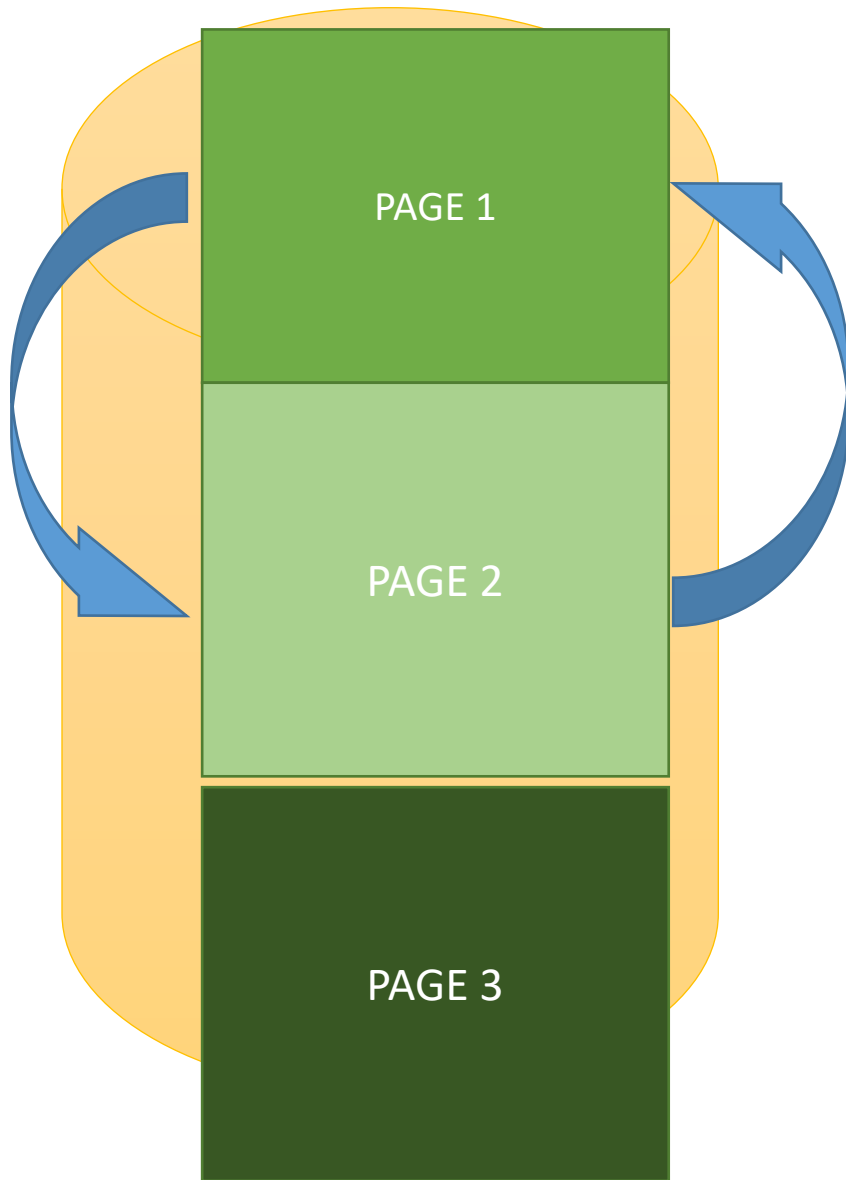
Demand Paging : Thrashing

- This happens due to inefficient Page replacement algorithms



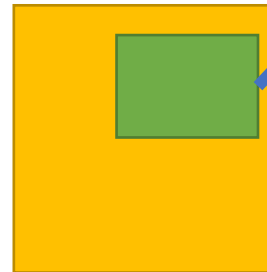
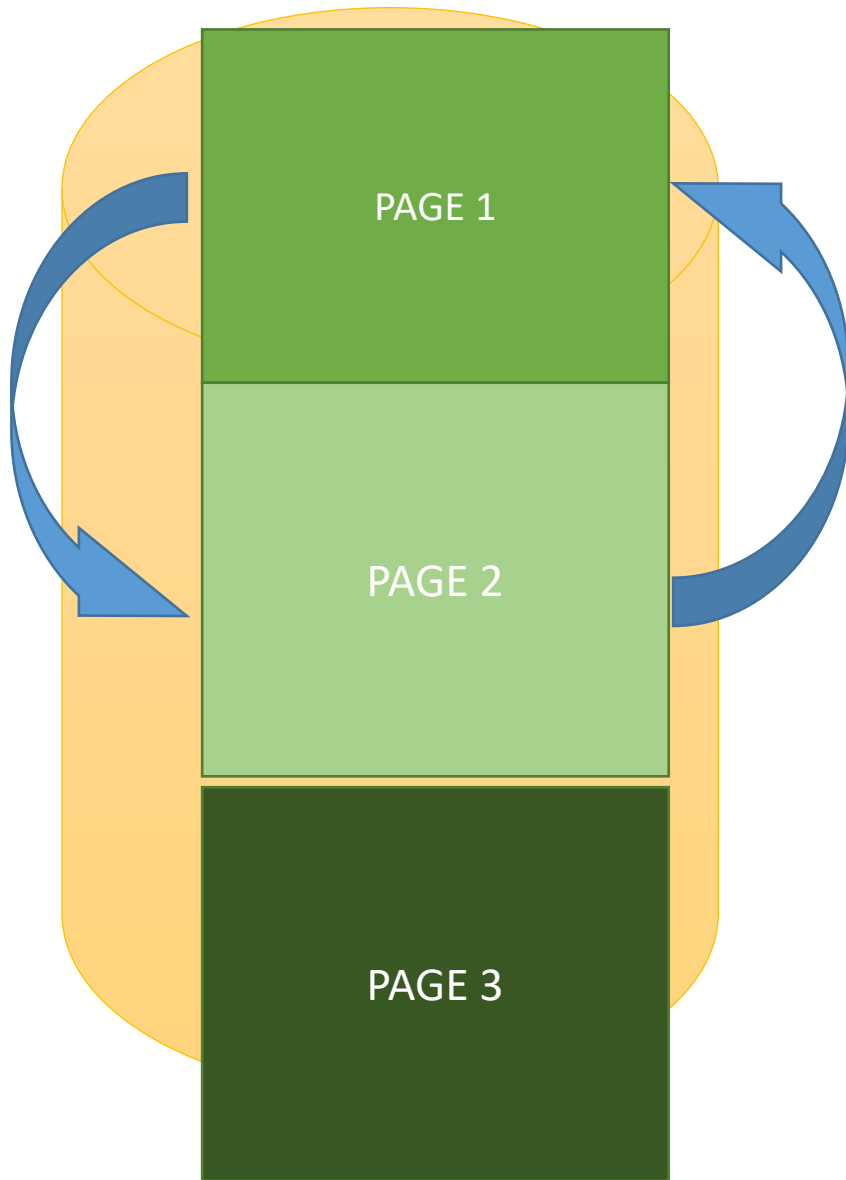
Demand Paging : Thrashing

- This happens due to inefficient Page replacement algorithms



Demand Paging : Thrashing

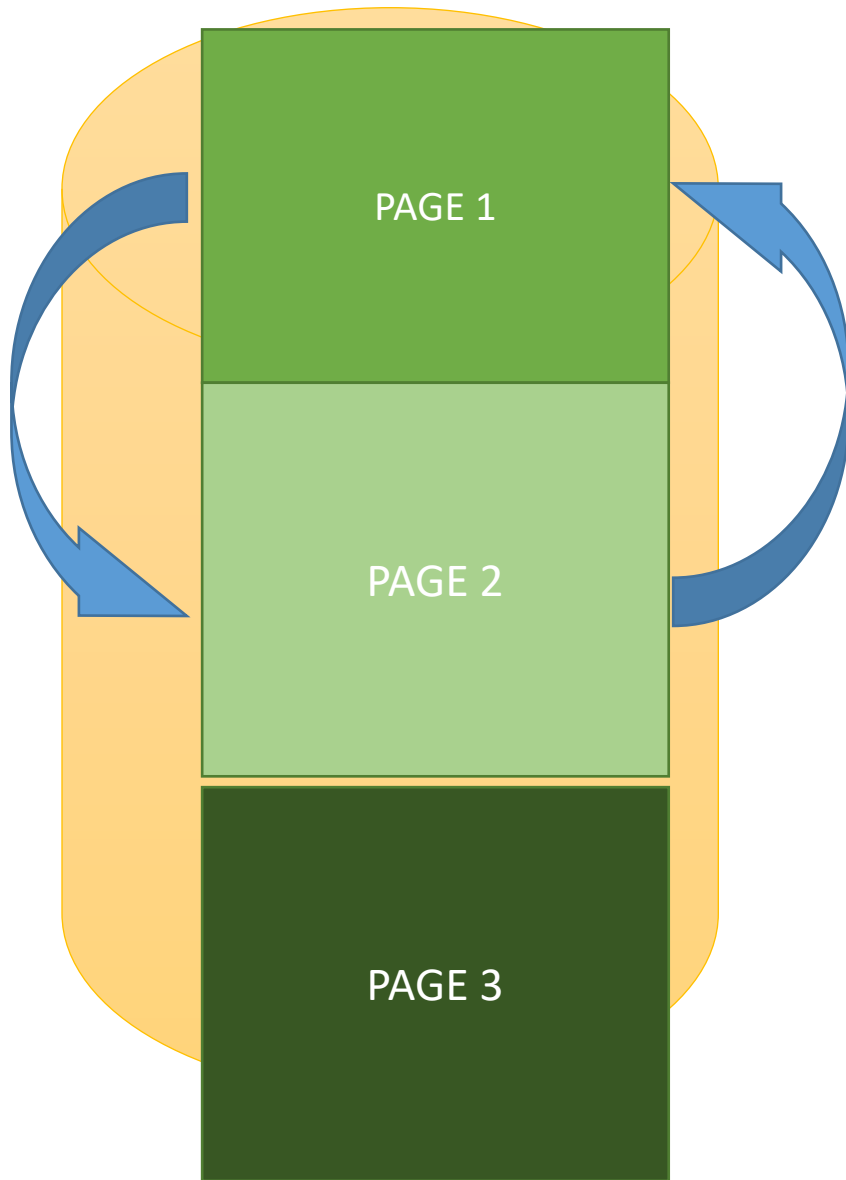
- This happens due to inefficient Page replacement algorithms



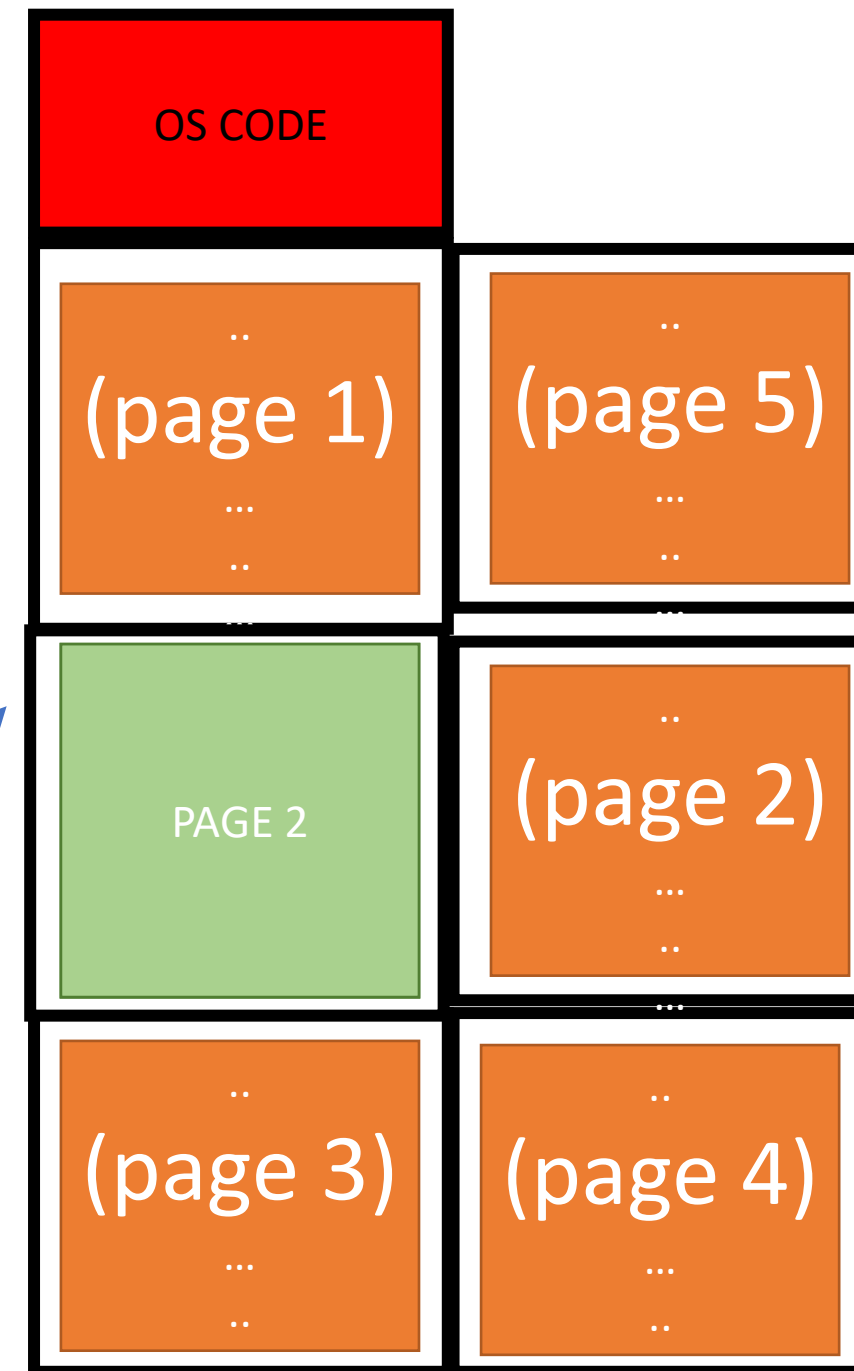
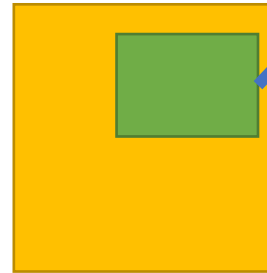
OS CODE	
.. (page 1) (page 5)
PAGE 1	.. (page 2)
.. (page 3) (page 4)

