

Operating Systems

Virtual Memory

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Chapter 10: Virtual Memory

- Background
- Demand Paging
- Copy-on-Write
- Page Replacement



Objectives

- Define virtual memory and describe its benefits.
- Illustrate how pages are loaded into memory using demand paging.
- Apply the FIFO, optimal, and LRU page-replacement algorithms.

Background

- Code needs to be in memory to execute, but entire program rarely used
 - Error code, unusual routines, large data structures

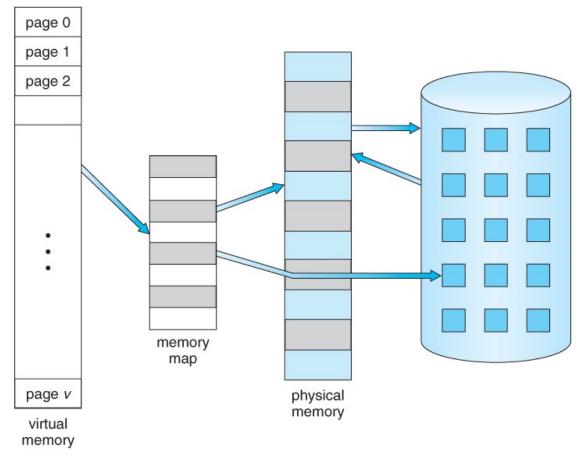
Entire program code not needed at same time

```
try {
catch (Exception e) {
finally {
```



Benefits of Executing Partially-load Programs

Program no longer constrained by limits of physical memory

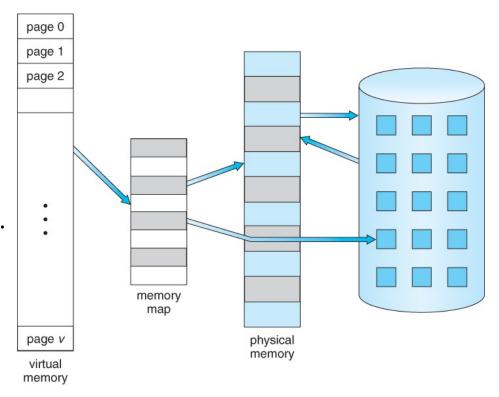


https://www.cs.uic.edu/~jbell/CourseNotes/OperatingSystems/9 VirtualMemory.html



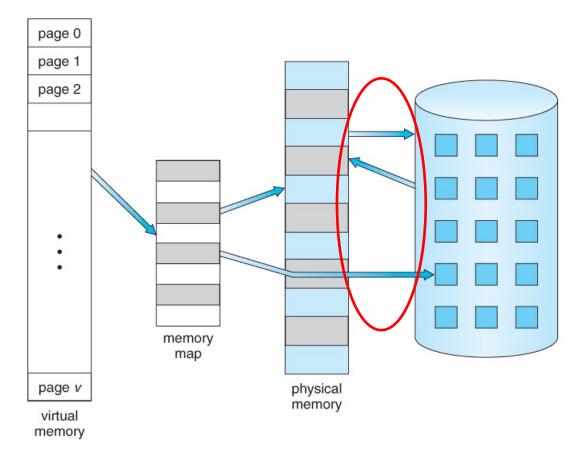
Benefits of Executing Partially-load Programs

- Each program takes less memory while running -> more programs
 run at the same time.
 - Increased CPU utilization and throughput with no increase in response time or turnaround time.



Benefits of Executing Partially-load Programs

 Less I/O needed to load or swap programs into memory -> each user program runs faster.

