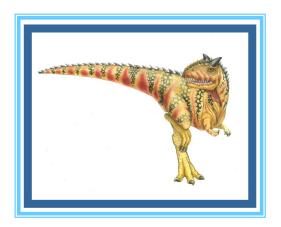
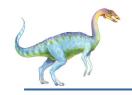
Chapter 10: Virtual Memory

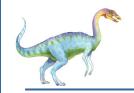




Chapter 10: Virtual Memory

- Background
- Demand Paging
- Page Replacement
- Allocation of Frames
- Thrashing

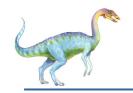




Objectives

- 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.
- Describe the working set of a process, and explain how it is related to program locality.

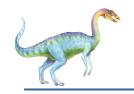




Background

- 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
- Consider ability to execute partially-loaded program
 - Program no longer constrained by limits of physical memory
 - 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
 - Less I/O needed to load or swap programs into memory -> each user program runs faster





Virtual memory

- Virtual memory separation of user 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
 - More programs running concurrently
 - Less I/O needed to load or swap processes





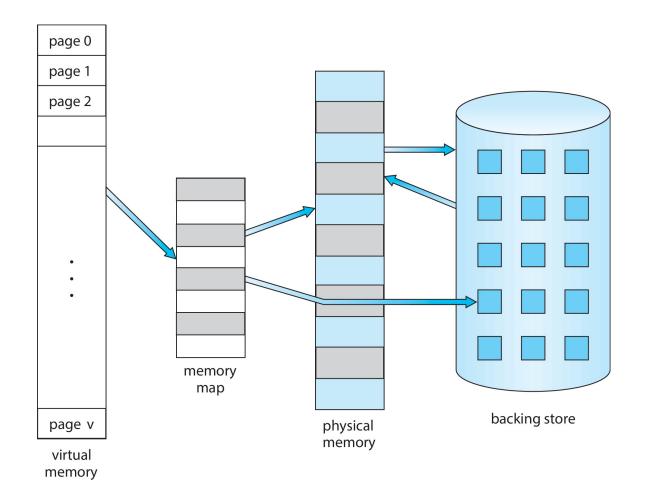
Virtual memory (Cont.)

- 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 Memory That is Larger Than Physical Memory

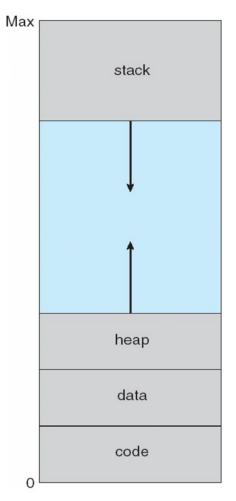






Virtual-address Space

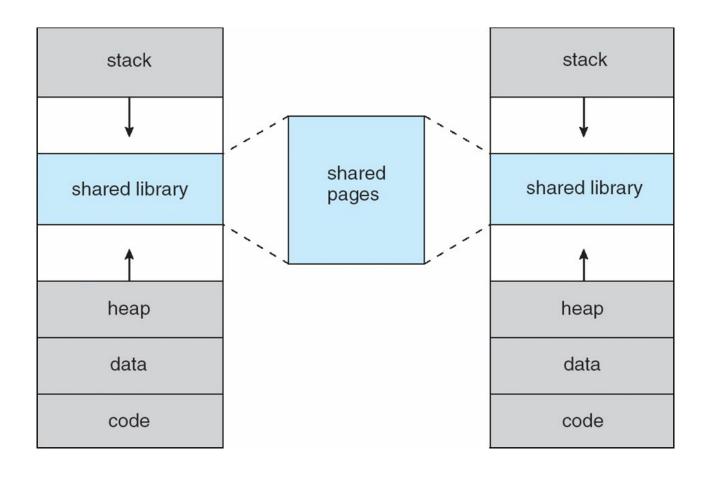
- Usually design logical address space for stack to start at Max logical address and grow "down" while heap grows "up"
 - Maximizes address space use
 - Unused address space between the two is hole
 - No physical memory needed until heap or stack grows to a given new page
- Enables sparse address spaces with holes left for growth, dynamically linked libraries, etc
- System libraries shared via mapping into virtual address space
- Shared memory by mapping pages readwrite into virtual address space







