# Chapter 3 Memory Management

- Fetch Strategies
- Page Replacement
  - -Optimal
    - -FIFO Second-chance Clock
    - -NRU、LRU、NFU、Aging
    - -Working Set、WSClock
- Design Issues for paging systems
- Implementation Issues for paging systems
- Segmentation
- Segmentation with paging

### Paging Policies

#### Fetch Strategies

When should a page be brought into primary (main) memory from secondary (disk) storage.

#### Replacement Strategies

Which page now in primary storage is to be removed from primary storage when some other page or segment is to be brought in and there is not enough room.

#### Clean Strategies

When a page in memory is brought out?

### Fetch Strategies: Demand Fetching

- Algorithm Never bring a page into primary memory until it's needed.
  - 1. Page fault occurs.
  - 2. Check if a valid virtual memory address. Kill job if not.
  - 3. If valid reference, check if it's cached in memory already (perhaps for some other process.) If so, skip to 7.
  - 4. Find a free page frame.
  - 5. Map address into disk block and fetch disk block into page frame. Suspend user process.
  - 6. When disk read finished, add vm mapping for page frame.
  - 7. If necessary, restart process.

### Fetch Strategies: Prepaging

- Algorithm bring a page into primary in advance.
- When page-fault happens, the page needed and adjacent pages will be brought into memory.
  - Advantage: improve the I/O efficiency when fetch page.
  - ➡ Disadvantage: based on prediction, if the fetched page is rare referenced, low efficiency.
  - Used when loading page.

### Page Replacement

- 1. Find location of page on disk
- 2. Find a free page frame
  - If there is a free page frame then use it
  - Otherwise, select a victim frame using the page replacement algorithm
  - Write the selected page to the disk if necessary and update any necessary tables
- Read the requested page from the disk.
- 4. Restart the user process.

### Page Replacement Objectives

- Achieve a low page fault rate (Main Objective)
  - Insure that heavily used pages stay in memory.
  - The replaced page should not be needed for some time.
- Reduce latency of a page fault
  - Replace pages that do not need to be written out

### Page Replacement Algorithms

#### Reference String

- Reference string is the sequence of pages being referenced.
- - 123, 215, 600, 1234, 76, 96
  - ❖ If the page size is 100, then the reference string is:
    1, 2, 6, 12, 0, 0

#### Usage of Reference String

- Sevaluate a page replacement algorithm by running it on a particular string of memory references (reference string).
- Compute the number of page faults on that string.

### Page Replacement Algorithms

- The Optimal Algorithm (OPT or MIN)
  - Replace the page that will not be used again the farthest time in the future.
- Random page replacement Algorithm
  - Choose a page randomly
- FIFO (First-in First-Out) Algorithm
  - Replace the page that has been in primary memory the longest
- Second Chance Algorithm
  - Variant of FIFO
- Clock Algorithm
  - Better implementation of second chance
- \* NRU (Not Recently Used) Algorithm
  - Enhanced second chance

### Page Replacement Algorithms

- LRU (Least Recently Used) Algorithm
  - Replace the page that has not been used for the longest time
- NFU (Not Frequently Used) Algorithm
  - Replace the page that is used least often, simulated LRU
- Aging Algorithm
  - Modified NFU
- Working Set Algorithm
  - Keep in memory those pages that the process is actively using
- WS Clock Algorithm
  - The modified working set algorithm based on clock algorithm

### The Optimal Algorithm

#### Description:

- Assume that each page can be labeled with the number of instructions that will be executed before that page is first references, i.e., we would know the future reference string for a program.
- Then the optimal page algorithm would choose the page with the highest label to be removed from the memory.
- It can be shown that this algorithm results in the fewest number of page faults.
- Impractical because it needs future references
- If future references are known
  - should not use demand fetching
  - should use pre paging to allow paging to be overlapped with computation.
- This algorithm provides a basis for comparison with other schemes.

### Optimal Example

12 references,7 faults

Page	3 Page Frames			
Refs	Fault?	Pag	e Co	ontents
A	yes	A		
В	yes	В	A	
С	yes	С	В	A
D	yes	D	В	A
A	no	D	В	A
В	no	D	В	A
E	yes	E	В	A
A	no	E	В	A
В	no	E	В	A
С	yes	C	E	В
D	yes	D	С	E
E	no	D	С	E

### FIFO Page Replacement Algorithm

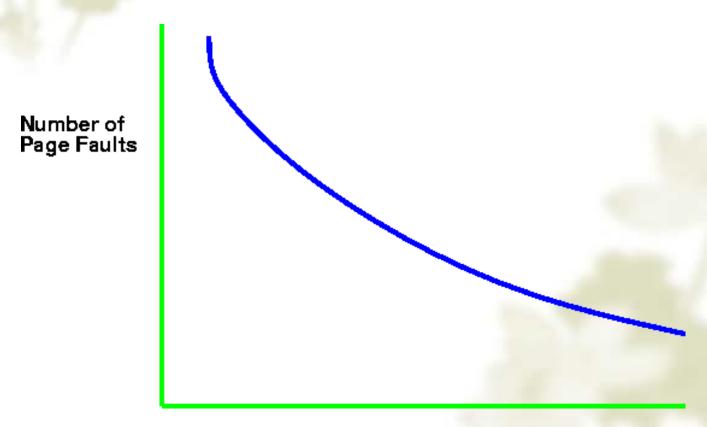
- Maintain a linked list of all pages
  - in order they came into memory with the oldest page at the front of the list.
- Page at beginning of list replaced
- Advantage: easy to implement (FIFO queue)
- Disadvantage
  - spage in memory the longest (perhaps often used) may be evicted

### **FIFO**

## 12 references,9 faults

Page	3 Page Frames			
Refs	Fault?	$\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{a}_{l}}$	ge C	ontents
A	yes	A		
В	yes	В	A	
С	yes	O	В	A
D	yes	D	С	В
A	yes	A	D	С
В	yes	В	A	D
E	yes	E	В	A
A	no	E	В	A
В	no	E	В	A
С	yes	O	E	В
D	yes	D	C	E
E	no	D	C	E

# Paging Behavior with Increasing Number of Page Frames





- Belady discovered more page frames might not always have fewer page faults. This is called Belady's anomaly.
- A paging system can be characterized by three items:
  - The reference string of the executing process.
  - The page replacement algorithm.

### Belady's Anomaly (for FIFO)

As the number of page frames increase, so does the fault rate.