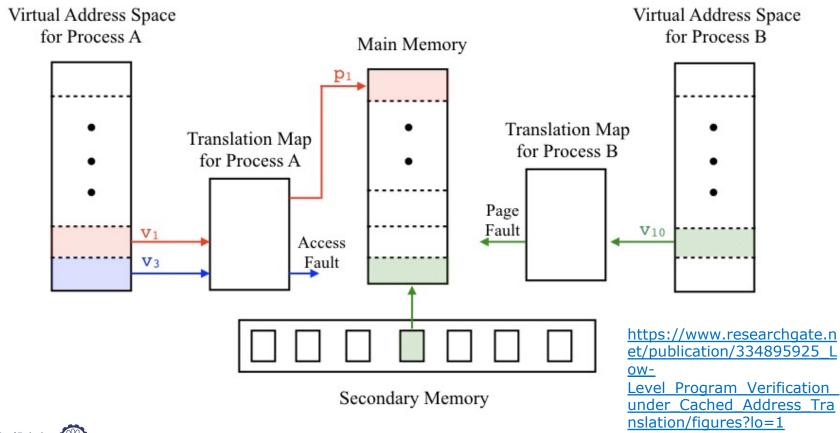




Virtual memory

separation of user logical memory from physical memory

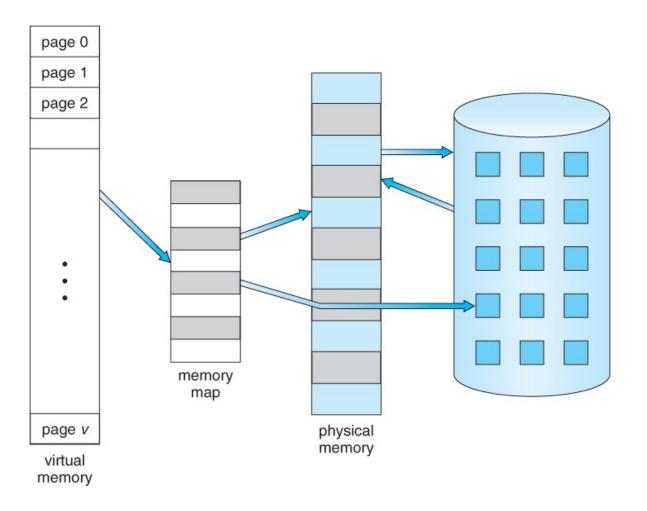
Only part of the program needs to be in memory for execution





Benefits of Virtual memory

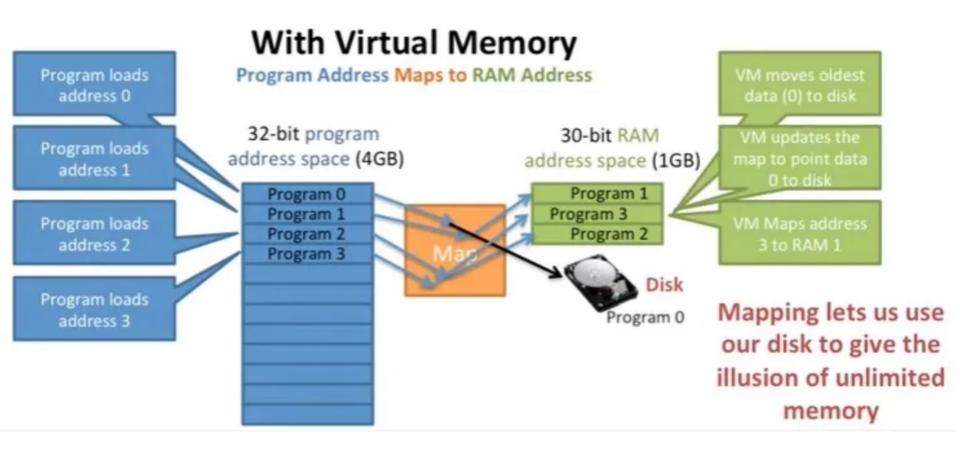
Logical address space can be much larger than physical address space





Benefits of Virtual memory

Allows address spaces to be shared by several processes



Benefits of Virtual memory

- Allows for more efficient process creation
- More programs running concurrently
- Less I/O needed to load or swap processes



Virtual memory (cont.)