Demand Paging : Thrashing

- This happens due to inefficient Page replacement algorithms



Thrashing:
Results in
More **memory**
Read write operations
And hence **slows down**
The system



4.2 Improving Paging

Inverted Page Table

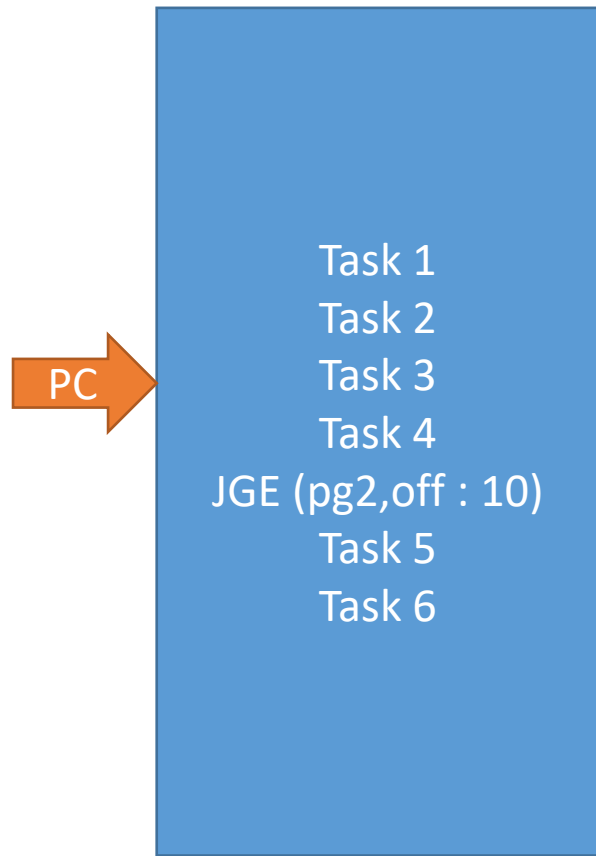
Translation Lookaside Buffer

Combining TLB with Cache

Inverted Page Table

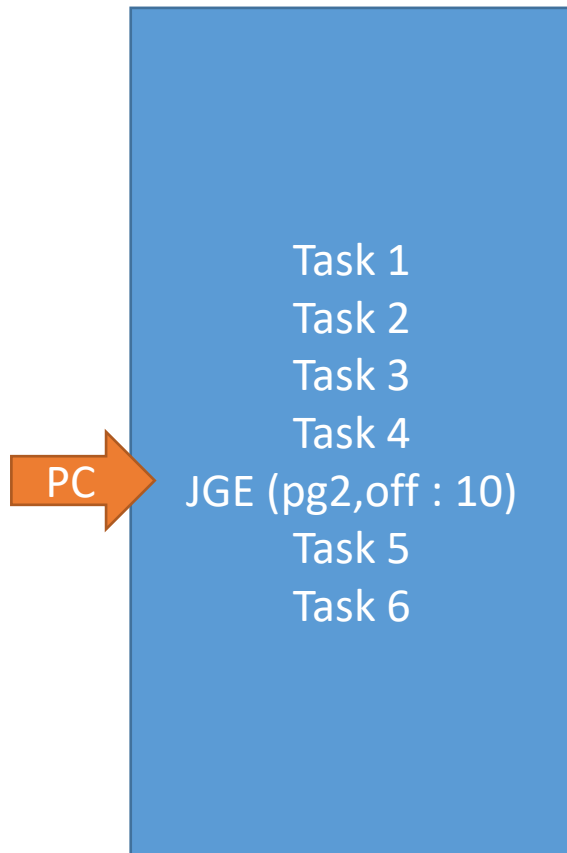
- So far we have seen that:
 - If there are **n processes**, then there will be **n corresponding page tables**
 - This takes up a **lot** of space in the **memory** of OS.
- Solution for this:
 - A new kind of table
 - Known as : **Inverted page table**
- Characteristics of Inverted Page Table
 - **Page to Frame** mapping
 - **Process ID** tracking (this feature allows the use of **only 1 table**)

Inverted Page Table



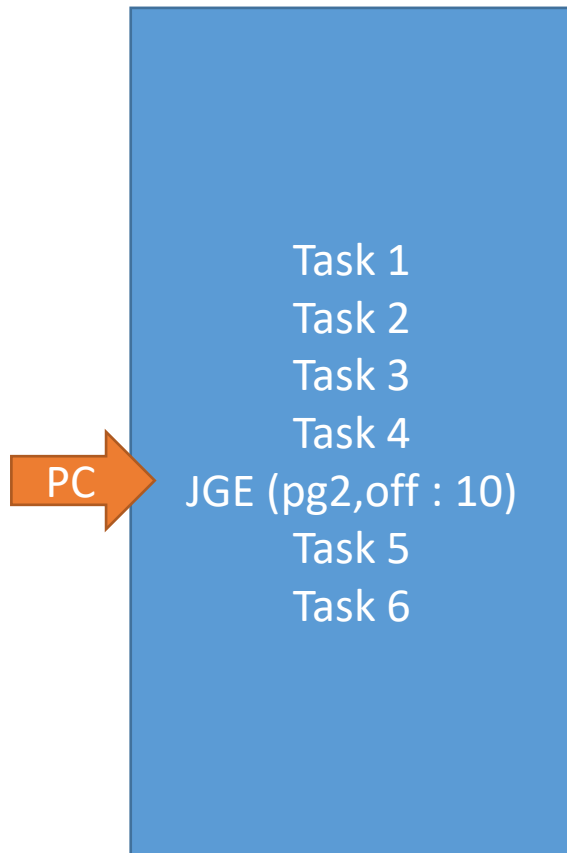
This is the page 1 of a process with process ID 1

Inverted Page Table



- The processor will shift control to OS.
- OS code will contain a **hash function**

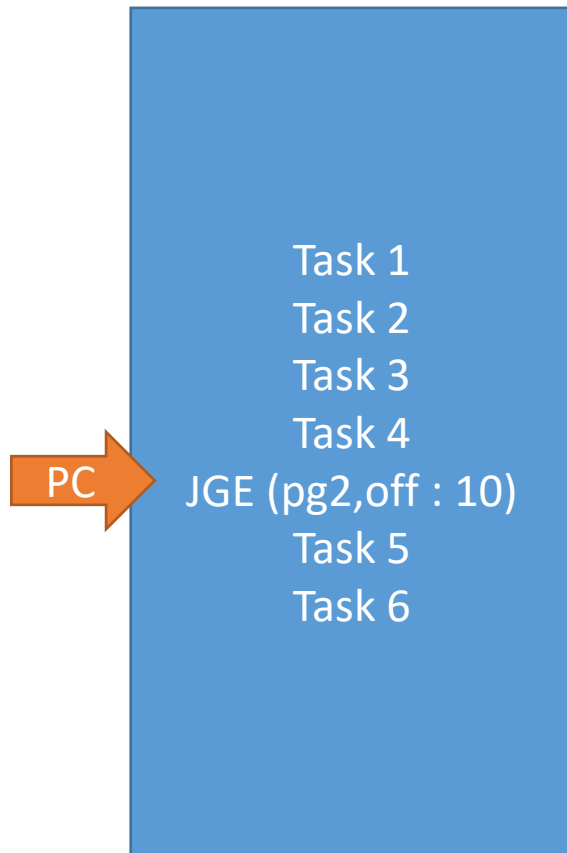
Inverted Page Table



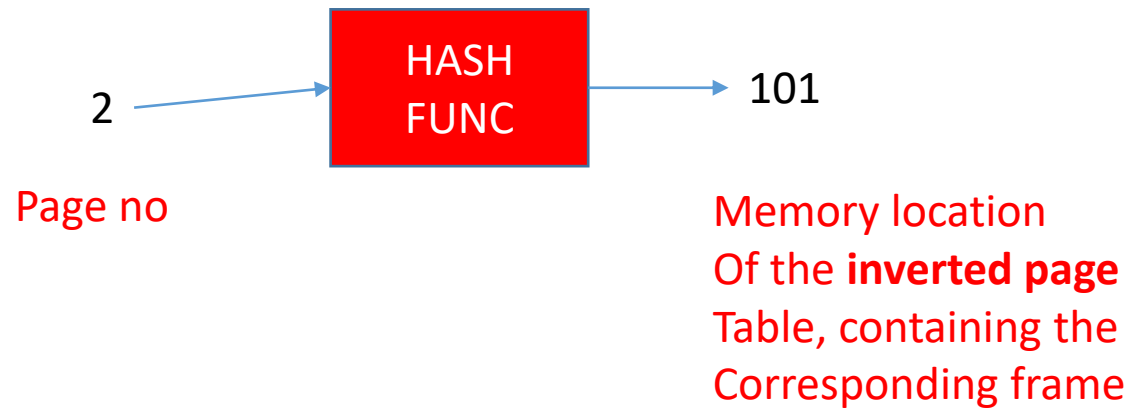
- The processor will shift control to OS.
- OS code will contain a hash function



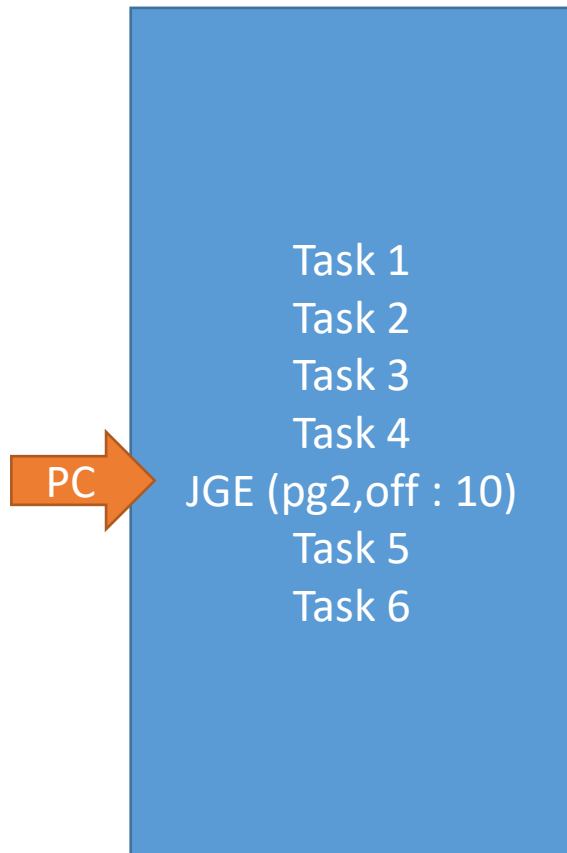
Inverted Page Table



- The processor will shift control to OS.
- OS code will contain a hash function

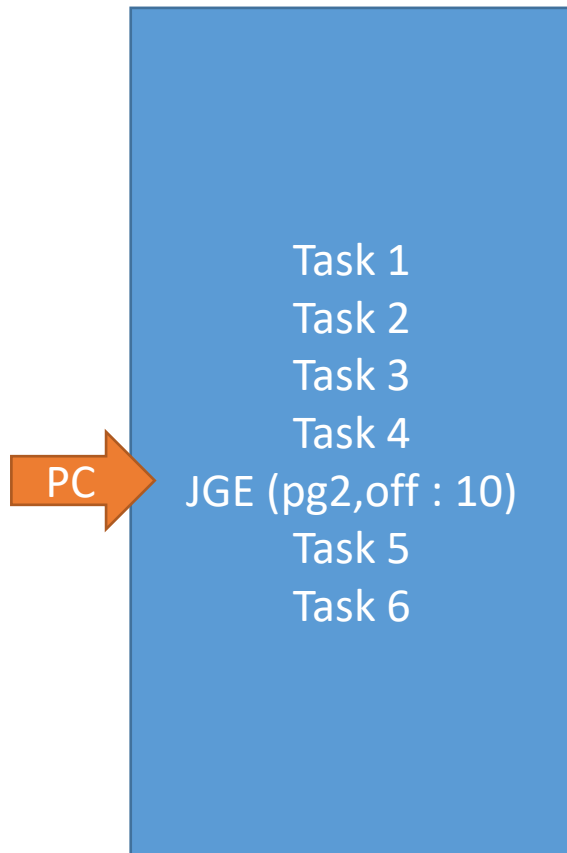


Inverted Page Table



OS will
Use this
Value of **101**
And **search**
The **inverted**
Page table

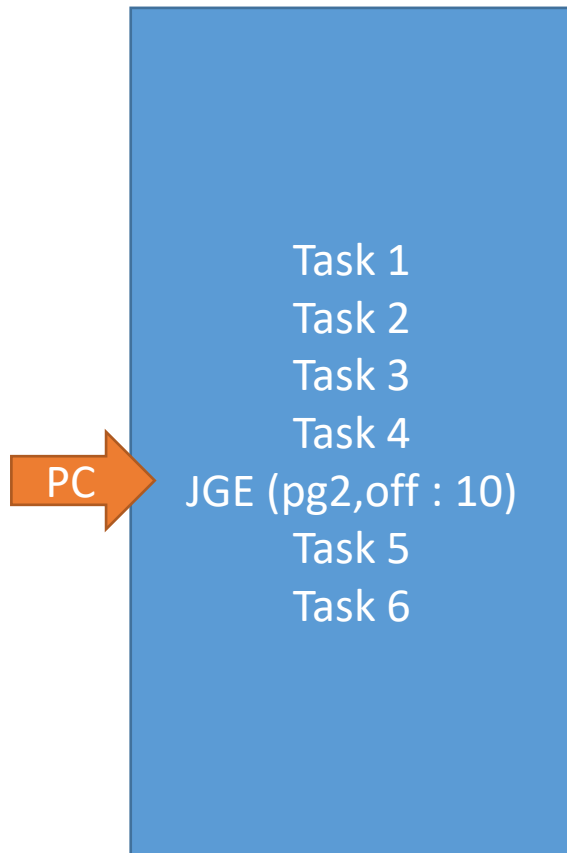
Inverted Page Table



OS will
Use this
Value of 101
And search
The inverted
Page table

Memory Locn	Process ID	Frame	Chain
101	1	20	-
102			
103			
104			
105			
106			
107			