12 references,10 faults

Page	4 Page Frames				
Refs	Fault?	$\mathbf{Pa}_{\mathbf{k}}$	ge C	onte	ents
A	yes	A			
В	yes	В	A		
C	yes	С	В	A	
D	yes	D	С	В	A
A	no	$\mathbf{D}$	С	В	A
В	no	D	C	В	A
E	yes	E	D	С	В
A	yes	A	E	D	C
В	yes	В	A	E	D
C	yes	C	В	A	E
D	yes	D	С	В	A
E	yes	E	D	C	В

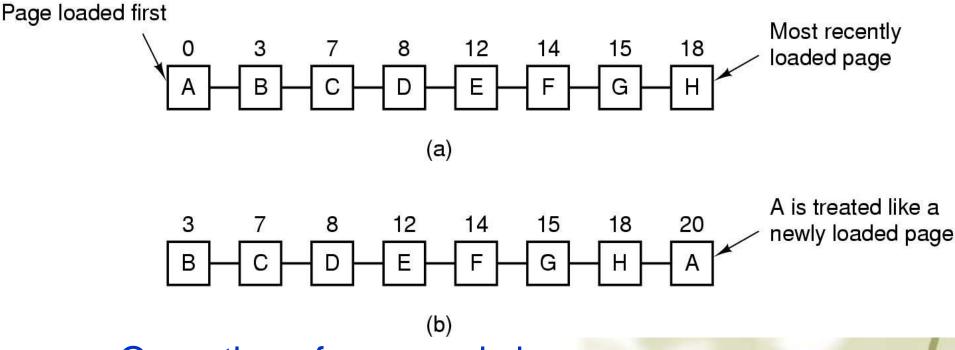
# Second Chance Page Replacement Algorithm

- A simple modification of FIFO
  - Inspect R bit

if  $R = 0 \rightarrow$  evict the page

if R = 1 → set R = 0 and put page at end (back) of list. The page is treated like a newly loaded page.

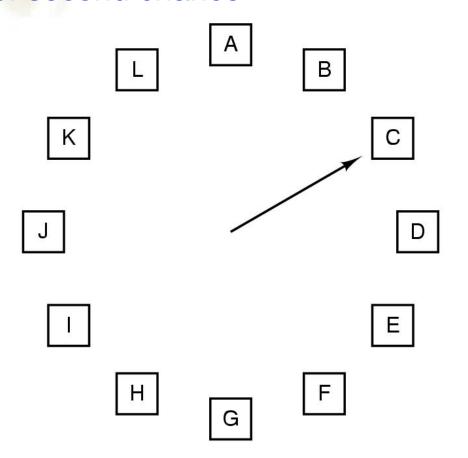
# Second Chance Page Replacement Algorithm



- Operation of a second chance
  - a) Pages sorted in FIFO order
  - b) Page list if fault occurs at time 20, A has R bit set (numbers above pages are loading times)

# The Clock Page Replacement Algorithm

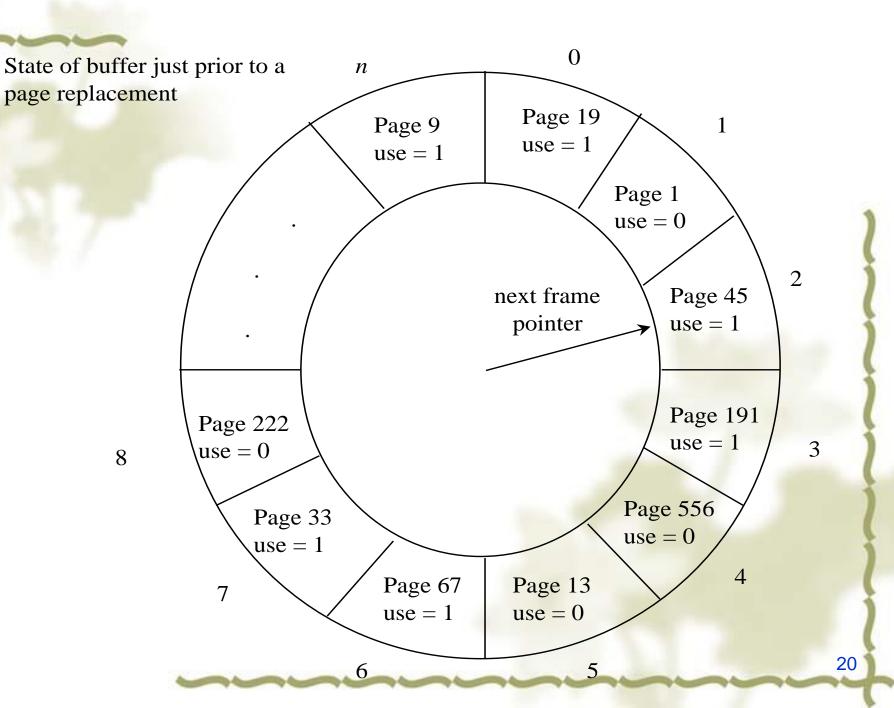
Clock Replacement Algorithm: a different implementation of second chance

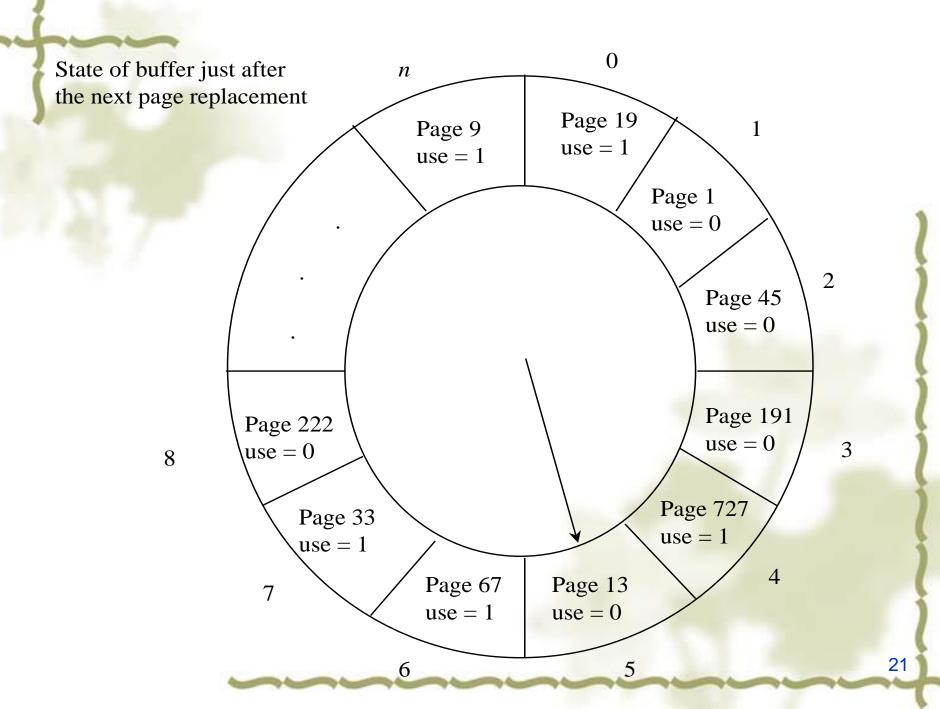


When a page fault occurs, the page the hand is pointing to is inspected. The action taken depends on the R bit:

