

Memory Management & Disk Scheduling

Segmentation



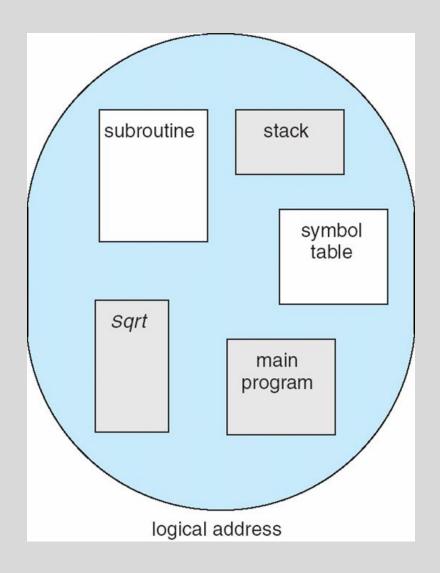
- Memory-management scheme that supports user view of memory
- A program is a collection of segments

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A segment is a logical unit such as:

main program
procedure
function
method
object
local variables, global variables
common block
stack
symbol table
arrays
```

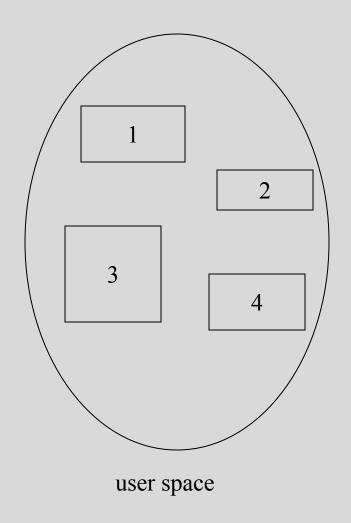
User's View of a Program





Logical View of Segmentation



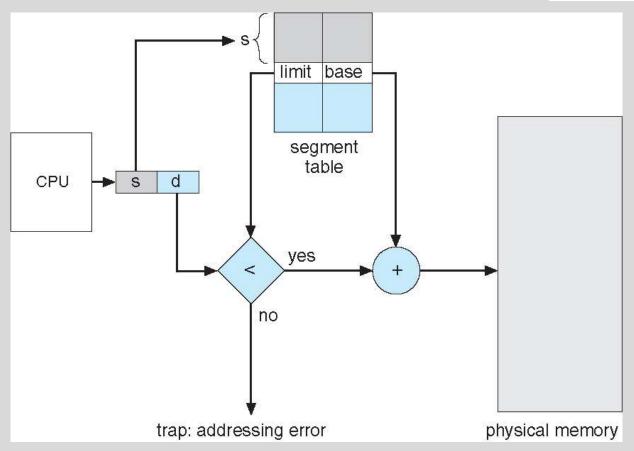




physical memory space

Segmentation Hardware





Paging



- Physical address space of a process can be noncontiguous; process is allocated physical memory whenever the latter is available
 - Avoids external fragmentation
 - Avoids problem of varying sized memory chunks
- Divide physical memory into fixed-sized blocks called frames
 - Size is power of 2, between 512 bytes and 16 Mbytes
- Divide logical memory into blocks of same size called pages
- Keep track of all free frames
- To run a program of size N pages, need to find N free frames and load program
- Set up a page table to translate logical to physical addresses
- Backing store likewise split into pages
- Still have Internal fragmentation

Address Translation Scheme



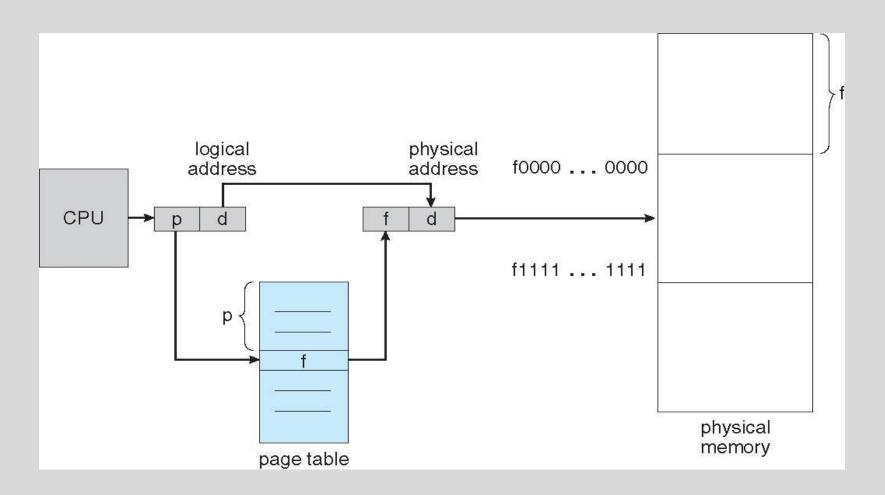
- Address generated by CPU is divided into:
 - Page number (p) used as an index into a page table which contains base address of each page in physical memory
 - Page offset (d) combined with base address to define the physical memory address that is sent to the memory unit

р	pag e	0	f
р	d		
m -	n		

For given logical address space 2^m and page size 2ⁿ

Paging Hardware



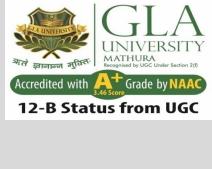


