Virtual Memory

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Review

- Logical vs physical address
- Memory allocation
  - Contiguous allocation: first-, best-, worst-fit
  - Fragmentation: external vs internal
- paging: page number + page offset
- TLB
- Structure of page table
  - Hierarchical page table, hashed page table, inverted page table
- Swapping

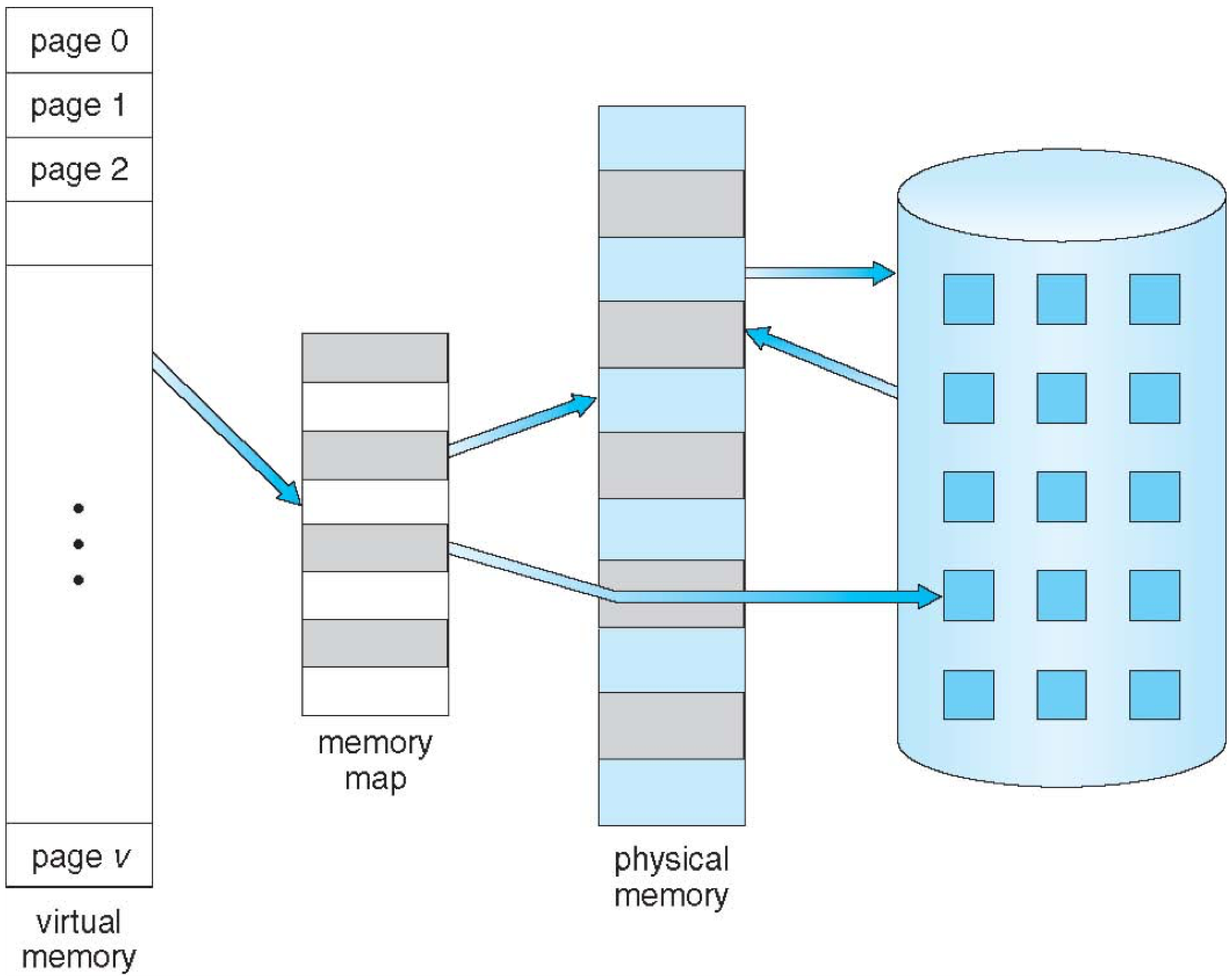
Background

- Code needs to be in memory to execute, but entire program **rarely** needed or used at the same time
  - error handling code, unusual routines, large data structures
- Consider ability to execute **partially-loaded program**
  - program no longer constrained by limits of physical memory
  - programs could be larger than physical memory

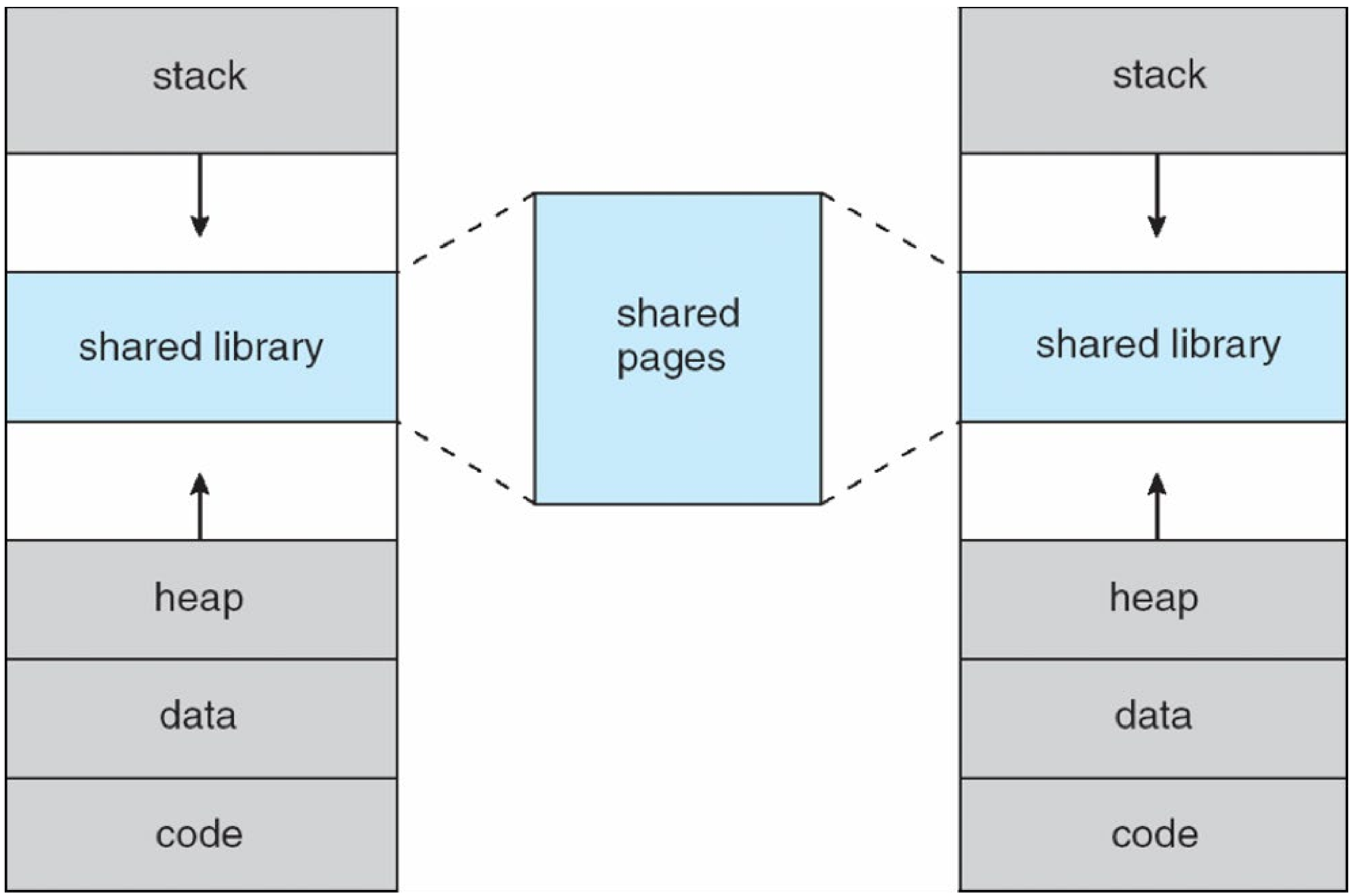
Background

- Virtual memory: separation of **logical memory** from **physical memory**
  - **only part of the program needs to be in memory for execution**
    - logical address space can be much larger than physical address space
    - more programs can run concurrently
    - less I/O needed to load or swap processes (part of it)
  - allows memory (e.g., shared library) to be shared by several processes: better IPC performance
  - allows for more efficient process forking (**copy-on-write**)
- Virtual memory can be implemented via:
  - **demand paging**

Virtual Memory Larger Than Physical Memory

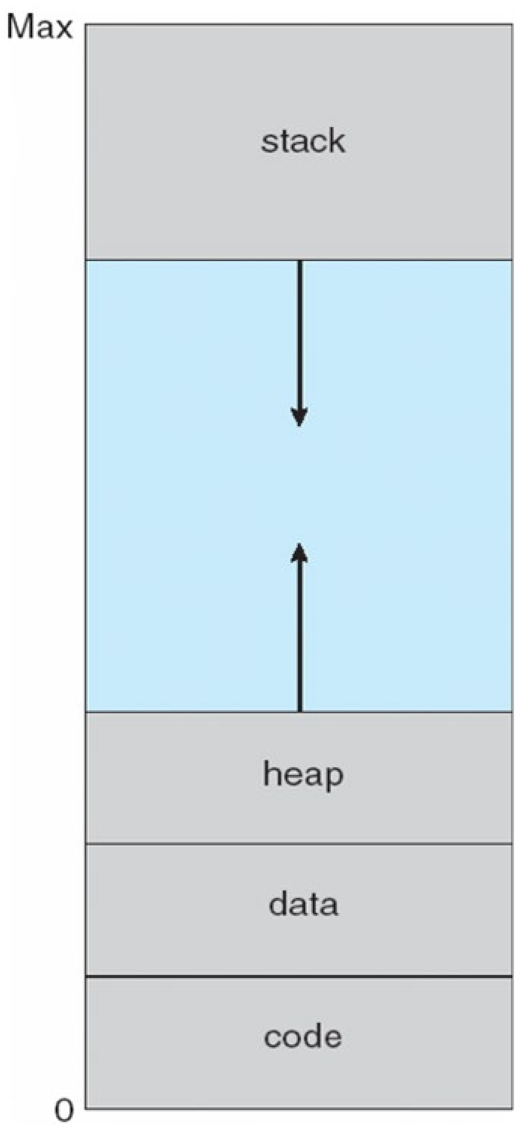


Shared Library Using Virtual Memory



Virtual-address Space

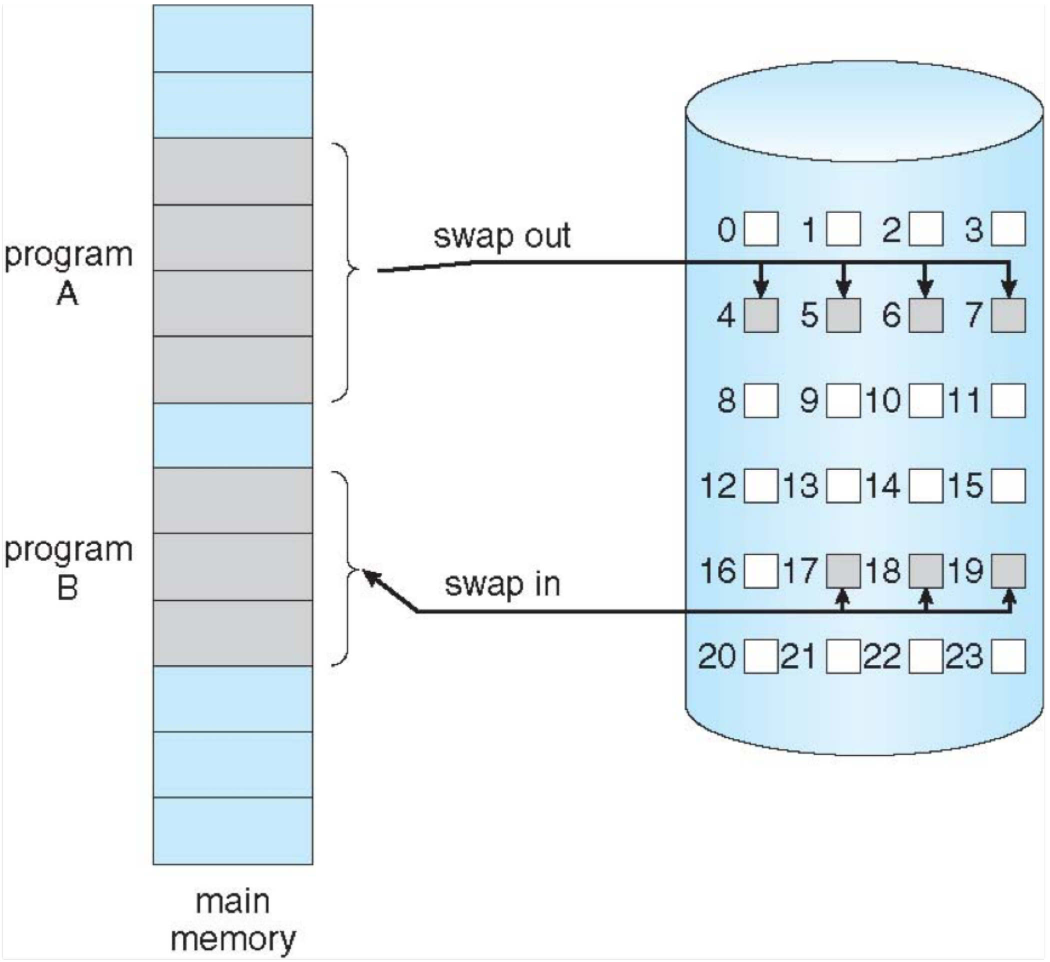
- Usually design logical address space for stack to start at Max logical address and grow "down" while heap grows "up"
  - Maximizes address space use
  - Unused address space between the two is hole
    - No physical memory needed until heap or stack grows to a given new page
- Enables **sparse** address spaces with holes left for growth, dynamically linked libraries, etc
- System libraries shared via mapping into virtual address space
- **Shared memory by mapping pages read-write into virtual address space**
- Pages can be shared during fork(), speeding process creation: COW



Demand Paging

- **Demand paging** brings a page into memory **only when it is accessed**
  - if page is invalid ➠ abort the operation
  - if page is valid but not in memory ➠ bring it to memory via swapping
  - no unnecessary I/O, less memory needed, faster response, more apps
- **Lazy swapper**: never **swaps a page in** memory unless it will be needed
  - the swapper that deals with pages is also caller a pager
- **Pre-Paging**: pre-page all or some of pages a process will need, before they are referenced
  - it can reduce the number of page faults during execution
  - if pre-paged pages **are unused**, I/O and memory was wasted
    - although it reduces page faults, total I/O# likely is higher

