

DCS216 Operating Systems

Lecture 20 Memory (3) Demand Paging

May 15th, 2024

Instructor: Xiaoxi Zhang

Sun Yat-sen University



Content

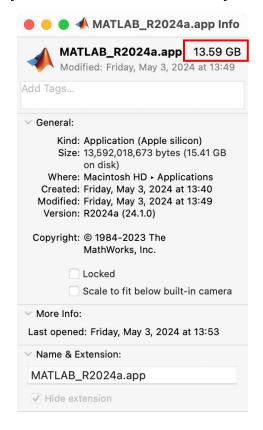
- Background
- Demand Paging
- Copy-on-Write (COW)
- Page Replacement
- Allocation of Frames
- Thrashing
- Memory-Mapped Files
- Allocating Kernel Memory
- Other Considerations
- OS Examples
 - Linux
 - Windows
 - Solaris



Background

- So far, we require that the entire program be loaded into memory before it can execute.
- Question: How to execute a program that is larger (in size) than the physical memory available on the system?









8 核中央处理器

8 核图形处理器

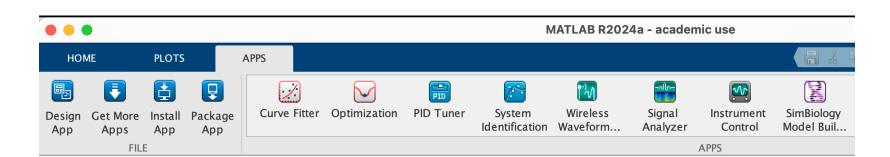
8GB 统一内存

256GB 固态硬盘¹



Background

- The requirement that instructions must be in physical memory to be executed seems both necessary and reasonable.
- However, it limits the size of a program to the size of available physical memory.
- In fact, a closer look at real programs (such as Matlab) shows us that, in many cases, the entire program is not needed:
 - Programs often have code to handle unusual error conditions.
 - These errors seldom occur in practice \Rightarrow almost never executed.
 - Certain options and features of a program may be used very rarely.
 - For example, Matlab has many toolboxes installed by default, but rarely used unless explicitly invoked.



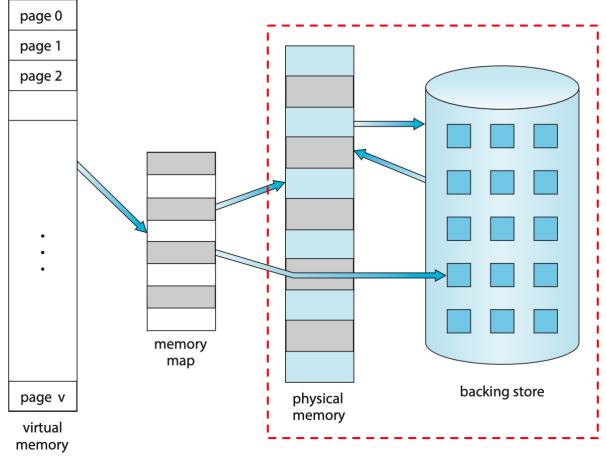


Background

- Even in those cases where the entire program is needed, it may not all be needed at the same time.
- Consider the ability to execute partially-loaded program
 - Program size no longer constrained by limits of physical memory
 - Each program takes less physical memory while running
 - ⇒ more programs running at the same time
 - Increased CPU utilization and throughput with no increase in response time or turnaround time
 - Less I/O needed to load or swap programs into memory
 - ⇒ each program runs faster

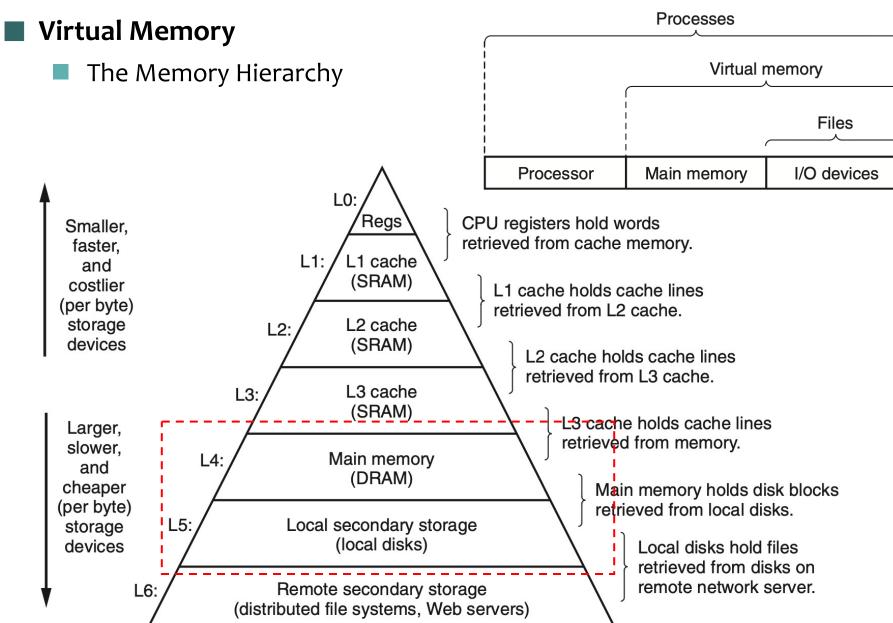
Virtual Memory

- **Virtual Memory:** separation of **logical** memory from **physical** memory
 - It allows an extremely large virtual memory to be provided for developers when only a smaller physical memory is available.



Pages in Virtual
Memory may
reside in either
physical memory
or backing store.