Paging Model of Logical and Physical Memory



	frame number	
page 0	0	
page 1	0 1 1 4	page 0
page 2	2 3 2	
page 3	page table 3	page 2
logical memory	4	page 1
	5	
	6	
	7	page 3
		physical memory

Paging Example

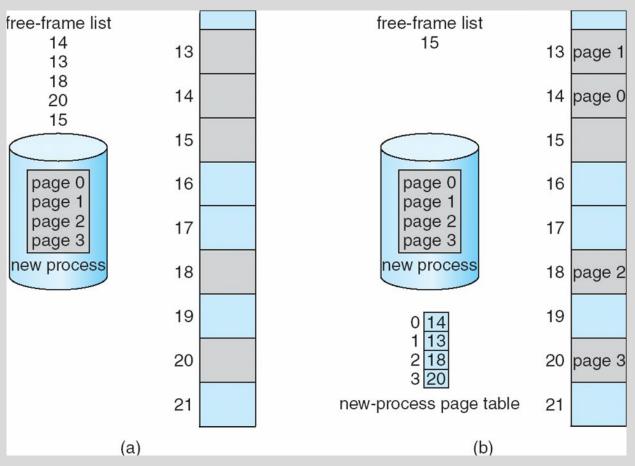


0 a 1 b 2 c 3 d 4 e 5 f 6 g 7 h 8 i	0 5 1 6	0 4 i j k	
9 j 10 k 11 l	2 1 3 2 page table	8 m n o p	
12 m 13 n 14 o 15 p		12	
logical memory		16	
		20 a b c d	
		24 e f g h	
		28	
		physical memo	ry

n=2 and m=4 32-byte memory and 4-byte pages

Free Frames





Before allocation

After allocation

Associative Memory

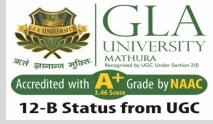


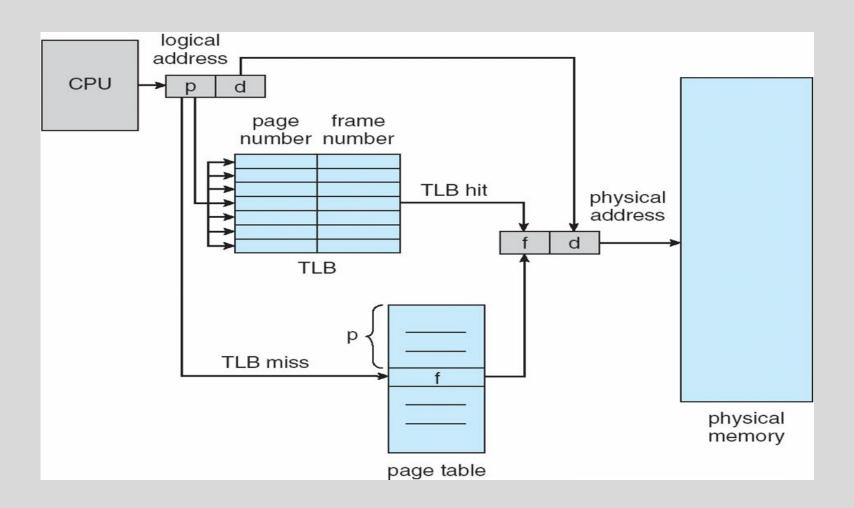
Associative memory – parallel search

Page #	Frame #	

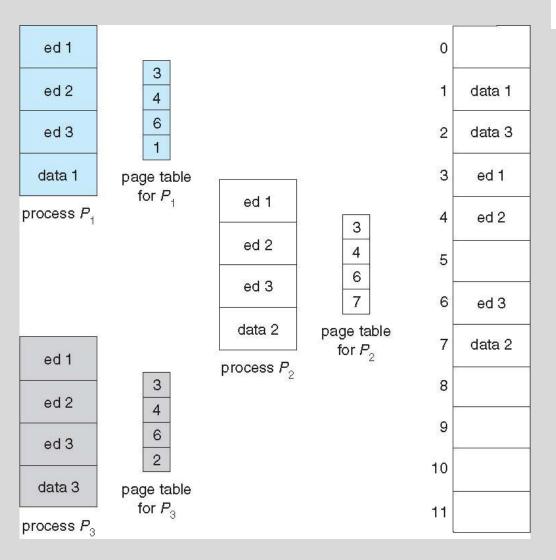
- Address translation (p, d)
 - If p is in associative register, get frame # out
 - Otherwise get frame # from page table in memory

Paging Hardware With TLB





Shared Pages Example





64-bit Logical Address Space



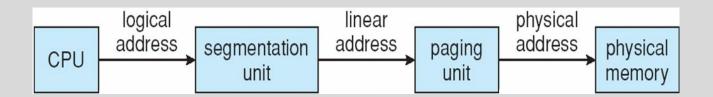
- Even two-level paging scheme not sufficient
- If page size is 4 KB (2¹²)
 - Then page table has 2⁵² entries
 - If two level scheme, inner page tables could be 2¹⁰ 4-byte entries
 - Address would look like

outer page	inner page	page offse
ρ_1	ρ_2	d
<u> </u>	10	P

- Outer page table has 2⁴² entries or 2⁴⁴ bytes
- One solution is to add a 2nd outer page table
- But in the following example the 2nd outer page table is still 2³⁴ bytes in size
 - And possibly 4 memory access to get to one physical memory location

Logical to Physical Address Translation in IA-32





page r	number	page offset
p_1	p_2	d
10	10	12

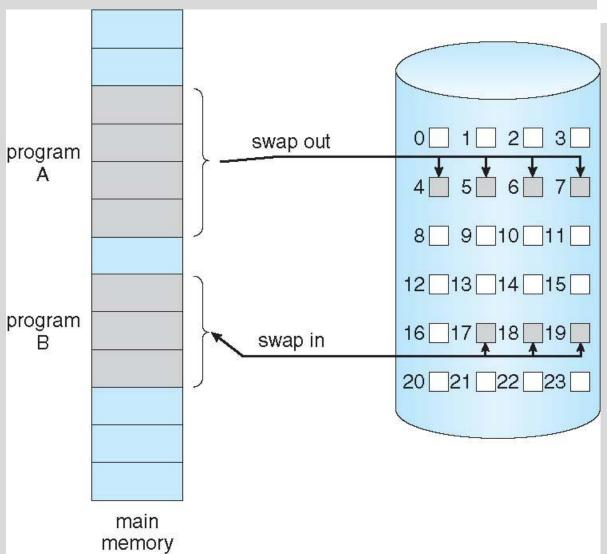


Demand Paging

- Bring a page into memory only when it is needed
 - Less I/O needed
 - Less memory needed