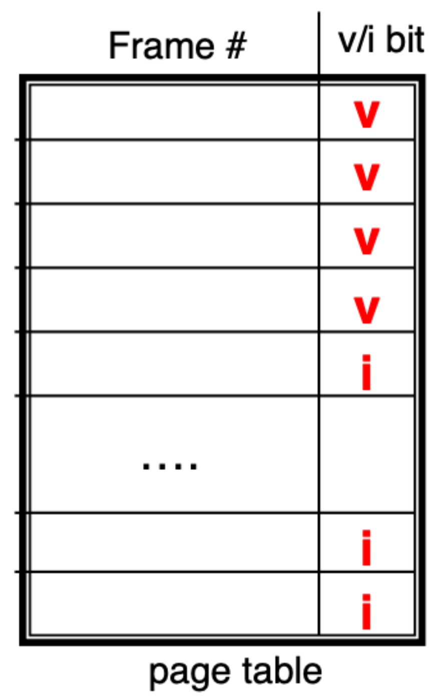
Demand Paging



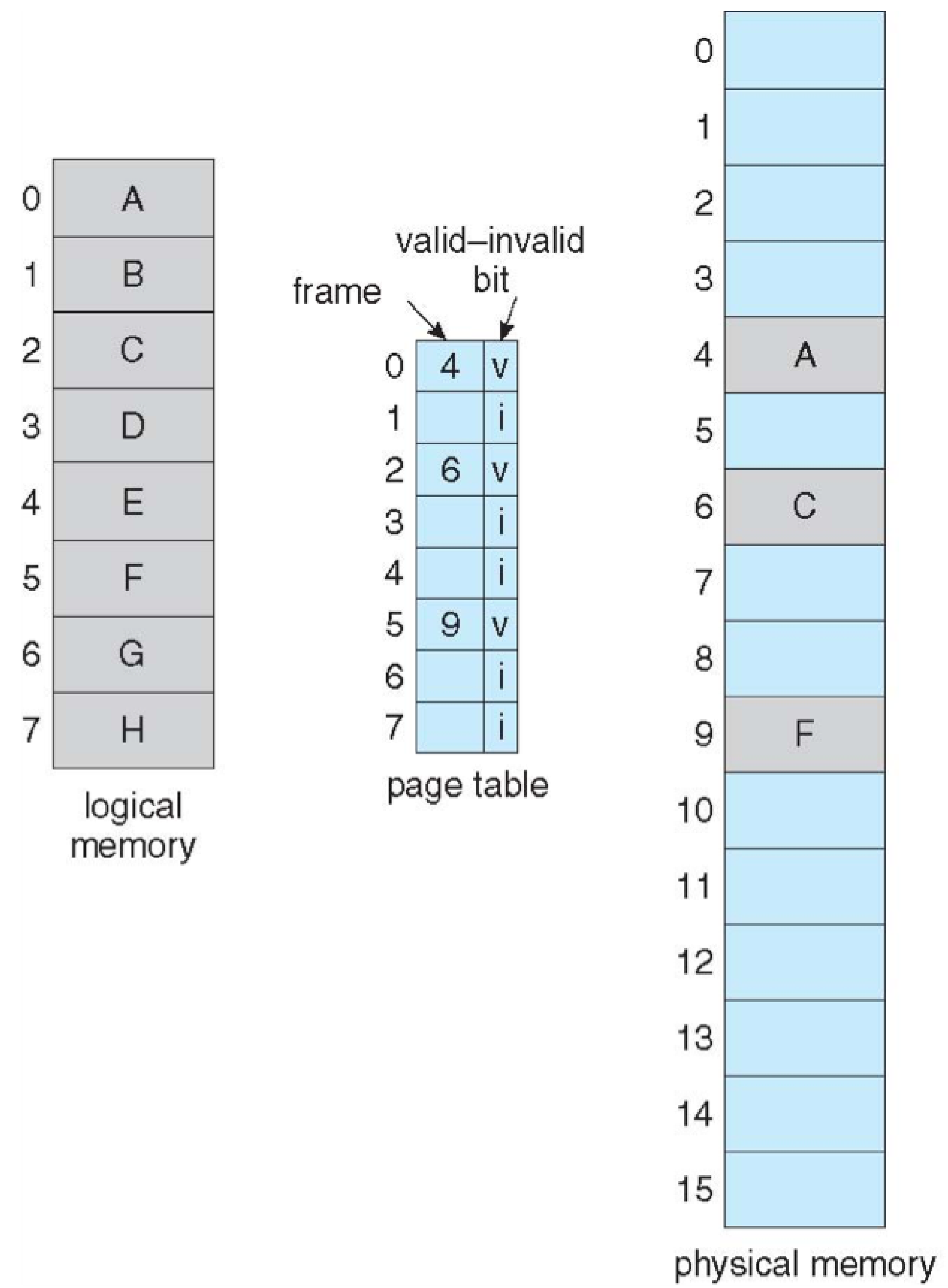
Similar to paging system with swapping

Valid-Invalid Bit

- Each page table entry has a valid–invalid (present) bit
  - ***V*** ➠ in memory (memory is resident), ***I*** ➠ not-in-memory
  - initially, valid–invalid bit is set to ***i*** on all entries
  - during address translation, if the entry is invalid, it will trigger a **page fault**
- Example of a page table snapshot:



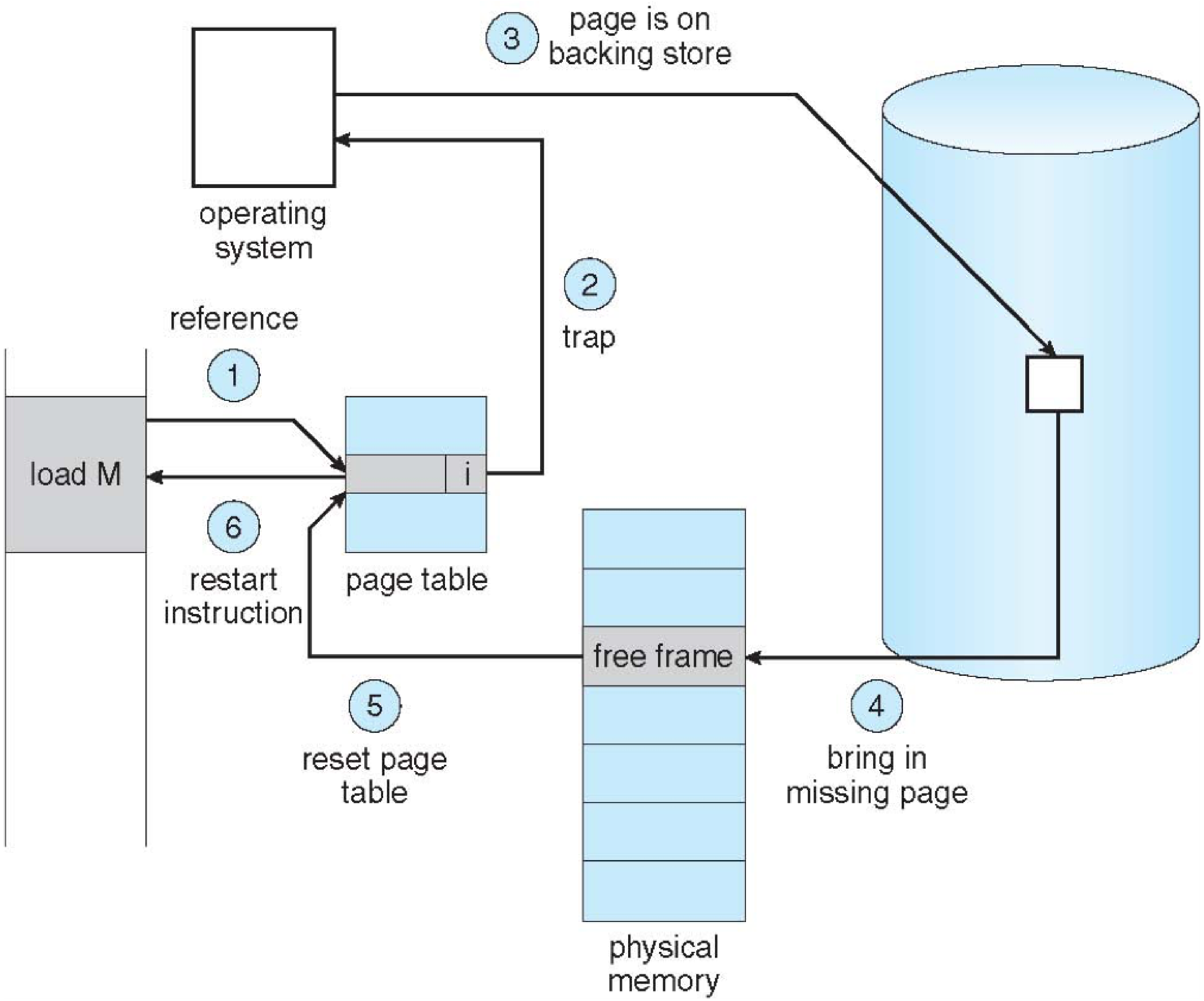
Page Table (Some Pages Are Not in Memory)



Page Fault

- First reference to a non-present page will trap to kernel: **page fault**
- Operating system looks at memory mapping to decide:
  - **invalid reference** ➠ deliver an exception to the process
  - **valid but not in memory** ➠ swap in
    - get an empty physical frame
    - swap page into frame via disk operation
    - set page table entry to indicate the page is now in memory
    - restart the instruction that caused the page fault

Page Fault Handling

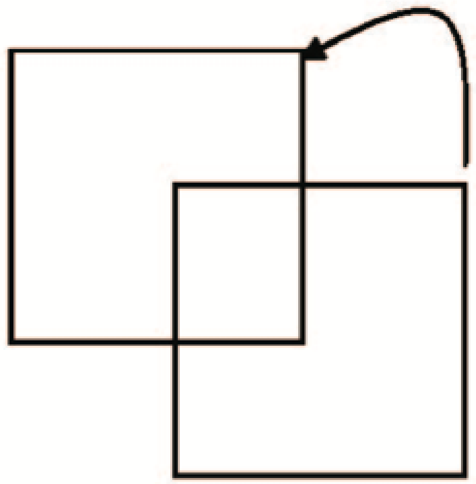


Demand Paging

- Extreme case: start process with no pages in memory (aka. **pure demand paging**)
  - OS sets instruction pointer to first instruction of process
    - invalid page ➠ page fault
  - every page is paged in on first access
    - **program locality** reduces the overhead
  - an instruction could access multiple pages ➠ multiple page faults
    - e.g., instruction, data, and page table entries for them
- Demand paging needs hardware support
  - page table entries with **valid / invalid bit**
  - **backing storage** (usually disks)
  - **instruction restart**

Instruction Restart

- Consider an instruction that could access several different locations
    - Block move

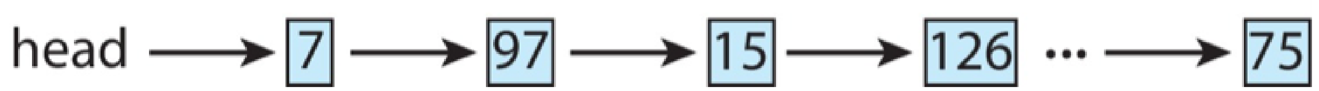


- **Page fault when the operation is partially done**
    - Microcode access both block -> load page in
    - Use temporary registers

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.



- 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
- 5. Issue a read from the disk to a free frame:
    - 5.1 Wait in a queue for this device until the read request is serviced
    - 5.2 Wait for the device seek and/or latency time
    - 5.3 Begin the transfer of the page to a free frame

Stages in Demand Paging

- 6. While waiting, allocate the CPU to some other user
- 7. Receive an interrupt from the disk I/O subsystem (I/O completed)
- 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

Demand Paging: EAT

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

  $(1 - p)$ x memory access + p x (

  page fault overhead +

  swap page out + swap page in +

  instruction restart overhead)

Demand Paging Example

- Assume memory access time: 200 nanoseconds, average page-fault service time: 8 milliseconds
  - EAT = (1 – p) x 200 + p x (8 milliseconds)

    = (1 – p) x 200 + p x 8,000,000

    = 200 + p x 7,999,800
  - if one out of 1,000 causes a page fault, then EAT = 8.2 microseconds
    - a slowdown by a factor of 40!
  - if want < 10 percent, less than one page fault in every 400,000 accesses

Demand Paging Optimizations

- Swap space I/O faster than file system I/O even if on the same device
  - Swap allocated in larger chunks, less management needed than file system
- Copy entire process image to swap space at process load time
  - Then page in and out of swap space
  - Used in older BSD Unix

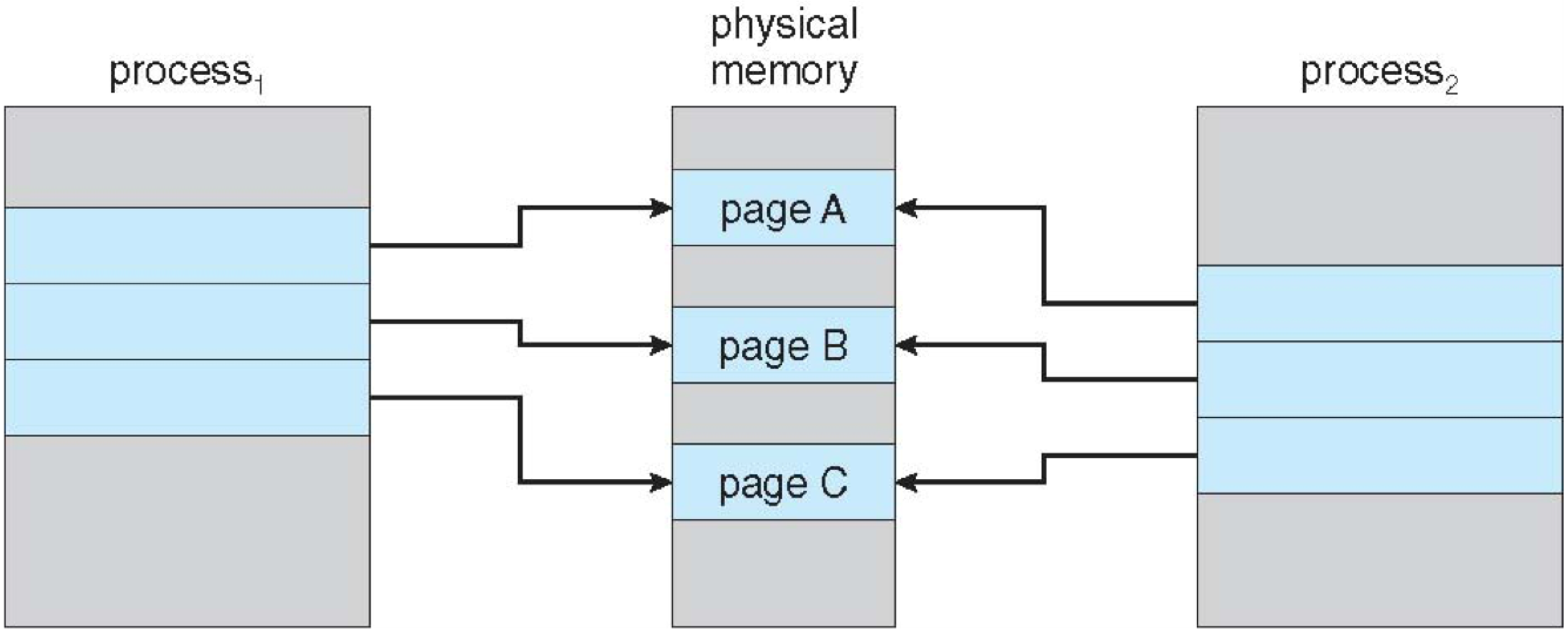
Demand Paging Optimizations

- Demand page in from program binary on disk, but **discard** rather than paging out when freeing frame (and reload from disk next time)
- For some cases, still need to **write** to swap space
  - Pages not associated with a file (like stack and heap) – anonymous memory
- Mobile systems
  - Typically don't support swapping
  - Instead, demand page from **file system** and reclaim read-only pages (such as code)