Virtual Memory

- **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 therefore be much larger than physical address space
 - Allows address spaces to be shared by several processes
 - Allows for more efficient process creation
 - More programs running concurrently
 - Less I/O needed to load or swap processes
- Virtual Address Space: logical view of how processes is stored in memory
 - Usually start at address 0, contiguous address until end of space
 - Meanwhile, physical memory organized in physical frames
 - MMU must map logical address into physical address.



Virtual Memory

- A tiny example:
 - 4-page/frame Physical Memory
 - 8-page/block Backing Store (Swap Space) on disk
 - 4 Processes
 - Each process has its own Page Table
 - i.e., mappings from VPN to PFN
 - 3 active Processes (Proc 0, Proc 1, Proc 2)
 - some of their valid pages in memory
 - 1 inactive Process (Proc 3)
 - all of its pages swapped out to disk.

Physical Memory

PFN 0	PFN 1	PFN 2	PFN 3
Proc 0	Proc 1	Proc 1	Proc 2
[VPN 0]	[VPN 2]	[VPN 3]	[VPN 0]

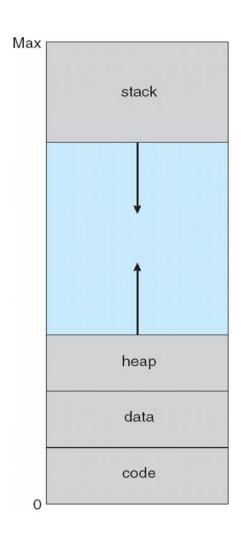
Backing Store (Swap Space)

Block 0	Block 1	Block 2	Block 3	Block 4	Block 5	Block 6	Block 7
Proc 0 [VPN 1]	Proc 0 [VPN 2]	[Free]	Proc 1 [VPN 0]	Proc 1 [VPN 1]	Proc 3 [VPN 0]	Proc 2 [VPN 1]	Proc 3 [VPN 1]



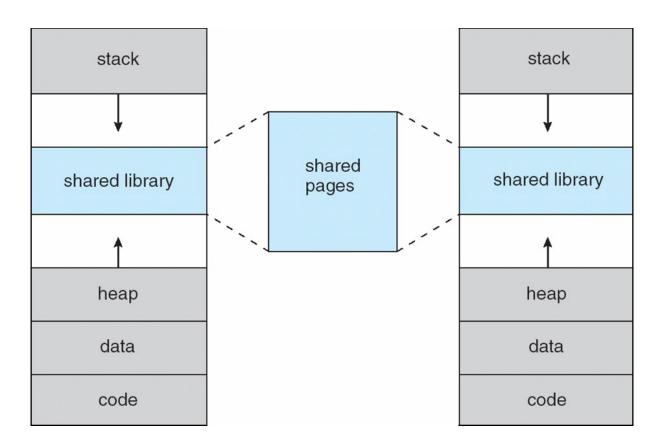
Virtual Address Space

- Usually design virtual address space for stack to start at Max addr and grow downward, while heap grows upward.
 - Maximize address space use
 - Unused address space between stack and heap
 - No physical memory needed until heap or stack grows to a new page.
- Enable sparse address spaces with holes left for growth, dynamically linked libraries, etc.



Virtual Address Space

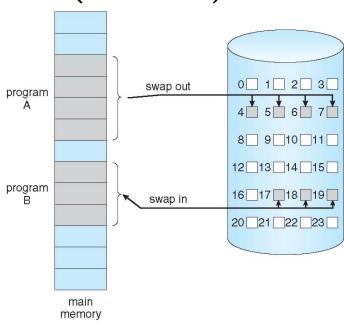
- Shared Library Using Virtual Memory
 - System libraries shared via mapping into virtual address space
- Shared Memory by mapping pages into virtual address space
- Pages can be shared during fork(), speeding process creation





Basic Concepts

- Bring a page into memory only when it is needed (on demand).
 - Less I/O needed, no unnecessary I/O
 - Less memory needed
 - Faster response
 - More users.
- Page is needed ⇒ reference to it
 - invalid and illegal reference \Rightarrow abort
 - invalid not-in-memory ⇒ bring to memory
- Similar to paging system with swapping
 - Pager is the swapper that deals with pages
 - With swapping, pager guesses which pages will be used before swapping out again.
- Lazy swapper Never swaps a page into memory unless page will be needed.
 - Pager brings only those pages needed into memory.





Basic Concepts

- Valid/Invalid Bit
 - Within each Page Table Entry (PTE), a valid bit is needed (also called present bit on some systems)
 - v (or 1): page in memory (valid)
 - i (or 0): page not in memory (invalid)
 - Initially set valid bits to i (0) for all entries

Frame # v-i bit

v
v
v
v
i
i
i

Page Table

- During address translation, if valid bit in PTE is i, then page fault.
 - invalid bit does not indicate illegal virtual address

Illegal Address Reference Examples

Illegal address reference generally triggers segmentation fault.

```
/* illegal addr1.c */
                                          /* illegal addr2.c */
#include <stdio.h>
                                          #include <stdio.h>
int main() {
                                          int main() {
   int *p = NULL;
                                              // p is a NULL pointer
                                              // p points kernel address space
   *p = 42;
                                              *p = 42;
   // dereferencing a NULL pointer
                                              // trying to access kernel addres space
   // --> seafault
                                              // --> seafault
   printf("*p: %d\n", *p);
                                              printf("*p: %d\n", *p);
   return 0;
                                              return 0;
                                          }
```