Shared Library Using Virtual Memory



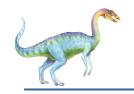




Demand Paging

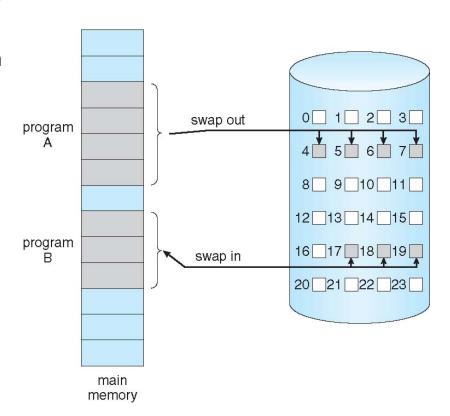
- Could bring entire process into memory at load time
- Or bring a page into memory only when it is needed
 - Less I/O needed, no unnecessary I/O
 - Less memory needed
 - Faster response
 - More users
- Similar to paging system with swapping
- □ Page is needed ⇒ reference to it
 - □ invalid reference ⇒ 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





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 unnecessaryI/O
 - Less memory needed
 - Faster response
 - More users
- Similar to paging system with swapping (diagram on right)







Valid-Invalid Bit

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

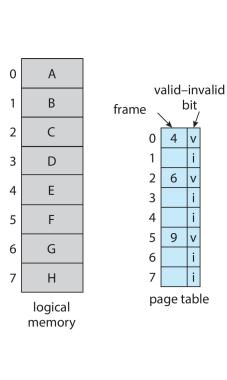
F	rame #	valid-i	nvalid bit
		V	
18	9	V	
-	-	V	
		i	
		i	
		i	
page table			

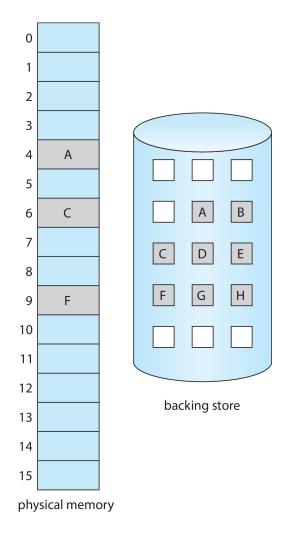
During MMU address translation, if valid–invalid bit in page table entry is i ⇒ page fault

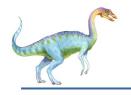




Page Table When Some Pages Are Not in Main Memory







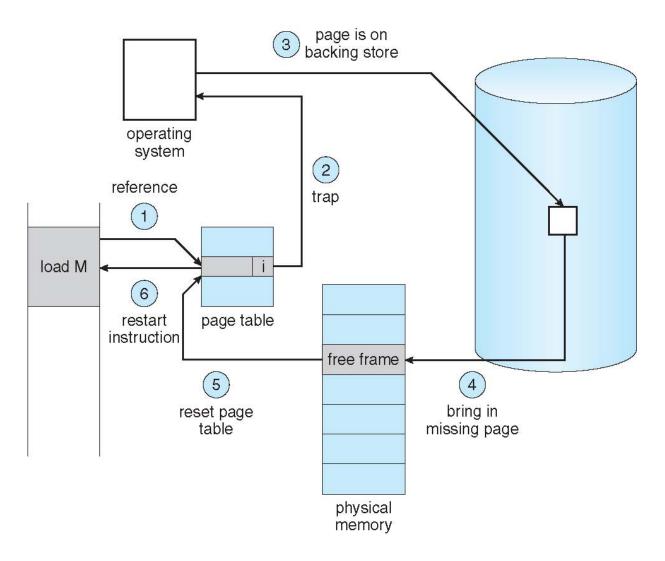
Steps in Handling Page Fault

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





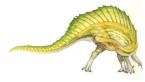
Steps in Handling a Page Fault (Cont.)