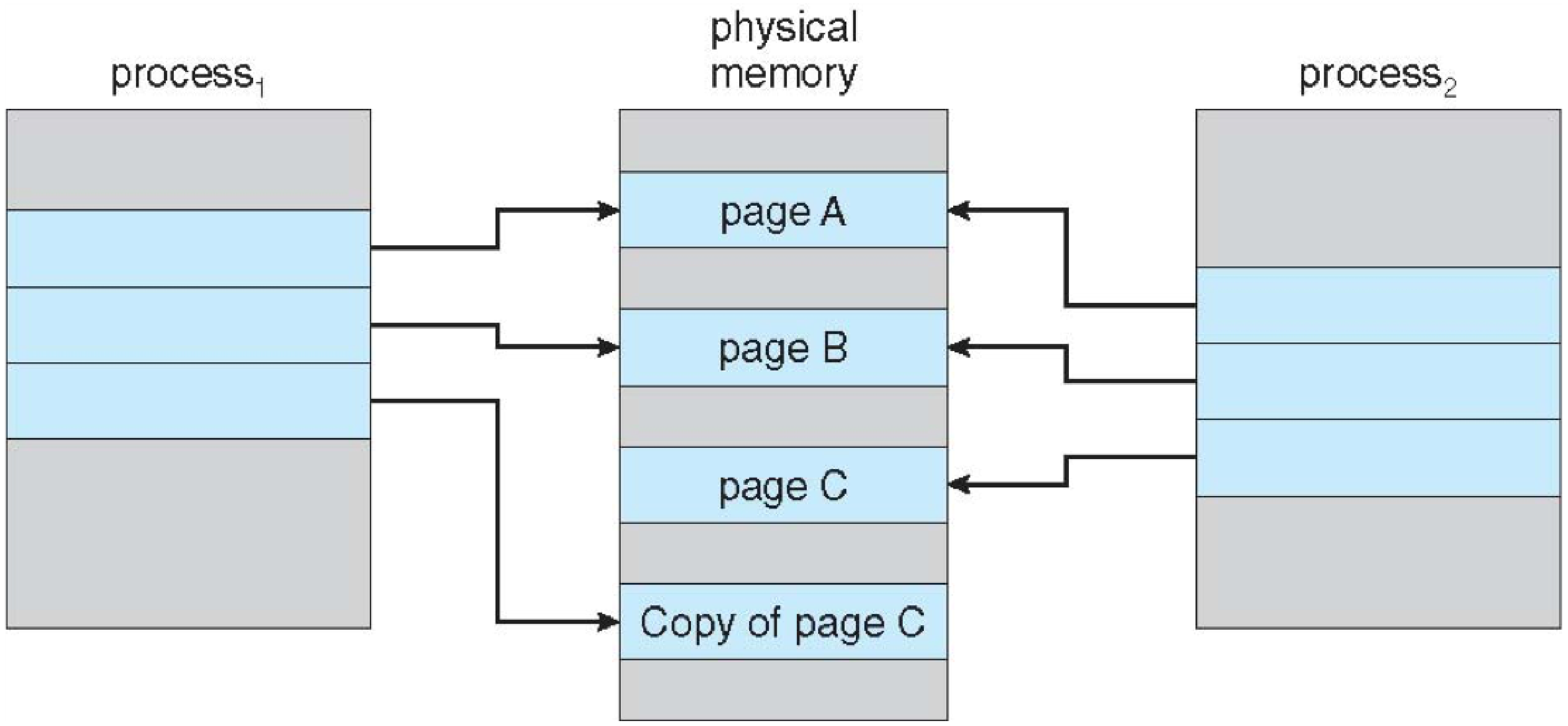
Copy-on-Write

- **Copy-on-write** (COW) allows parent and child processes to initially share the same pages in memory
  - the page is shared as long as no process modifies it
  - if either process modifies a shared page, only then is the page copied
- COW allows more efficient **process creation**
  - no need to copy the parent memory during fork
  - only changed memory will be copied later
- vfork syscall optimizes the case that child calls **exec** immediately after fork
  - parent is suspend until child exits or calls exec
  - child shares the parent resource, including the heap and the stack
    - child cannot return from the function or call exit
  - vfork could be fragile, **it is invented when COW has not been implemented**

Before Process 1 Modifies Page C



After Process 1 Modifies Page C



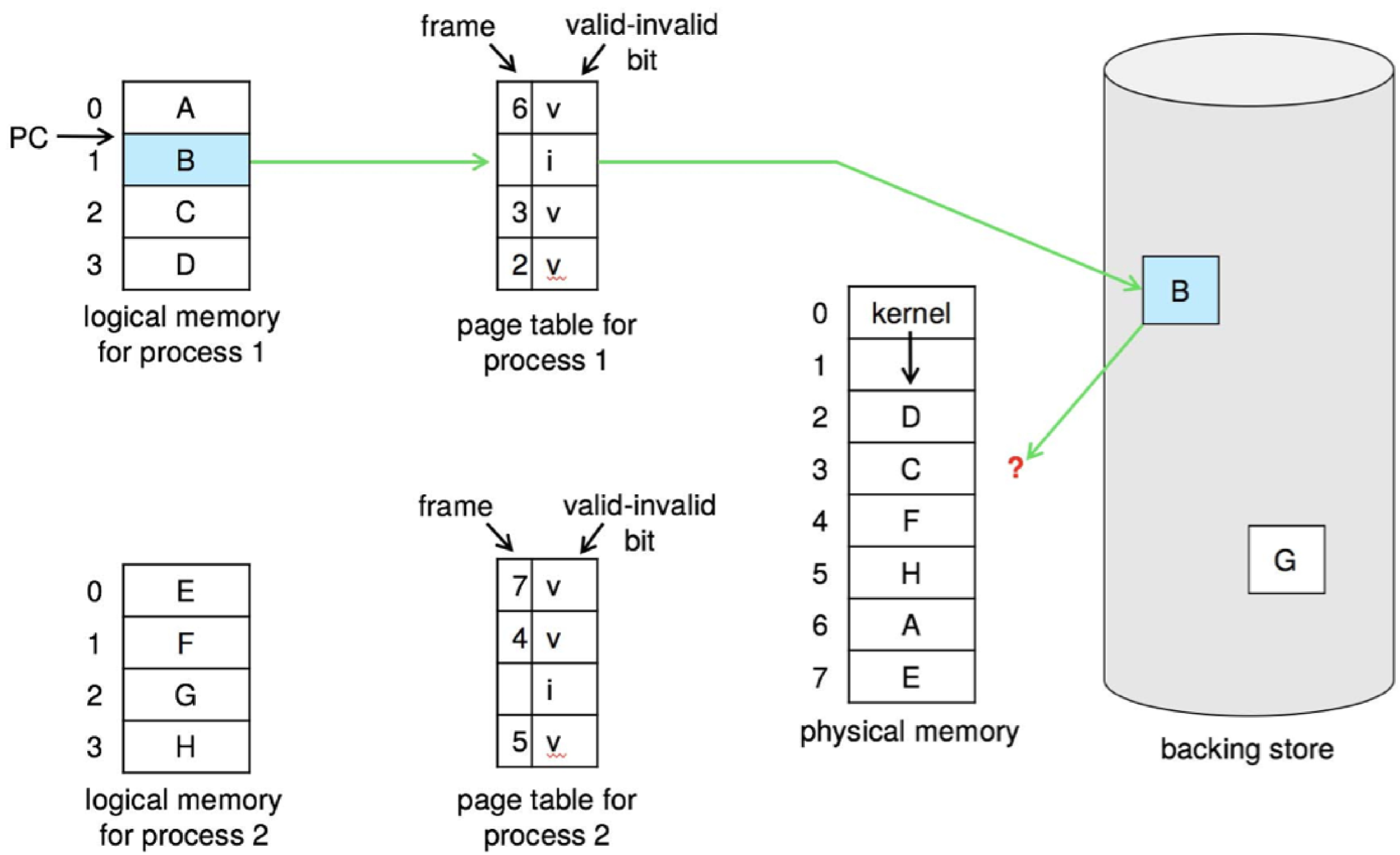
What Happens if There is no Free Frame?

- Used up by process pages
- Also in demand from the kernel, I/O buffers, etc
- How much to allocate to each?
- **Page replacement** – find some page in memory, but not really in use, page it out
  - Algorithm – terminate? swap out? replace the page?
  - Performance – want an algorithm which will result in minimum number of page faults
- Same page may be brought into memory several times

Page Replacement

- Memory is an important resource, system may run out of memory
- To prevent out-of-memory, swap out some pages
  - page replacement usually is a part of the page fault handler
  - policies to select victim page require careful design
    - need to reduce overhead and avoid **thrashing**
  - use modified (dirty) bit to reduce number of pages to swap out
    - only modified pages are written to disk
  - select some processes to kill (last resort)
- Page replacement completes separation between logical memory and physical memory – large virtual memory can be provided on a smaller physical memory

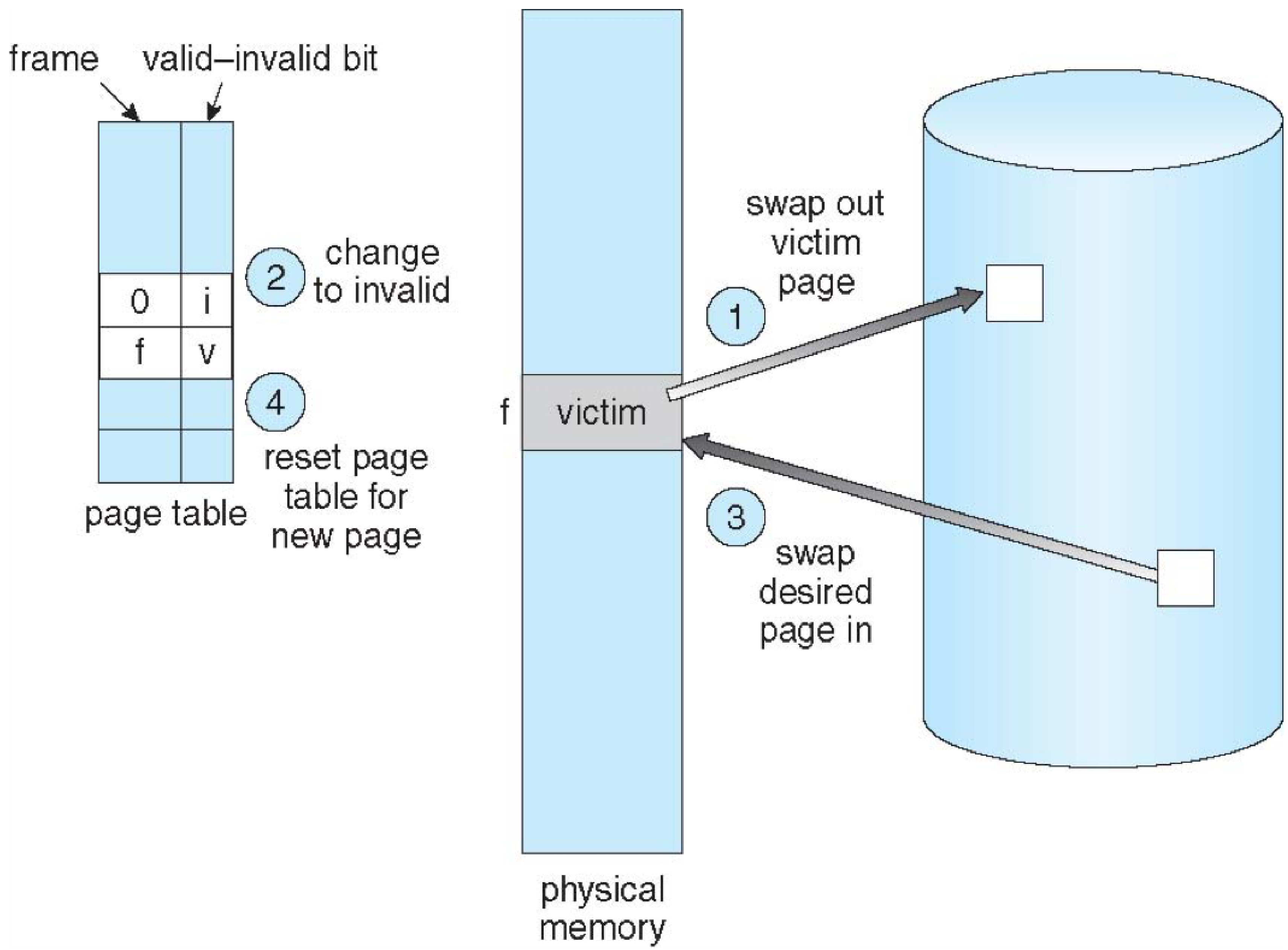
Need For Page Replacement



Page Fault Handler (with Page Replacement)

- To page in a page:
  - find the location of the desired page on disk
  - find a free frame:
    - if there is a free frame, use it
    - if there is none, use a page replacement policy to pick a victim frame, write victim frame to disk if dirty
  - bring the desired page into the free frame; update the page tables
  - restart the instruction that caused the trap
- Note now potentially **2 page I/O** for **one page fault** ➠ increase EAT