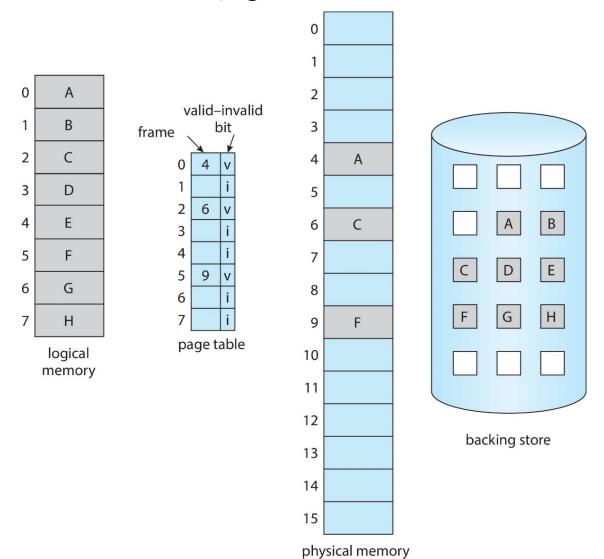
```
/* illegal_addr3.c */
#include <stdio.h>

int main() {
    int *p = (void *)main;
    // p points to addr of main
    *p = 42;
    // trying to modify the first 4 bytes of main (read-only code segment)
    //    --> segfault
    printf("*p: %d\n", *p);
    return 0;
}
```



Basic Concepts

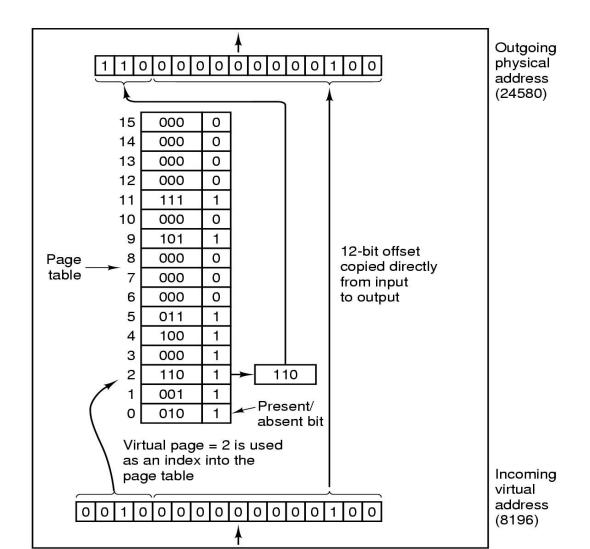
Page Table when some pages are not in main memory

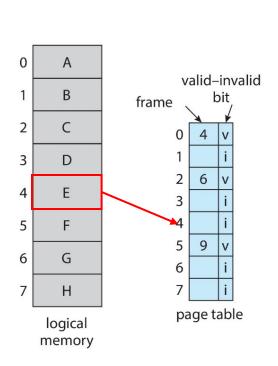




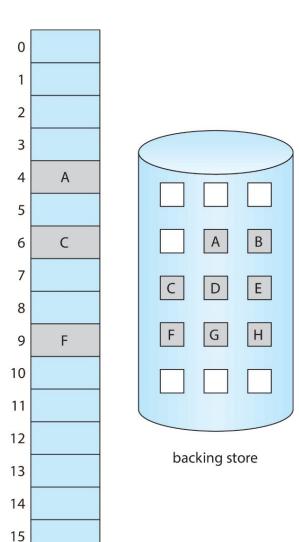
Basic Concepts

Virtual Memory Mapping Example





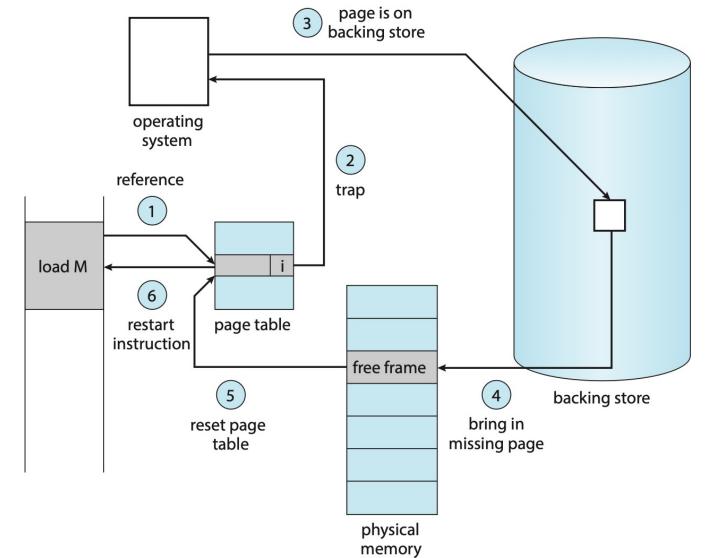
What would happen if a process tries to access a page that is not present in memory (or marked as invalid)?



physical memory



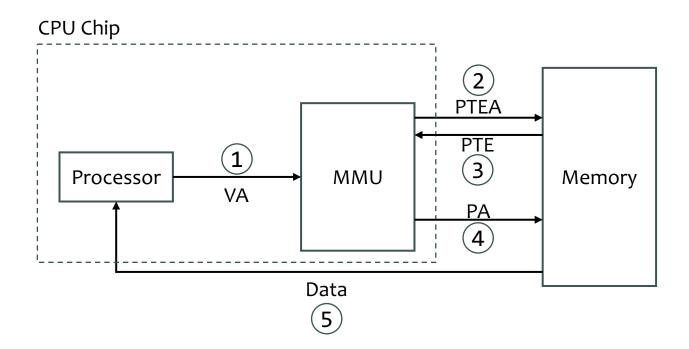
Access to a page marked as invalid causes a Page Fault (缺页错误).