Inverted Page Table

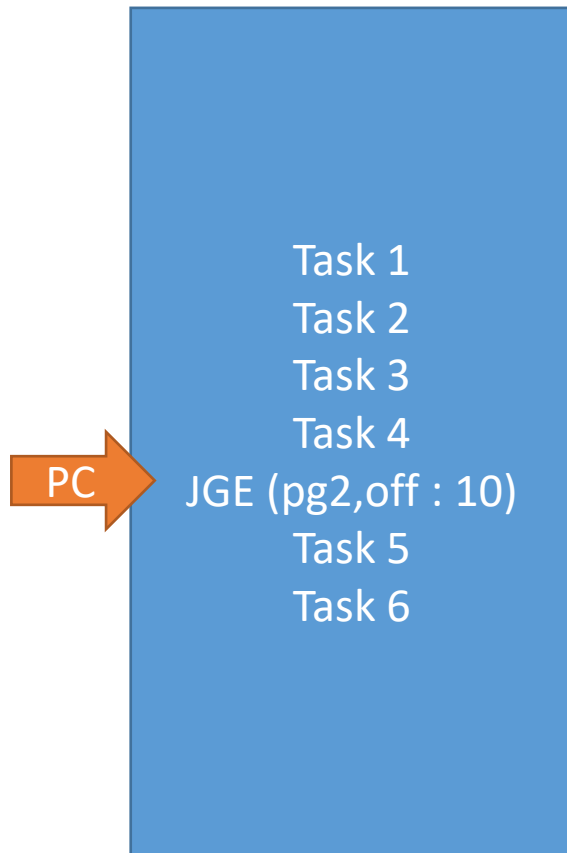


OS will
Use this
Value of 101
And search
The inverted
Page table

So for this process with ID 1, **the page
Is located in the 20th frame**

Memory Locn	Process ID	Frame	Chain
101	1	20	-
102			
103			
104			
105			
106			
107			

Inverted Page Table

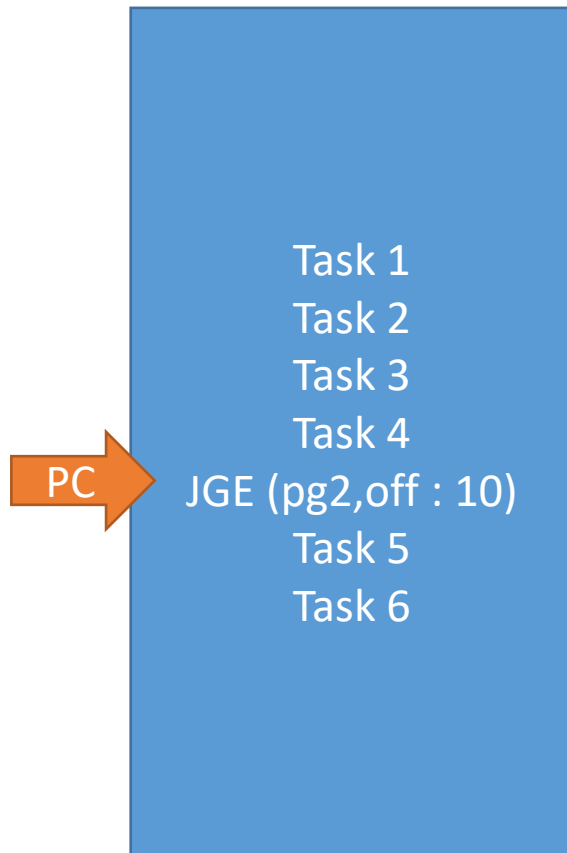


OS will
Use this
Value of 101
And search
The inverted
Page table

BUT WHAT IF THERE WAS NO ENTRY?

Memory Locn	Process ID	Frame	Chain
101			-
102			
103			
104			
105			
106			
107			

Inverted Page Table



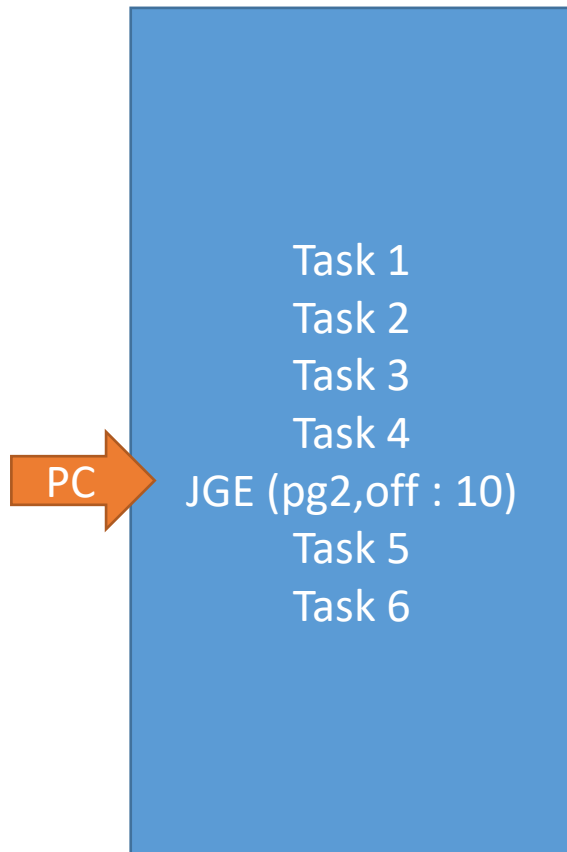
OS will
Use this
Value of 101
And search
The inverted
Page table

BUT WHAT IF THERE WAS NO ENTRY?

Memory Locn	Process ID	Frame	Chain
101			-
102			
103			
104			
105			
106			
107			

It would mean that, the **page 2** is
Not in the memory yet

Inverted Page Table



OS will
Use this
Value of 101
And search
The inverted
Page table

BUT WHAT IF THERE WAS NO ENTRY?

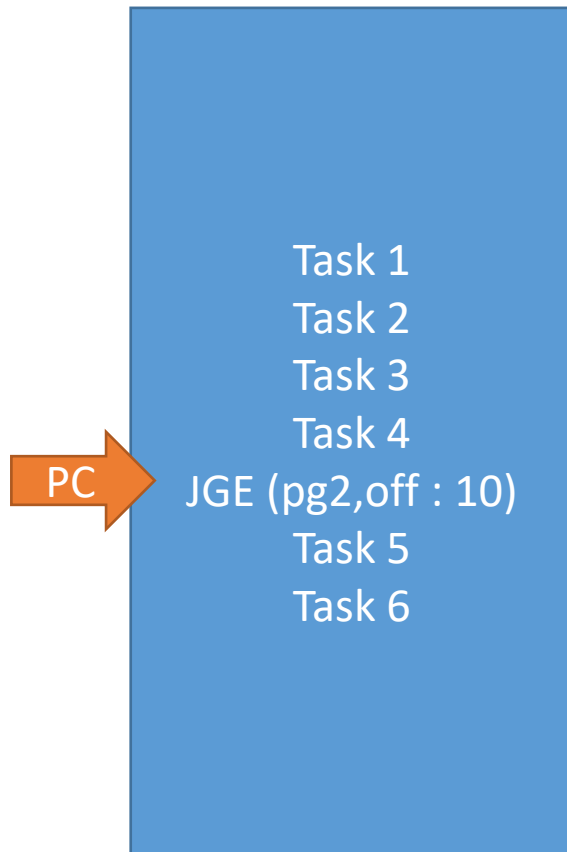
Memory Locn	Process ID	Frame	Chain
101			-
102			
103			
104			
105			
106			
107			

It would mean that, the page 2 is
Not in the memory yet

That page will have to brought in

- **Empty frame** –place it there
- No empty frame- use **page replacement algo**

Inverted Page Table



OS will
Use this
Value of 101
And search
The inverted
Page table

BUT WHAT IF THERE WAS NO ENTRY?

Then we would **update the table** with the
Info about the frame it has been placed

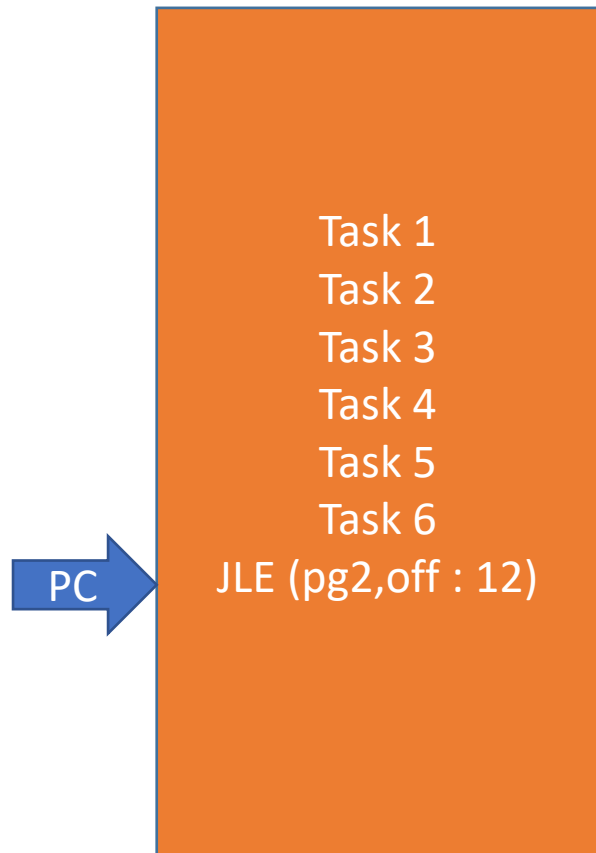
Memory Locn	Process ID	Frame	Chain
101	1	30	--
102			
103			
104			
105			
106			
107			

It would mean that, the page 2 is
Not in the memory yet

That page will have to brought in

- Empty frame –place it there
- No empty frame- use page replacement algo

Inverted Page Table (The Chain field)

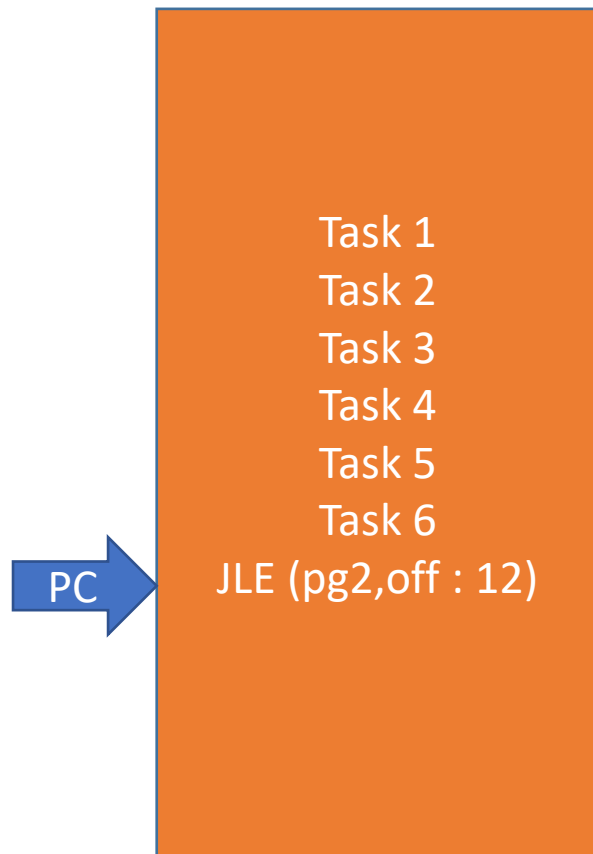


PROCESS WITH ID 2

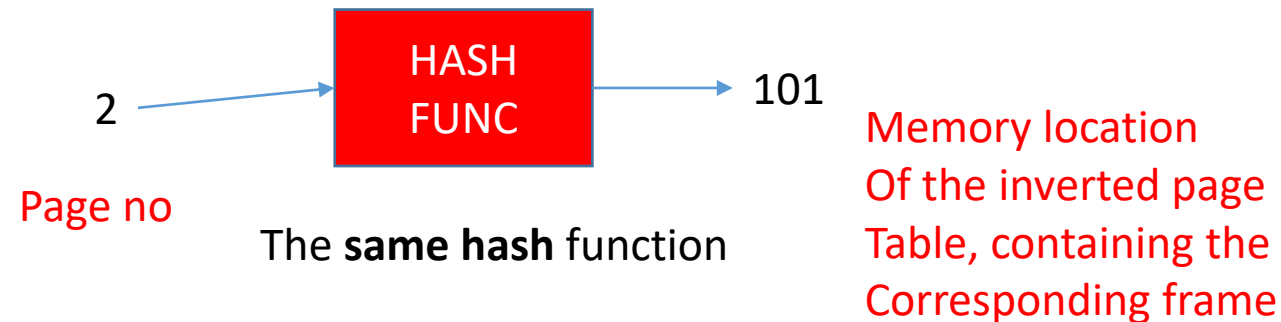
Memory Locn	Process ID	Frame	Chain
101	1	30	--
102			
103			
104			
105			
106			
107			