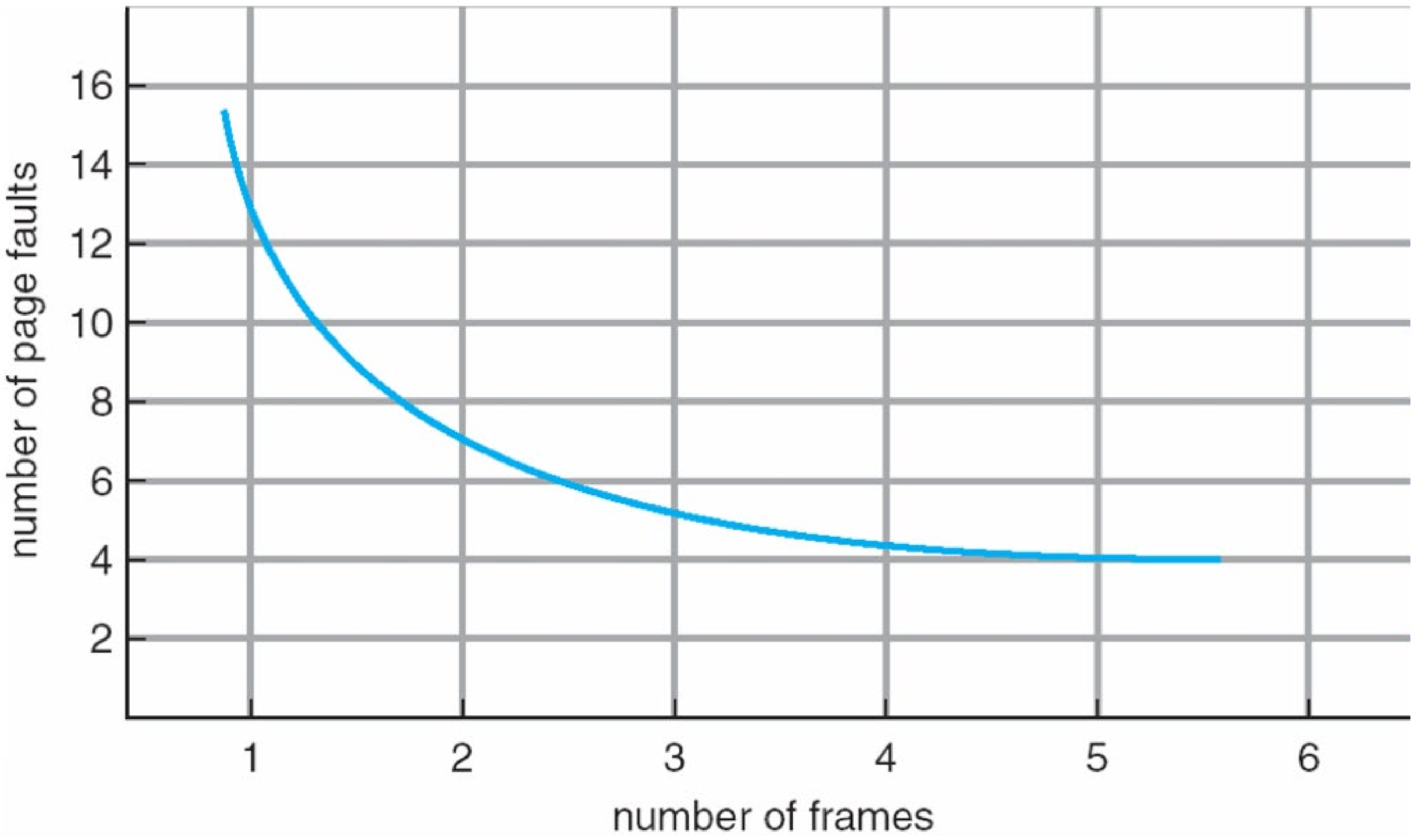
Page Replacement



Page Replacement Algorithms

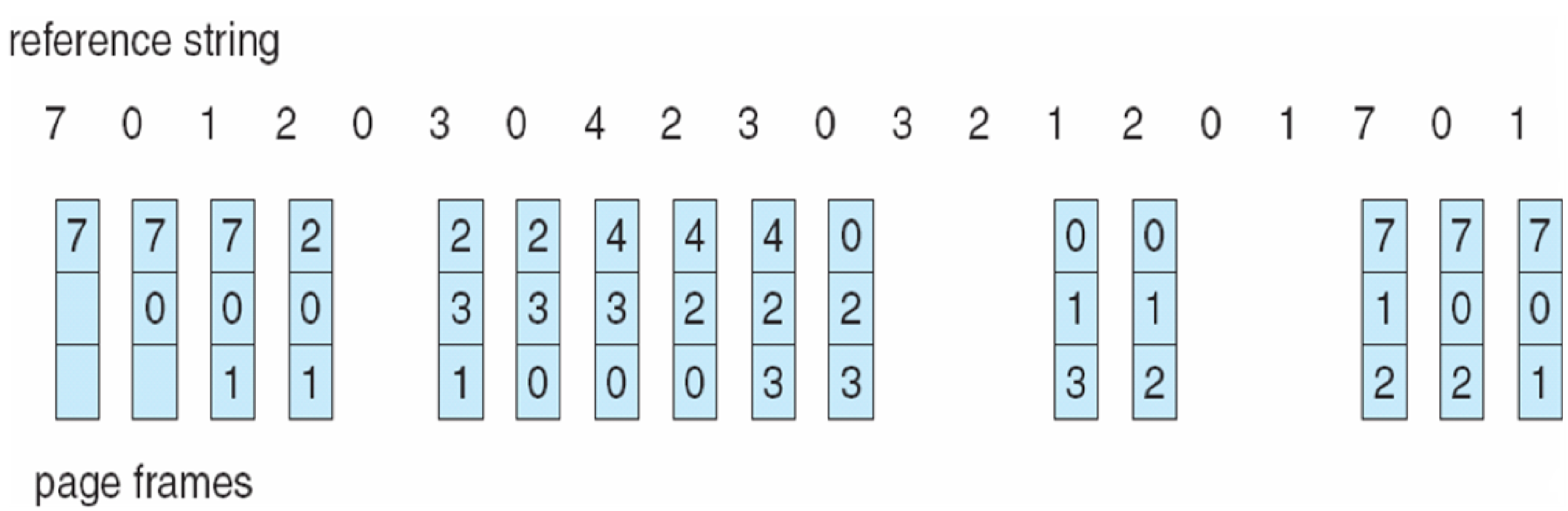
- Page-replacement algorithm should have lowest page-fault rate on both first access and re-access
  - **FIFO**, **optimal**, **LRU**, **LFU**, **MFU**…
- To evaluate a page replacement algorithm:
  - run it on a particular string of memory references (reference string)
    - string is just page numbers, not full addresses
  - compute the number of page faults on that string
    - repeated access to the same page does not cause a page fault
  - in all our examples, the reference string is
    7,0,1,2,0,3,0,4,2,3,0,3,0,3,2,1,2,0,1,7,0,1

Page Faults v.s. Number of Frames



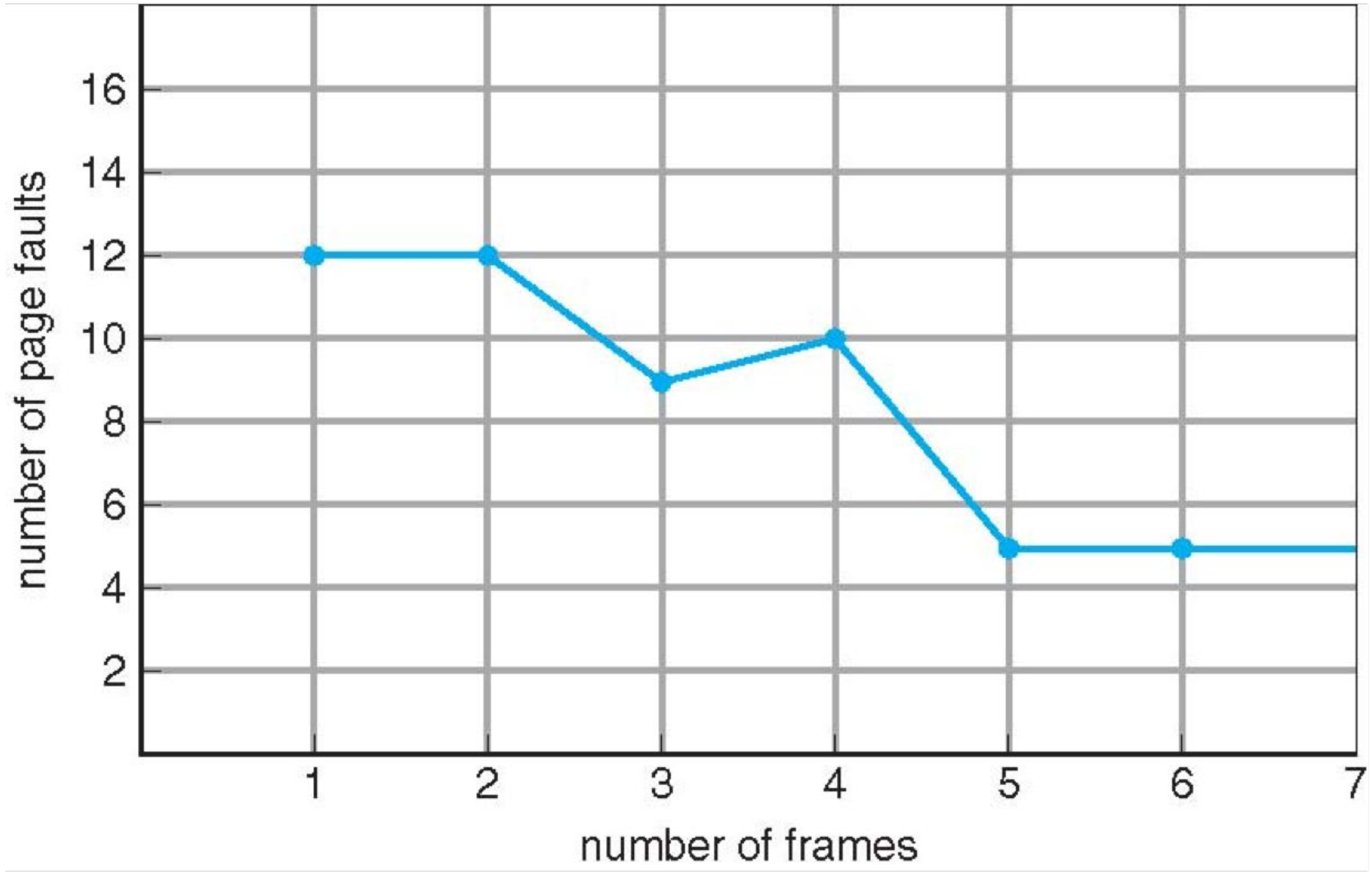
First-In-First-Out (FIFO)

- **FIFO**: replace the first page loaded
  - similar to sliding a window of n in the reference string
  - our reference string will cause 15 page faults with 3 frames
  - how about reference string of 1,2,3,4,1,2,5,1,2,3,4,5 /w 3 or 4 frames?
- For FIFO, adding **more frames** can cause **more page faults**!
  - **Belady’s Anomaly**



15 page faults

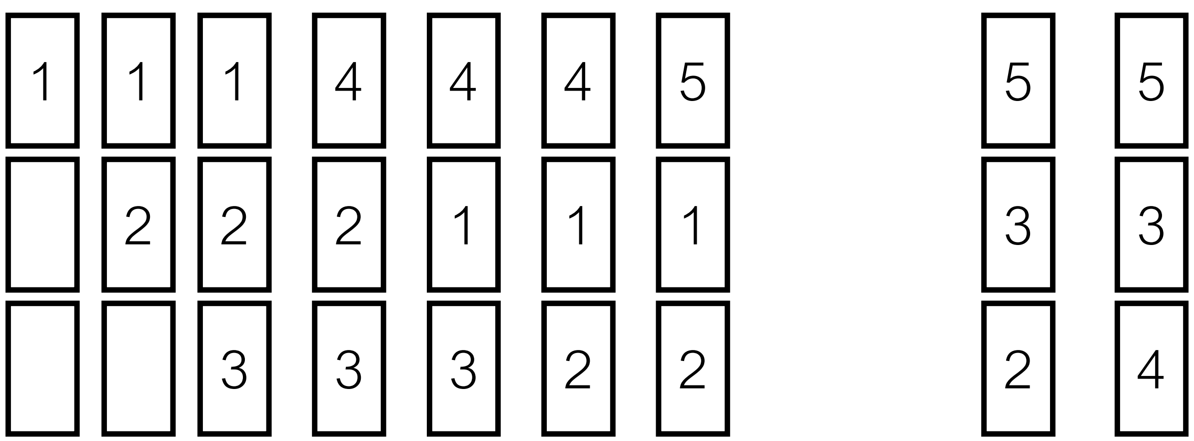
FIFO Illustrating Belady's Anomaly



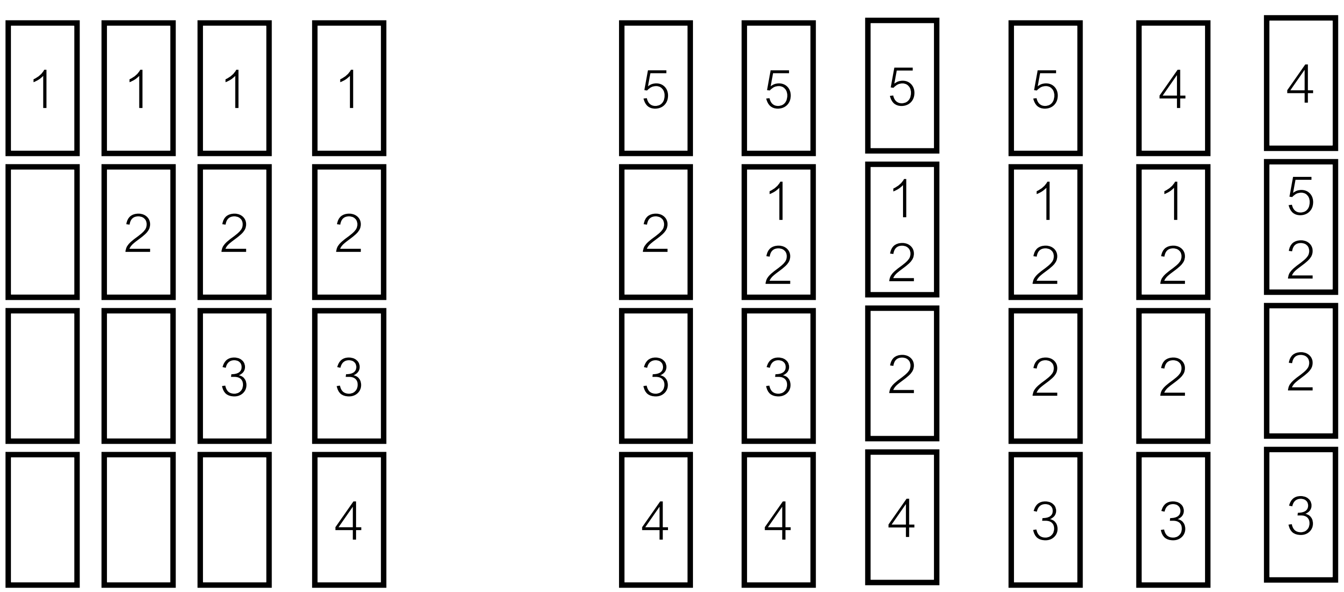
1 2 3 4 1 2 5 1 2 3 4 5

Belady's Anomaly

1 2 3 4 1 2 5 1 2 3 4 5



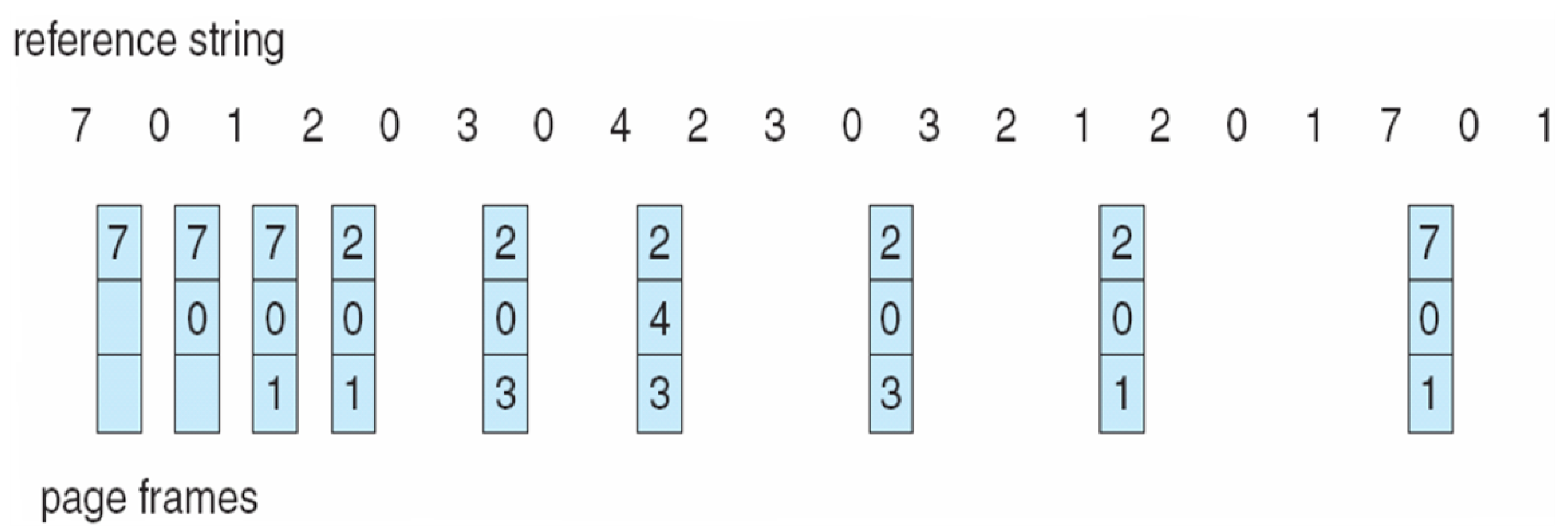
9 page faults



10 page faults!