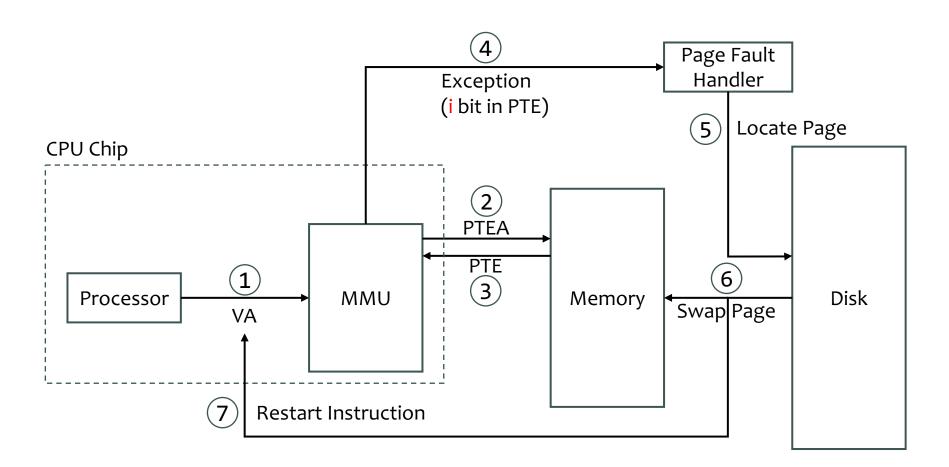




- Access to a page marked as invalid causes a Page Fault.
- Steps in handling a Page Fault:
 - 1. Check an internal table (usually kept within the PCB) for this process to determine whether the memory reference was legal or illegal.
 - 2. If the reference is **legal** and the **valid bit** in **PTE** is invalid (page not in memory, but in backing store), **trap** into the **Page Fault Handler**.
 - Locate the desired page/block on disk (swap space).
 - 4. Find a **free frame** (e.g., by taking one from the **free-frame list**) and swap the desired page/block from disk into the **free frame** via **scheduled disk read operation**.
 - 5. When the **storage read** is complete, we modify the internal table kept within the **PCB** and the **Page Table** to indicate that the page is now in memory (i.e., by setting the valid bit to **1** (valid) in the **PTE**).
 - 6. **Restart** the instruction that was interrupted by the **trap**. The process can now access the page as though it had always been in memory.

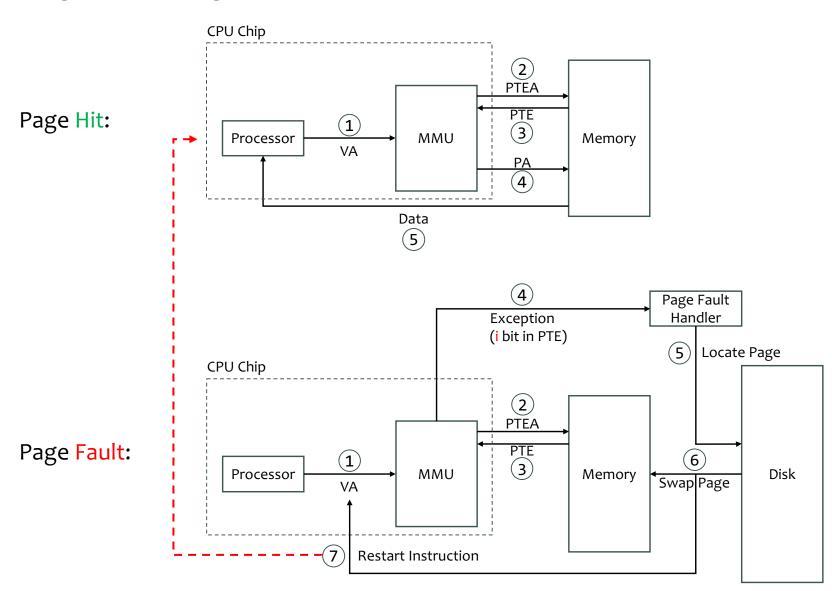
Page Hit







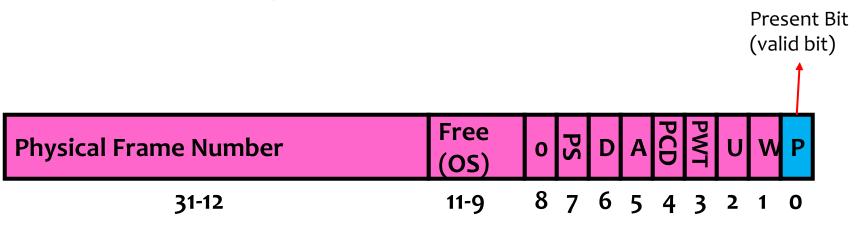
Page Hit vs. Page Fault





Dynamics of Demand Paging

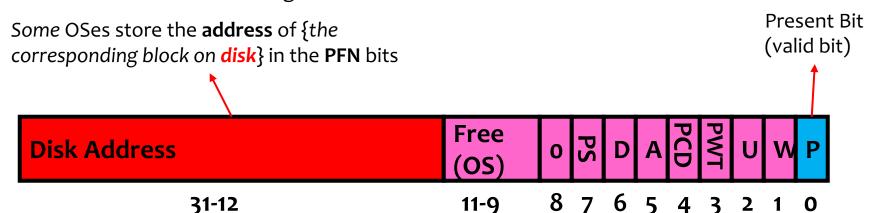
- Typically, each process has its own page table.
- Each Page Table Entry (PTE) contains a valid bit to indicate whether the page is in memory or not
 - If it is in main memory, the **PTE** contains the frame number (**PFN**) of the corresponding frame in main memory
 - Otherwise, the PTE may contain the address of the page block on disk.
- Example: Intel x86 architecture **PTE**:
 - 2-Level Page Table (10, 10, 12-bit offset)
 - Intermediate Page Tables called "Directories"