R = 0: Evict the page

R = 1: Clear R and advance hand





# Not Recently Used Page Replacement Algorithm (NRU)

- Each page has Reference bit(R) and Modified bit(M).
  - bits are set when page is referenced (read or written recently), modified (written to)
  - when a process starts, both bits R and M are set to 0 for all pages.
  - periodically, (on each clock interval (20msec)), the R bit is cleared. (i.e. R=0).
- Pages are classified
  - Class 0: not referenced, not modified
  - Class 1: not referenced, modified
  - Class 2: referenced, not modified
  - Class 3: referenced, modified
- NRU removes page at random
  - from lowest numbered non-empty class

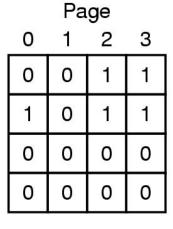
### Least Recently Used (LRU)

- Assume pages used recently will used again soon
  - throw out page that has been unused for longest time
- Software Solution: Must keep a linked list of pages
  - most recently used at front, least at rear
- Hardware solution 1: Equip hardware with a 64 bit counter
  - That is incrementing after each instruction.
  - After memory reference, the counter value is stored in the page table entry of the page that was just referenced.
  - choose page with lowest value counter
  - speriodically zero the counter

### Least Recently Used (LRU)

- Hardware solution 2:
  - Maintain a matrix of n x n bits for a machine with n page frames.
    - ❖ When page frame K is referenced:
      - (i) Set row K to all 1s.
      - (ii) Set column K to all 0s.
    - The row whose binary value is smallest is the LRU page.

# Page Page Page Page 0 1 2 3 0 1 2 3 0 1 2 0 0 0 0 0



(b)

Page 0 1 2 3						
0	1	2	3			
0	0	0	1			
1	0	0	1			
1	1	0	1			
0	0	0	0			
(c)						

Page						
0	1	2	3			
0	0	0	0			
1	0	0	0			
1	1	0	0			
1	1	1	0			
(d)						

Page 0 1 2 3						
0	1	2	3			
0	0	0	0			
1	0	0	0			
1	1	0	1			
1	1	0	0			
 (e)						

0	0	0	0
1	0	1	1
1	0	0	1
1	0	0	0

0

0

0

0

0

(a)

0

0

0

1

2

3

	0	<b>T</b>	1	1
	0	0	1	1
	0	0	0	1
200	0	0	0	0

0	1	1	0
0	0	1	0
0	0	0	0
1	1	1	0

1	0	0
0	0	0
1	0	1
1	0	0
	1 0 1	0 0

0	1	0	0
0	0	0	0
1	1	0	0
1	1	1	0

(f)

(g)

(h)

(i)

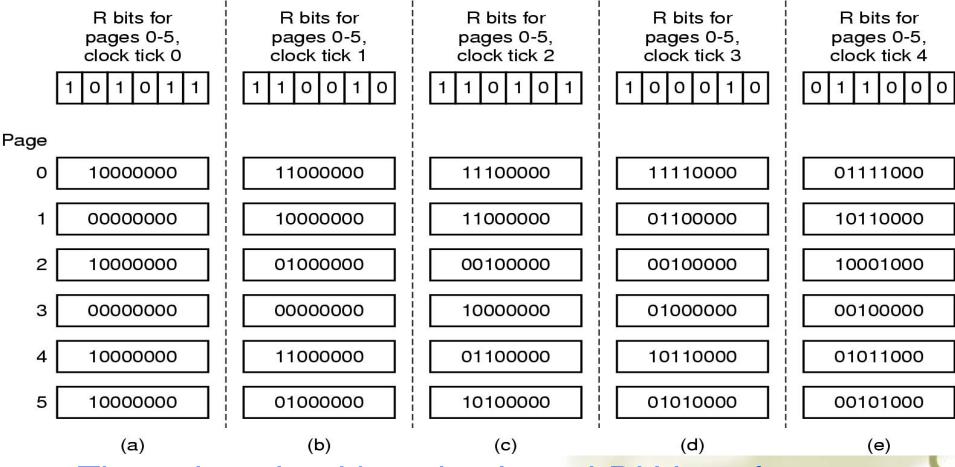
(j)

LRU using a matrix – pages referenced in order 0,1,2,3,2,1,0,3,2,3

### Simulating LRU in Software

- LRU hardware is not usually available.
- NFU (Not Frequently Used) is implemented in software.
  - At each clock interrupt, the R bit is added to the counter associated with each page. When a page fault occurs, the page with the lowest counter is replaced.
  - Problem: NFU never forgets, so a page referenced frequency long ago may have the highest counter.
- Modified NFU = NFU with Aging at each clock interrupt:
  - sthe counters are shifted right one bit, and
  - the R bits are added to the leftmost bit.
  - In this way, we can give higher priority to recent R values.

### Simulating LRU in Software



- The aging algorithm simulates LRU in software
- Note 6 pages for 5 clock ticks, (a)~(e)

### LRU

12 references,10 faults

Page	3 Page Frames			
Refs	Fault?	Pa	ge C	ontents
A	yes	A		
В	yes	В	A	
U	yes	С	В	A
D	yes	D	O	В
A	yes	Α	D	С
В	yes	В	A	D
E	yes	E	В	A
A	no	A	E	В
В	no	В	A	E
U	yes	С	В	A
D	yes	D	O	В
E	yes	E	D	C

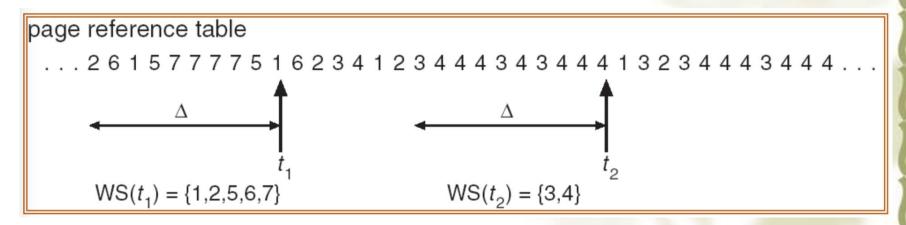
### LRU and Anomalies

Anomalies cannot occur.