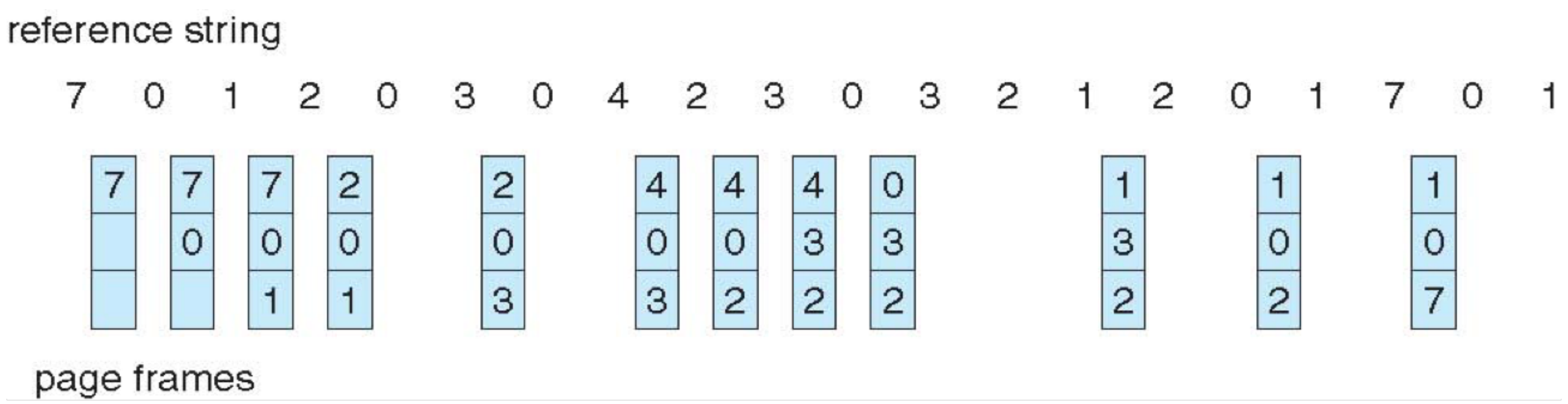
Optimal Algorithm

- **Optimal** : replace page that will not be used for the longest time
  - 9 page fault is optimal for the example on the next slide
- How do you know which page will not be used for the longest time?
  - can’t read the future
  - used for measuring how well your algorithm performs



Least Recently Used (LRU)

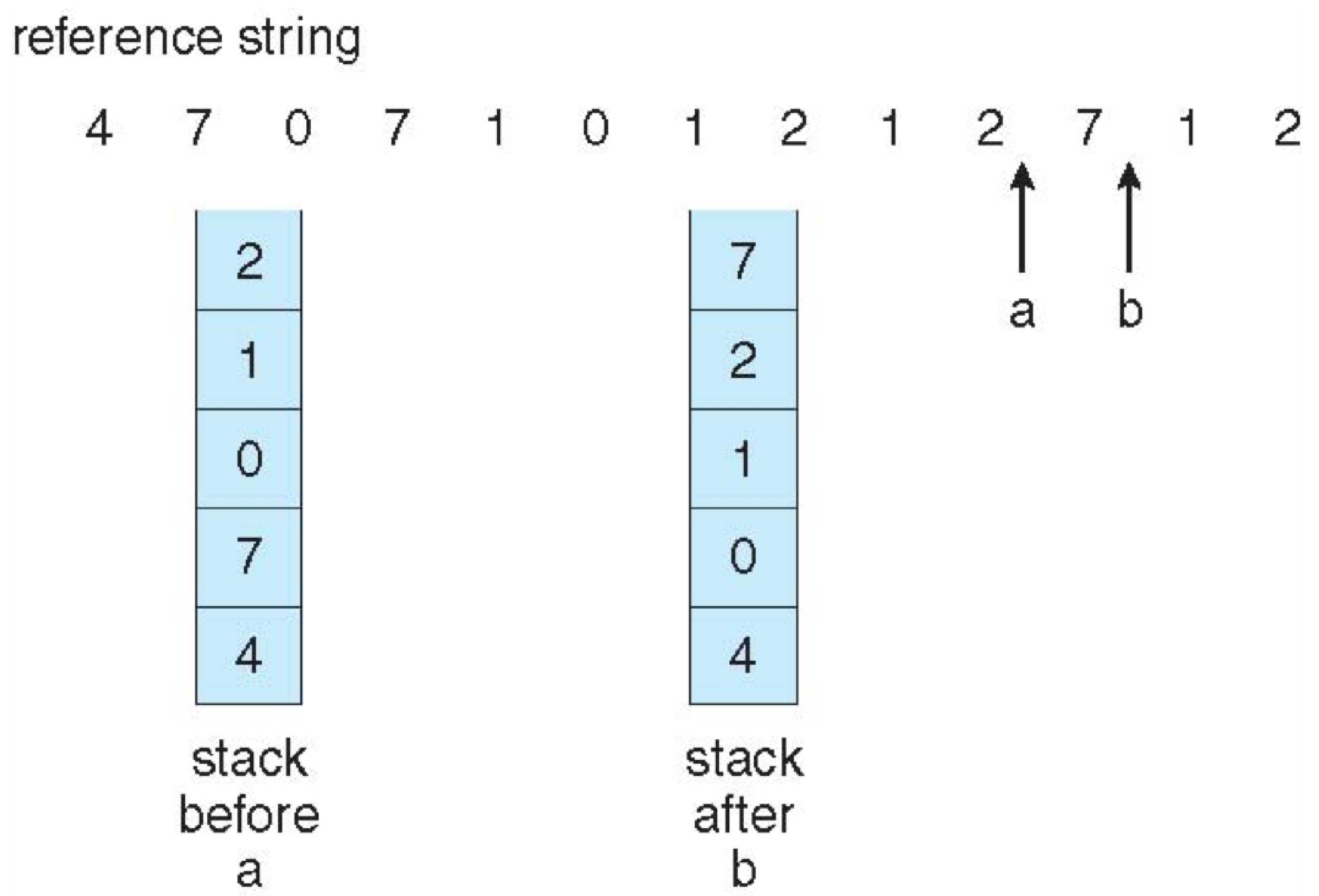
- **LRU** replaces pages that have not been used for the longest time
  - associate time of last use with each page, select pages w/ oldest timestamp
  - generally good algorithm and frequently used
  - 12 faults for our example, better than FIFO but worse than OPT
- LRU and OPT do **NOT** have Belady's Anomaly
- How to implement LRU?
  - **counter-based**
  - **stack-based**



LRU Implementation

- **Counter-based** implementation
  - every page table entry has a counter
  - every time page is referenced, copy the **clock** into the counter
  - when a page needs to be replaced, search for page with smallest counter
    - min-heap can be used
- **Stack-based** implementation
  - keep a stack of page numbers (in double linked list)
  - when a page is referenced, move it to the top of the stack
  - each update is more expensive, but no need to search for replacement

Stack-based LRU



Review

- Demanding paging: brings a page into memory when it is accessed
- Invalid/valid bit (present) bit
- Page fault: find free frame, swap in, set page table entry, restart
  - Performance overhead: EAT
  - Optimization: COW, dirty bit, directly use the swap space
- Page replacement: reference string
  - FIFO
  - Optimal
  - LRU: counter/stack based

LRU Approximation Implementation

- Counter-based and stack-based LRU have high performance overhead
- Hardware provides **a reference bit**
- LRU approximation with a **reference bit**
  - associate with each page a reference bit, initially set to 0
  - when page is referenced, set the bit to 1 (done by the hardware)
  - replace any page with reference bit = 0 (if one exists)
    - We do not know the **order**, however

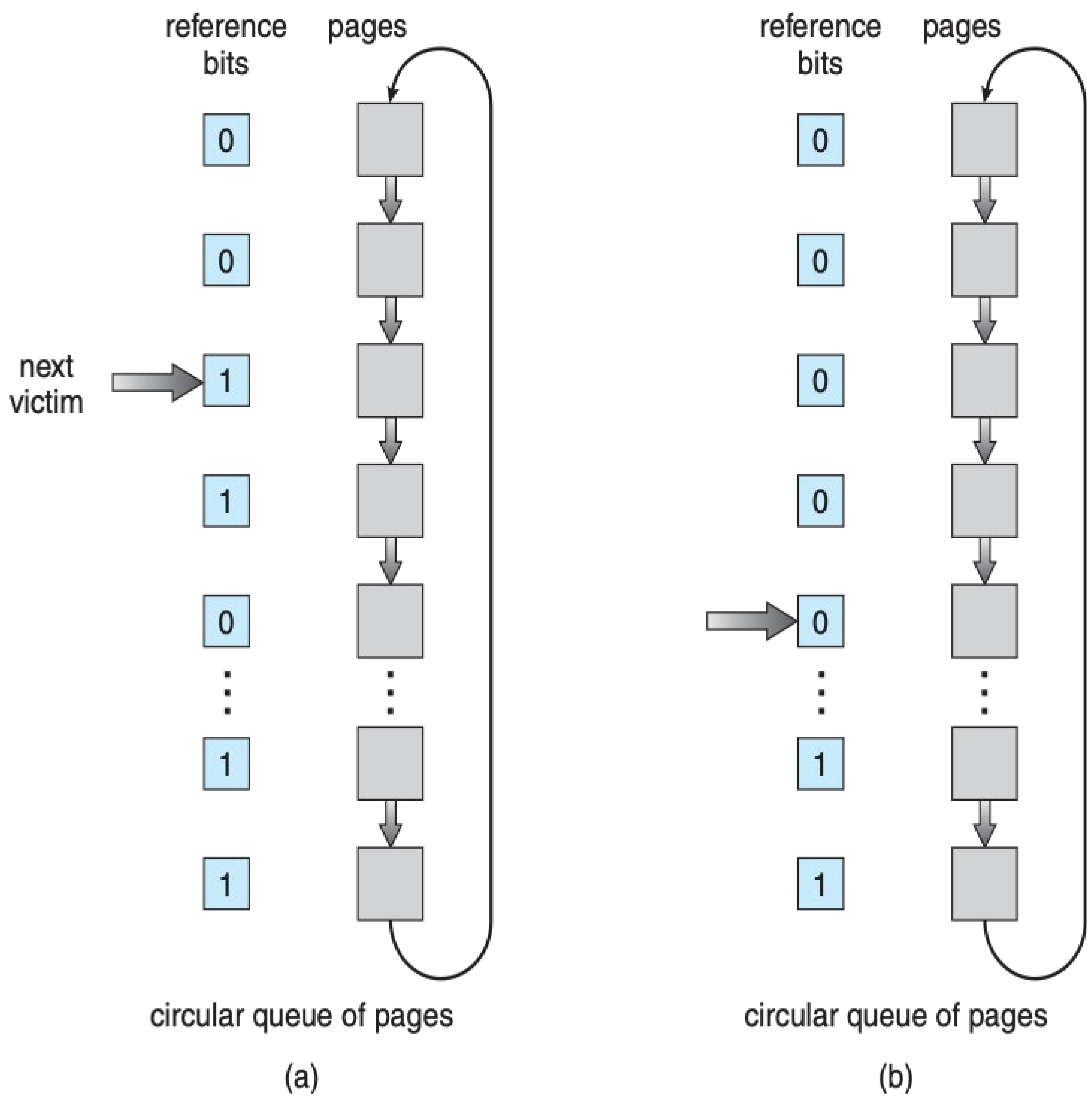
Additional-Reference-Bits Algorithm

- Reordering the bits at regular intervals
  - Suppose we have 8-bits byte for each page
  - During a time interval (100ms), sets the high bit and shifts bit rights by 1 bit, and then discards the low-order bits
  - 00000000 => has not been used in 8 time intervals
  - 11111111 => has been used in all time intervals
  - 11000100 vs 01110111 : which one is used more recently?