Dynamics of Demand Paging

- Typically, each process has its own page table.
- Each Page Table Entry (PTE) contains a valid bit to indicate whether the page is in memory or not
 - If it is in main memory, the PTE contains the frame number (PFN) of the corresponding frame in main memory
 - Otherwise, the PTE may contain the address of the page block on disk.
- Example: Intel x86 architecture **PTE**:
 - 2-Level Page Table (10, 10, 12-bit offset)
 - Intermediate Page Tables called "Directories"





Aspects of Demand Paging

- Extreme case start process with no pages in main memory.
 - OS sets Instruction Pointer to the first instruction of process
 - which is on a non-memory-resident page \Rightarrow triggers Page Fault.
 - ..and for every other pages upon first access
 - This is called Pure Demand Paging.
 - never bring a page into memory until it is required.
- Actually, a given instruction could access multiple pages and cause multiple page faults.
 - Consider fetch and decode of instruction which adds two numbers fro memory and stores result back to memory.
 - Pain decreased because of locality of reference.
- Hardware support needed for demand paging.
 - Page Table with valid/invalid bit
 - Secondary Memory (swap device with swap space)
 - Instruction Restart

Free-Frame List

- When a page fault occurs, the OS must bring the desired page from secondary storage (swap space) into main memory.
- Most OSes 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

- The OS typically allocates 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 freeframe list.



Stages in Demand Paging (the Worst Case)

- 1. Trap into 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 that the location of the block (page) on disk.
- 5. Issue a read request from the disk to a free frame:
 - 1. Wait in a queue for this device until the read request is serviced
 - 2. Wait for the device seek and/or latency time
 - 3. 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)
- 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 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 page-fault interrupt
 - careful coding means just ~100 instruction cycles (~100 ns) needed
 - Read in the page (from disk)
 - lots of time, e.g., ~8 milliseconds (~8,000,000 ns)

Dominant Factor

- Restart the process
 - again, just a small amount of time (~100 ns)
- Page Fault Rate $p (0 \le p \le 1)$
 - $p = 0 \Rightarrow$ no page faults
 - $p = 1 \Rightarrow$ every reference causes a page fault.
- Effective Access Time (EAT):
 - **EAT** = $(1 p) \times memory_access_time + p \times page_fault_time$ Time spent for normal memory access

Time spent for handling page fault



Performance of Demand Paging

- Example:
 - memory_access_time = 200 nanoseconds
 - Average page_fault_time = 8 milliseconds = 8,000,000 ns
 - EAT = $(1-p) \times 200 \text{ (ns)} + p \times 8 \text{ (ms)}$ = $(1-p) \times 200 + p \times 8,000,000 \text{ (ns)}$ = $200 + 7,999,800 \times p \text{ (ns)}$
 - **EAT** is directly proportional to the page-fault rate p.
- If one access out of 1,000 causes a page fault (p = 0.001), then
 - \blacksquare EAT = 200 + 7,999,800 x 0.001 = 8199.8 (ns)
 - ⇒ a slowdown by a factor of 8199.8 / 200 = 41
- If we want performance degradation < 10%</p>
 - EAT = 220 < 200 + 7,999,800 x p \Rightarrow 20 > 7,999,800 x p
 - $p < 2.5 \times 10^{-6}$.
 - i.e., less than one page fault in every 400,000 memory accesses.



Demand Paging Optimizations

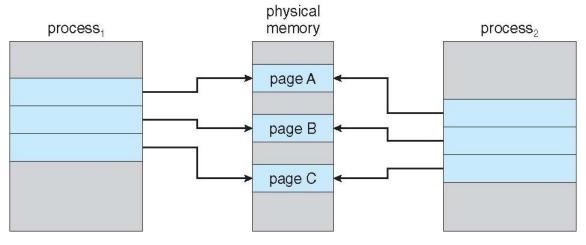
- Swap space I/O faster than file system I/O even if on the same device.
 - Swap allocated in large chunks, less management needed than FS
- Copy entire process image to swap space at process load time
 - Then page in and out of swap space
 - Used in older BSD Unix
- Demand page in from program binary on disk, but discard rather than paging out when freeing frame
 - Used in Solaris and current BSD
 - Still need to write to swap space
 - Pages not associated with a file (like stack and heap)
 - anonymous memory
 - Pages modified in memory but not yet written back to file system
- Mobile systems
 - Typically don't support swapping
 - Instead, demand page from file system and reclaim read-only pages (such as code)



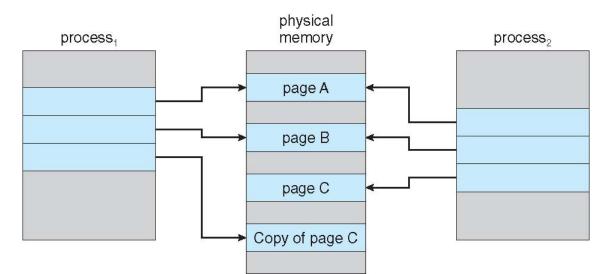
- Semantically, fork() syscall will create a copy of the parent's address space for the child process
 - In early UNIX systems, it will simply **duplicate** all the active pages belonging to the parent for the child process.
 - Very expensive (huge amount of memory accesses)
- Copy-on-Write (CoW, **写入时复制**) 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
 - only modified pages are copied.