 - Faster response (no need to wait for all pages to load)
 - More users
- Page is needed ⇒ reference to it
 - invalid reference \Rightarrow abort
 - not-in-memory \Rightarrow bring to memory
- Lazy swapper never swaps a page into memory unless page will be needed
 - Swapper that deals with pages is a pager

Transfer of a Paged Memory to Contiguous Disk Space





Valid-Invalid Bit



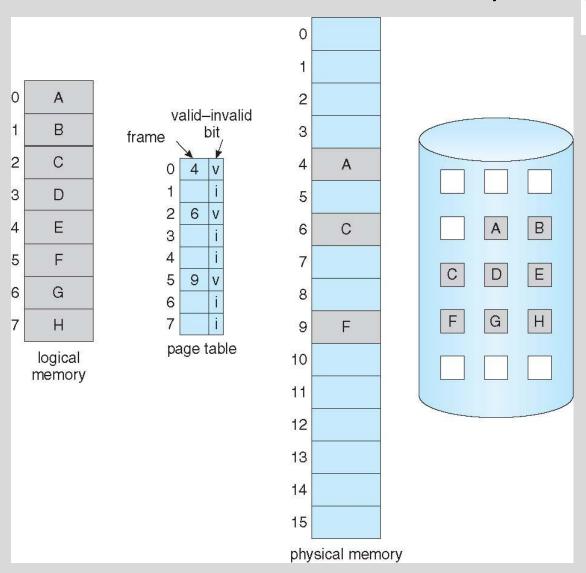
- With each page table entry a valid–invalid bit is associated ($\mathbf{v} \Rightarrow$ in-memory, $\mathbf{i} \Rightarrow$ not-in-memory)
- Initially valid—invalid bit is set to i on all entries
- Example of a page table snapshot:

Frame #	va	lid-invalid bit
	V	
	V	
	V	
	V	
	i	
	i	
	i	
page table		

During address translation, if valid—invalid bit in page table entry

is $I \Rightarrow$ page fault

Page Table When Some Pages Are Not in Main Memory







Page Fault

 If there is a reference to a page, first reference to that page will trap to operating system:

page fault

- 1. Operating system looks at another table to decide:
 - Invalid reference \Rightarrow abort
 - Just not in memory
- 2. Get empty frame
- 3. Swap page into frame
- 4. Reset tables
- 5. Set validation bit = v
- 6. Restart the instruction that caused the page fault

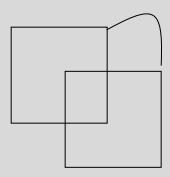


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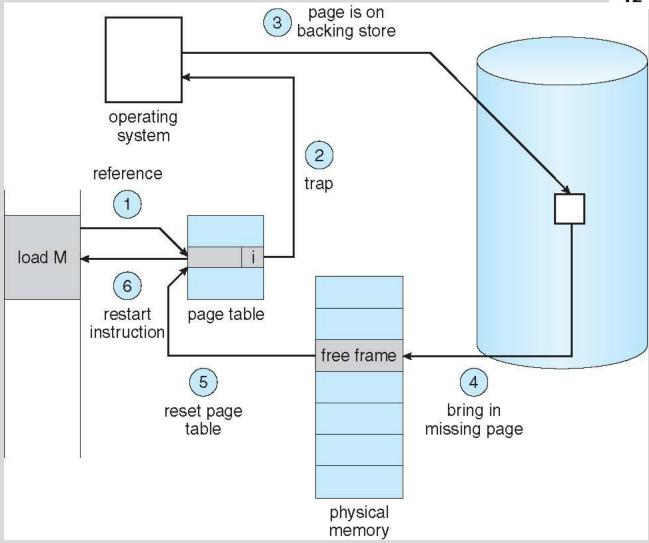
- Restart instruction
 - block move



auto increment/decrement location

Steps in Handling a Page Fault





Performance of Demand Paging



- Page Fault Rate $0 \le p \le 1.0$
 - if p = 0 no page faults
 - if p = 1, every reference is a fault
- Effective Access Time (EAT)

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EAT = (1 - p) x memory access
```