LRU Implementation

- **Second-chance** algorithm
  - Generally FIFO, plus hardware-provided **reference bit**
  - **Clock** replacement
  - If page to be replaced has
    - Reference bit = 0 -> replace it
    - reference bit = 1 then:
      - set reference bit 0, leave page in memory
      - replace next page, subject to same rules

Second-chance (clock) Page-replacement Algorithm



Enhanced Second-Chance Algorithm

- Improve algorithm by using **reference bit** and modify bit (if available) in concert
- Take ordered pair (reference, modify):
  - (0, 0) neither recently used not modified – best page to replace
  - (0, 1) not recently used but modified – not quite as good, must write out before replacement
  - (1, 0) recently used but clean – probably will be used again soon
  - (1, 1) recently used and modified – probably will be used again soon and need to write out before replacement
- When page replacement called for, use the clock scheme but use the four classes replace page in lowest non-empty class
  - Might need to search circular queue several times

Counting-based Page Replacement

- Keep the number of references made to each page
- **LFU** replaces page with the smallest counter
  - A page is heavily used during process initialization and then never used
- **MFU** replaces page with the largest counter
  - based on the argument that page with the smallest count was probably just brought in and has yet to be used
- LFU and MFU are not common

Page-Buffering Algorithms

- **Keep a pool of free frames, always**
  - **Then frame available when needed**, not found at fault time
  - Read page into free frames without waiting for victims to write out
    - Restart as soon as possible
  - When convenient, evict victim
- Possibly, keep list of **modified pages**
  - When backing store **otherwise idle**, write pages there and set to non-dirty: this page can be replaced **without** writing pages to backing store
- Possibly, keep free frame contents intact and note what is in them - a kind of cache
  - If **referenced again before reused**, **no need to load contents again from disk**
    - **cache hit**

Applications and Page Replacement

- All of these algorithms have OS guessing about future page access
- Some applications have better knowledge – i.e. databases
- Memory intensive applications can cause **double buffering - a waste of memory**
  - OS keeps copy of page in memory as I/O buffer
  - Application keeps page in memory for its own work
- Operating system can given direct access to the disk, getting out of the way of the applications
  - **Raw disk** mode
- Bypasses buffering, locking, etc

Allocation of Frames

- Each process needs **minimum number** of frames -according to instructions semantics
- Example: IBM 370 – **6 pages to handle SS MOVE** instruction:
  - instruction is 6 bytes, might span 2 pages
  - 2 pages to handle from
  - 2 pages to handle to
- **Maximum** of course is total frames in the system
- Two major allocation schemes
  - fixed allocation
  - priority allocation
- Many variations

Fixed Allocation

- Equal allocation – For example, if there are 100 frames (after allocating frames for the OS) and 5 processes, give each process 20 frames
    - Keep some as free frame buffer pool
- Proportional allocation – Allocate according to the size of process
    - Dynamic as degree of multiprogramming, process sizes change

$$s_i = \text{size of process } p_i$$
$$S = \sum s_i$$
$$m = \text{total number of frames}$$
$$a_i = \text{allocation for } p_i = \frac{s_i}{S} \times m$$

$$m = 62$$
$$s_1 = 10$$
$$s_2 = 127$$
$$a_1 = \frac{10}{137} \times 62 \approx 4$$
$$a_2 = \frac{127}{137} \times 62 \approx 57$$

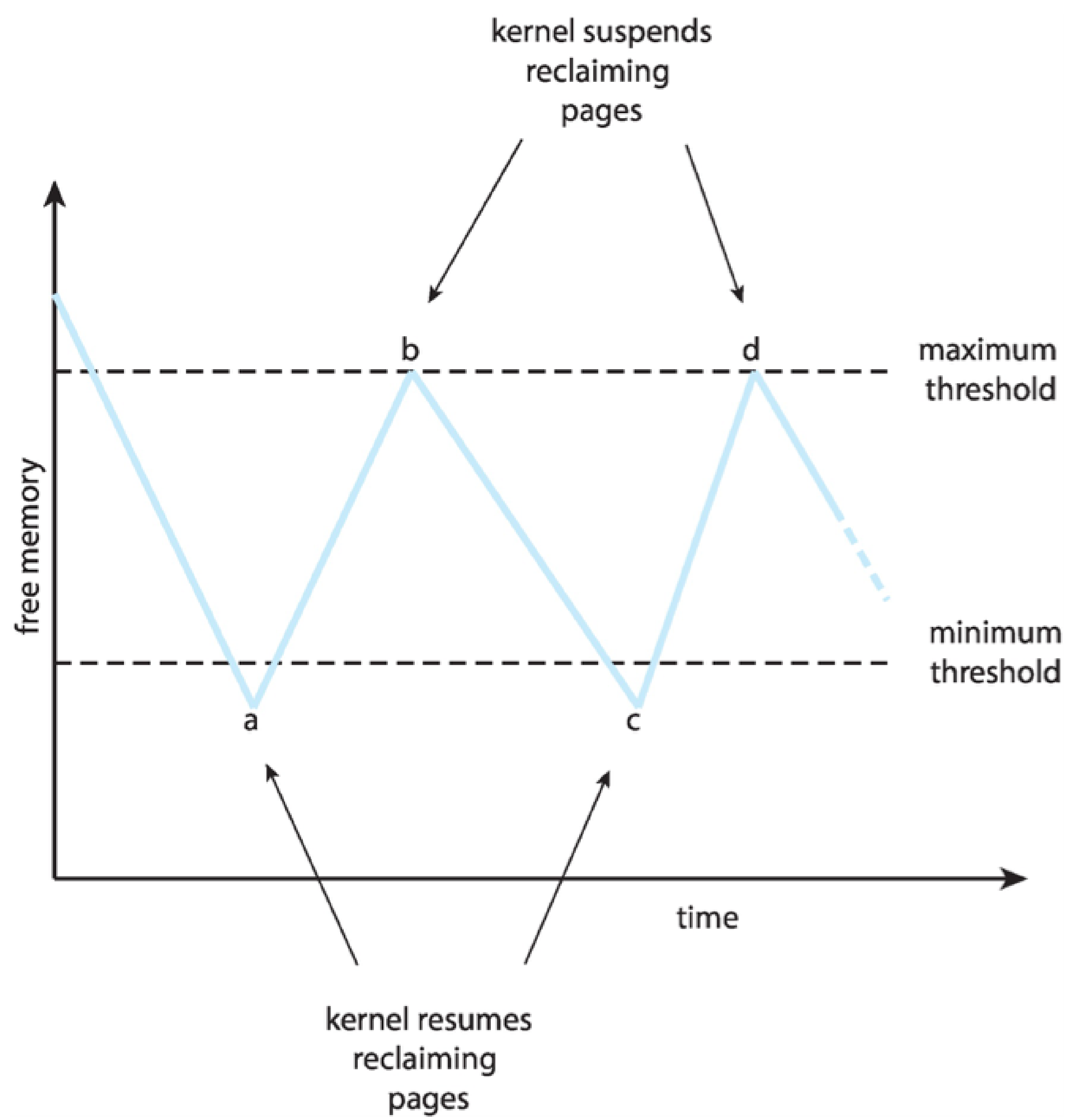
Global vs. Local Allocation

- **Global replacement** – process selects a replacement frame from the set of all frames; one process can take a frame from another
    - But then process execution time can **vary** greatly - depends on others
    - But greater throughput so more common
- **Local replacement** – each process selects from only its own set of allocated frames
    - More consistent per-process performance
    - But possibly underutilized memory

Reclaiming Pages

- A strategy to implement global page-replacement policy
- All memory requests are satisfied from the free-frame list, rather than waiting for the list to drop to zero before we begin selecting pages for replacement,
- Page replacement is triggered when the list falls below a **certain threshold.**
- This strategy attempts to ensure **there is always sufficient** free memory to satisfy new requests.

Reclaiming Pages Example



What happens if memory is below the minimum threshold

- Reclaim pages aggressively
  - Kill some processes
  - OOM score

Major and minor page faults

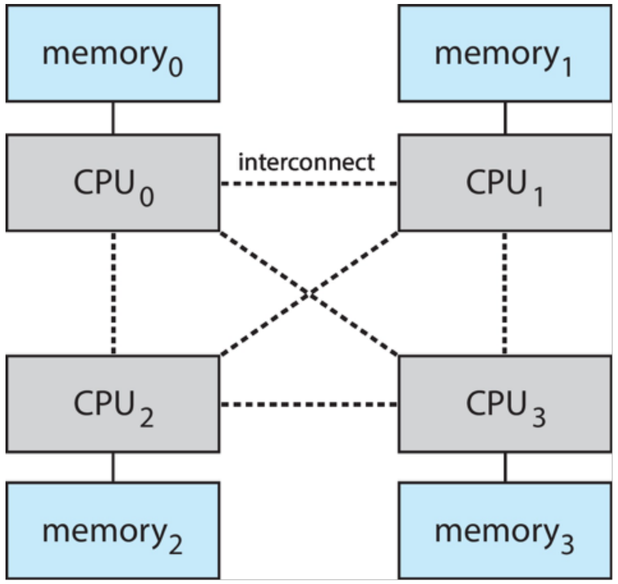
- Major: page is referenced but not in memory
- Minor: mapping does not exist, but the page is in memory
  - Shared library
  - Reclaimed and not freed yet

```
work@ubuntu:~$ ps eo min_flt,maj_flt,cmd
MINFL  MAJFL CMD
 1308      1 -bash TERM=linux LANG=en_US.UTF-8 HOME=/home/work SHELL=/bin/bash US
20108      8 /bin/bash LESSOPEN=| /usr/bin/lesspipe %s TMUX=/tmp/tmux-1000/defaul
 1299      0 /bin/bash XDG_SESSION_ID=21 SHELL=/bin/bash TERM=screen SSH_CLIENT=
 1830      0 -bash LC_CTYPE=UTF-8 USER=work LOGNAME=work HOME=/home/work PATH=/u
  158      0 ps eo min_flt,maj_flt,cmd XDG_SESSION_ID=35 TERM=xterm-256color SHEL
```

Thanks to shared libraries!

Non-Uniform Memory Access

- So far all memory accessed equally
- Many systems are NUMA – speed of access to memory varies
  - Consider system boards containing CPUs and memory, interconnected over a system bus
- NUMA multiprocessing architecture



Non-Uniform Memory Access (Cont.)

- Optimal performance comes from allocating memory “close to” the CPU on which the thread is scheduled
  - And modifying the **scheduler** to schedule the thread on the same system board when possible
  - Linux
    - Kernel maintains scheduling domains: does not allow threads to migrate across domains
    - A separate free-frame list for each NUMA node - allocating memory from the node it is running

Thrashing

- If a process doesn't have "enough" pages, page-fault rate may be high
  - page fault to get page, replace some existing frame
  - but quickly need replaced frame back
  - this leads to:

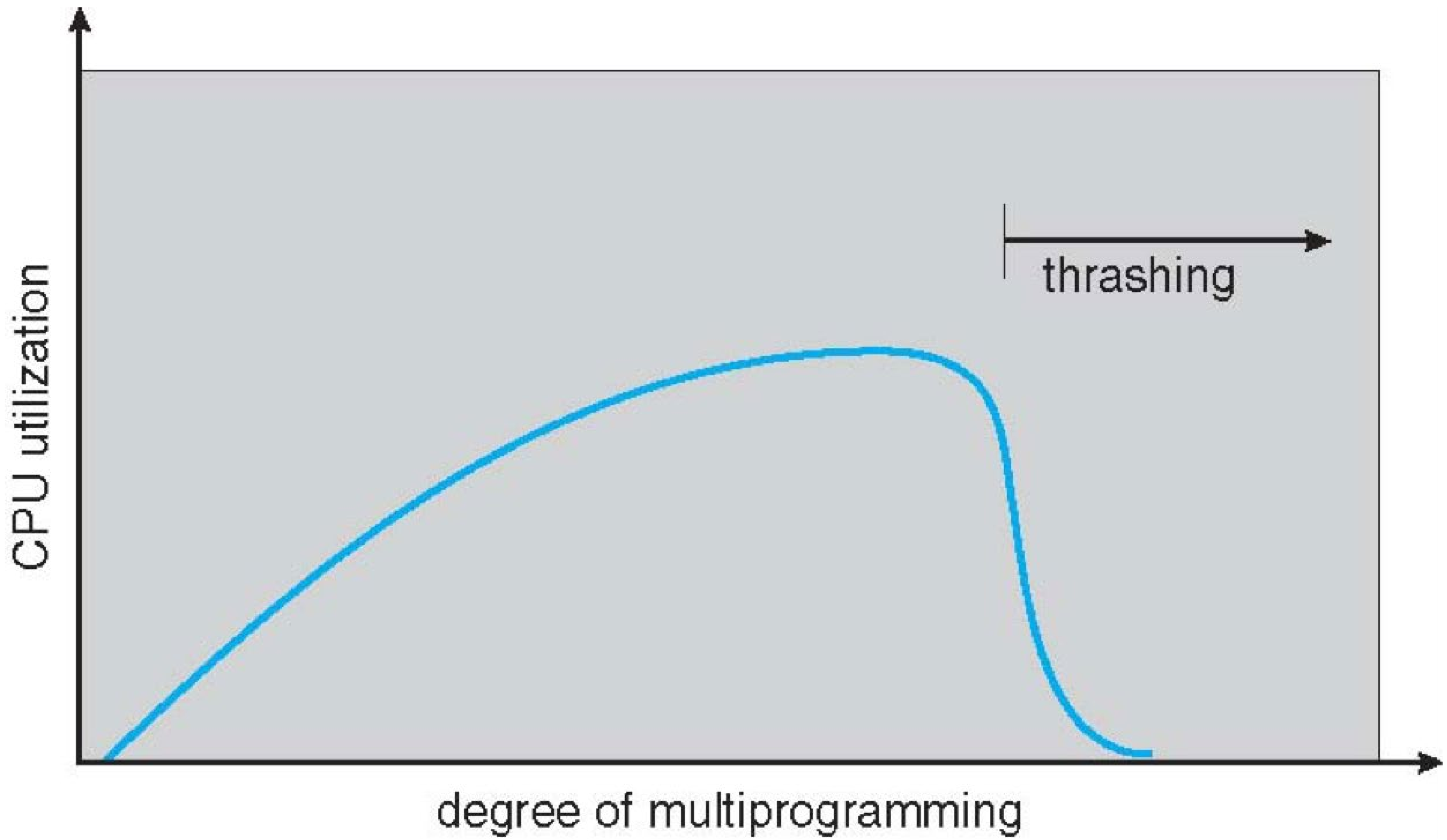
    low CPU utilization ➠

    kernel thinks it needs to increase the degree of

    multiprogramming to maximize CPU utilization ➠

    another process added to the system
- **Thrashing**: a process is busy swapping pages in and out