- Copy-on-Write (CoW)
 - Before Process 1 Modifies Page C:



After Process 1 Modifies Page C:





```
/* CoW.c */
#define PAGE SHIFT 12
#define PAGE SIZE (1 << PAGE SHIFT)</pre>
#define PAGEMAP ENTRY 8
                                                   为addr分配一个大小为PAGE SIZE(4096字节)
uint64 t get physical address(uint64 t virtual address);
                                                    的空间,以确保addr单独占有一个page
int main() {
   int *addr = malloc(PAGE_SIZE); // Allocate space (PAGE_SIZE) in the heap
   *addr = 10; // Initialize addr with some value
   pid t rc = fork();
   printf(" Child: virtual addr before child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, addr);
       printf(" Child: physical addr before child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, (void
*)get physical address((uint64_t)addr));
       printf(" Child: virtual addr after child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, addr);
       printf(" Child: physical addr after child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, (void
*)get physical address((uint64 t)addr));
                      /* Parent process */
   } else {
       printf("Parent: virtual addr before child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, addr);
       printf("Parent: physical addr before child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, (void
*)get physical address((uint64 t)addr));
       sleep(1);
                      /* Wait for child process to modify *addr */
       printf("Parent: virtual addr after child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, addr);
       printf("Parent: physical addr after child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, (void
*)get physical address((uint64 t)addr));
       return 0;
```



```
/* CoW.c */
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdLib.h>
#include <unistd.h>
#include <sys/types.h>
#include <fcntl.h>
#include <stdint.h>
#include <sys/mman.h>
#define PAGE SHIFT 12
#define PAGE SIZE (1 << PAGE SHIFT)</pre>
#define PAGEMAP ENTRY 8
uint64_t get_physical_address(uint64_t
virtual address) {
    int pagemap fd;
    uint64 t offset, physical address;
    uint64 t pagemap entry;
    // Open the pagemap file for the current process
    pagemap fd = open("/proc/self/pagemap",
O RDONLY);
    // Calculate the offset in the pagemap file
    offset = (virtual address / PAGE SIZE) *
PAGEMAP ENTRY;
```

```
// Seek to the appropriate offset
    if (lseek(pagemap fd, offset, SEEK SET) ==
(off t)-1) {
        perror("lseek");
        close(pagemap_fd);
        return -1;
   // Read the pagemap entry
    if (read(pagemap fd, &pagemap entry,
PAGEMAP ENTRY) != PAGEMAP ENTRY) {
        perror("read");
        close(pagemap fd);
        return -1;
    close(pagemap fd);
   // Extract the physical frame number (PFN) from
the pagemap entry
    if (pagemap entry & (1ULL << 63)) {</pre>
        physical address = (pagemap entry & ((1ULL
<< 55) -1)) *PAGE SIZE;
        physical address |= (virtual address &
(PAGE SIZE - 1));
   } else {
        return -1;
    return physical address;
}
```

```
/* CoW.c */
                        $ gcc -g -Wall -o CoW CoW.c
#define PAGE SHIFT 12
                        $ sudo ./CoW
#define PAGE SIZE (1 << PA
                        Parent: virtual addr before child modification: 10 (0x5555555592a0)
#define PAGEMAP ENTRY 8
                        Parent: physical addr before child modification: 10 (0x6952822a0)
                         Child: virtual addr before child modification: 10 (0x55555555592a0)
uint64 t get physical addr
                         Child: physical addr before child modification: 10 (0 \times 6952822a0)
int main() {
   int *addr = malloc(PAGE SIZE); // Allocate space (PAGE SIZE) in the heap
   *addr = 10; // Initialize addr with some value
   pid t rc = fork();
   printf(" Child: virtual addr before child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, addr);
       printf(" Child: physical addr before child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, (void
*)get physical address((uint64 t)addr));
       printf(" Child: virtual addr after child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, addr);
       printf(" Child: physical addr after child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, (void
*)get physical address((uint64 t)addr));
                      /* Parent process */
   } else {
       printf("Parent: virtual addr before child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, addr);
       printf("Parent: physical addr before child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, (void
*)get physical address((uint64 t)addr));
       sleep(1);
                      /* Wait for child process to modify *addr */
       printf("Parent: virtual addr after child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, addr);
       printf("Parent: physical addr after child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, (void
*)get physical address((uint64 t)addr));
       return 0;
```

```
/* CoW.c */
                        $ gcc -g -Wall -o CoW CoW.c
#define PAGE SHIFT 12
                        $ sudo ./CoW
#define PAGE SIZE (1 << PA
                        Parent: virtual addr before child modification: 10 (0x5555555592a0)
#define PAGEMAP ENTRY 8
                        Parent: physical addr before child modification: 10 (0x6952822a0)
                        Child: virtual addr before child modification: 10 (0x55555555592a0)
uint64 t get physical addr
                        Child: physical addr before child modification: 10 (0x6952822a0)
                        Child: virtual addr after child modification: 20 (0x5555555592a0)
int main() {
   int *addr = malloc(PAG)
                        Child: physical addr after child modification: 20 (0xb1b4a02a0)
   *addr = 10; // Initia
   pid t rc = fork();
   printf(" Child: virtual addr before child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, addr);
       printf(" Child: physical addr before child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, (void
*)get physical address((uint64 t)addr));
       printf(" Child: virtual addr after child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, addr);
       printf(" Child: physical addr after child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, (void
*)get physical address((uint64 t)addr));
   } else {
                      /* Parent process */
       printf("Parent: virtual addr before child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, addr);
       printf("Parent: physical addr before child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, (void
*)get physical address((uint64 t)addr));
                 /* Wait for child process to modify *addr */
       printf("Parent: virtual addr after child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, addr);
       printf("Parent: physical addr after child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, (void
*)get physical address((uint64 t)addr));
       return 0;
```