12 references,8 faults

Page	4 Page Frames				
Refs	Fault?	Page Contents			
A	yes	A			
В	yes	В	A		
С	yes	С	В	A	
D	yes	D	С	В	A
A	no	A	D	C	В
В	no	В	A	D	C
E	yes	E	В	A	D
A	no	A	E	В	D
В	no	В	A	E	D
С	yes	O	В	A	E
D	yes	D	C	В	A
E	yes	E	D	С	В

- The working set is the set of pages used by the k most recent memory references
- $\star$  w(k,t) is the size of the working set at time t
- ❖ Example: k or  $\Delta = 10$

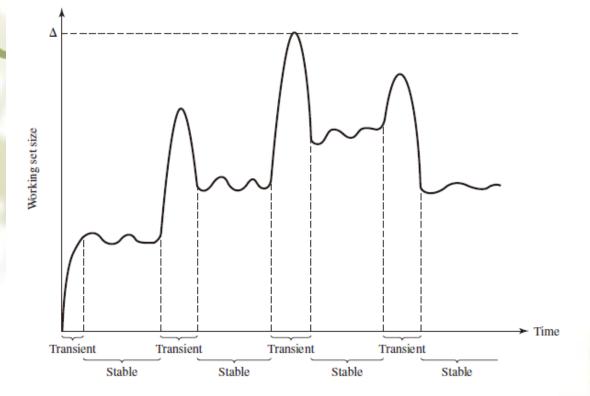


#### Working set algorithm

When a page fault occurs, find a page that is not in the working set and evict it.

#### Approximation

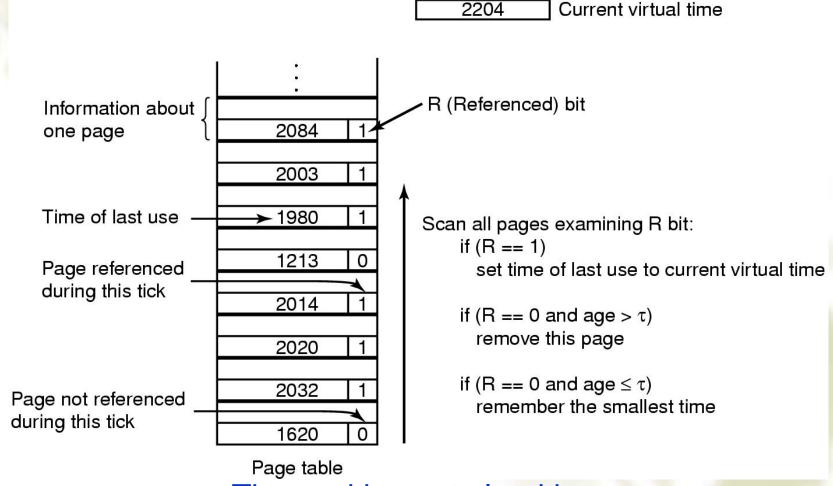
- ◆ Drop the idea of counting back k memory references and use execution time.
- The working set of a process is the set of pages it has referenced during the past  $\tau$  seconds of virtual time.



- When a process first begins executing, it gradually builds up to a working set as it references new pages.
- Eventually by the principle of locality, the process should stabilize on a certain set of pages.
- Subsequent transient periods reflect a shift of the program to a new locality.
- During the transition phase, some of the pages from the old locality remain with the window, causing a surge in the size of the working set as new pages are referenced.
- As the window slides past these page references, the working set size declines until it contains only those pages from the new locality.

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- On each clock tick, clear all R bits
- When looking for eviction candidates, scan all pages of process in physical memory
  - ≪if R=1
    - ❖ Store t (current virtual time) in LTU (last time used) of PTE
  - ≪if R=0
    - if  $(t LTU) > \tau$ , evict the page (because it is not in the working set)
    - ❖ if  $(t LTU) \le \tau$ , record the page of greatest age.
      - age = current virtual time last time used

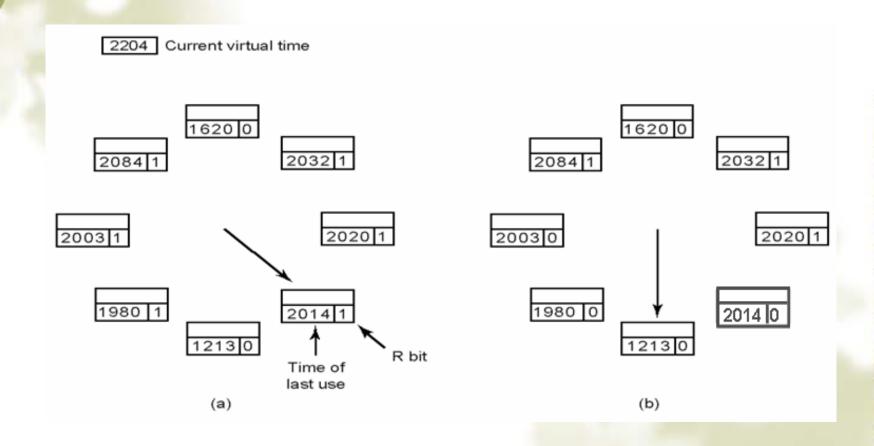


- What happens if the entire table is scanned without finding a candidate to evict? (all pages are in the working set)
  - ✓ If one or more pages with R=0 were found, the one with the greatest age is evicted.
  - The worst case: no page with R=0, choose one page at random (preferably a clean page).

### The WSClock Page Replacement Algorithm

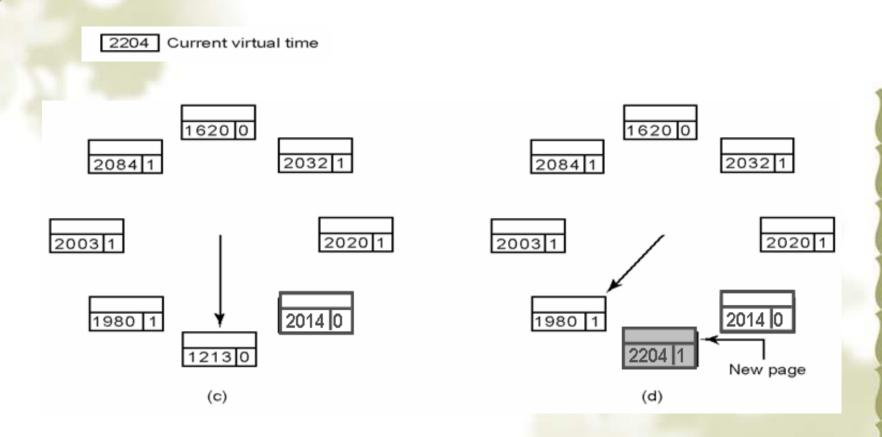
- Previous WS algorithm requires entire page table be scanned at each page fault.
- WSClock Algorithm: an improved algorithm
  - Simple, efficient, widely used
  - Based on the clock algorithm
  - Also uses the working set information
  - Uses circular list of page frames

- Upon a page fault
  - ≼ if R=1, set R=0 and advance the hand and keep looking for.
  - - ❖ if age  $\leq \tau$ , advance the hand and keep looking for.
    - $\bullet$  if age >  $\tau$ , and if clean, then claim it.
    - if age >  $\tau$ , and if dirty, then schedule a disk write. Advance the hand and keep lookding for.