Let us assume that its **page 2** is not in the table

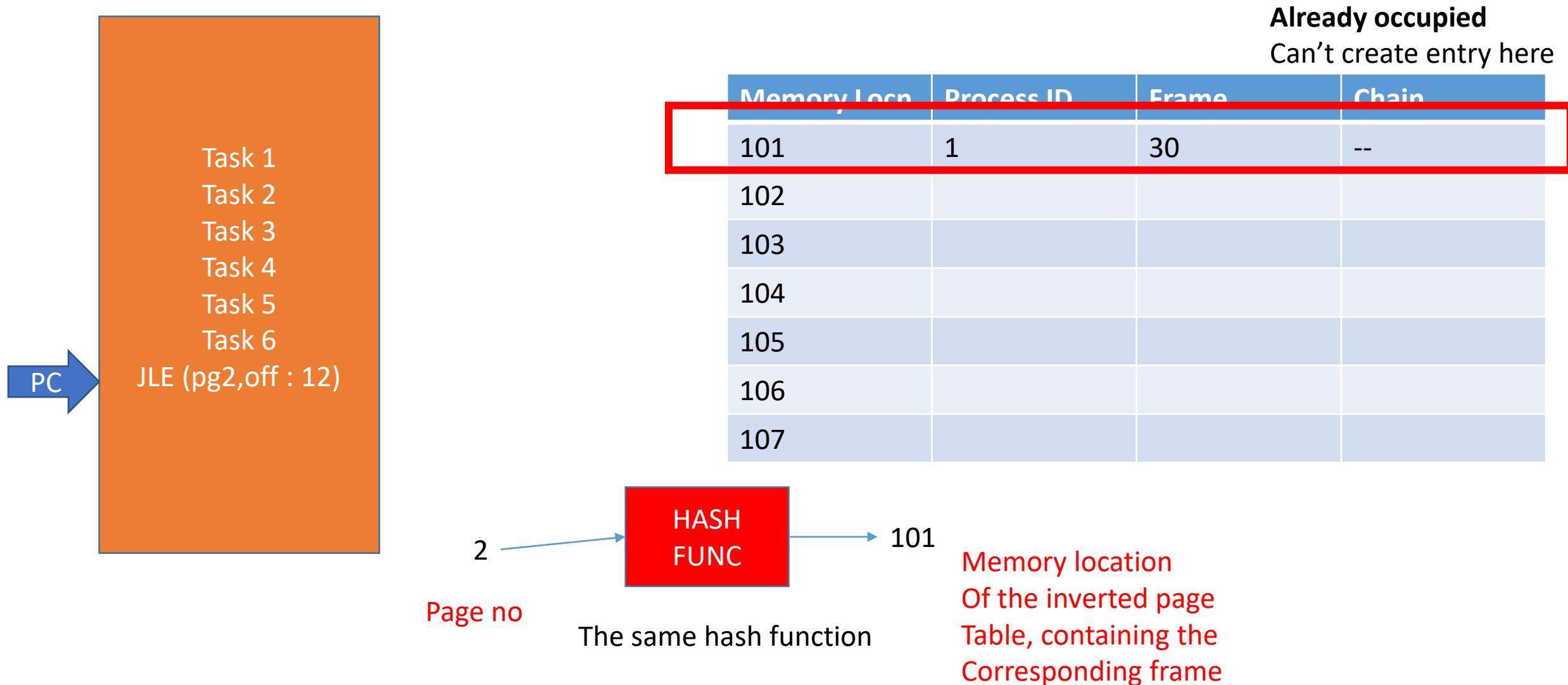
Inverted Page Table (The Chain field)



Memory Locn	Process ID	Frame	Chain
101	1	30	--
102			
103			
104			
105			
106			
107			

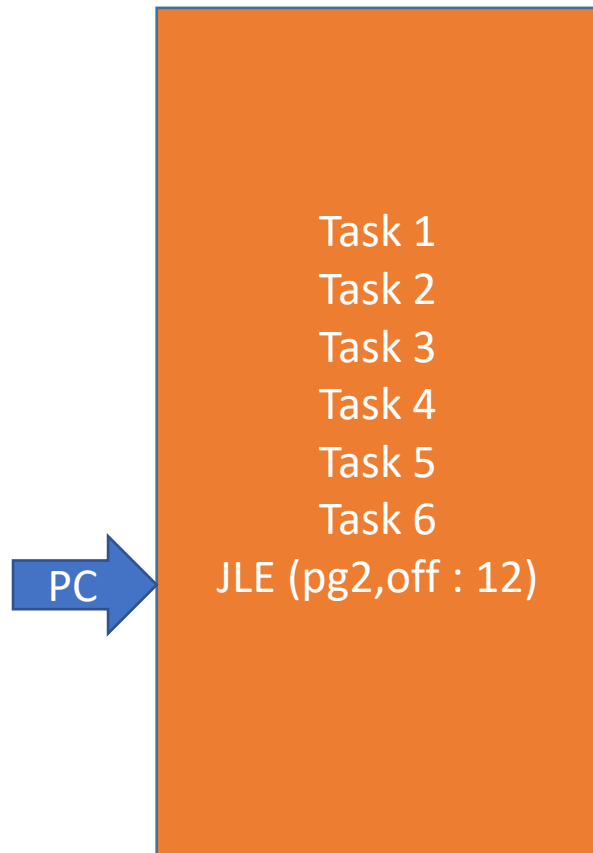


Inverted Page Table (The Chain field)

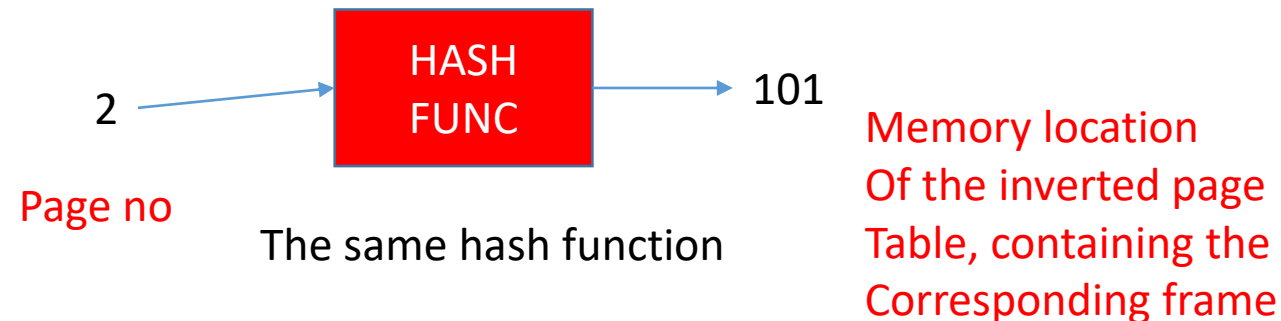


Inverted Page Table (The Chain field)

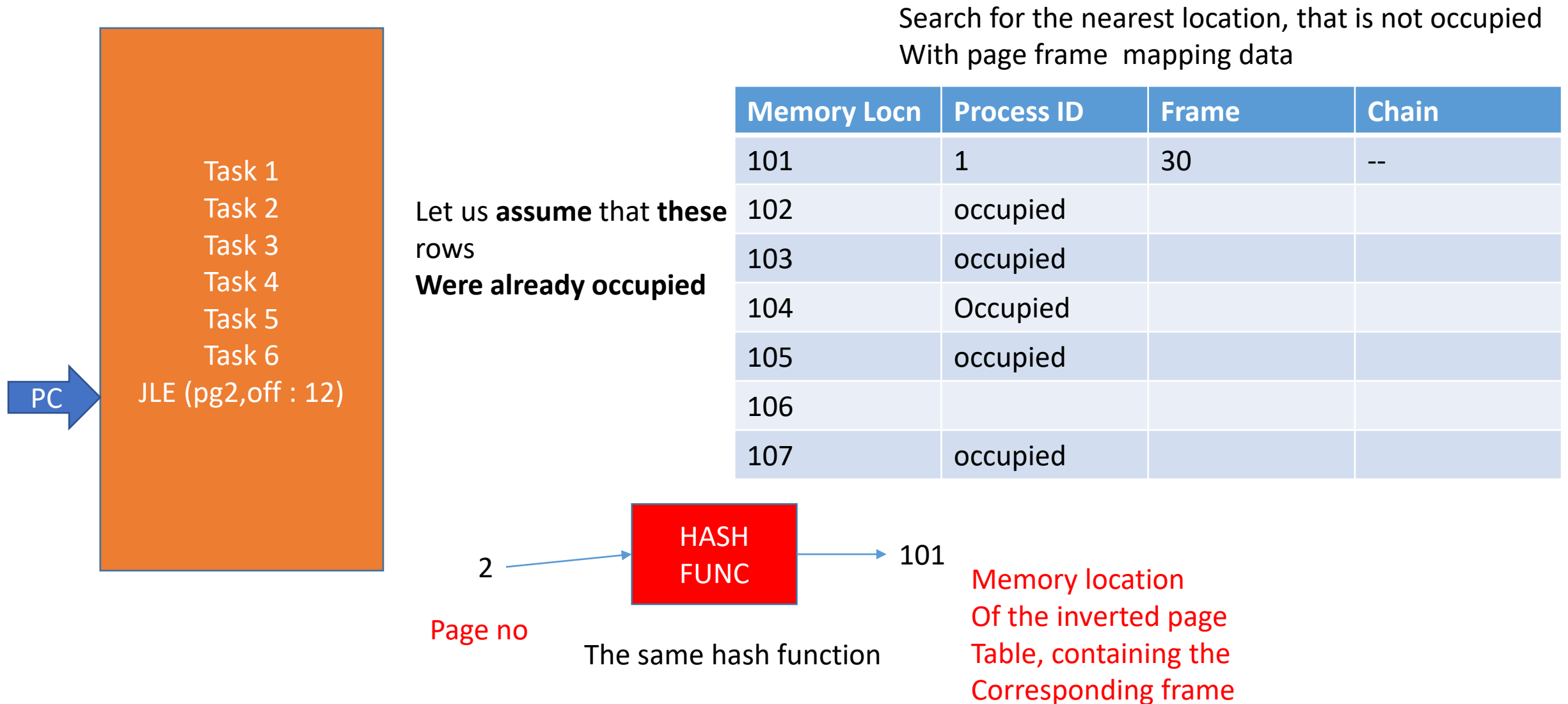
Search for the **nearest location**, that is **not occupied**
With page frame mapping data



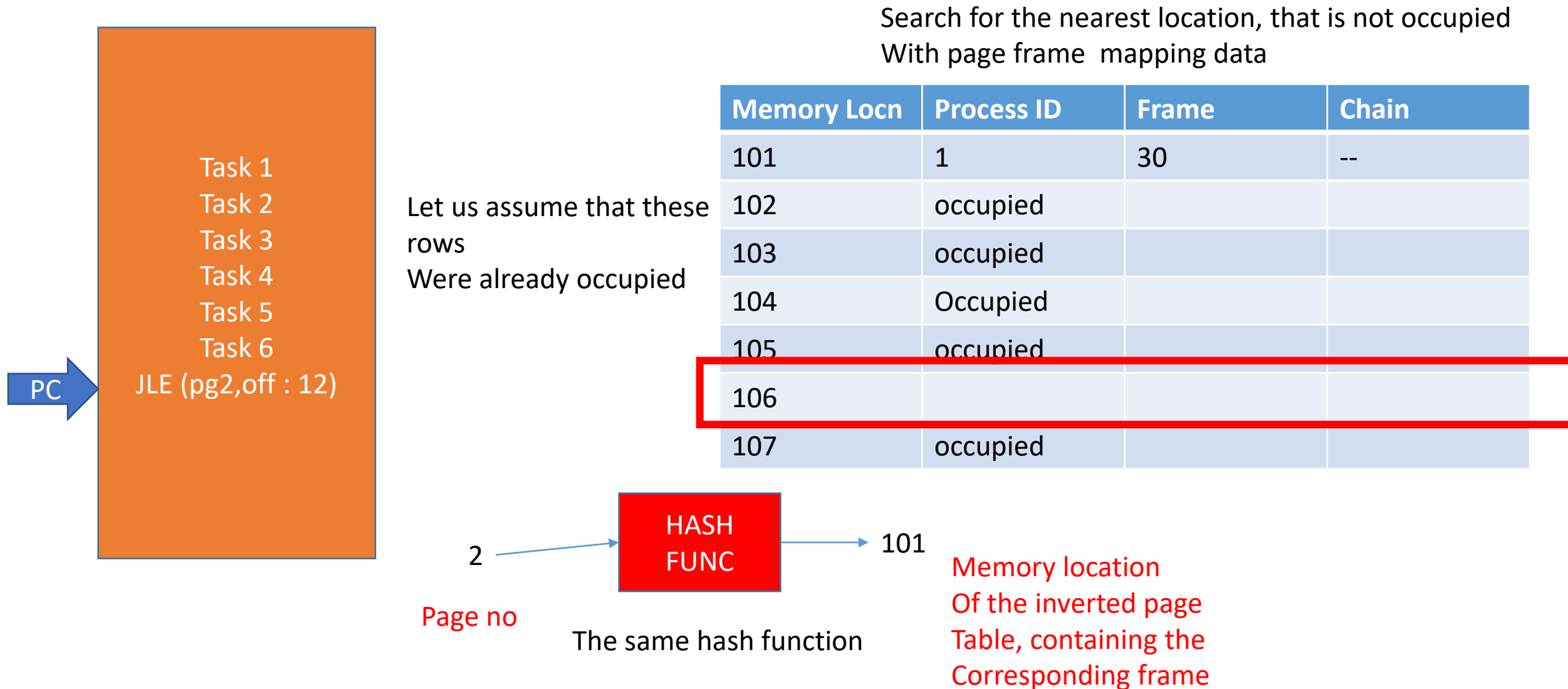
Memory Locn	Process ID	Frame	Chain
101	1	30	--
102			
103			
104			
105			
106			
107			