Copy-on-Write (CoW)

```
/* CoW.c */
                        $ gcc -g -Wall -o CoW CoW.c
#define PAGE SHIFT 12
                        $ sudo ./CoW
#define PAGE SIZE (1 << PA
                        Parent: virtual addr before child modification: 10 (0x5555555592a0)
#define PAGEMAP ENTRY 8
                        Parent: physical addr before child modification: 10 (0x6952822a0)
                         Child: virtual addr before child modification: 10 (0x55555555592a0)
uint64 t get physical addr
                         Child: physical addr before child modification: 10 (0x6952822a0)
int main() {
                         Child: virtual addr after child modification: 20 (0x5555555592a0)
   int *addr = malloc(PAG)
                         Child: physical addr after child modification: 20 (0xb1b4a02a0)
   *addr = 10; // Initial
                        Parent: virtual addr after child modification: 10 (0x5555555592a0)
                        Parent: physical addr after child modification: 10 (0x6952822a0)
   pid t rc = fork();
   if (rc == 0) {
                   /* Child process */
       printf(" Child: virtual addr before child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, addr);
       printf(" Child: physical addr before child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, (void
*)get physical address((uint64 t)addr));
       printf(" Child: virtual addr after child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, addr);
       printf(" Child: physical addr after child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, (void
*)get physical address((uint64 t)addr));
                      /* Parent process */
   } else {
       printf("Parent: virtual addr before child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, addr);
       printf("Parent: physical addr before child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, (void
*)get physical address((uint64 t)addr));
                      /* Wait for child process to modify *addr */
       printf("Parent: virtual addr after child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, addr);
       printf("Parent: physical addr after child modification: %d (%p)\n", *addr, (void
*)get physical address((uint64_t)addr));
       return 0;
```

fork() vs. vfork()

- vfork() is a variant of fork() in several versions of UNIX (including Linux, macOS, and BSD UNIX).
 - vfork() is deprecated and not part of the POSIX standard
 - not recommended if you wish to write portable code.
- Unlike fork(), vfork() does not use Copy-on-Write.
- With vfork(), the parent process is suspended, and the child process uses the same address space of the parent.
 - The child process is intended to call exec() immediately after creation.
 - Recall that exec() will replace the current child process image with a new process image specified by the arguments of exec()
 - \Rightarrow **new address space** that is different from the parent.
 - If the child process modifies the address space of the parent, it will lead to undefined behavior.
 - The parent process resumes after the child process either calls exec() or exits.

fork() vs. vfork()

```
/* ex fork.c */
                                            /* ex vfork.c */
                                            #define XOPEN SOURCE 500
                                            #include <stdio.h>
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
                                            #include <stdlib.h>
#include <sys/types.h>
                                            #include <sys/types.h>
#include <sys/wait.h>
                                            #include <sys/wait.h>
#include <unistd.h>
                                            #include <unistd.h>
                                            int main() {
int main() {
    int data = 10;
                                                int data = 10;
    pid t rc = fork()
                                                pid_t rc = vfork();
    if (rc == 0) { /* Child */
       data = 20;
                                                    data = 20;
       printf(" (Child) data: %d\n", data);
       exit(0);
                                                    exit(0);
    wait(NULL);
                                                    wait(NULL);
       printf("(Parent) data: %d\n", data);
```

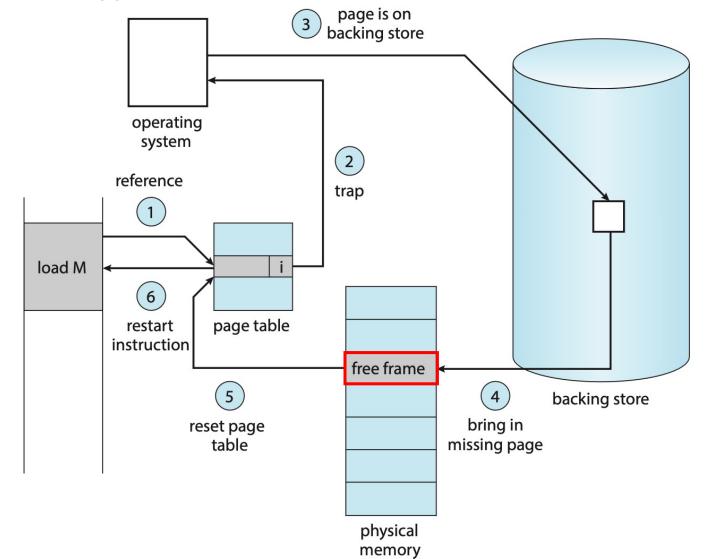
```
if (rc == 0) { /* Child */
   printf(" (Child) data: %d\n", data);
printf("(Parent) data: %d\n", data);
```

```
./ex fork
                                               $ ./ex vfork
 (Child) data: 20
                                                (Child) data: 20
(Parent) data: 10
                                               (Parent) data: 20
```



Demand Paging

What happens if there is no free frame?