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

)

Process Creation



- Virtual memory allows other benefits during process creation:
 - Copy-on-Write
 - Memory-Mapped Files (later)

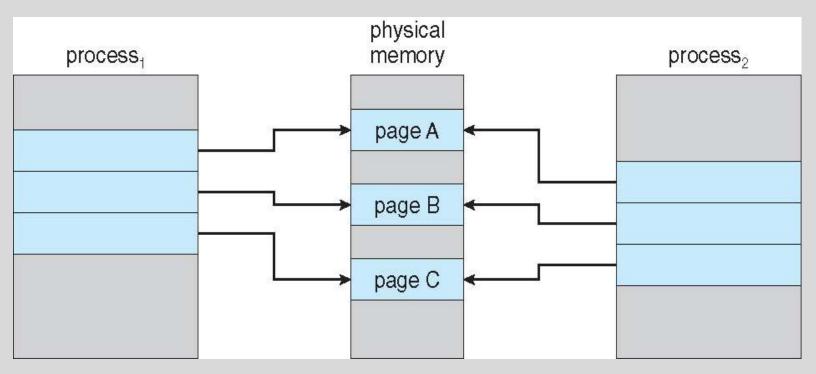


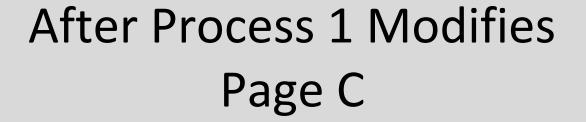
Copy-on-Write

- 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
- Free pages are allocated from a pool of zeroed-out pages

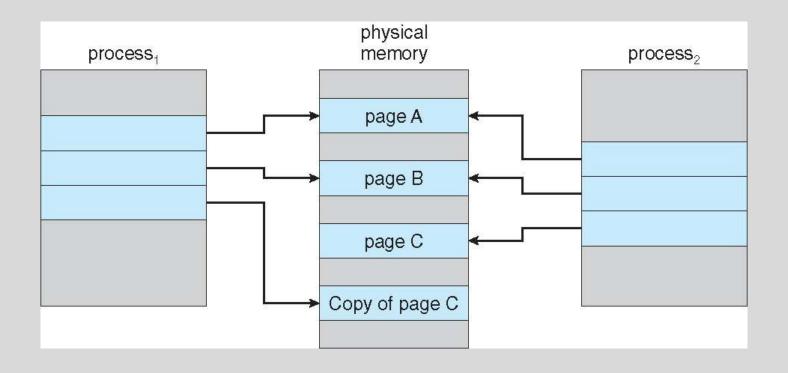
Before Process 1 Modifies Page C









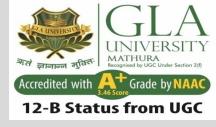


What happens if there is no free frame?



- Page replacement find some page in memory, but not really in use, swap it out
 - algorithm
 - performance want an algorithm which will result in minimum number of page faults
- Same page may be brought into memory several times