Thrashing



Demand Paging and Thrashing

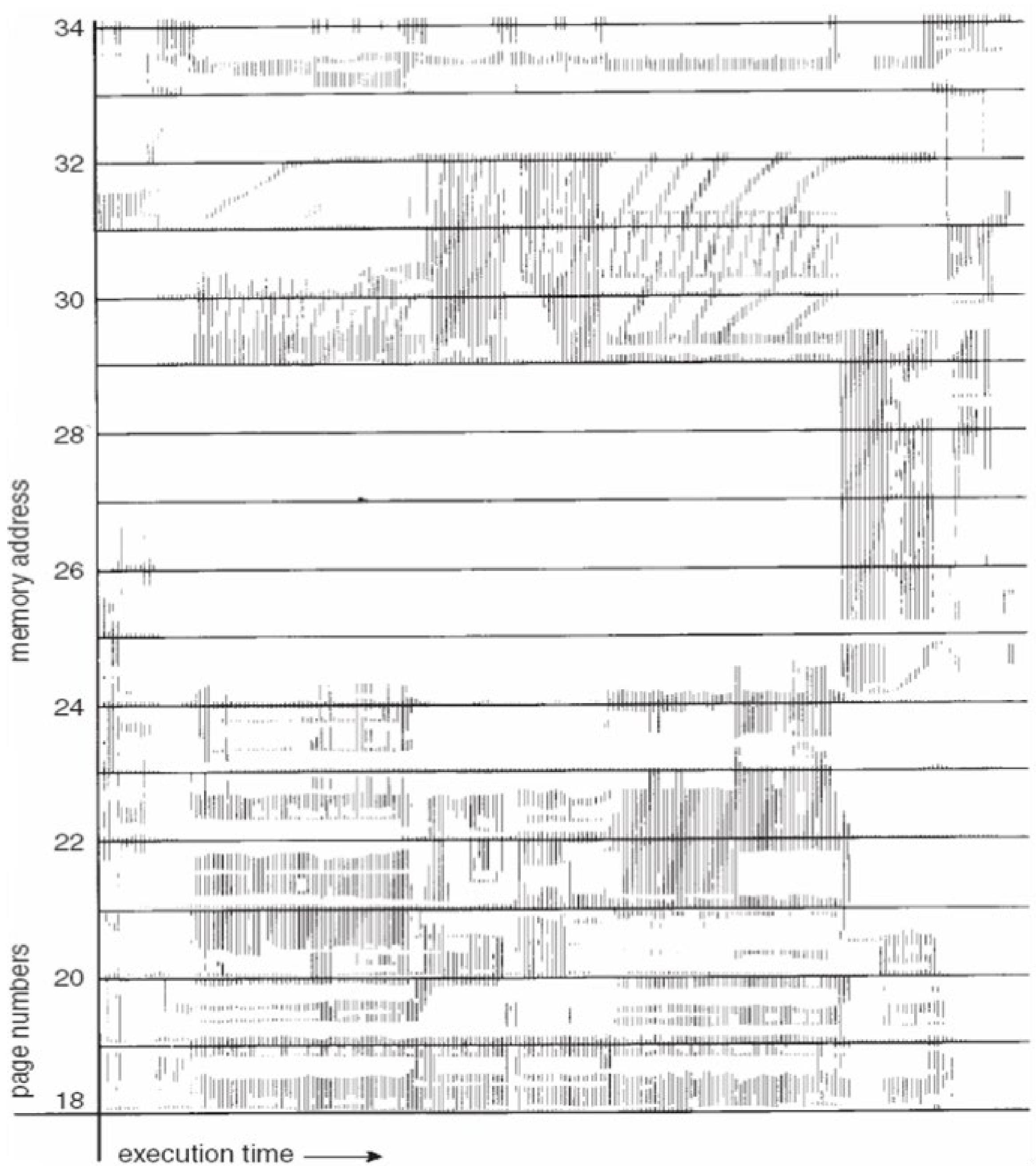
- Why does demand paging work?
  - process memory access has **high locality**
  - process migrates from one locality to another, localities may overlap
- Why does thrashing occur?
  - total size of locality > total memory size

Option I

- Limit thrashing effects by **using local or priority page** replacement
  - One process starts thrashing does not affect others -> it cannot cause other processes thrashing

Option II

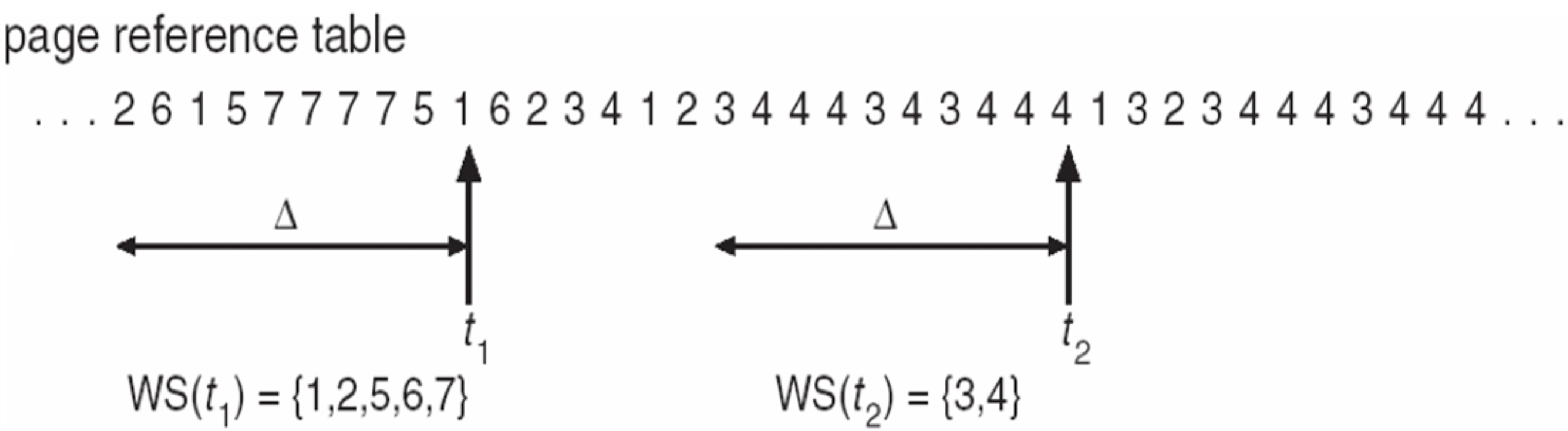
Provide a process with **as many frames as it needs**. How?



Working-Set Model

- **Working-set window**(Δ): a fixed number of page references
  - if Δ too small ➠ will not encompass entire locality
  - if Δ too large ➠ will encompass several localities
  - if $\Delta = \infty$ ➠ will encompass entire program
- **Working set** of process p_i (WSSi): total number of pages referenced in the most recent Δ (varies in time)
- **Total working sets**: $D = \sum WSS_i$
  - approximation of total locality
  - if $D > m$ ➠ possibility of thrashing
  - to avoid thrashing: if $D > m$, suspend or swap out some processes

Working-Set Model

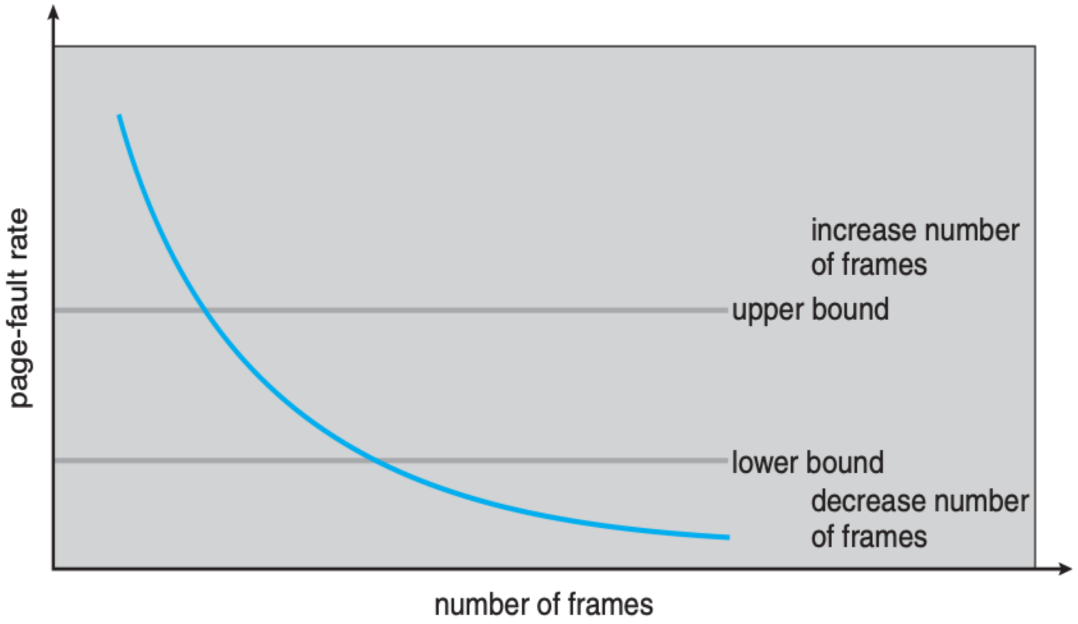


Challenge: Keeping Track of the Working Set

- Approximate with interval timer + a reference bit
- Example: $\Delta = 10{,}000$
  - Timer interrupts after every 5000 time units
  - Keep i**n memory 2 bits for each page**
  - Whenever a timer interrupts copy and sets the values of all reference bits to 0
  - If one of the bits in memory = 1 ➠ page in working set
- Why is this not completely accurate? - we can not tell **when (in 5000 time unites)** the access occurs
- Improvement = 10 bits and interrupt every **1000** time units

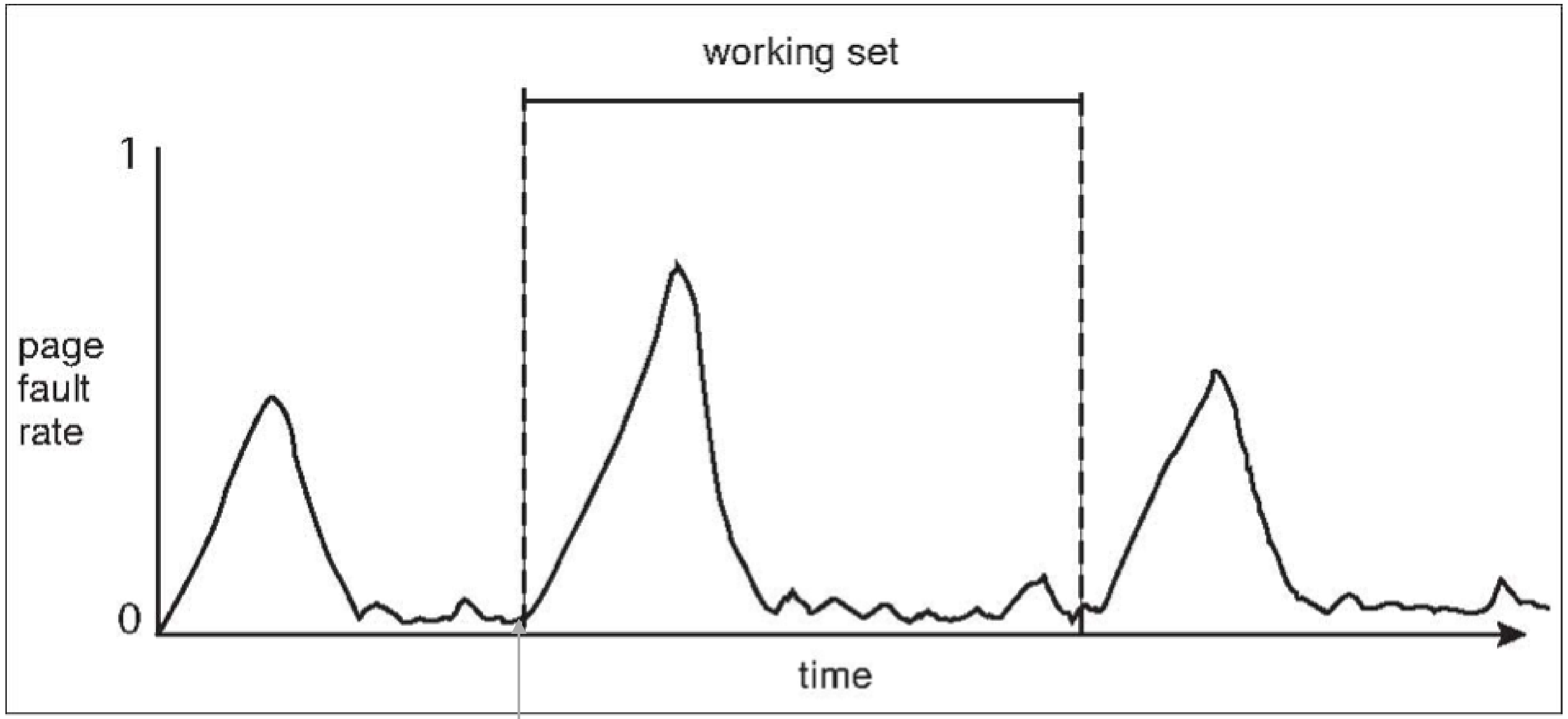
Page-Fault Frequency

- More direct approach than WSS
- Establish “acceptable” page-fault frequency (PFF) rate
  - If actual rate too low, process loses frame
  - If actual rate too high, process gains frame
- Need to swap out a process if no free fames are available



Working Sets and Page Fault Rates

- Assumes there is no thrashing
- Direct relationship between working set of a process and its page-fault rate
- Working set changes over time
- Peaks and valleys over time



Page fault increases due to new locality

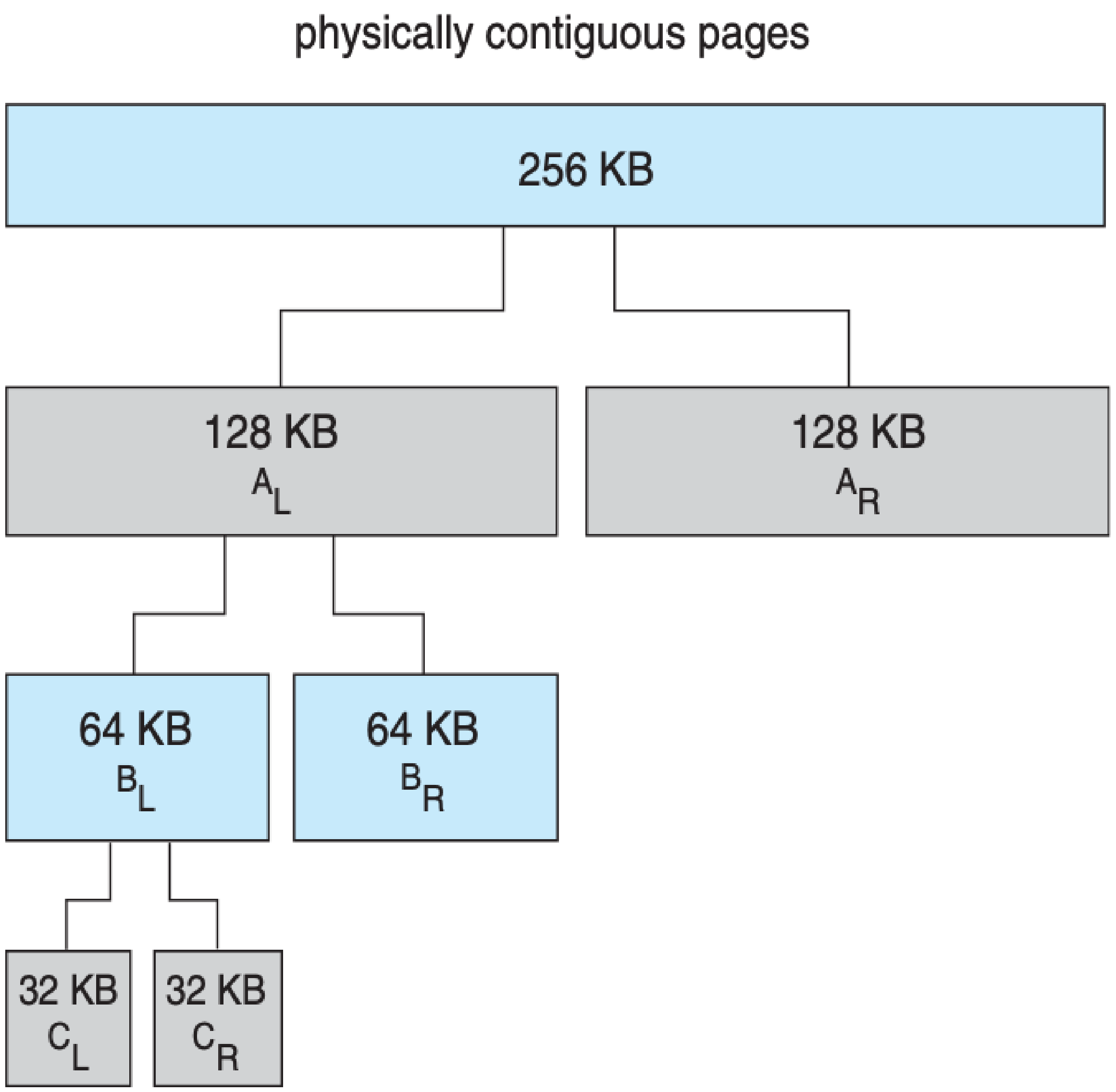
Kernel Memory Allocation

- Kernel memory allocation is treated differently from user memory, it is often allocated from a free-memory pool
  - kernel requests memory for structures of varying sizes -> minimize waste due to fragmentation
  - Some kernel memory needs to be **physically contiguous**
    - e.g., for device I/O