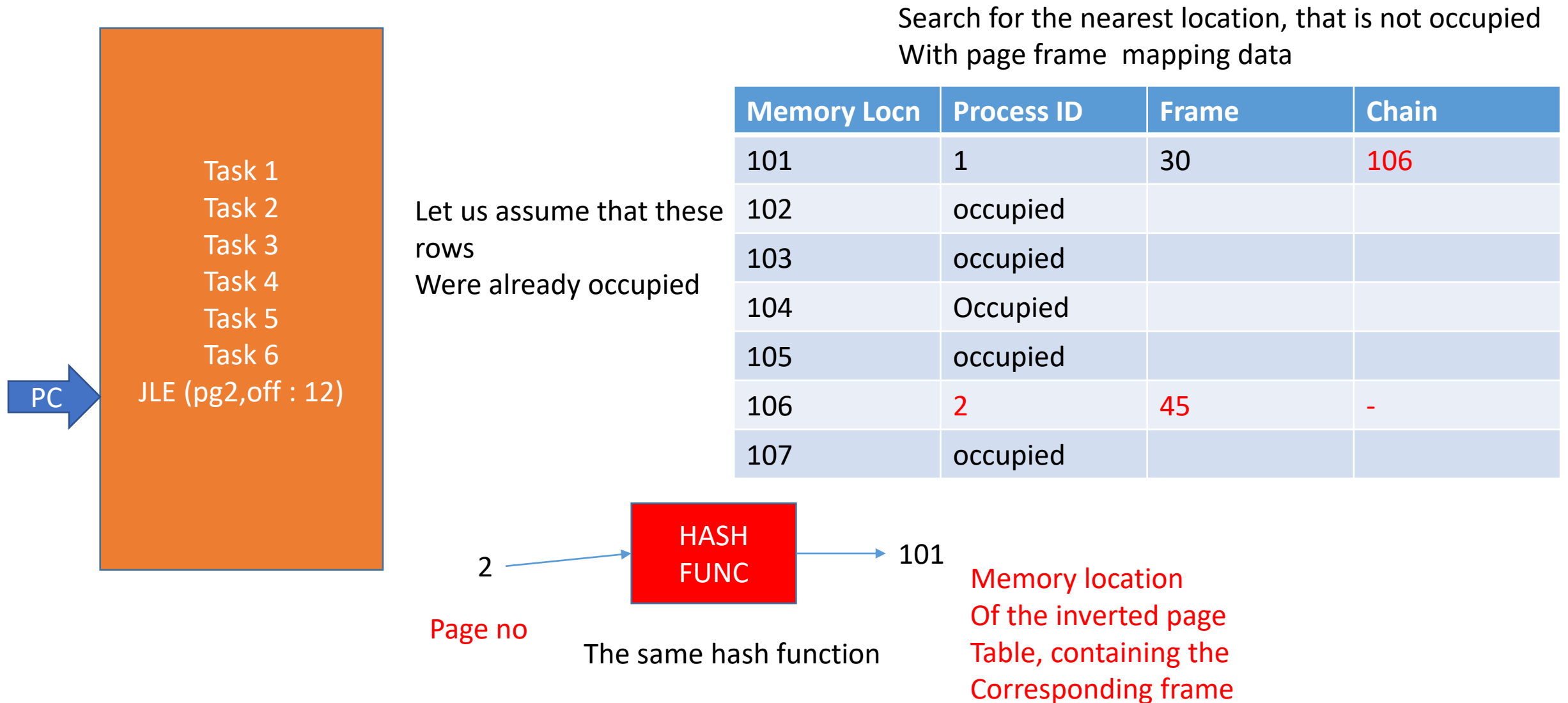
Inverted Page Table (The Chain field)



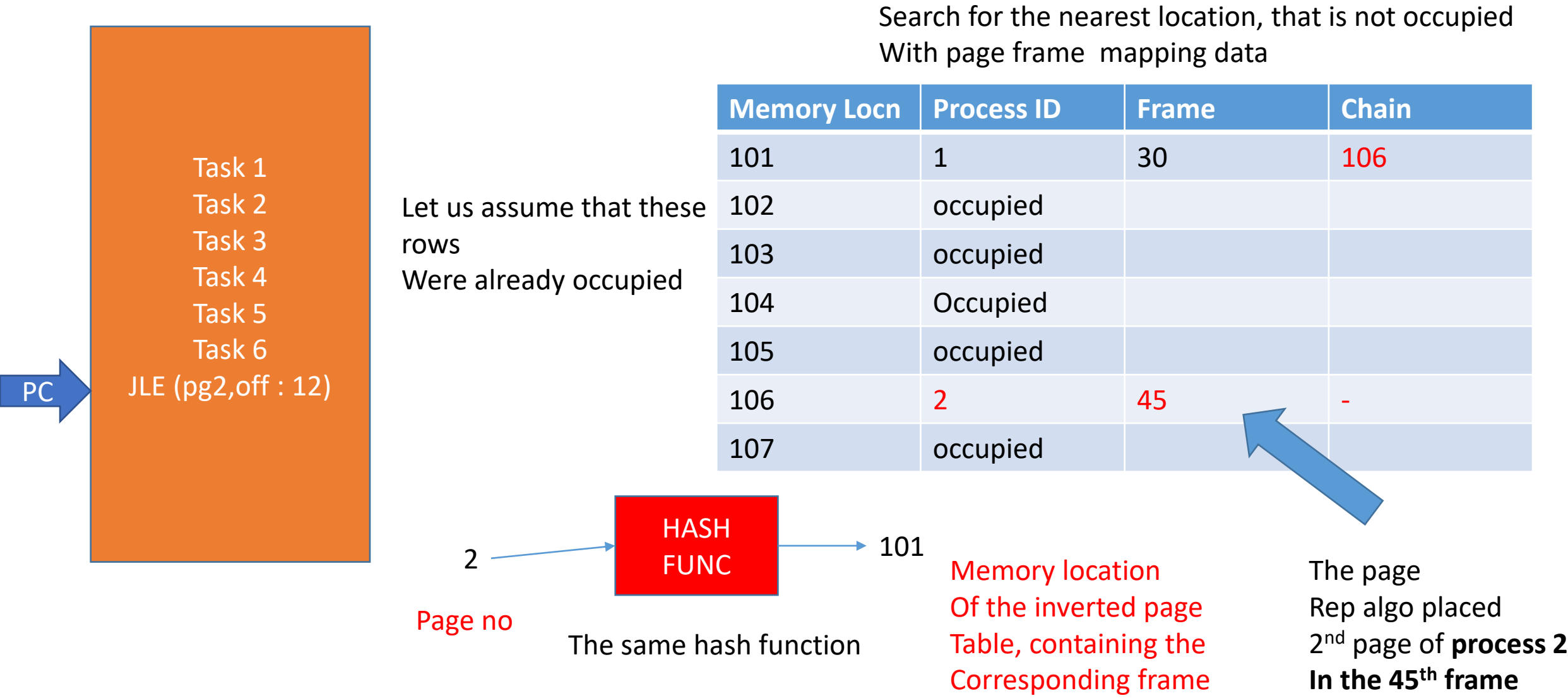
Inverted Page Table (The Chain field)



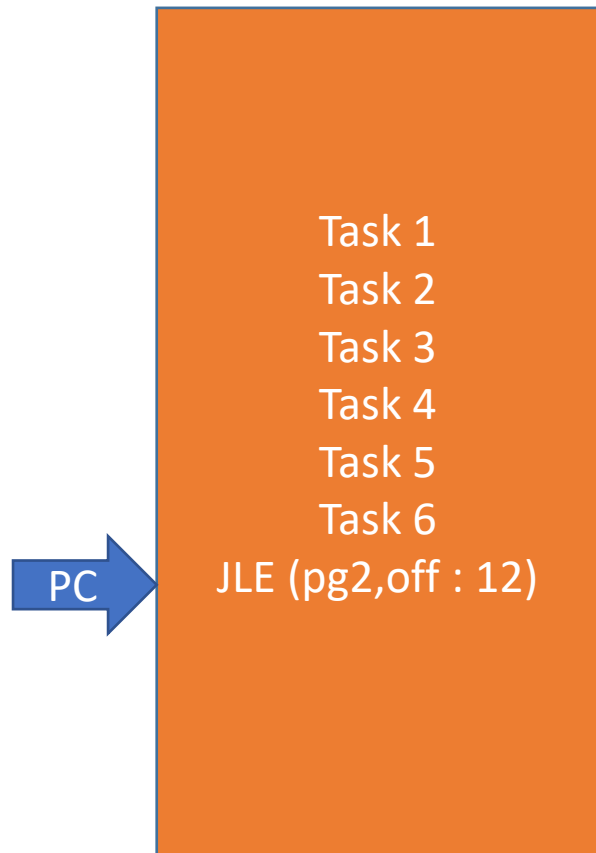
Inverted Page Table (The Chain field)



Inverted Page Table (The Chain field)



Inverted Page Table (The Chain field)

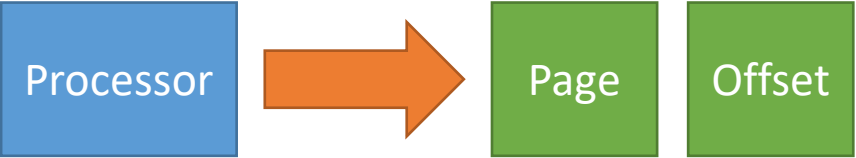


Memory Locn	Process ID	Frame	Chain
101	1	30	106
102	occupied		
103	occupied		
104	Occupied		
105	occupied		
106	2	45	-
107	occupied		

Next time when **page 2**
for **process 2** will be
searched. The **entry will**
be available with the
frame info

Translation Lookaside Buffer

Translation Lookaside Buffer



The processor
Requires
Instruction/
Data from this
location

ID	Page	Frame

ID	Frame	Chain

Translation Lookaside Buffer

TLB: A h/w with the **recently used** Pages and corresponding mapping



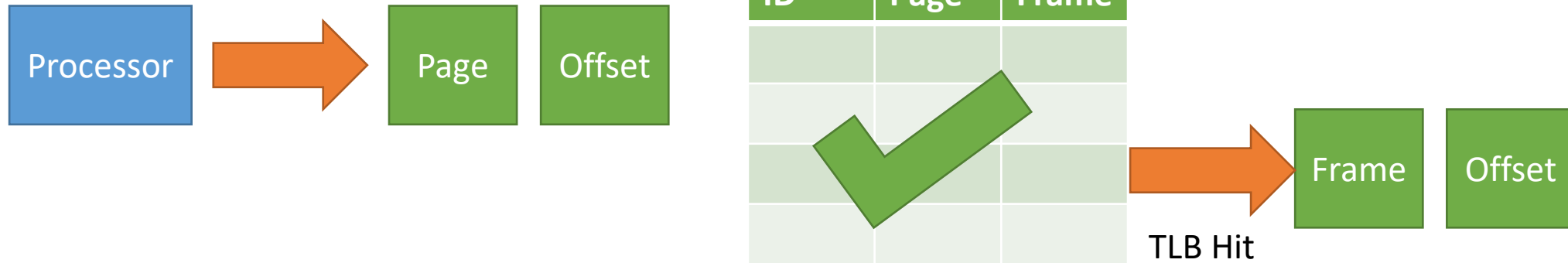
ID	Page	Frame

The **inverted page table**

ID	Frame	Chain

Translation Lookaside Buffer

TLB: A h/w with the recently used Pages and corresponding mapping

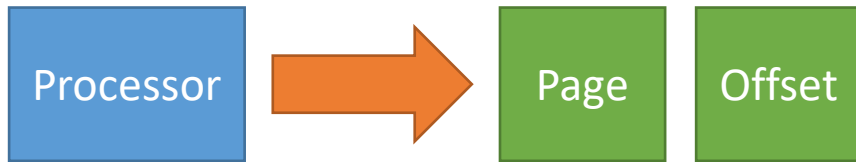


The inverted page table

ID	Frame	Chain

Translation Lookaside Buffer

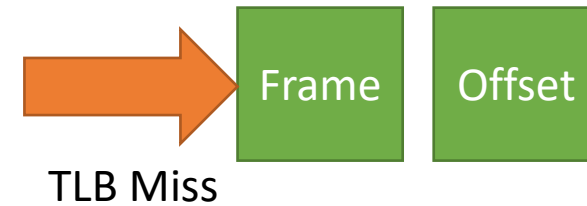
TLB: A h/w with the recently used Pages and corresponding mapping