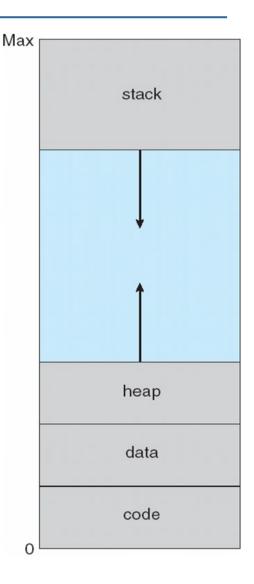
Virtual address space:

- Logical view of how process is stored in memory
- Usually start at address 0, contiguous addresses until end of space
- Meanwhile, physical memory organized in page frames
- MMU must map logical to physical
- Virtual memory can be implemented via:
 - Demand paging
 - Demand segmentation



Virtual-address Space

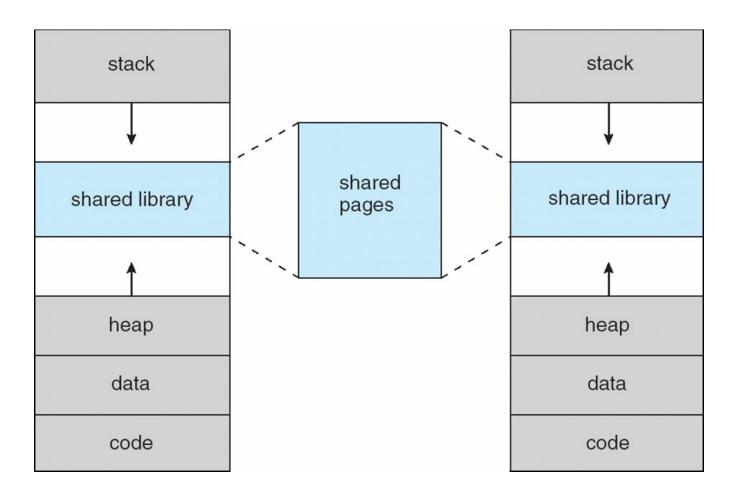
- Usually design logical address space for stack to start at Max logical address and grow "down" while heap grows "up"
 - Maximizes address space use
 - Unused address space between the two is hole
 - No physical memory needed until heap or stack grows to a given new page





Virtual-address Space (cont.)

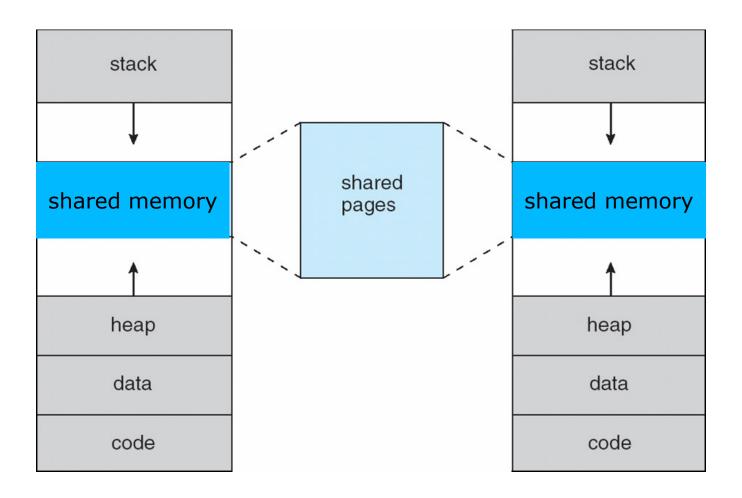
System libraries shared via mapping into virtual address space





Virtual-address Space (cont.)

Shared memory by mapping pages read-write into virtual address space





Virtual-address Space (cont.)

Pages can be shared during fork(), speeding process creation

How?