Page Replacement

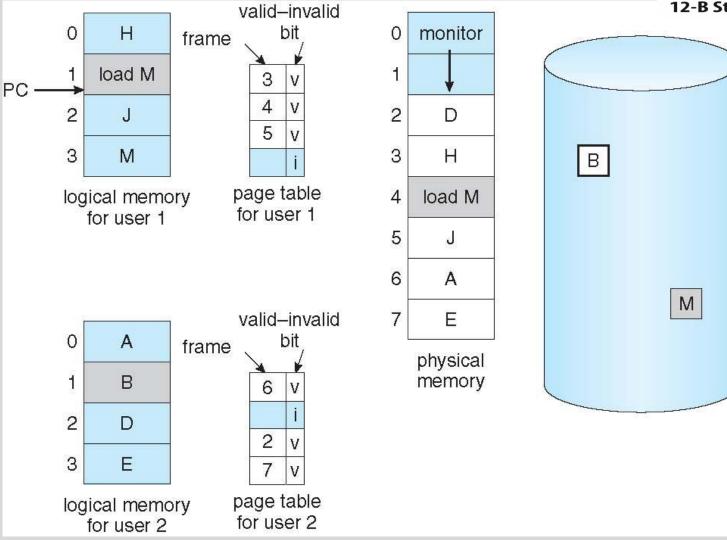


- Prevent over-allocation of memory by modifying page-fault service routine to include page replacement
- Use modify (dirty) bit to reduce overhead of page transfers – only modified pages are written to disk
- Page replacement completes separation between logical memory and physical memory – large virtual memory can be provided on a smaller physical memory

Need For Page Replacement







Basic Page Replacement

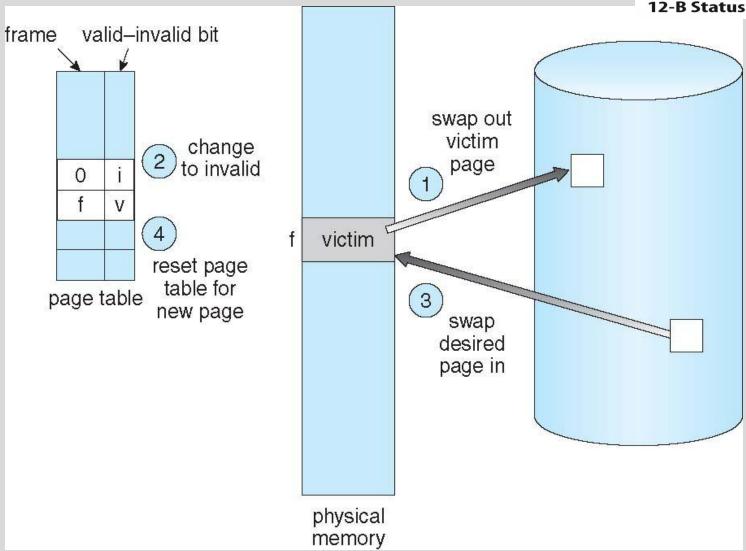


- 1. Find the location of the desired page on disk
- 2. Find a free frame:
 - If there is a free frame, use it
 - If there is no free frame, use a page replacement algorithm to select a victim frame
- 3. Bring the desired page into the (newly) free frame; update the page and frame tables
- 4. Restart the process

Page Replacement



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Page Replacement Algorithms

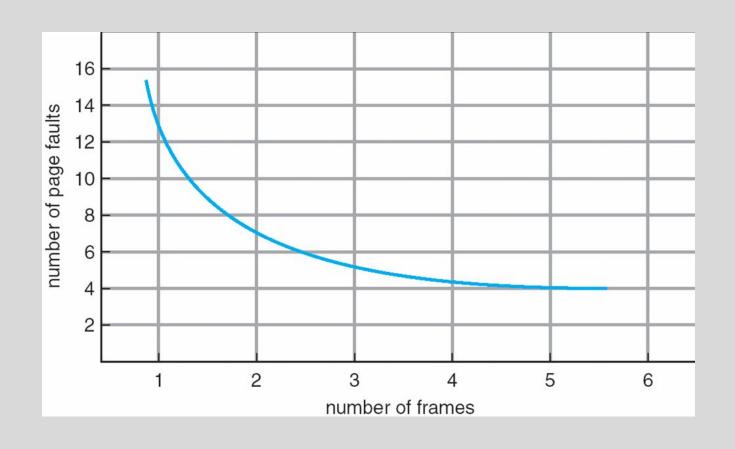


- Want lowest page-fault rate
- Evaluate algorithm by running it on a particular string of memory references (reference string) and computing the number of page faults on that string
- In all our examples, the reference string is

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

Graph of Expected Page Faults Versus The Number of Frames





First-In-First-Out (FIFO) Algorithm



Reference string: 1, 2, 3, 4, 1, 2, 5, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5

3 frames (3 pages can be in memory at a time per

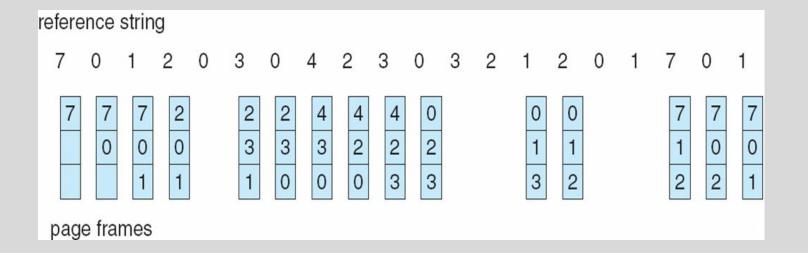
process)