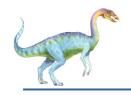




Aspects of Demand Paging

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





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:
 - 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





Stages in Demand Paging (Cont.)

- 6. While waiting, allocate the CPU to some other user
- 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





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
- □ Page Fault Probability $0 \le p \le 1$

 - 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 =
$$(1 - p) \times 200 + p (8 \text{ milliseconds})$$

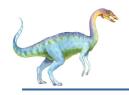
= $(1 - p \times 200 + p \times 8,000,000$
= $200 + p \times 7,999,800$

☐ 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!!

- ☐ If want performance degradation < 10 percent
 - 220 > 200 + 7,999,800 x p20 > 7,999,800 x p
 - p < .000025
 - < one page fault in every 400,000 memory accesses</p>

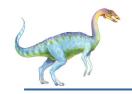




What Happens if There is no Free Frame?

- 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





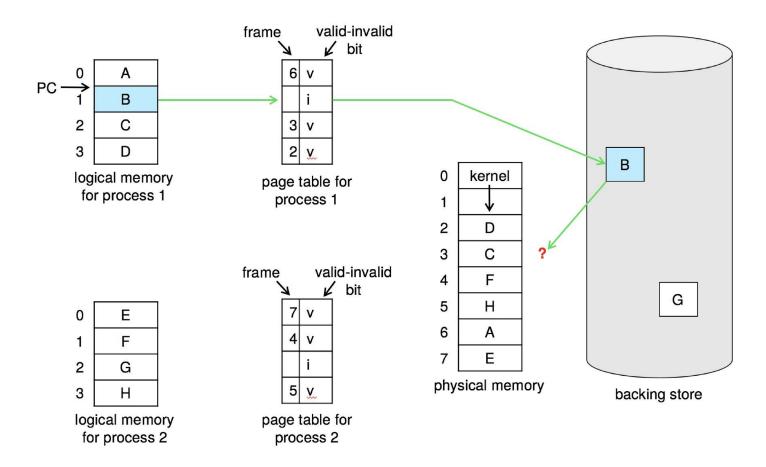
Page Replacement

- 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

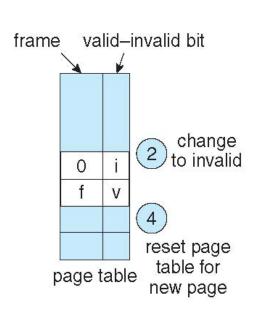
- 1. Find the location of the desired page on disk
- Find a free frame:
 - If there is a free frame, use it
 - If there is no free frame, use a page replacement algorithm to select a victim frame
 - Write victim frame to disk if dirty
- 3. Bring the desired page into the (newly) free frame; update the page and frame tables
- Continue the process by restarting the instruction that caused the trap

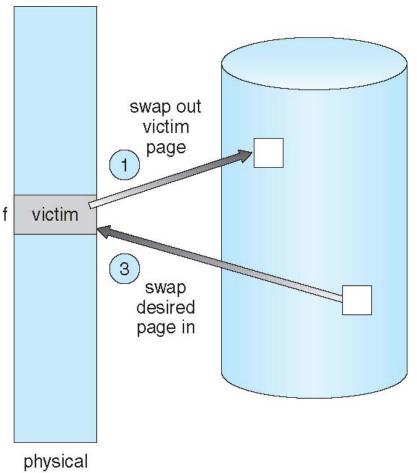
Note now potentially 2 page transfers for page fault – increasing EAT