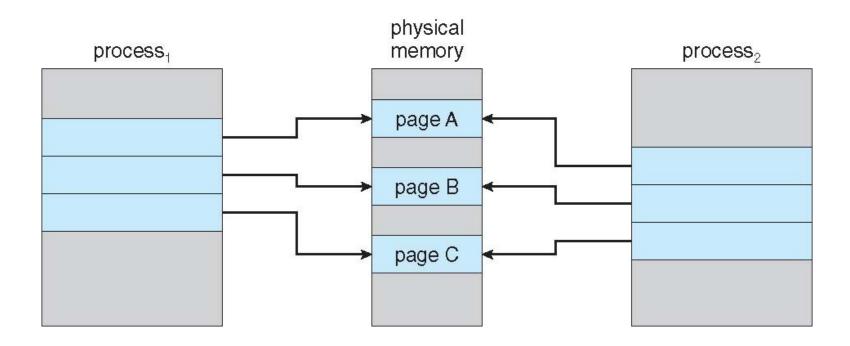
Copy-on-Write

- Copy-on-Write (COW) allows both parent and child processes to initially share the same pages in memory
 - If either process modifies a shared page, only then is the page copied

 COW allows more efficient process creation as only modified pages are copied.

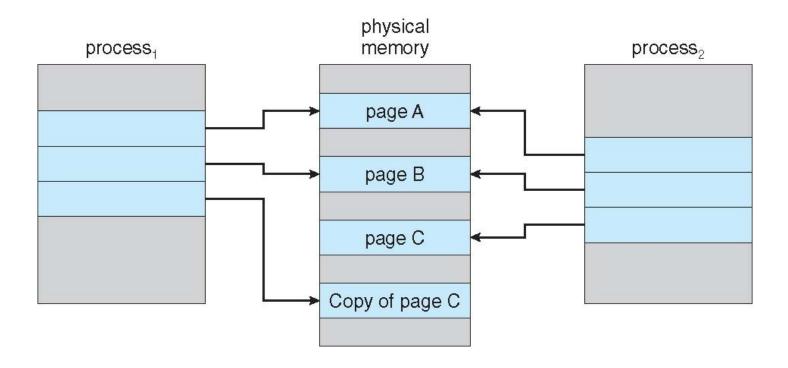
Furthermore, often exec is called immediately after fork.

Before Process 1 Modifies Page C





After Process 1 Modifies Page C





Demand Paging

Could bring entire process into memory at load time

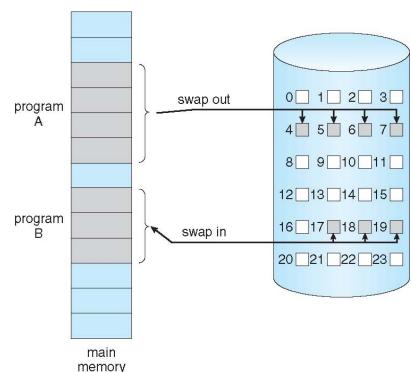
- Or bring a page into memory only when it is needed
 - Less I/O needed, no unnecessary I/O
 - Less memory needed
 - Faster response
 - More users



Demand Paging (Cont.)

- Similar to paging system with swapping (diagram on right)
- Page is needed ⇒ reference to it
 - invalid reference ⇒ abort
 - not-in-memory ⇒ bring to memory

- Lazy swapper never swaps a page into memory unless page will be needed
 - Swapper that deals with pages is a pager



Basic Concepts

- With swapping, pager guesses which pages will be used before swapping out again
- Instead, pager brings in only those pages into memory
- How to determine that set of pages?
 - Need new MMU functionality to implement demand paging

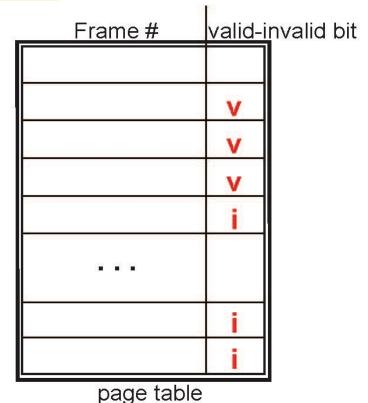
Basic Concepts (Cont.)