4 frames

• Belady's Anomaly: more frames \Rightarrow more page faults

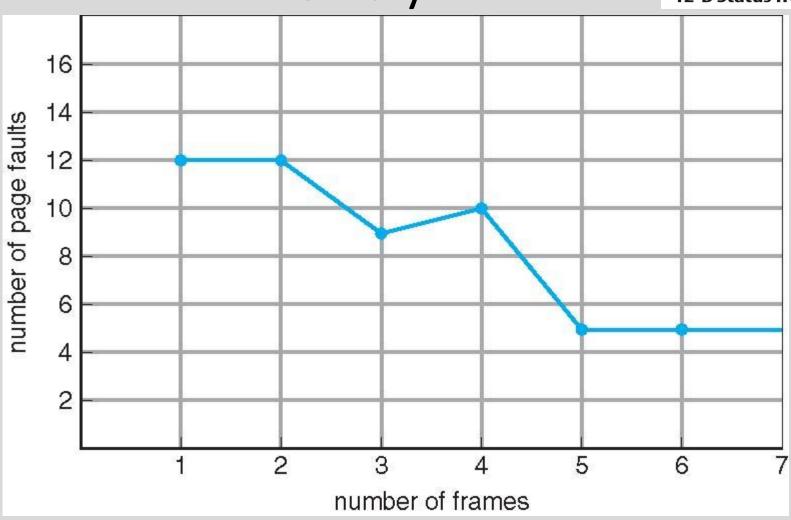
FIFO Page Replacement





FIFO Illustrating Belady's Anomaly

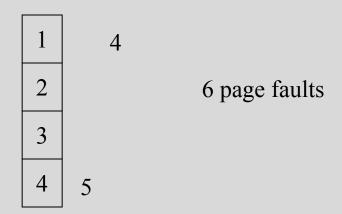




Optimal Algorithm

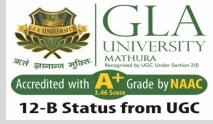


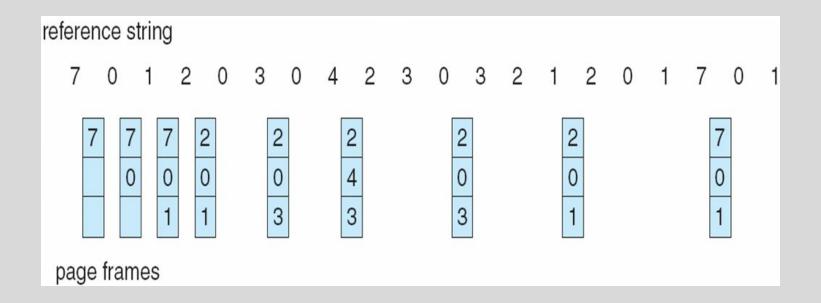
- Replace page that will not be used for longest period of time
- 4 frames example



- How do you know this?
- Used for measuring how well your algorithm performs

Optimal Page Replacement





Least Recently Used (LRU) Algorithm



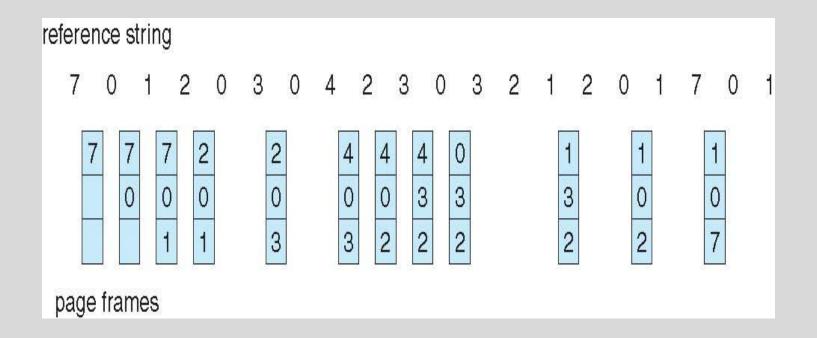
Reference string: 1, 2, 3, 4, 1, 2, 5, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5

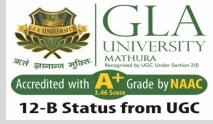
1	1	1	1	5
2	2	2	2	2
3	5	5	4	4
4	4	3	3	3

- Counter implementation
 - Every page entry has a counter; every time page is referenced through this entry, copy the clock into the counter
 - When a page needs to be changed, look at the counters to determine which are to change