Page Replacement





memory





Page and Frame Replacement Algorithms

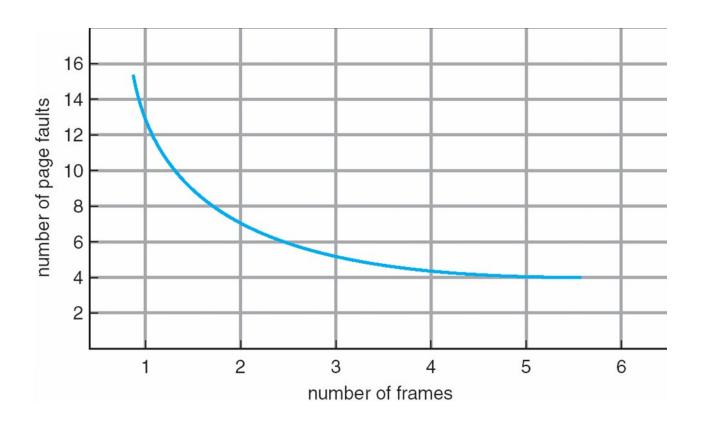
- □ Frame-allocation algorithm determines
 - How many frames to give each process
 - Which frames to replace
- □ Page-replacement algorithm
 - Want lowest page-fault rate on both first access and re-access
- Evaluate algorithm by running it on a particular string of memory references (reference string) and computing the number of page faults on that string
 - String is just page numbers, not full addresses
 - Repeated access to the same page does not cause a page fault
 - Results depend on number of frames available
- In all our examples, the reference string of referenced page numbers is

7,0,1,2,0,3,0,4,2,3,0,3,0,3,2,1,2,0,1,7,0,1

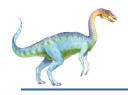




Graph of Page Faults Versus The Number of Frames







First-In-First-Out (FIFO) Algorithm

- Reference string: 7,0,1,2,0,3,0,4,2,3,0,3,0,3,2,1,2,0,1,7,0,1
- □ 3 frames (3 pages can be in memory at a time per process)

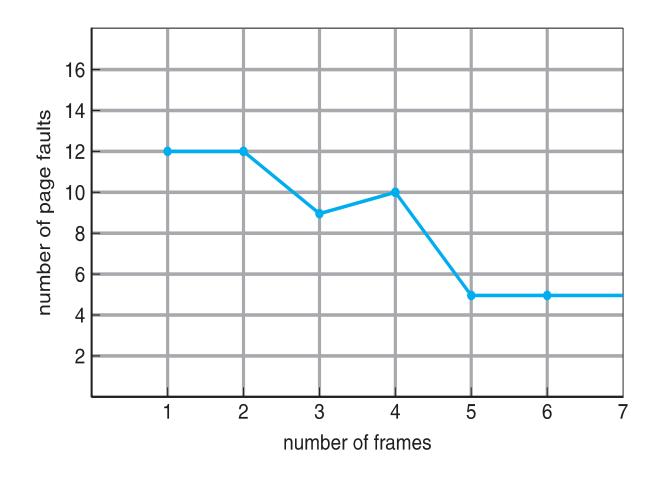
15 page faults\

- □ Can vary by reference string: consider 1,2,3,4,1,2,5,1,2,3,4,5
 - Adding more frames can cause more page faults!
 - Belady's Anomaly
- How to track ages of pages?
 - Just use a FIFO queue

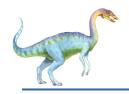




FIFO Illustrating Belady's Anomaly

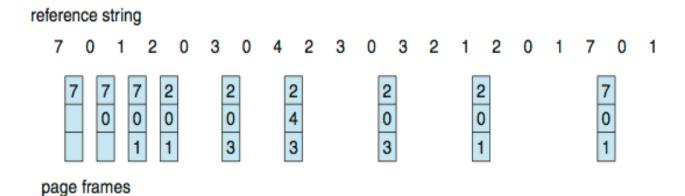






Optimal Algorithm

- Replace page that will not be used for longest period of time
 - 9 is optimal for the example
- How do you know this?
 - Can't read the future
- Used for measuring how well your algorithm performs