Operation of the WSClock algorithm.

(a) and (b) give an example of what happens when R = 1.



Operation of the WSClock algorithm. (c) and (d) give an example of R = 0.

- What happens if the hand comes all the way around to its starting point?
  - Case1: At least one write has been scheduled.
    - The first clean page encountered is evicted
  - Case 2: No writes have been scheduled (all pages are in working set)
    - Claim any clean page and use it.
    - If no clean pages exist, the current page is chosen and written back to disk.

#### Review of Page Replacement Algorithms

Algorithm	Comment
Optimal	Not implementable, but useful as a benchmark
NRU (Not Recently Used)	Very crude
FIFO (First-In, First-Out)	Might throw out important pages
Second chance	Big improvement over FIFO
Clock	Realistic
LRU (Least Recently Used)	Excellent, but difficult to implement exactly
NFU (Not Frequently Used)	Fairly crude approximation to LRU
Aging	Efficient algorithm that approximates LRU well
Working set	Somewhat expensive to implement
WSClock	Good efficient algorithm

#### Two Best Algorithms: Aging and WSClock

# Design Issues for Paging Systems Frame allocation algorithm

- Frame allocation algorithm are used if you have multiple processes; it helps decide how many frames to allocate to each process.
  - Equal allocation: In a system with x frames and y processes, each process gets equal number of frames, i.e. x/y.
     For instance, if the system has 48 frames and 9 processes, each process will get 5 frames. The three frames which are not allocated to any process can be used as a free-frame buffer pool.

**Disadvantage**: In systems with processes of varying sizes, it does not make much sense to give each process equal frames. Allocation of a large number of frames to a small process will eventually lead to the wastage of a large number of allocated unused frames.

# Design Issues for Paging Systems Frame allocation algorithm

- Frame allocation algorithm are used if you have multiple processes; it helps decide how many frames to allocate to each process.
  - 2. Proportional allocation: Frames are allocated to each process according to the process size.

For a process  $p_i$  of size  $s_i$ , the number of allocated frames is  $a_i = (s_i/S)^*m$ , where S is the sum of the sizes of all the processes and m is the number of frames in the system.

For instance, in a system with 62 frames, if there is a process of 10KB and another process of 127KB, then the first process will be allocated (10/137)\*62 = 4 frames and the other process will get (127/137)\*62 = 57 frames.

**Advantage**: All the processes share the available frames according to their needs, rather than equally.

# Design Issues for Paging Systems Local versus Global Allocation Policies

- The number of frames allocated to a process can also dynamically change depending on whether you have used global replacement or local replacement for replacing pages in case of a page fault.
  - Local replacement: When a process needs a page which is not in the memory, it can bring in the new page and allocate it a frame from its own set of allocated frames only.
  - Global replacement: When a process needs a page which is not in the memory, it can bring in the new page and allocate it a frame from the set of all frames, even if that frame is currently allocated to some other process; that is, one process can take a frame from another.

# Design Issues for Paging Systems Local versus Global Allocation Policies

	Age
A0	1Ŏ
A1	7 5
A2	1
A3	4
A4	6
A5	3
В0	9
B1	4
B2	6
B3	2
B4	5
B5	6
B6	12
C1	3
C2 C3	3 5
C3	6
(a)	

A0
A1
A2
А3
A4
(A6)
B0
B1
B2
B3
B4
B5
B6
C1
C2 C3
C3
(b)

A0	
A1	
A2	
A3	
A4	
A5	
B0	
B1	
B2	
(A6)	
B4	
B5	
B6	
C1	
C2	
C3	
(c)	

- a) Original configuration
- b) Local page replacement
- c) Global page replacement

# Design Issues for Paging Systems Local versus Global Allocation Policies

#### Local replacement

- Advantage: The pages in memory for a particular process and the page fault ratio is affected by the paging behavior of only that process.
- ➡ Disadvantage: A low priority process may hinder a high priority process by not making its frames available to the high priority process.

#### Global replacement

- Advantage: Does not hinder the performance of processes and hence results in greater system throughput.
- Solely controlled by the process itself. The pages in memory for a process depends on the paging behavior of other processes as well.

# Design Issues for Paging Systems Load Control

- Despite good designs, system may still thrash
- Some processes need more memory but <u>no</u> processes need less
- Solution:
   Reduce a number of processes competing for memory
  - swap one or more to disk, divide up pages they held
  - reconsider degree of multiprogramming

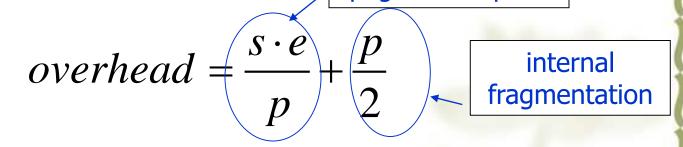
# Design Issues for Paging Systems Page Size (1)

#### Small page size

- Advantages
  - less internal fragmentation
  - less unused program in memory
- Disadvantages
  - programs need many pages, larger page tables