LRU Page Replacement





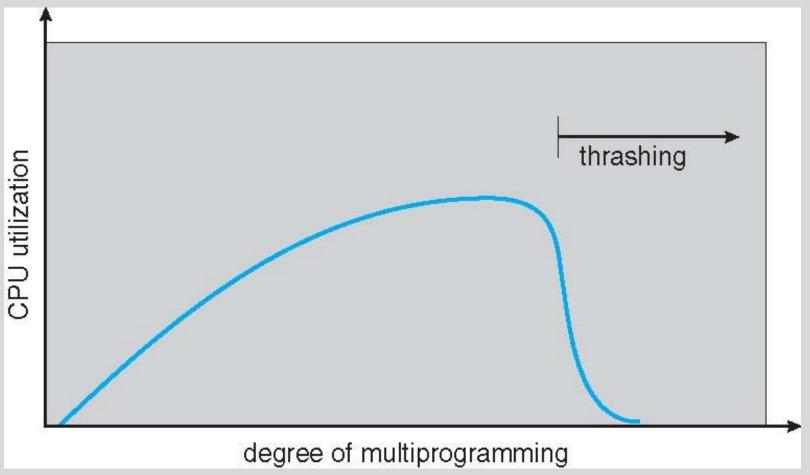


Thrashing

- If a process does not have "enough" pages, the page-fault rate is very high. This leads to:
 - low CPU utilization
 - operating system thinks that it needs to increase the degree of multiprogramming
 - another process added to the system
- Thrashing ≡ a process is busy swapping pages in and out

Thrashing (Cont.)







Disk Structure

- Disk drives are addressed as large 1-dimensional arrays of *logical blocks*, where the logical block is the smallest unit of transfer.
- The 1-dimensional array of logical blocks is mapped into the sectors of the disk sequentially.
 - Sector 0 is the first sector of the first track on the outermost cylinder.
 - Mapping proceeds in order through that track, then the rest of the tracks in that cylinder, and then through the rest of the cylinders from outermost to innermost.



Disk Scheduling (Cont.)

- Several algorithms exist to schedule the servicing of disk I/O requests.
- We illustrate them with a request queue (0-199).

98, 183, 37, 122, 14, 124, 65, 67

Head pointer 53



FCFS

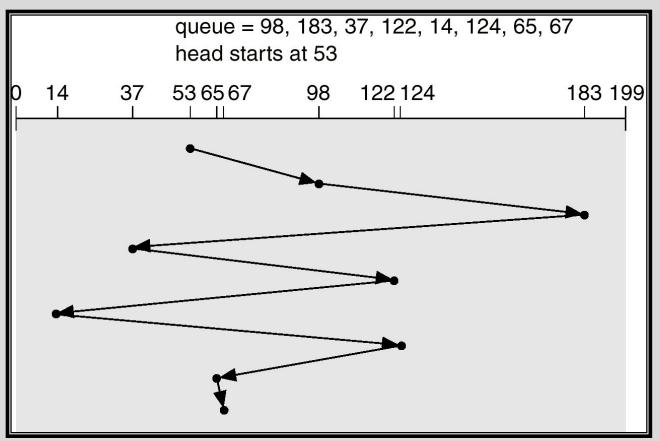


Illustration shows total head movement of 640 cylinders.

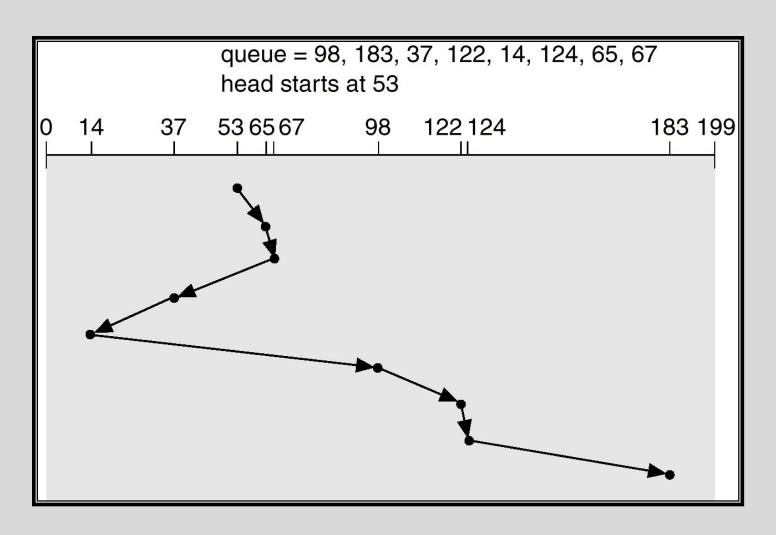
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SSTF

- Selects the request with the minimum seek time from the current head position.
- SSTF scheduling is a form of SJF scheduling;
 may cause starvation of some requests.
- Illustration shows total head movement of 236 cylinders.



SSTF (Cont.)