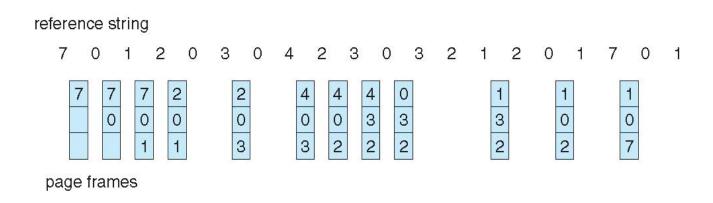






Least Recently Used (LRU) Algorithm

- Use past knowledge rather than future
- Replace page that has not been used in the most amount of time
- Associate time of last use with each page



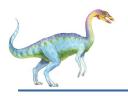
- □ 12 faults better than FIFO but worse than OPT
- Generally good algorithm and frequently used
- □ But how to implement?





LRU Algorithm (Cont.)

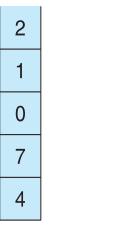
- Counter implementation
 - Every page entry has a counter; every time page is referenced through this entry, copy the clock into the counter
 - When a page needs to be changed, look at the counters to find smallest value
 - Search through table needed
- Stack implementation
 - Keep a stack of page numbers in a double link form:
 - Page referenced:
 - move it to the top
 - requires 6 pointers to be changed
 - But each update more expensive
 - No search for replacement
- LRU and OPT are cases of stack algorithms that don't have Belady's Anomaly



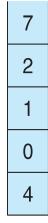
Use Of A Stack to Record Most Recent Page References

reference string



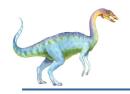


stack before a



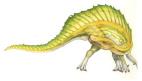
stack after b





LRU Approximation Algorithms

- LRU needs special hardware and still slow
- □ Reference bit
 - With each page associate a bit, initially = 0
 - When page is referenced bit set to 1
 - Replace any with reference bit = 0 (if one exists)
 - We do not know the order, however
- 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



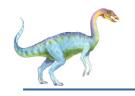
next victim



circular queue of pages

(a)





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 Algorithms

- Keep a counter of the number of references that have been made to each page
 - Not common
- Least Frequently Used (LFU) Algorithm: replaces page with smallest count
- Most Frequently Used (MFU) Algorithm: based on the argument that the page with the smallest count was probably just brought in and has yet to be used





Allocation of Frames

- Each process needs *minimum* number of frames
- 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

$$-s_i$$
 = size of process p_i

$$-S = \sum s_i$$

$$-m = total number of frames$$

$$-a_i = \text{allocation for } p_i = \frac{s_i}{S} \times m$$

$$m = 62$$

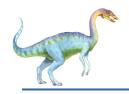
$$s_1 = 10$$

$$s_2 = 127$$

$$a_1 = \frac{10}{137} \times 62 \approx 5$$

$$a_1 = \frac{127}{137} \times 62 \approx 57$$

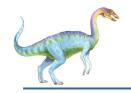




Global vs. Local Allocation

- □ 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
 - 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

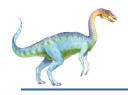




Thrashing

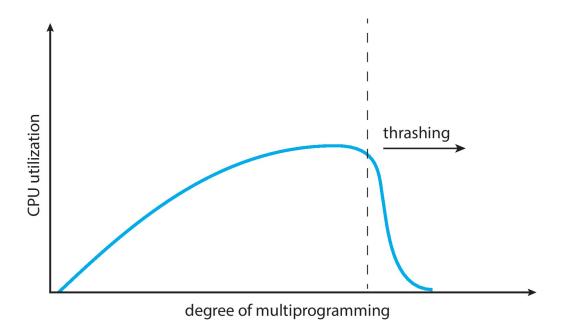
- ☐ If a process does not have "enough" pages, the page-fault rate is very high
 - Page fault to get page
 - Replace existing frame
 - But quickly need replaced frame back
 - This leads to:
 - Low CPU utilization
 - Operating system thinking that it needs to increase the degree of multiprogramming
 - Another process added to the system





Thrashing (Cont.)

Thrashing. A process is busy swapping pages in and out







Demand Paging and Thrashing

Why does demand paging work?