# Design Issues for Paging Systems Page Size (2)

Overhead due to page table and internal fragmentation



#### Where

≼ s = average process size in bytes

⋄ p = page size in bytes

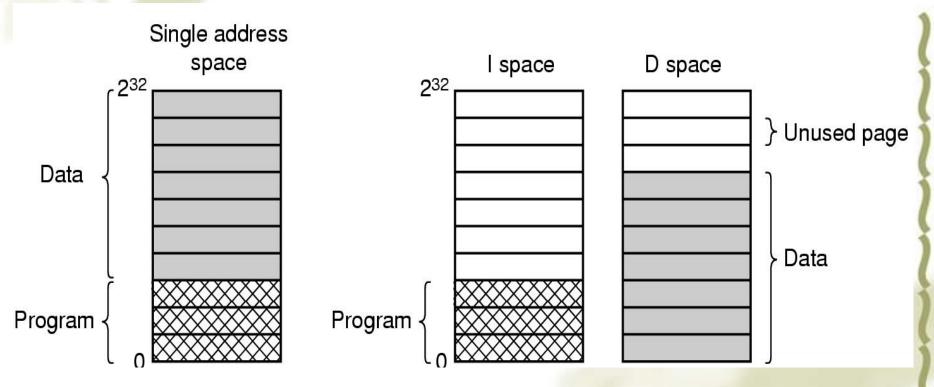
• e = page entry size in bytes

Optimized when

$$p = \sqrt{2se}$$

$$S=1MB$$
,  $e=8$ ,  $p=4KB$ 

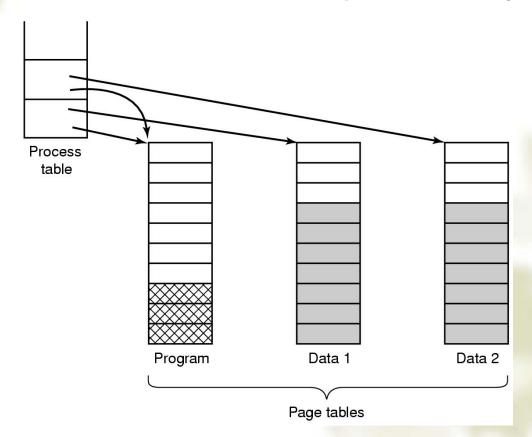
# Design Issues for Paging Systems Separate Instruction and Data Spaces



- One address space
- Separate I and D spaces

# Design Issues for Paging Systems Shared Pages

Separate instruction and data space, easy to share



Two processes sharing same program sharing its page table

### Cleaning Policy

- Need for a background process, paging daemon
   periodically inspects state of memory
- When too few frames are free
  - selects pages to evict using a replacement algorithm
- It can use same circular list (clock)
  - as regular page replacement algorithm but with diff ptr (front hand & back hand)

#### Implementation Issues

Operating System Involvement with Paging Four times when OS involved with paging

- 1. Process creation
  - determine program size
  - create page table
- 2. Process execution
  - MMU reset for new process
  - TLB flushed
- Page fault time
  - determine virtual address causing fault
  - swap target page out, needed page in
- 4. Process termination time
  - release page table, pages

### Page Fault Handling (1)

- Hardware traps to kernel, saving the PC on the stack
- General registers saved
- 3. OS determines which virtual page needed
- 4. OS checks validity of address, seeks page frame
- If selected frame is dirty, write it to disk, suspend the process

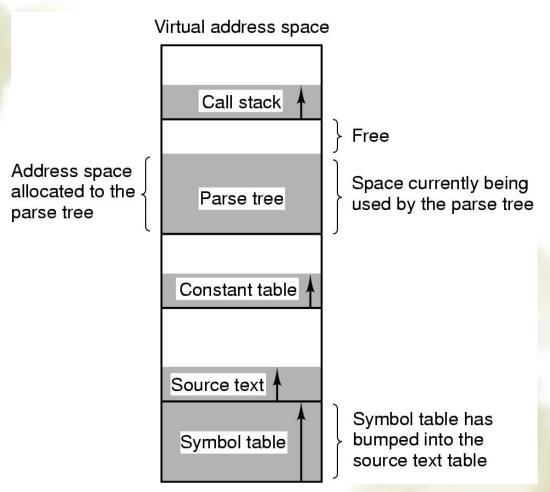
### Page Fault Handling (2)

- 6. OS brings new page in from disk. While page loading, process still suspend
- 7. Disk interrupts, page tables updated
- 8. Faulting instruction backed up to when it began
- 9. Faulting process scheduled
- 10. Registers restored
- 11. Program continues

### Segmentation

- The virtual memory solution so far is paging (one-dimensional)
- For some applications, having two or more virtual address spaces may be much better than having only one.
  - For example, a compiler has many tables that are built up as compilation proceeds, such as source text, symbol table, constant table, parse tree and stack.
  - What happens if a program has a much larger number of variables but a normal amount of everything else?

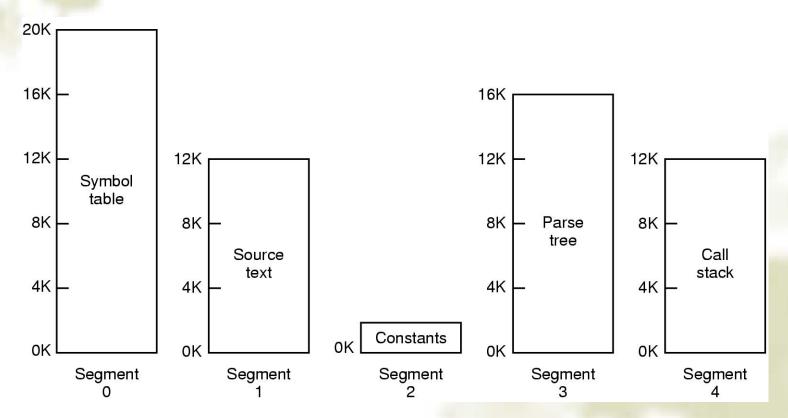
## Segmentation (1)



- One-dimensional address space with growing tables
- One table may bump into another

### Segmentation (2)

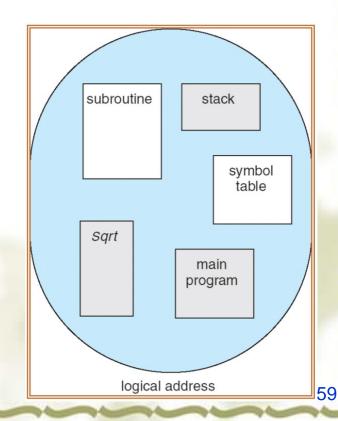
Solution: To provide the machine with many completely independent address spaces, called segments.



A segmented memory allows each table to grow or shrink, independently

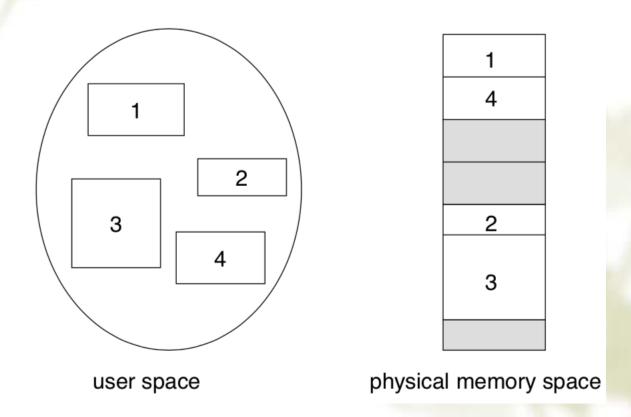
## Segmentation (3)

- Segmentation is a memory-management scheme that supports user view of memory.
- User's view of a program
  - A program is a collection of segments. A segment is a logical unit such as
    - Main program
    - Procedure
    - Function
    - Symbol table
    - Stack