- If pages needed are already memory resident
 - No difference from non demand-paging

- If page needed and not memory resident
 - Need to detect and load the page into memory from storage
 - Without changing program behavior
 - Without programmer needing to change code

Valid-Invalid Bit

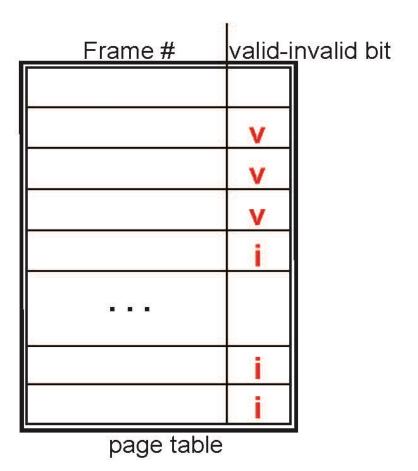
- With each page table entry a valid—invalid bit is associated
 - $(v \Rightarrow in\text{-memory} memory resident, i \Rightarrow not\text{-in-memory})$
- Initially valid—invalid bit is set to i on all entries
- Example of a page table snapshot:



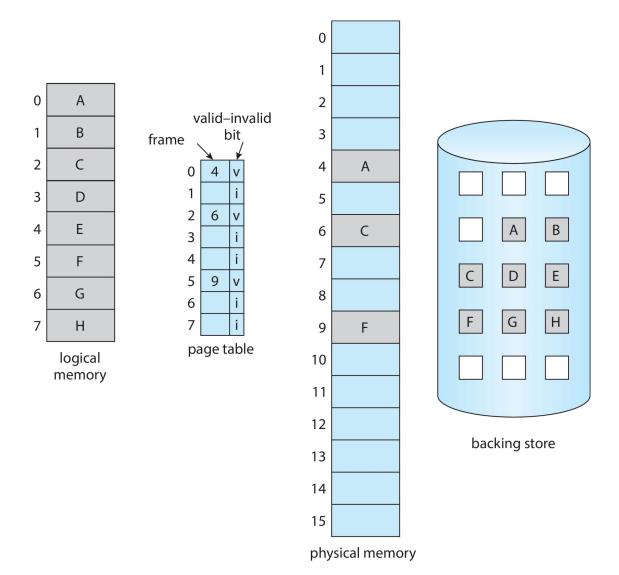


Valid-Invalid Bit

■ During MMU address translation, if valid—invalid bit in page table entry is i ⇒ page fault



Page Table When Some Pages Are Not in Main Memory





Steps in Handling Page Fault

- 1. If there is a reference to a page, first reference to that page will trap to operating system
 - Page fault

- 2. Operating system looks at another table to decide:
 - Invalid reference ⇒ abort
 - Just not in memory

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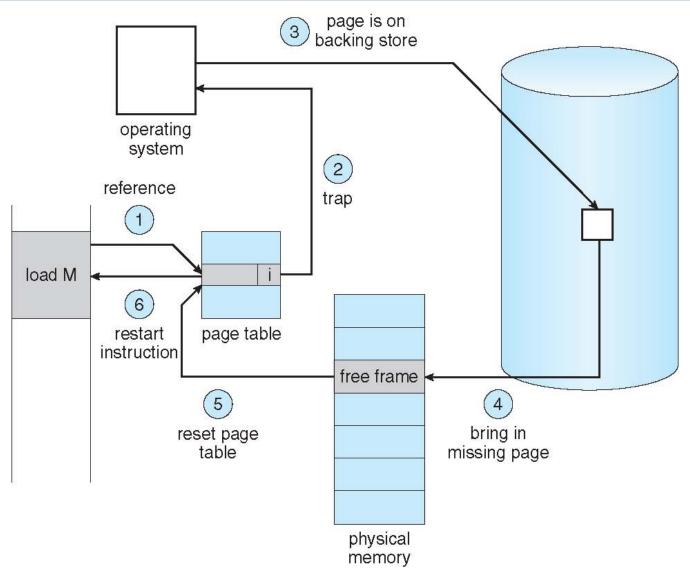


Steps in Handling Page Fault

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- 3. Find free frame
- 4. Swap page into frame via scheduled disk operation
- 5. Reset tables to indicate page now in memorySet validation bit = v
- 6. Restart the instruction that caused the page fault

Steps in Handling a Page Fault (cont.)