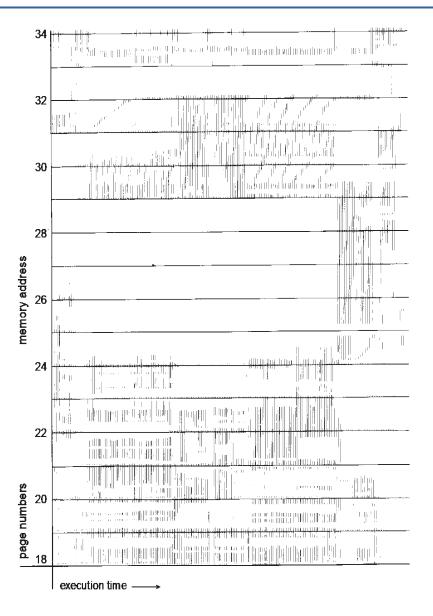
Locality model

- Process migrates from one locality to another
- Localities may overlap
- Why does thrashing occur?
 - Σ size of locality > total memory size
- Limit effects by using local or priority page replacement





Locality In A Memory-Reference Pattern



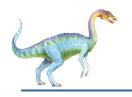




Working-Set Model

- Δ = working-set window = a fixed number of page references Example: 10,000 instructions
- □ WSS_i (working set of Process P_i) = total number of pages referenced in the most recent Δ (varies in time)
 - \square if \triangle too small will not encompass entire locality
 - \square if \triangle too large will encompass several localities
 - □ if $\Delta = \infty \Rightarrow$ will encompass entire program
- \square $D = \Sigma WSS_i \equiv \text{total demand frames}$
 - Approximation of locality



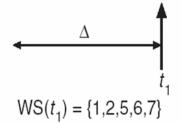


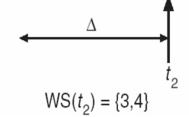
Working-Set Model (Cont.)

- □ if $D > m \Rightarrow$ Thrashing
- □ Policy if *D* > m, then suspend or swap out one of the processes

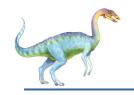
page reference table

... 2615777751623412344434344413234443444...



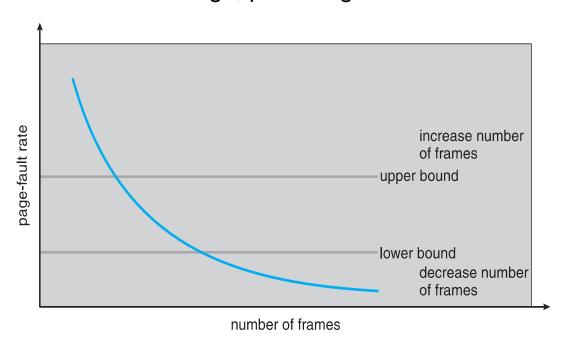






Page-Fault Frequency

- More direct approach than WSS
- Establish "acceptable" page-fault frequency (PFF) rate and use local replacement policy
 - If actual rate too low, process loses frame
 - If actual rate too high, process gains frame





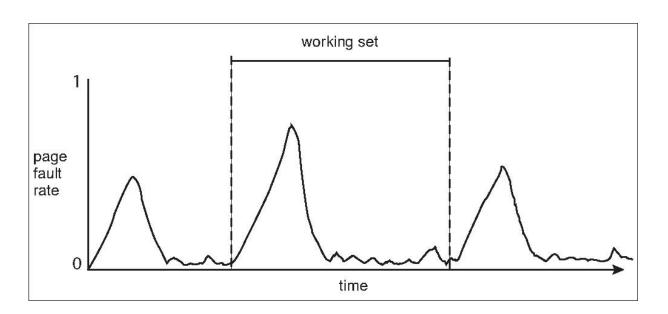


Working Sets and Page Fault Rates

Direct relationship between working set of a process and its pagefault rate

Working set changes over time

Peaks and valleys over time





End of Chapter 10