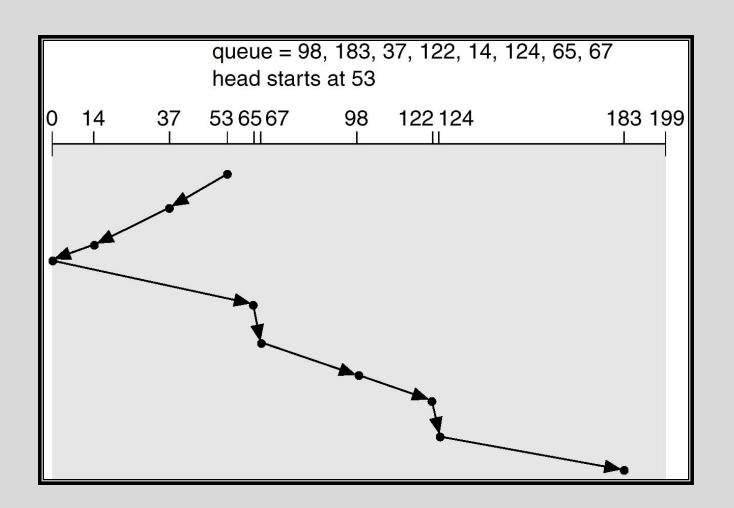


SCAN

- The disk arm starts at one end of the disk, and moves toward the other end, servicing requests until it gets to the other end of the disk, where the head movement is reversed and servicing continues.
- Sometimes called the elevator algorithm.
- Illustration shows total head movement of 208 cylinders.



SCAN (Cont.)



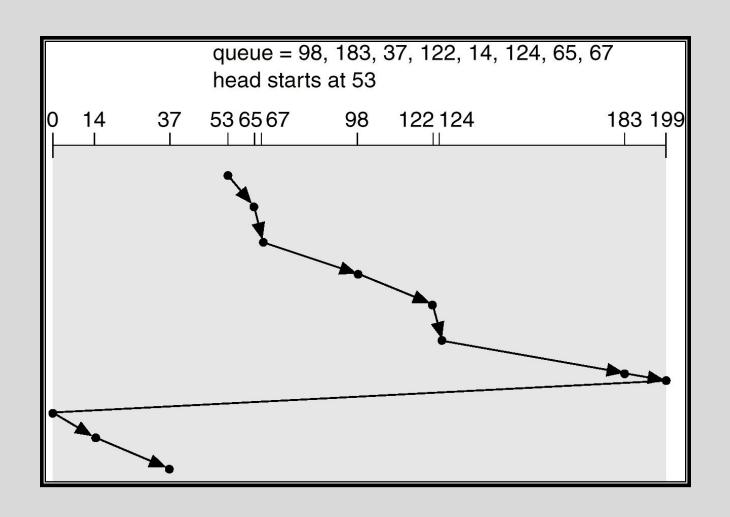


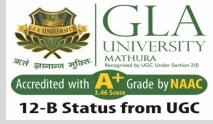
C-SCAN

- Provides a more uniform wait time than SCAN.
- The head moves from one end of the disk to the other. servicing requests as it goes. When it reaches the other end, however, it immediately returns to the beginning of the disk, without servicing any requests on the return trip.
- Treats the cylinders as a circular list that wraps around from the last cylinder to the first one.



C-SCAN (Cont.)



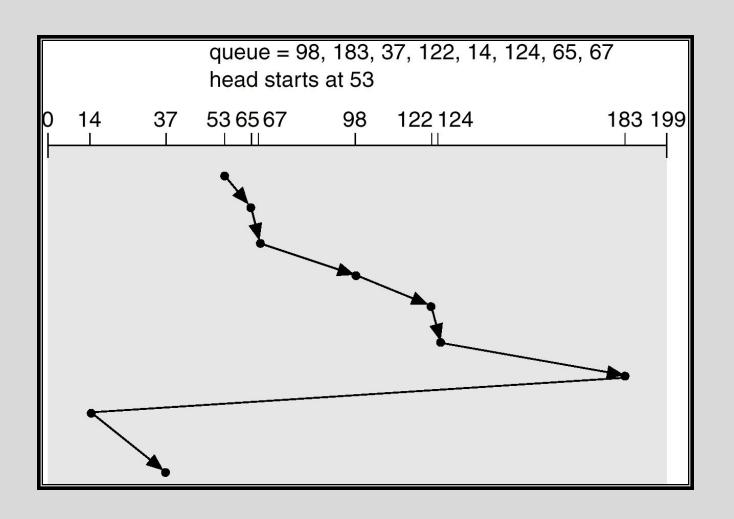


C-LOOK

- Version of C-SCAN
- Arm only goes as far as the last request in each direction, then reverses direction immediately, without first going all the way to the end of the disk.



C-LOOK (Cont.)





Selecting a Disk-Scheduling Algorithm

- SSTF is common and has a natural appeal
- SCAN and C-SCAN perform better for systems that place a heavy load on the disk.
- Performance depends on the number and types of requests.
- Requests for disk service can be influenced by the file-allocation method.
- The disk-scheduling algorithm should be written as a separate module of the operating system, allowing it to be replaced with a different algorithm if necessary.
- Either SSTF or LOOK is a reasonable choice for the default algorithm.