## Segmentation (4)

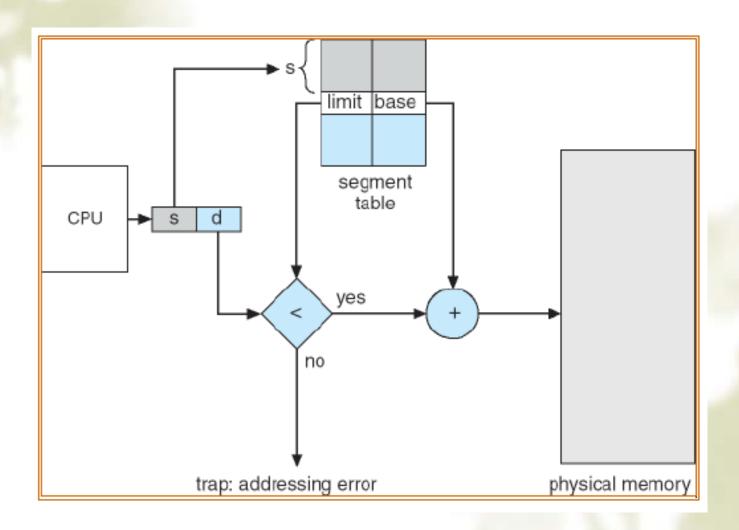
Logical view of segmentation



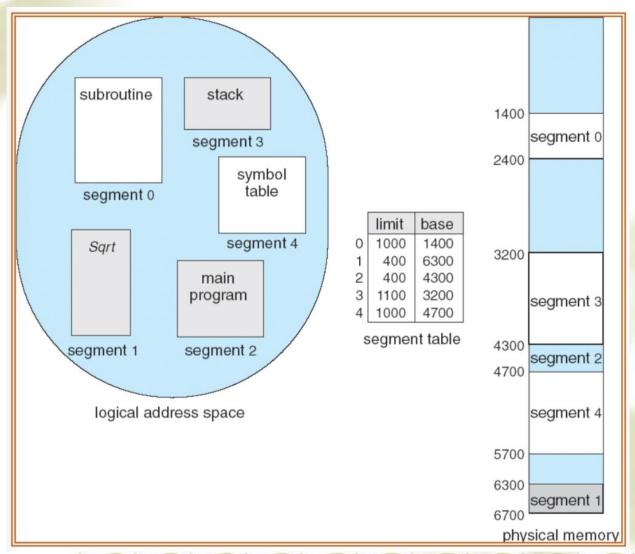
### Segmentation Architecture (1)

- Logical address consists of two parts:
  - <virtual segment-number, offset>
- Segment table
  - Maps two-dimensional user-defined addresses into onedimensional physical addresses
  - The virtual segment number is used as an index to the segment table
  - Each table entry has
    - Base: contains the starting physical address where the segments reside in memory
    - Limit: specifies the length of the segment
- Segment-table base register (STBR) points to the segment table's location in memory

#### **Address Translation**



## Example of Segmentation



#### Exercise

- Using the following segment table, compute the physical address for the logical address consisting of segment and offset as follows
  - Segment 2 and offset 247
  - Segment 4 and offset 439

	Base	Limit	
0	5432	350	
1	115	100	
2	2200	780	
3	4235	1100	
4	1650	400	

#### Solution

- Segment 2 and offset 247
  - From the segment table, the limit of segment 2 is 780 and the base of segment 2 is 2200
  - Since the offset is less than the limit (247<780),
  - Physical address = Segment base + Offset = 2200 + 247 = 2447

	Base	Limit	
0	5432	350	
1	115	100	
2	2200	780	
3	4235	1100	
4	1650	400	

#### Solution

- Segment 4 and offset 439
  - From the segment table, the limit of segment 4 is 400 and the base of segment 4 is 1650
  - Since the offset is greater than the limit (439 > 400), invalid-address error is generated.

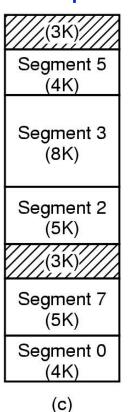
	Base	Limit	
0	5432	350	
1	115	100	
2	2200	780	
3	4235	1100	
4	1650	400	

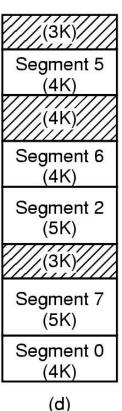
#### Implementation of Pure Segmentation

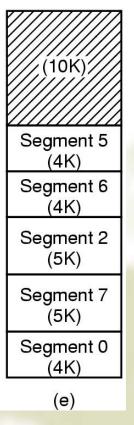
 Since segments vary in length, memory allocation is a dynamic storage-allocation problem

Segment 4 (7K)
Segment 3 (8K)
Segment 2 (5K)
Segment 1 (8K)
Segment 0 (4K)
(a)

Segment 4 (7K)
Segment 3 (8K)
Segment 2 (5K)
Segment 7 (5K)
Segment 0 (4K)
(b)







- (a)-(d) Development of checkerboarding
- (e) Removal of the checkerboarding by compaction

# Paging vs. Segmentation

Consideration	Paging	Segmentation
Need the programmer be aware that this technique is being used?	No	Yes
How many linear address spaces are there?	1	Many
Can the total address space exceed the size of physical memory?	Yes	Yes
Can procedures and data be distinguished and separately protected?	No	Yes
Can tables whose size fluctuates be accommodated easily?	No	Yes
Is sharing of procedures between users facilitated?	No	Yes
Why was this technique invented?	To get a large linear address space without having to buy more physical memory	To allow programs and data to be broken up into logically independent address spaces and to aid sharing and protection

### Advantage of Segmentation

- May be possible to shrink/grow segments
- Each segment can be given its own protection information...this is a much easier protection scheme than trying to protect each page of memory
- Linking programs is a trivial task
- Code can be shared between processes easily. Just load the code segment once. Copies of the same program access the same segment.