Buddy System

- Memory allocated using power-of-2 allocator
  - memory is allocated in units of the size of **power of 2**
    - round up a request to the closest allocation unit
    - split the unit into two “**buddies**” until a proper sized chunk is available
  - e.g., assume only 256KB chunk is available, kernel requests 21KB
    - split it into A_l and A_r of 128KB each
    - further split an 128KB chunk into B_l and B_r of 64KB
    - again, split a 64KB chunk into C_l and C_r of 32KB each
    - give one chunk for the request
- advantage: it can quickly coalesce unused chunks into larger chunk
- disadvantage: **internal fragmentation**
  - 33k request -> 64k segment

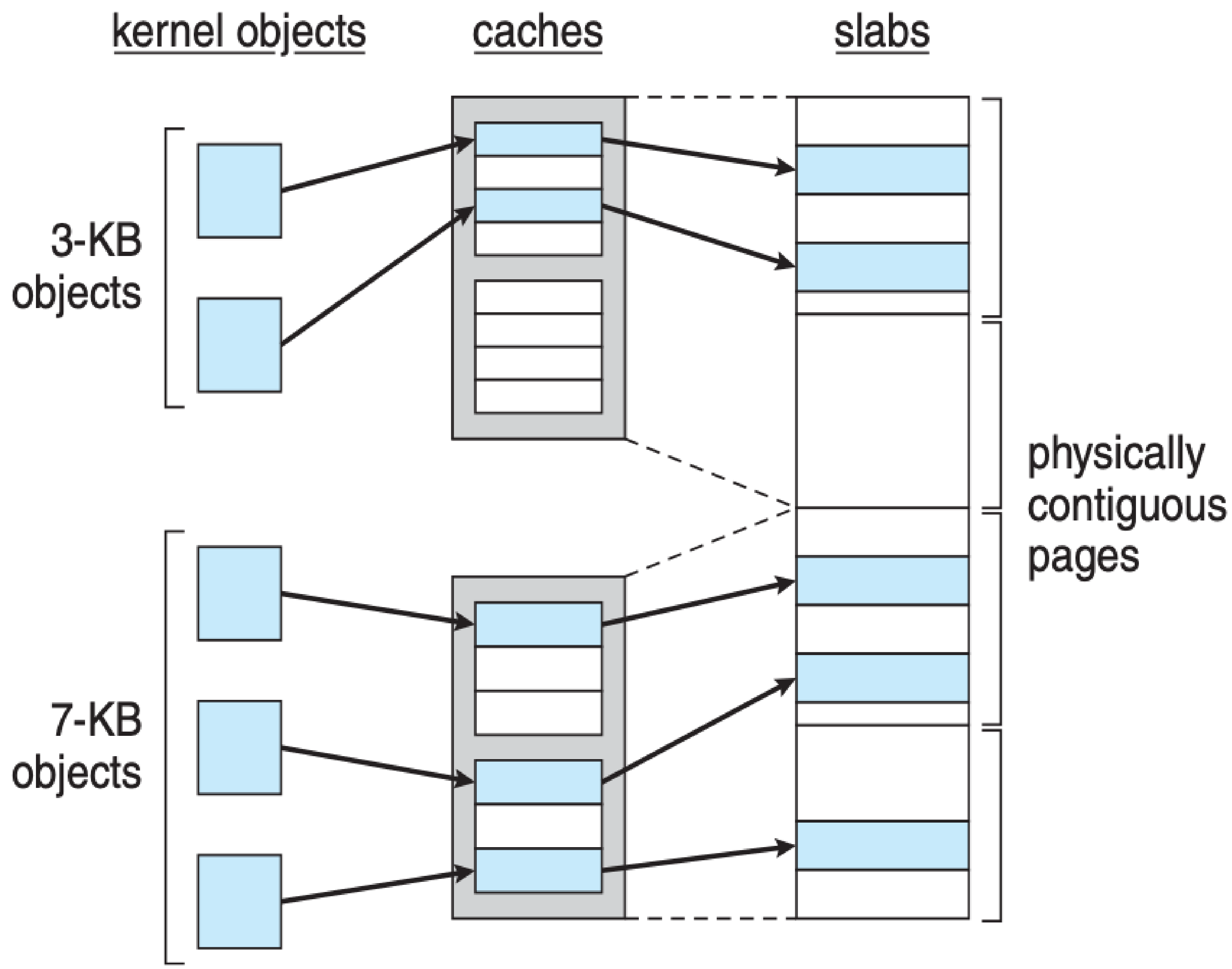
Buddy System Allocator



Slab Allocator

- Slab allocator is a **cache of objects**
  - a **cache** in a slab allocator consists of one or more slabs
  - a Slab contains **one or more pages**, divided into **equal-sized objects**
  - kernel uses one cache for each unique kernel data structure
    - when cache created, allocate a slab, divided the slab into free objects
    - objects for the data structure is allocated from free objects in the slab
    - if a slab is full of used objects, next object comes from an empty/new slab
- Benefits: **no fragmentation** and fast memory allocation
  - some of the object fields may be reusable; no need to initialize again

Slab Allocation

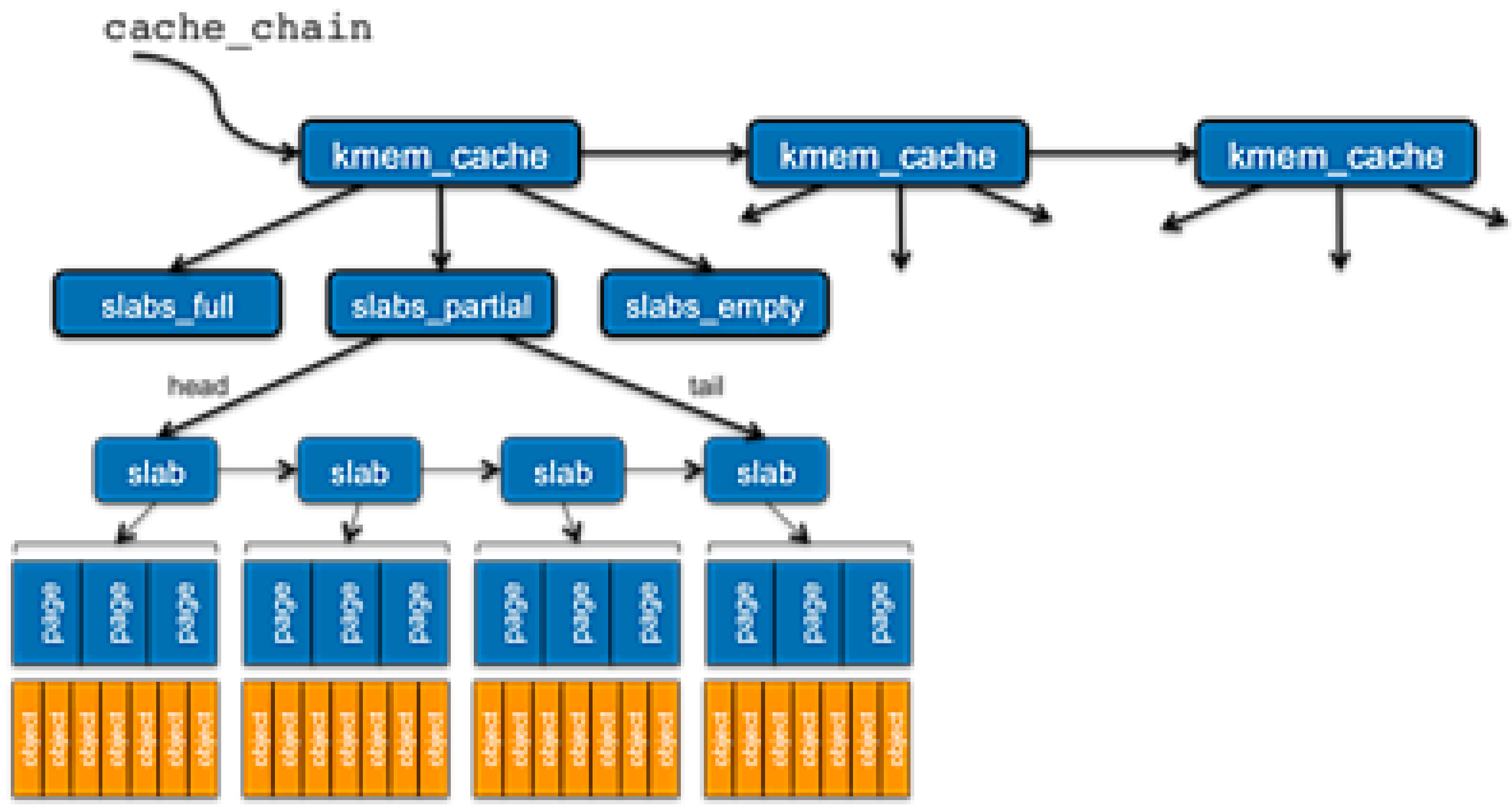


A 12k slab (4 pages) can store four 3k objects.

Slab Allocator in Linux

- For example process descriptor is of type ***struct task_struct***
- Approx 1.7KB of memory
- New task -> allocate new struct from cache
  - Will use existing free ***struct task_struct***
- *A* Slab can be in three possible states
  - **Full** – all used
  - **Empty** – all free
  - **Partial** – mix of free and used
- Upon request, slab allocator
  - Uses free struct in **partial** slab
  - If none, takes one from **empty** slab
  - If no empty slab, create new empty

Slab in Linux



Slab Allocator in Linux (Cont.)

- Slab started in Solaris, now wide-spread for both kernel mode and user memory in various OSes
- Linux 2.2 had SLAB, now has both SLOB and SLUB allocators
    - SLOB for systems with limited memory
        - Simple List of Blocks – maintains 3 list objects for small, medium, large objects
- SLUB is performance-optimized SLAB removes per-CPU queues, metadata stored in page structure

Other Considerations

- Prepaging
- Page size
- TLB reach
- Inverted page table
- Program structure
- I/O interlock and page locking

Prepaging

- To reduce the large number of page faults that occurs at process startup
    - Prepage all or some of the pages a process will need, before they are referenced
    - But if prepaged pages are unused, I/O and memory was wasted
- Assume ***s*** pages are prepaged and a fraction ***α*** of these pages is used
    - Is cost of ***s* * *α*** save pages faults > or < than the cost of prepaging
    - ***s* * (1- α)** unnecessary pages?
    - ***α*** near zero -> prepaging loses

Page Size

- Sometimes OS designers have a choice
  - Especially if running on custom-built CPU
- Page size selection must take into consideration:
  - Fragmentation -> small page size
  - Page table size -> large page size
  - Resolution -> small page size
  - I/O overhead -> large page size
  - Number of page faults -> large page size
  - Locality -> small page size
  - TLB size and effectiveness -> large page size
- Always power of 2, usually in the range 212 (4,096 bytes) to 222 (4,194,304 bytes)
- On average, **growing over time**

TLB Reach

- **TLB reach**: the amount of memory accessible from the TLB
  - TLB reach = (TLB size) X (page size)
- Ideally, the working set of each process is stored in the TLB
  - otherwise there is a high degree of page faults
- **Increase the page size** to reduce **TLB pressure**
  - it may increase fragmentation as not all applications require large page sizes
  - multiple page sizes allow applications that require larger page sizes to use them without an increase in fragmentation

Other Issues: Program Structure

- Program structure can affect page faults
  - int[128,128] data; each row is stored in one page
  - Program 1:

```
for (j = 0; j <128; j++)
for (i = 0; i < 128; i++)
data[i,j] = 0;
```

128 x 128 = 16,384 page faults (assume TLB only has one entry)

  - Program 2:

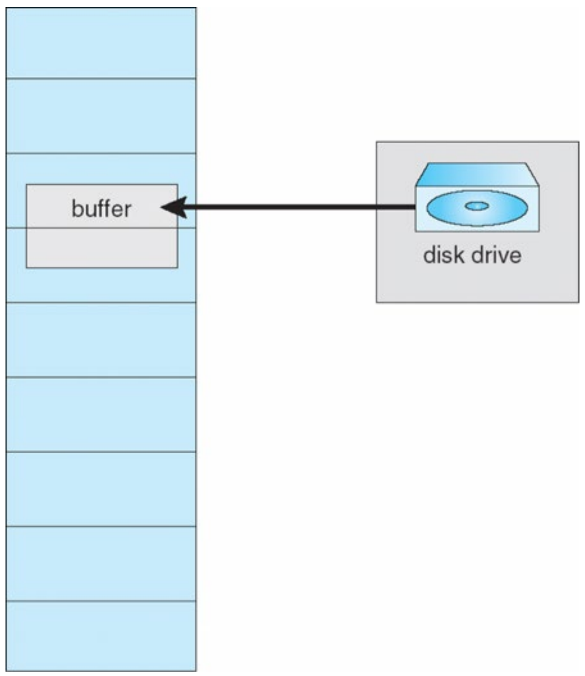
```
for (i = 0; i < 128; i++)
for (j = 0; j < 128; j++)
data[i,j] = 0;
```

128 page faults

I/O interlock

- I/O Interlock – Pages must sometimes be locked into memory

- Consider I/O - Pages that are used for copying a file from a device must be **locked from being selected for eviction by a page replacement algorithm**



Operating System Examples

- Windows XP
- Linux

Windows XP

- Uses demand paging with clustering
  - clustering brings in **pages surrounding the faulting page:** locality
- Processes are assigned **working set** minimum and set maximum
  - *wsmin*: minimum number of pages the process is guaranteed to have
  - *wsmax*: a process may be assigned as many pages up to its *wsmax*
- When the amount of free memory in the system falls below a threshold:
  - automatic working set trimming to restore the amount of free memory
  - it removes pages from processes that have more pages than the *wsmin*

HW 10 is out.