Aspects of Demand Paging

- Extreme case start process with no pages in memory
 - OS sets instruction pointer to first instruction of process:

non-memory-resident -> page fault

- And for every other process pages on first access
- Pure demand paging



Aspects of Demand Paging (cont.)

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- Actually, a given instruction could access multiple pages ->
 multiple page faults
 - Consider fetch and decode of instruction which adds 2 numbers from memory and stores result back to memory
 - Pain decreased because of locality of reference

Locality of reference

- Page faults are expensive!
- Thrashing: Process spends most of the time paging in and out instead of executing code.
- Most programs display a pattern of behavior called the principle of locality of reference.

Locality of Reference: A program that references a location n at some point in time is likely to reference the same location n and locations in the immediate vicinity of n in the near future.

Source: https://people.engr.tamu.edu/bettati/Courses/410/2017A/Slides/virtmemory.pdf



Aspects of Demand Paging

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- •
- Hardware support needed for demand paging
 - Page table with valid / invalid bit
 - Secondary memory (swap device with swap space)



Free-Frame List

- When a page fault occurs, the operating system must bring the desired page from secondary storage into main memory.
- Most operating systems maintain a free-frame list -- a pool of free frames for satisfying such requests.

head
$$\longrightarrow$$
 7 \longrightarrow 97 \longrightarrow 15 \longrightarrow 126 \cdots \longrightarrow 75



Free-Frame List (cont.)

head \longrightarrow 7 \longrightarrow 97 \longrightarrow 15 \longrightarrow 126 $\cdots \longrightarrow$ 75

- Operating system typically allocate free frames using a technique known as zero-fill-on-demand -- the content of the frames zeroed-out before being allocated.
- When a system starts up, all available memory is placed on the free-frame list.

Stages in Demand Paging – Worse Case

- 1. Trap to the operating system
- 2. Save the user registers and process state
- 3. Determine that the interrupt was a page fault
- 4. Check that the page reference was legal and determine the location of the page on the disk

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Stages in Demand Paging – Worse Case

....

- 5. Issue a read from the disk to a free frame:
 - a) Wait in a queue for this device until the read request is serviced
 - b) Wait for the device seek and/or latency time
 - c) Begin the transfer of the page to a free frame
- 6. While waiting, allocate the CPU to some other user
- 7. Receive an interrupt from the disk I/O subsystem (I/O completed)

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Stages in Demand Paging (cont.)

- 8. Save the registers and process state for the other user
- 9. Determine that the interrupt was from the disk
- 10. Correct the page table and other tables to show page is now in memory
- 11. Wait for the CPU to be allocated to this process again
- 12. Restore the user registers, process state, and new page table, and then resume the interrupted instruction



Performance of Demand Paging

- Three major activities
 - Service the interrupt careful coding means just several hundred instructions needed
 - Read the page lots of time
 - Restart the process again just a small amount of time



Performance of Demand Paging (cont.)

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- Page Fault Rate $0 \le p \le 1$
 - if p = 0 no page faults
 - if p = 1, every reference is a fault
- Effective Access Time (EAT)

$$EAT = (1 - p) \times memory access$$

- + p (page fault overhead
- + swap page out
- + swap page in)

Demand Paging Example

- Memory access time = 200 nanoseconds
- Average page-fault service time = 8 milliseconds
- EAT = $(1 p) \times 200 + p$ (8 milliseconds)

$$= (1 - p \times 200 + p \times 8,000,000)$$

$$= 200 + p \times 7,999,800$$

If one access out of 1,000 causes a page fault, then

EAT = 8.2 microseconds.

This is a slowdown by a factor of 40!!



Demand Paging Example (cont.)

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- If want performance degradation < 10 percent</p>
 - 220 > 200 + 7,999,800 x p
 20 > 7,999,800 x p
 - p < .0000025
 - < one page fault in every 400,000 memory accesses