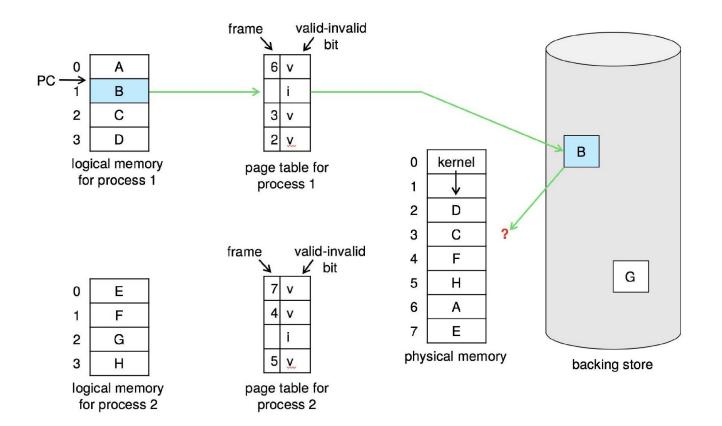


■ What can the OS do when there is no free frame?

- Option #1: Terminate the user process
 - ⇒ Not the best choice, as it destroys the purpose of Demand Paging
- Option #2: The OS could swap out a process (the entire process), freeing all its frames and reducing the level of multiprogramming
 - \Rightarrow A good option under certain circumstances
- Option #3: Make use of Page Replacement technique.
 - \Rightarrow The most **common** solution.

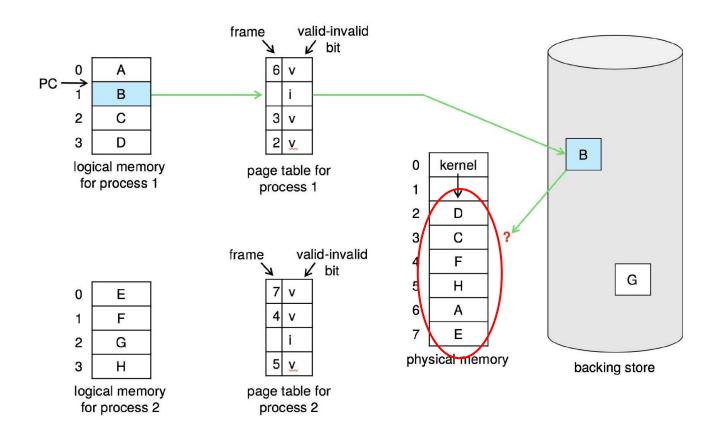


- What happens if there is no free frame?
 - ⇒ Page Replacement (页面置换)
 - Find some frame (victim frame) in memory that are not really in use
 - and then swap it out.



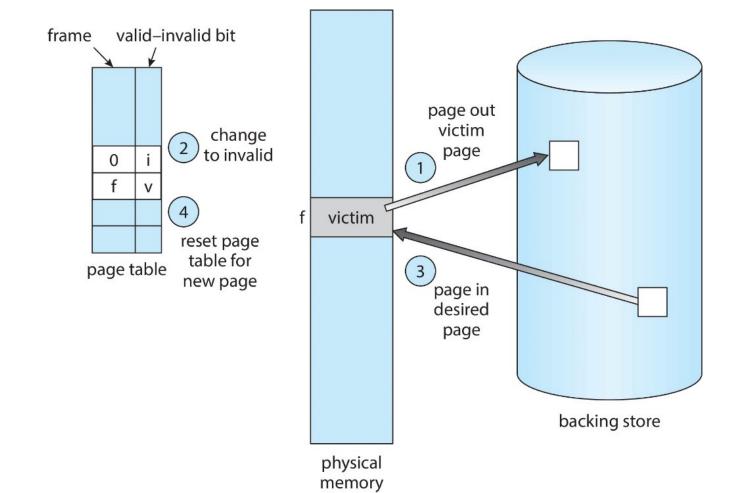


- What happens if there is no free frame?
 - ⇒ Page Replacement (页面置换)
 - The Question is: How to choose the victim frame?
 - ightharpoonup ightharpoonup Page Replacement Algorithms (more on this in the next lecture)





Steps in handling a Page Replacement.



- Steps in handling a Page Replacement.
 - 1. Find the location of the desired page/block on disk.
 - 2. Find a free frame:
 - frama. If there is a free frame, use it
 - b. If there is no free frame, use a page-replacement algorithm to select a victim frame.
 - c. Write the victim frame to secondary storage (if necessary); change the page and frame tables accordingly.
 - 3. Read the desired page into the newly freed frame; change the page and frame tables.
 - 4. Continue the process from where the page fault occurred.

backing store

- Steps in handling a Page Replacement.
 - 1. Find the location of the desired page/block on disk.
 - 2. Find a free frame:
 - a. If there is a free frame, use it
 - b. If there is no free frame, use a page-replacement algorithm to select a victim frame.
 - c. Write the victim frame to secondary storage (if necessary); change the page and frame tables accordingly.
 - 3. Read the desired page into the newly freed frame; change the page and frame tables.
 - 4. Continue the process from where the page fault occurred.

Notice that, if no frames are free, **two** page transfers (one for the page-out and one for the page-in) are required. This situation effectively **doubles** the page-fault service time and **increases** the effective access time accordingly.



The "Dirty" Bit

We can reduce this overhead (of page-out) by using a dirty bit (or modify bit) in the PTE.

Physical Frame Number	Free (OS)	0	PS	D	Α	PCD	PWT	U	W	Р
31-12	11-9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0

- The dirty bit for a page is set by the hardware whenever any byte in the page is written into, indicating that the page has been modified.
- Thus, when we select a victim page for replacement, we examine its dirty bit:
 - If the dirty bit is not set (0), it means this page has not been modified, thus we do not need to write the memory page (frame) into disk
 - If the dirty bit is set (1), which means that this page has been modified and we must write that page (frame) into disk.



Thank you!