ID	Page	Frame

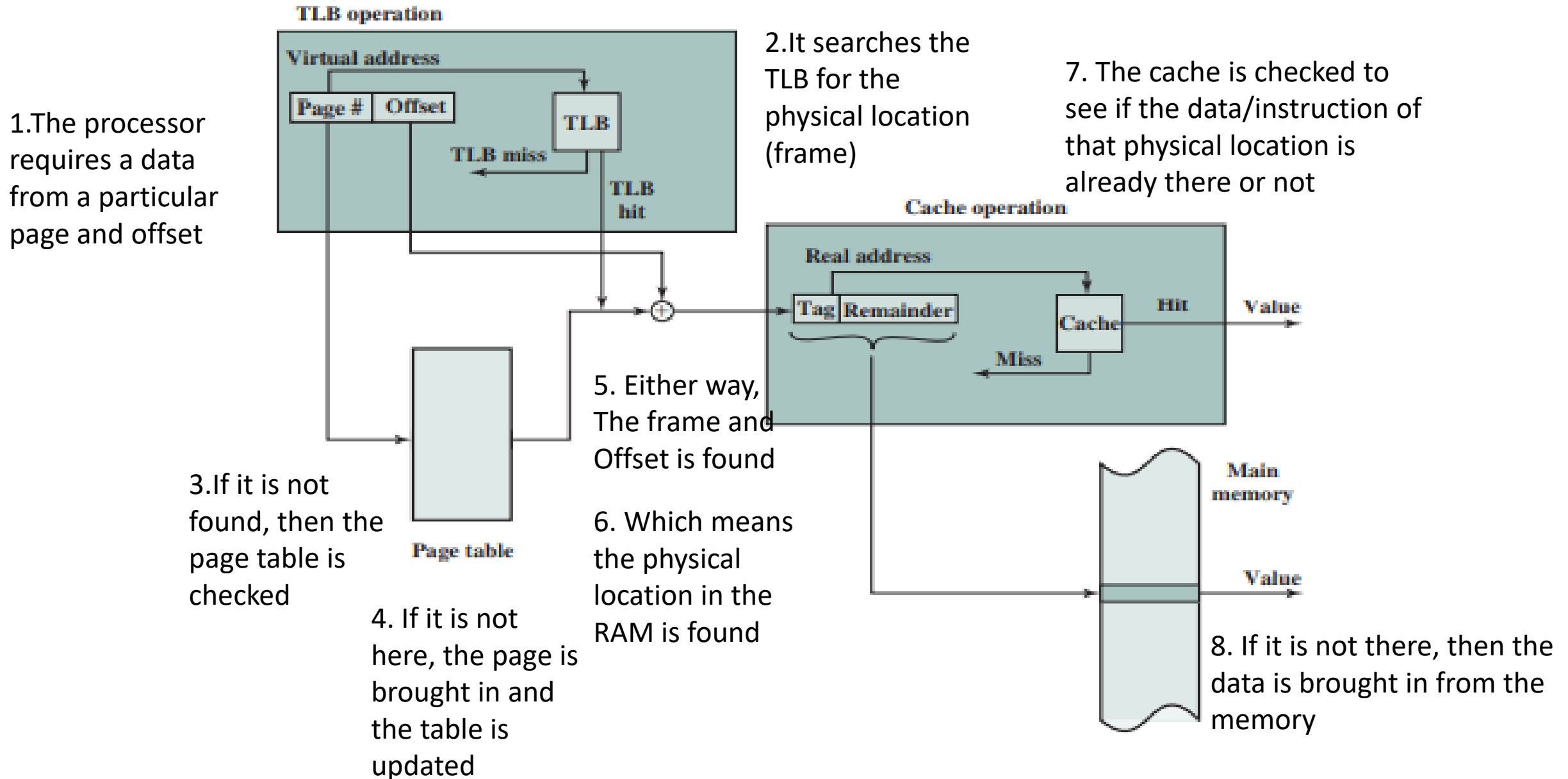
The inverted page table

ID	Frame	Chain



BASICALLY
TLB is a like a **cache**
For page frame mapping

Combining TLB with Cache



School Teacher :- You will learn this
in college

Professor :- You have learnt this in
your school

Me :-

Comp Archi

OS Teacher

CSE 21

~~School~~ Teacher :- You will learn this
in college

~~Professor~~ :- You have learnt this in
your school

Me :-



Comp Archi

OS Teacher

CSE 21

~~School Teacher~~ :- You will learn this
in college

~~Professor~~ :- You have learnt this in
your school

Me :-



THE END

CSE 213

Computer Architecture

Lecture 9: Computer Arithmetic

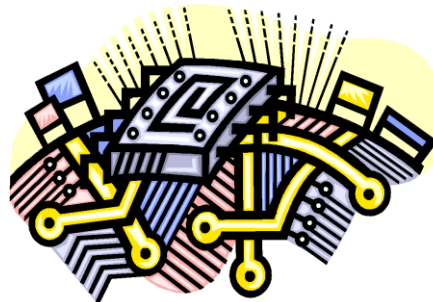
Military Institute of Science
and Technology



Arithmetic & Logic Unit (ALU)



- Part of the computer that actually performs arithmetic and logical operations on data
- All of the other elements of the computer system are there mainly to bring data into the ALU for it to process and then to take the results back out
- Based on the use of simple digital logic devices that can store binary digits and perform simple Boolean logic operations



ALU Inputs and Outputs

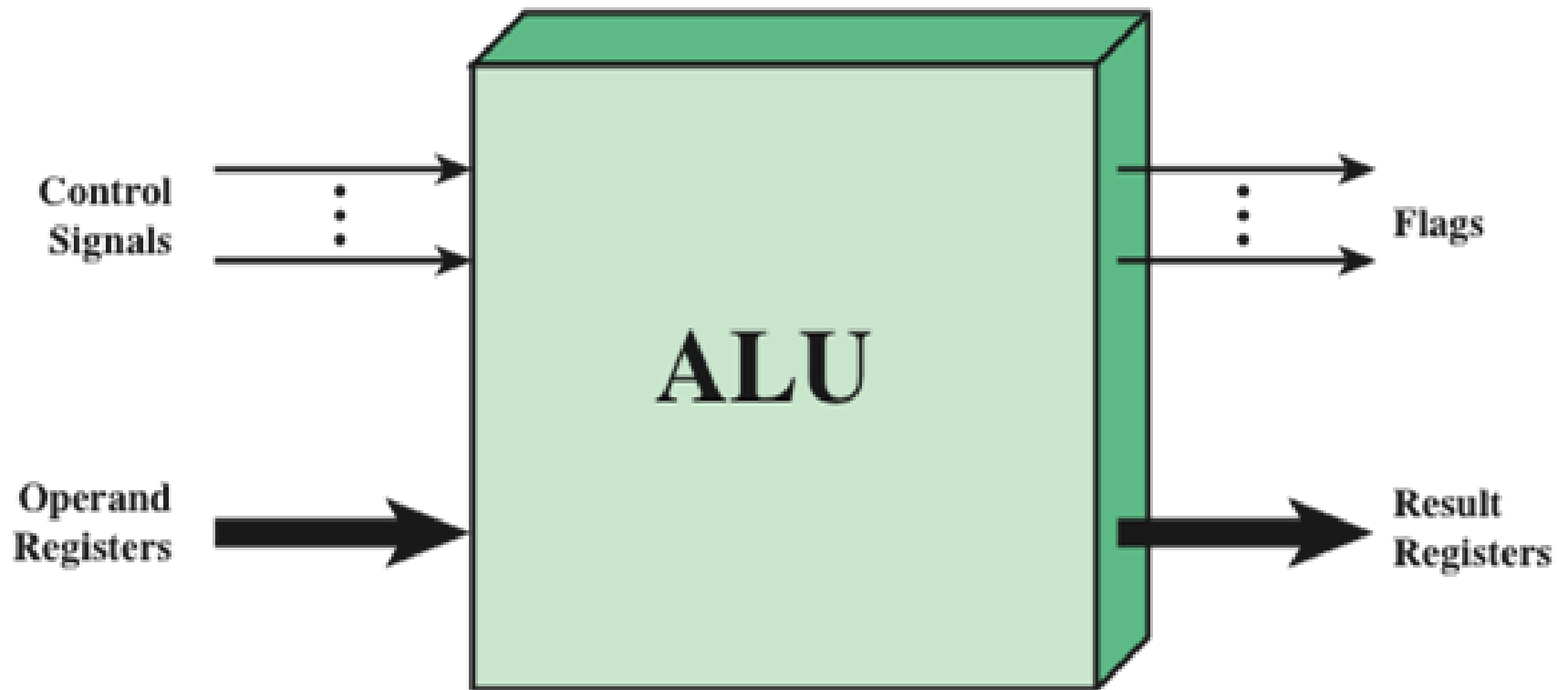


Figure 10.1 ALU Inputs and Outputs



Integer Representation



- In the binary number system arbitrary numbers can be represented with:
 - The digits zero and one
 - The minus sign (for negative numbers)
 - The period, or **radix point** (for numbers with a fractional component)
- For purposes of computer storage and processing we do not have the benefit of special symbols for the minus sign and radix point
- Only binary digits (0,1) may be used to represent numbers

Sign-Magnitude Representation

↓
1000
↓
~~0000~~

There are several alternative conventions used to represent negative as well as positive integers

- All of these alternatives involve treating the most significant (leftmost) bit in the word as a sign bit
- If the sign bit is 0 the number is positive
- If the sign bit is 1 the number is negative

Sign-magnitude representation is the simplest form that employs a sign bit

Drawbacks:

- Addition and subtraction require a consideration of both the signs of the numbers and their relative magnitudes to carry out the required operation
- There are two representations of 0

Because of these drawbacks, sign-magnitude representation is rarely used in implementing the integer portion of the ALU

+

Twos Complement Representation

- Uses the most significant bit as a sign bit
- Differs from sign-magnitude representation in the way that the other bits are interpreted

Range	-2^{n-1} through $2^{n-1} - 1$
Number of Representations of Zero	One
Negation	Take the Boolean complement of each bit of the corresponding positive number, then add 1 to the resulting bit pattern viewed as an unsigned integer.
Expansion of Bit Length	Add additional bit positions to the left and fill in with the value of the original sign bit.
Overflow Rule	If two numbers with the same sign (both positive or both negative) are added, then overflow occurs if and only if the result has the opposite sign.
Subtraction Rule	To subtract B from A , take the twos complement of B and add it to A .

Table 10.1 Characteristics of Twos Complement Representation and Arithmetic

Table 10.2

Alternative Representations for 4-Bit Integers

Decimal Representation	Sign-Magnitude Representation	Twos Complement Representation	Biased Representation
+8	—	—	1111
+7	<u>0111</u>	<u>0111</u>	1110
+6	0110	0110	1101
+5	0101	0101	1100
+4	0100	0100	1011
+3	0011	0011	1010
+2	0010	0010	1001
+1	0001	0001	1000
+0	0000	0000	0111
-0	1000	—	—
-1	1001	1111	0110
-2	1010	1110	0101
-3	1011	1101	0100
-4	1100	1100	0011
-5	1101	1011	0010
-6	1110	1010	0001
-7	1111	1001	0000
-8	—	1000	—

Geometric Depiction of Twos Complement Integers

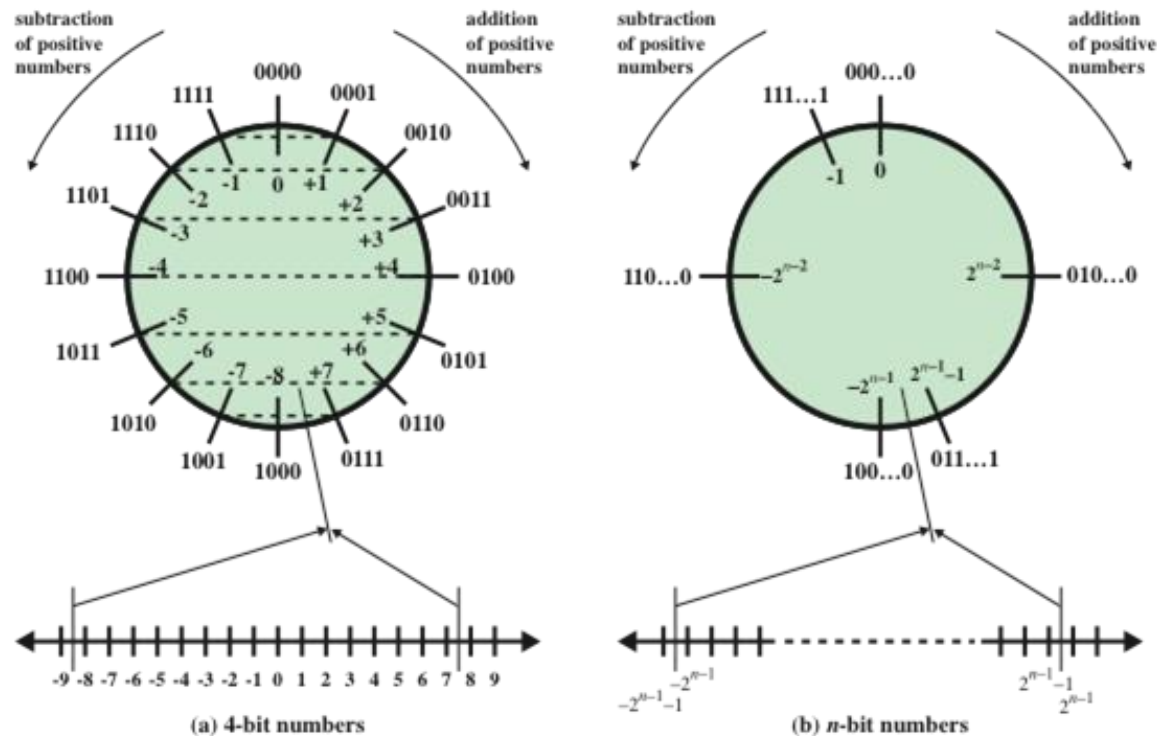


Figure 10.5 Geometric Depiction of Twos Complement Integers

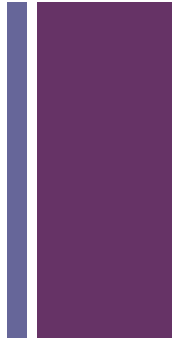
+

Range Extension

0111 = 7

0011

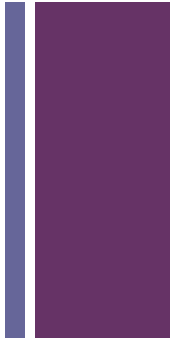
~~1000~~



- Range of numbers that can be expressed is extended by increasing the bit length
- In sign-magnitude notation this is accomplished by moving the sign bit to the new leftmost position and fill in with zeros
- This procedure will not work for twos complement negative integers
 - Rule is to move the sign bit to the new leftmost position and fill in with copies of the sign bit
 - For positive numbers, fill in with zeros, and for negative numbers, fill in with ones
 - This is called *sign extension*