### Disadvantage of Segmentation

- Programmer must be aware of the memory model in use (at the assembly level, anyway)
- Just like with swapping systems, fragmentation can waste much memory.
- Segments may be too large to fit in physical memory

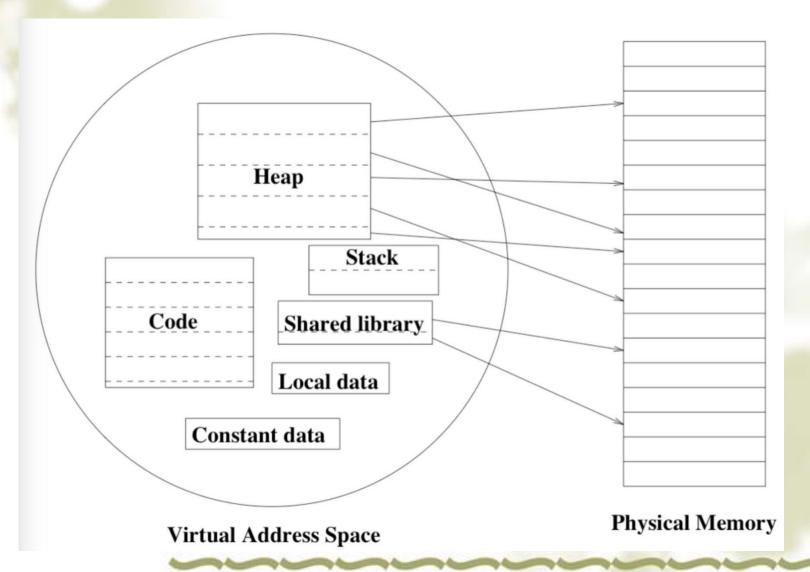
## Segmentation with paging (1)

- Segmentation in virtual memory, paging in physical memory
- A segment is composed of pages
- An address has three components



The physical memory contains only the demanded pages of a segment, not the full segment

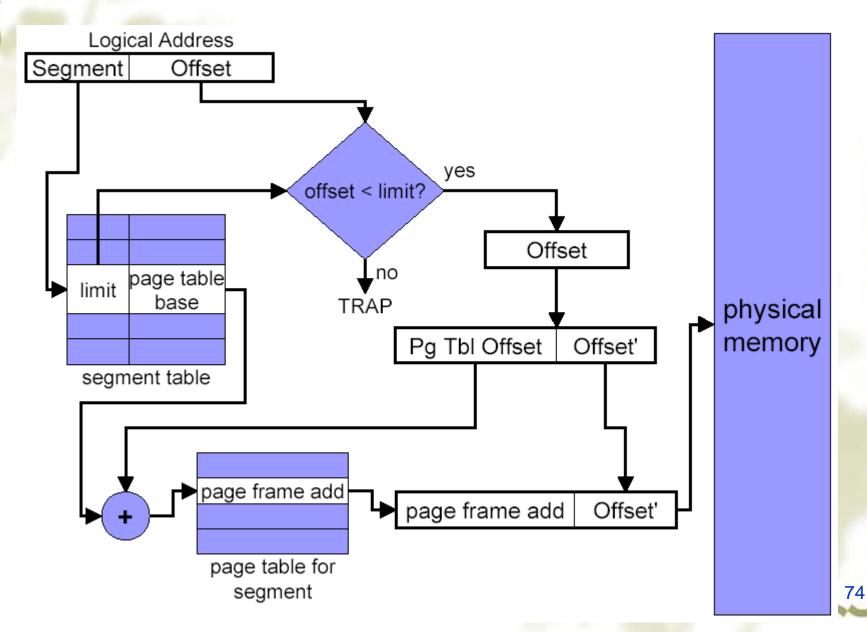
# Segmentation with paging (1)

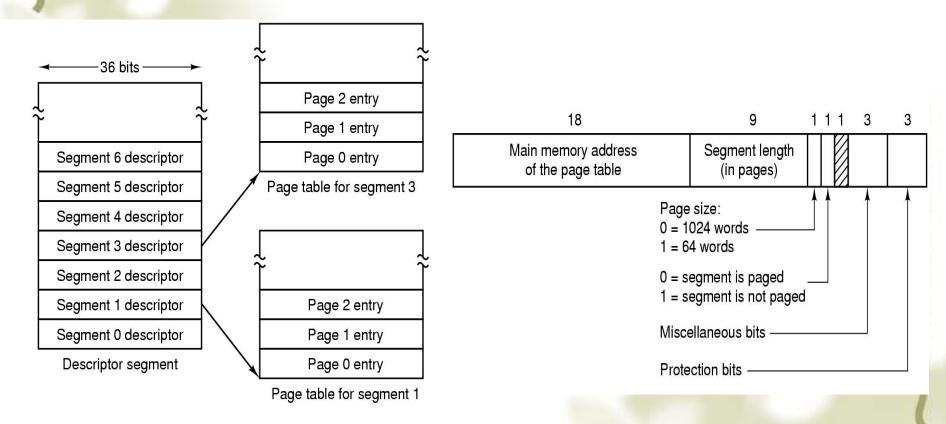


## Segmentation with paging (2)

- Required
  - Each process needs a segment table
    - This table may be segmented and paged itself!
  - Each entry in the segment table points to the page table for that segment
    - Like before, this may be a multi-level page table

#### **Address Translation**





- Descriptor segment points to page tables
- Segment descriptor (numbers are field lengths)

Virtual address structure

Address within the segment

Segment number

Page Offset within the page

18
6
10

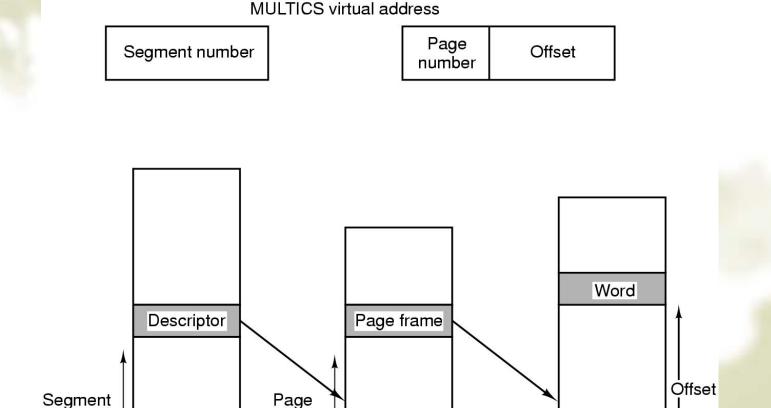
A 34-bit MULTICS virtual address

#### Address translation

number

Descriptor

segment



Conversion of a 2-part MULTICS address into a main memory address

Page

table

Page

number

Compa					s this entry used?
Segment number	Virtual page	Page frame	Protection	Age	<u> </u>
4	1	7	Read/write	13	1
6	0	2	Read only	10	1
12	3	1	Read/write	2	1
					0
2	1	0	Execute only	7	1
2	2	12	Execute only	9	1

- ❖ Simplified version of the MULTICS TLB
- Existence of 2 page sizes makes actual TLB more complicated

#### Summary

- Fetch Strategies
- Page Replacement

  - **NRU**
  - ← FIFO, Second-chance, Clock
  - LRU, NFU, Aging
- Design Issues for paging systems
- Implementation Issues
- Segmentation
- Segmentation with paging

#### Homework

- ❖ 4、6、7、17、19、25、28、30、33、36、38
- Reading assignment: 10.4