1001 =

11001



Negation

- Twos complement operation
 - Take the Boolean complement of each bit of the integer (including the sign bit)
 - Treating the result as an unsigned binary integer, add 1

```

+18 = 00010010 (twos complement)
bitwise complement = 11101101
+         1
+-----+
11101110 = -18

```

- The negative of the negative of that number is itself:

```

-18 = 11101110 (twos complement)
bitwise complement = 00010001
                    +          1
                    00010010 = +18

```



Negation Special Case 1



0 = 00000000 (twos complement)

Bitwise complement = 11111111

Add 1 to LSB $\begin{array}{r} + 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$

Result 10000000

Overflow is ignored, so:

$$- 0 = 0$$



Negation Special Case 2

-128 = 10000000 (twos complement)

Bitwise complement = 01111111

Add 1 to LSB 1

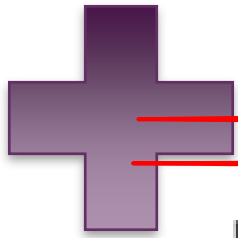
Result 10000000

So:

$-(-128) = -128$ X

Monitor MSB (sign bit)

It should change during negation



Addition

111 001

010



110

$\begin{array}{r} 1001 = -7 \\ +0101 = 5 \\ \hline 1110 = -2 \end{array}$ <p>(a) $(-7) + (+5)$</p>	$\begin{array}{r} 1100 = -4 \\ +0100 = 4 \\ \hline 10000 = 0 \end{array}$ <p>(b) $(-4) + (+4)$</p>
$\begin{array}{r} 0011 = 3 \\ +0100 = 4 \\ \hline 0111 = 7 \end{array}$ <p>(c) $(+3) + (+4)$</p>	$\begin{array}{r} 1100 = -4 \\ +1111 = -1 \\ \hline 11011 = -5 \end{array}$ <p>(d) $(-4) + (-1)$</p>
$\begin{array}{r} 0101 = 5 \\ +0100 = 4 \\ \hline 1001 = \text{Overflow} \end{array}$ <p>(e) $(+5) + (+4)$</p>	$\begin{array}{r} 1001 = -7 \\ +1010 = -6 \\ \hline 10011 = \text{Overflow} \end{array}$ <p>(f) $(-7) + (-6)$</p>

Figure 10.3 Addition of Numbers in Twos Complement Representation



OVERFLOW RULE:

If two numbers are added, and they are both positive or both negative, then overflow occurs if and only if the result has the opposite sign.

Overflow

Rule



SUBTRACTION RULE:

To subtract one number (subtrahend) from another (minuend), take the two's complement (negation) of the subtrahend and add it to the minuend.

Subtraction

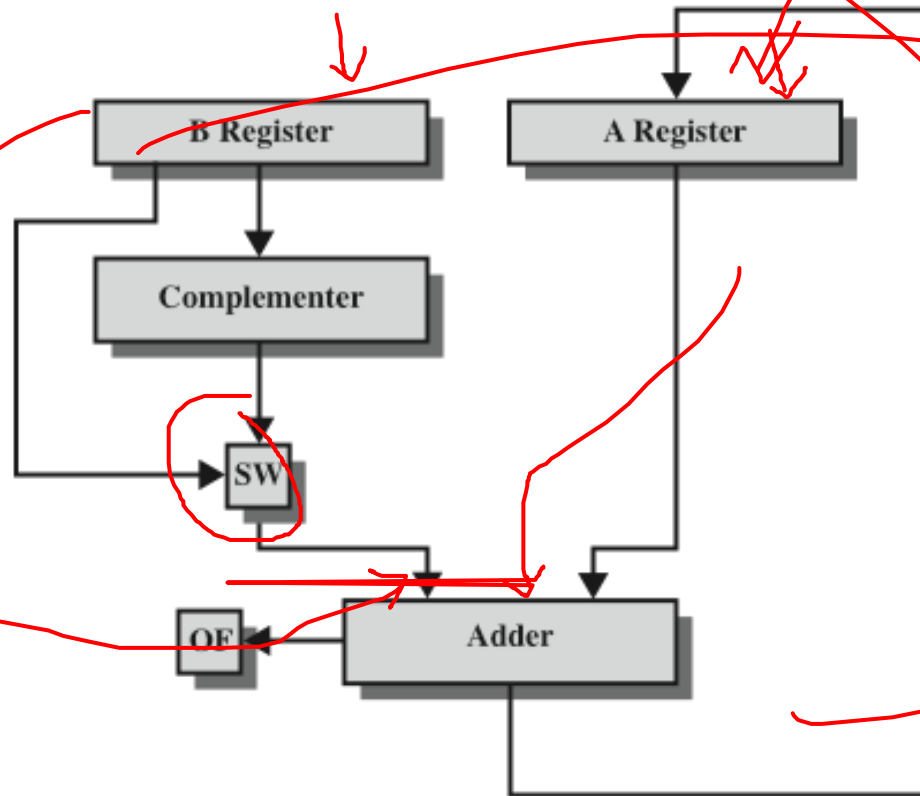
Rule

Subtraction

$\begin{array}{r} 0010 = 2 \\ +1001 = -7 \\ \hline 1011 = -5 \end{array}$ <p>(a) $M = 2 = 0010$ $S = 7 = 0111$ $-S = 1001$</p>	$\begin{array}{r} 0101 = 5 \\ +1110 = -2 \\ \hline 10011 = 3 \end{array}$ <p>(b) $M = 5 = 0101$ $S = 2 = 0010$ $-S = 1110$</p>
$\begin{array}{r} 1011 = -5 \\ +1110 = -2 \\ \hline 11001 = -7 \end{array}$ <p>(c) $M = -5 = 1011$ $S = 2 = 0010$ $-S = 1110$</p>	$\begin{array}{r} 0101 = 5 \\ +0010 = 2 \\ \hline 0111 = 7 \end{array}$ <p>(d) $M = 5 = 0101$ $S = -2 = 1110$ $-S = 0010$</p>
$\begin{array}{r} 0111 = 7 \\ +0111 = 7 \\ \hline 1110 = \text{Overflow} \end{array}$ <p>(e) $M = 7 = 0111$ $S = -7 = 1001$ $-S = 0111$</p>	$\begin{array}{r} 1010 = -6 \\ +1100 = -4 \\ \hline 10110 = \text{Overflow} \end{array}$ <p>(f) $M = -6 = 1010$ $S = 4 = 0100$ $-S = 1100$</p>

Figure 10.4 Subtraction of Numbers in Twos Complement Representation ($M - S$)

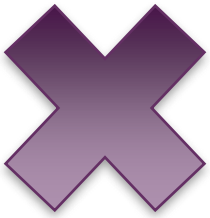
Hardware for Addition and Subtraction



OF = overflow bit

SW = Switch (select addition or subtraction)

Figure 10.6 Block Diagram of Hardware for Addition and Subtraction



Multiplication

1011	Multiplicand (11)
× 1101	Multiplier (13)

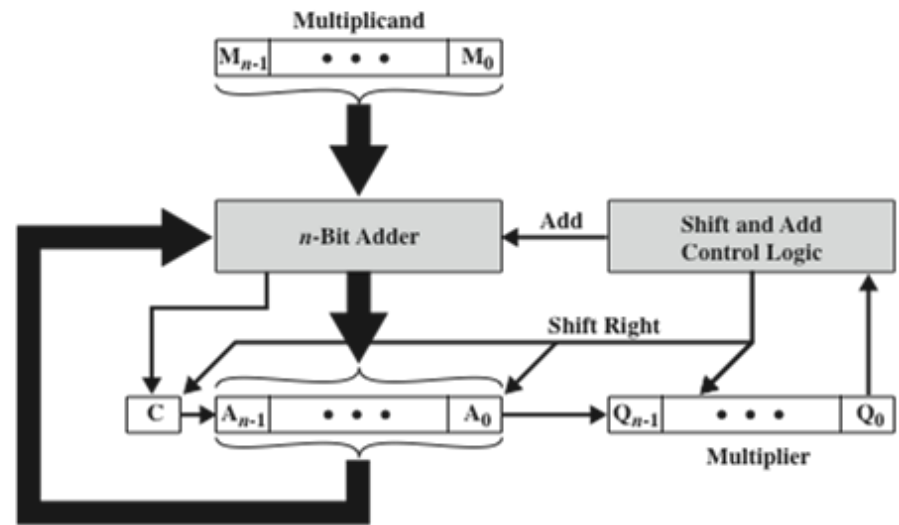
1011	} Partial products
0000	
1011	
1011	

10001111	Product (143)

Figure 10.7 Multiplication of Unsigned Binary Integers



Hardware Implementation of Unsigned Binary Multiplication



(a) Block Diagram

C	A	Q	M		
0	0000	1101	1011	Initial Values	
0	1011	1101	1011	Add	} First Cycle
0	0101	1110	1011	Shift	
0	0010	1111	1011	Shift	} Second Cycle
0	1101	1111	1011	Add	
0	0110	1111	1011	Shift	} Third Cycle
1	0001	1111	1011	Add	
0	1000	1111	1011	Shift	} Fourth Cycle

(b) Example from Figure 9.7 (product in A, Q)

Figure 10.8 Hardware Implementation of Unsigned Binary Multiplication



Flowchart for Unsigned Binary Multiplication

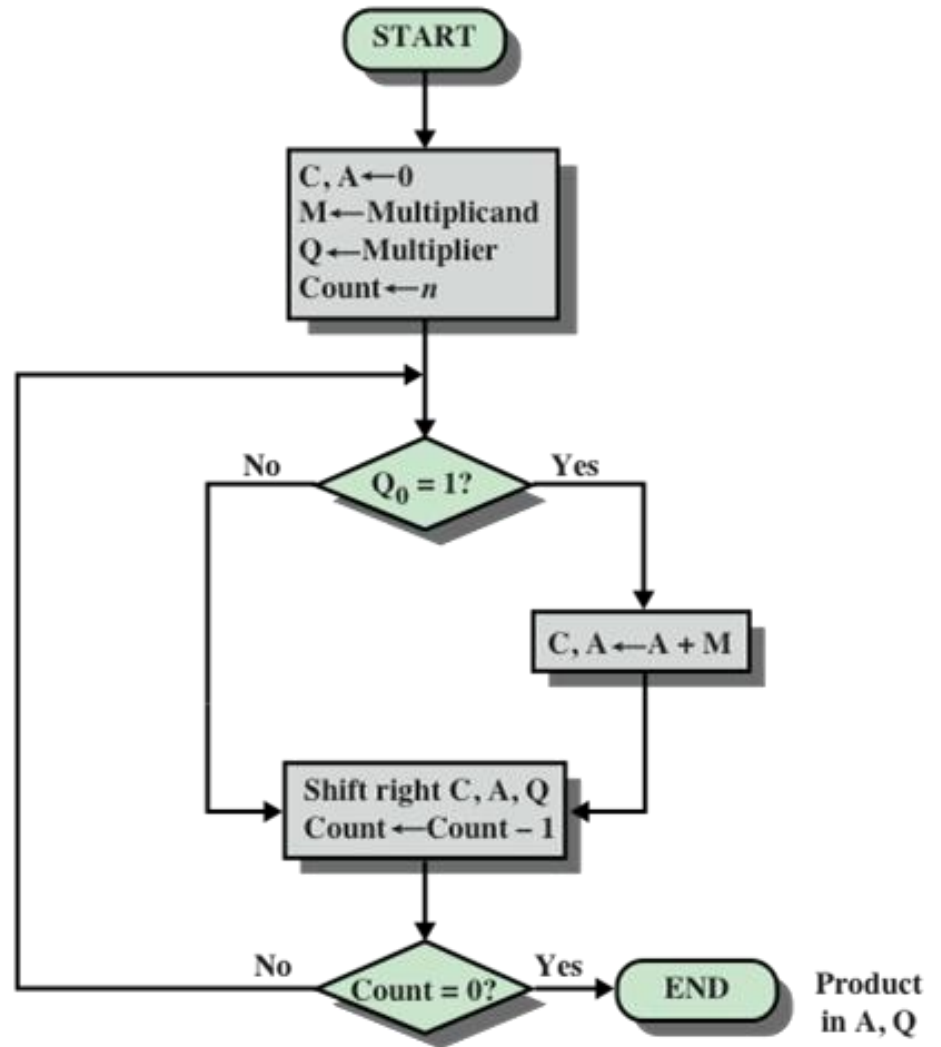


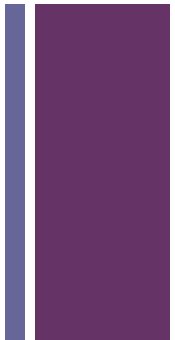
Figure 10.9 Flowchart for Unsigned Binary Multiplication

+

Twos Complement Multiplication

1011	
<u>×1101</u>	
00001011	$1011 \times 1 \times 2^0$
00000000	$1011 \times 0 \times 2^1$
00101100	$1011 \times 1 \times 2^2$
<u>01011000</u>	$1011 \times 1 \times 2^3$
10001111	

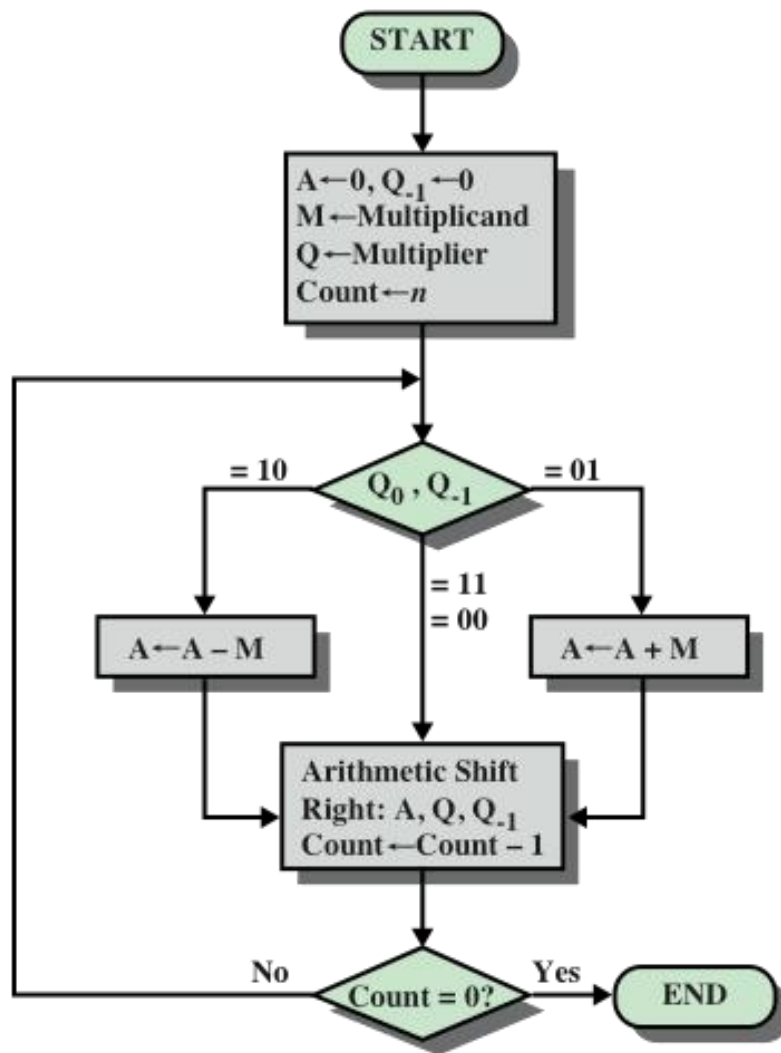
Figure 10.10 Multiplication of Two Unsigned 4-Bit Integers Yielding an 8-Bit Result



Comparison

<div><div><div>1001 (9)</div><div><div><div><div>×0011 (3)</div></div></div><div>00001001 1001 × 2⁰</div><div>00010010 1001 × 2¹</div><div>00011011 (27)</div></div></div></div>	<div><div><div>1001 (-7)</div><div><div><div><div>×0011 (3)</div></div></div><div>11111001 (-7) × 2⁰ = (-7)</div><div>11110010 (-7) × 2¹ = (-14)</div><div>11101011 (-21)</div></div></div></div>
(a) Unsigned integers	(b) Twos complement integers

Figure 10.11 Comparison of Multiplication of Unsigned and Twos Complement Integers



Booth's

Algorithm

Figure 10.12 Booth's Algorithm for Two's Complement Multiplication

Example of Booth's Algorithm

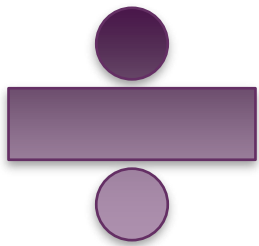
A	Q	Q ₋₁	M	Initial Values	
0000	0011	0	0111		
1001	0011	0	0111	$A \leftarrow A - M$ Shift	} First Cycle
1100	1001	1	0111		
1110	0100	1	0111	Shift	} Second Cycle
0101	0100	1	0111	$A \leftarrow A + M$ Shift	} Third Cycle
0010	1010	0	0111		
0001	0101	0	0111	Shift	} Fourth Cycle

Figure 10.13 Example of Booth's Algorithm (7X 3)

Examples Using Booth's Algorithm

<pre> 0111 x0011 (0) ----- 11111001 1-0 00000000 1-1 000111 0-1 ----- 00010101 (21) </pre> <p>(a) $(7) \times (3) = (21)$</p>	<pre> 0111 x1101 (0) ----- 11111001 1-0 0000111 0-1 111001 1-0 ----- 11101011 (-21) </pre> <p>(b) $(7) \times (-3) = (-21)$</p>
<pre> 1001 x0011 (0) ----- 00000111 1-0 00000000 1-1 111001 0-1 ----- 11101011 (-21) </pre> <p>(c) $(-7) \times (3) = (-21)$</p>	<pre> 1001 x1101 (0) ----- 00000111 1-0 1111001 0-1 000111 1-0 ----- 00010101 (21) </pre> <p>(d) $(-7) \times (-3) = (21)$</p>

Figure 10.14 Examples Using Booth's Algorithm



Division

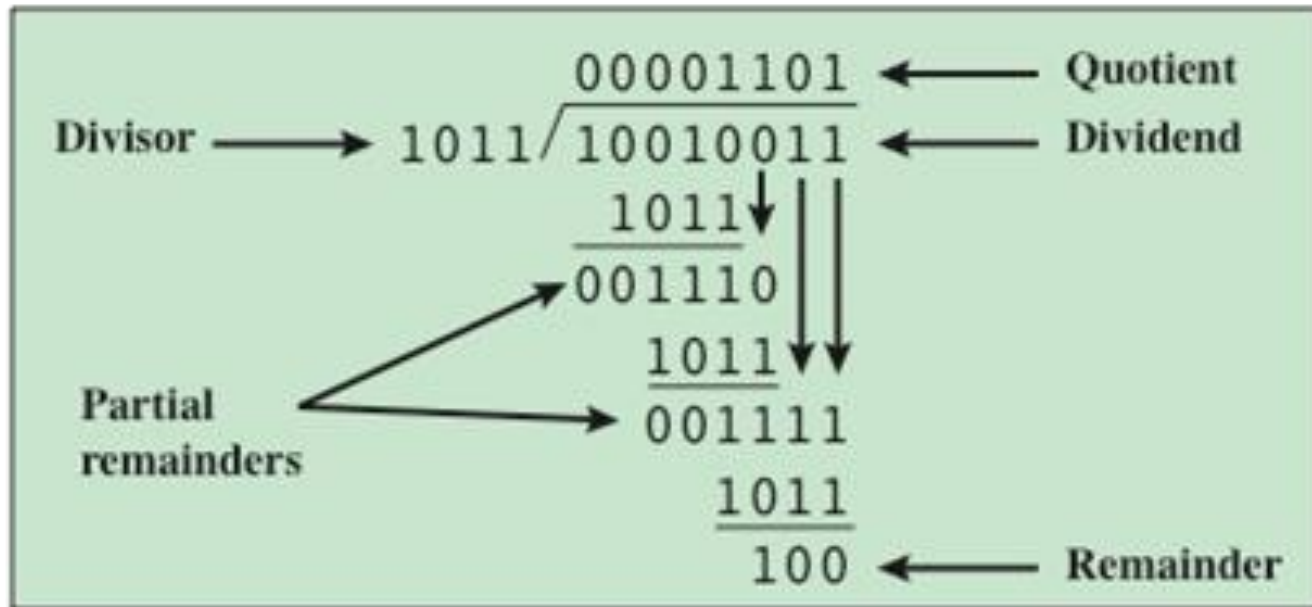


Figure 10.15 Example of Division of Unsigned Binary Integers



Flowchart for Unsigned Binary Division

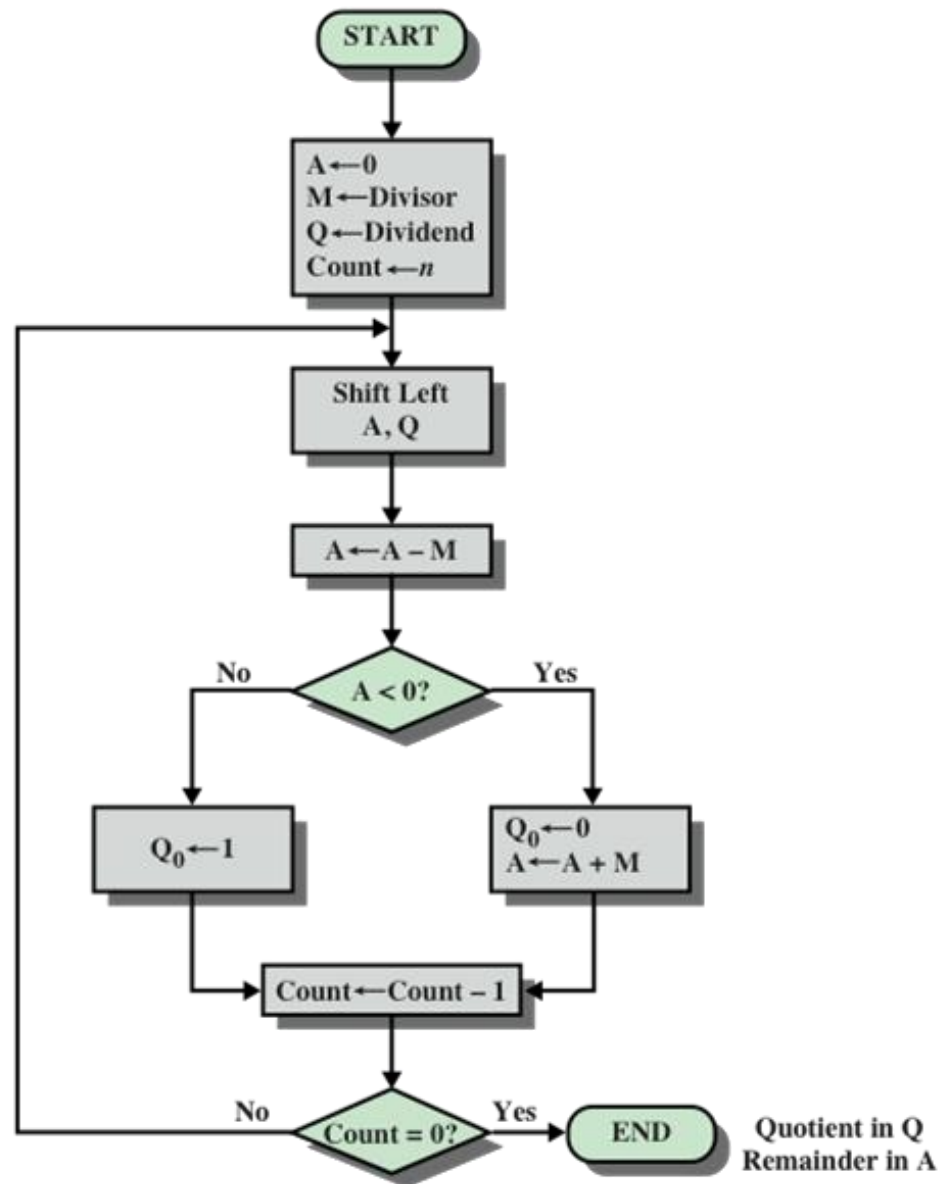


Figure 10.16 Flowchart for Unsigned Binary Division



Flowchart for Unsigned Binary Division

The algorithm can be summarized as follows:

1. Load the twos complement of the divisor into the M register; that is, the M register contains the negative of the divisor.
Load the dividend into the A, Q registers. The dividend must be expressed as a *2n-bit positive number*. Thus, for example, the 4-bit 0111 becomes 00000111.
2. Shift A, Q left 1 bit position.



Flowchart for Unsigned Binary Division

3. Perform $A = A - M$. This operation subtracts the divisor from the contents of A.

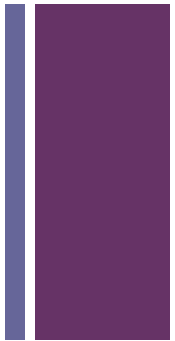
4. a. If the result is nonnegative (most significant bit of A = 0), then set $Q_0 = 1$.
b. If the result is negative (most significant bit of A = 1), then set $Q_0 = 0$ and restore the previous value of A.

5. Repeat steps 2 through 4 as many times as there are bit positions in Q.

6. The remainder is in A and the quotient is in Q.



Example of Restoring Twos Complement Division



A	Q	
0000	0111	Initial value
0000 <u>1101</u> 1101 0000	1110	Shift Use twos complement of 0011 for subtraction Subtract Restore, set $Q_0 = 0$
0001 <u>1101</u> 1110 0001	1100	Shift Subtract Restore, set $Q_0 = 0$
0011 <u>1101</u> 0000	1000 1001	Shift Subtract, set $Q_0 = 1$
0001 <u>1101</u> 1110 0001	0010 0010	Shift Subtract Restore, set $Q_0 = 0$

Figure 10.17 Example of Restoring Twos Complement Division (7/3)