



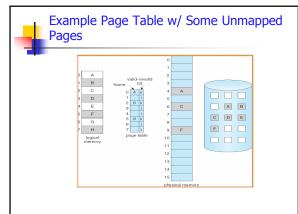
Demand Paging

- Bring a page into memory only when it is needed
 - Less I/O needed
 - Less memory needed
 - Faster response
 - Higher degree of multiprogramming
- Page is needed ⇒ a reference is made to it
 - invalid reference ⇒ abort
 - not-in-memory ⇒ bring to memory
- Lazy swapping never swaps a page into memory unless page will be needed
 - Swapper that deals with pages is a pager



Page Validation

- Each page table entry has a valid/invalid bit
 - Used to indicate whether or not a page is in memory
 - Let v ⇒ in-memory, i ⇒ not-in-memory
 - NOTE: Some architectures refer to the valid bit as a "present" bit
 - Initially valid-invalid bit is set to i on all entries





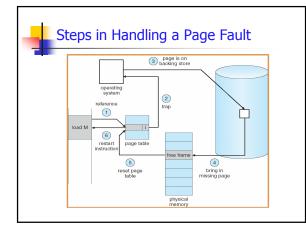
Page Faults

- If a process executes and accesses all pages in memory (i.e., all memory references are to valid pages), execution proceeds normally
- If a process tries to access a page, P, not in memory:
 - Paging hardware will notice invalid bit for P when translating an address via the active page table
 - This causes a page fault trap to the OS



Handling Page Faults

- OS checks info in the process control block (PCB) for the current process causing the page fault, to determine whether or not the memory reference was within the process's address space
 - PCB has info about the contiguous virtual memory areas making up the process's address space
 - If reference was to an address outside process's address space, the process is terminated (a memory protection fault)
 - If reference was within process's address space but page is not in memory, page is mapped to a free frame
 - The page table is updated with a valid entry for the page that faulted • Info about the contiguous VM areas of the process are
 - updated as necessary
 - The instruction that caused the page fault is restarted as though it had always been in memory





Performance of Demand Paging

- Let $p = \Pr\{\text{page fault}\} \mid 0 \le p \le 1.0$
 - if p = 0 no page faults
 - if p = 1, every reference is a fault
- Effective Access Time (EAT)

EAT = (1 - p) x memory access + p (page fault overhead incl. time to swap page out, time to swap page in, & time to restart instruction)



Demand Paging Example

- Memory access time = 200 nanoseconds (nS)
- Average page-fault service time = 8 milliseconds
- EAT = $(1 p) \times 200 + p$ (8 milliseconds) = $(1 - p) \times 200 + p \times 8000000$ nS = $200 + p \times 7999800$ nS
- If one access out of 1000 causes a page fault, then EAT = 8.2 microseconds

This is a slowdown by a factor of about 40

Need to keep page fault rate low



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

- To do this, pages have a read-only bit set that causes a trap to the kernel when either parent or child attempts to write to the corresponding page
- COW allows more efficient process creation as only modified pages are copied



Page Replacement 1/2

- The story so far: page-based memory...
 - eliminates external fragmentation
 - enables virtual memory to be larger than physical memory
 - provides memory protection for different address spaces (at granularity of a page)
- To maintain efficient use of CPU, it is desirable to have a high degree of multiprogramming
- Increasing degree of multiprogramming increases the # of processes at least partially loaded in memory
 - Nearly all physical memory may be in use
 - If a process requires a page to be loaded into memory (e.g., due to demand paging), there might not be any free frames
 - In this case, on a page fault, the OS must replace an existing page in memory



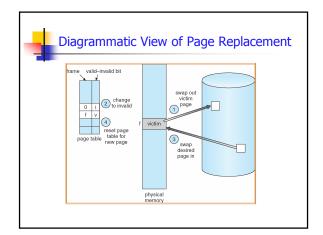
Page Replacement 2/2

- Prevent over-allocation of memory by modifying page-fault service routine to include page replacement
- Use modified (dirty) bit to reduce overhead of page transfers – only modified pages are written to disk to free up space for new pages



Basic Page Replacement Approach

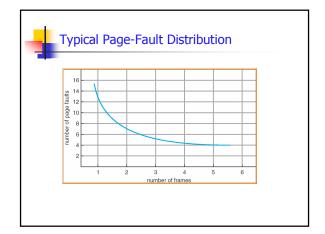
- Find the location of the desired page on disk
- Find a free frame:
 - If there is a free frame, use it
 - If there is no free frame, use a page replacement algorithm to select a victim frame
- Bring the desired page into one of the free frames
- Update the page and frame tables accordingly
- Restart the process





Page Replacement Algorithms

- Want lowest page-fault rate
- Evaluate algorithm by running it on a particular string of memory references and computing the number of page faults on that string
 - For simplicity, a reference string will refer to a series of page numbers corresponding to the virtual memory addresses being referenced





First-In-First-Out (FIFO) Algorithm

- OS maintains a queue (for all currently loaded) pages based on the time they are brought into memory
- Oldest page is at the head of the queue & newest is at the back
 - When a page is replaced, it is taken from the front of the queue
- FIFO replacement can suffer from Belady's Anomaly
 - more frames ⇒ more page faults



Example FIFO Page Replacement

- Reference string:
 - **1**, 2, 3, 4, 1, 2, 5, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5
 - 3 frames:

1 4

2 1 3 9 page faults

3 2 4

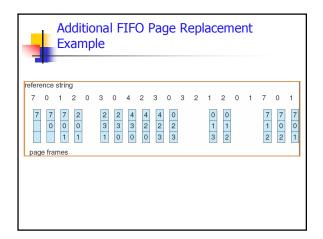
4 frames:

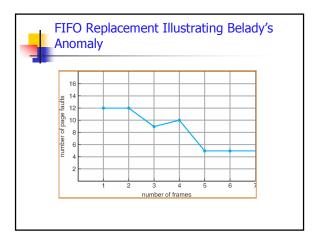
1 5 4

1 5 10 page faults

3 2

4 3

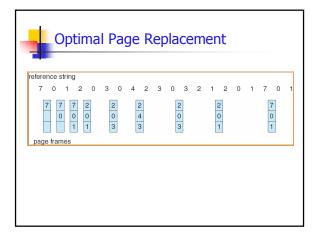






Optimal Algorithm

- Achieves lowest page fault rate
- Aim: replace the page that will not be used for the longest period of time (i.e., whose next reference is furthest in the *future*)
- Problem: Optimal algorithm requires future knowledge of memory, and hence, page references which is not usually possible to know
- If we use the recent past to predict the future, then we can replace the page that has not been used for the longest time
 - Least recently used (LRU) replacement

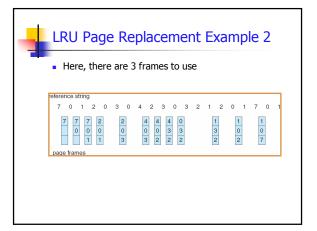




LRU Page Replacement Example 1

- Let there be 4 frames to use
- 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





LRU Implementation 1/2

- (1) Counter implementation:
 - A logical clock (or counter) is incremented every memory reference
 - Each page has a "time of use" field
 - The "time of use" field is updated with the counter value when the page is referenced
 - The page to replace is the one with the lowest counter value
 - Problems:
 - counter overflow
 - must search the counter values for every page to determine lowest counter value

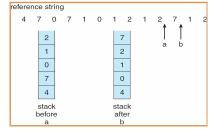


LRU Implementation 2/2

- (2) Stack implementation:
- keep a stack of page numbers for all loaded pages
 - Most recently referenced page is removed from the stack and placed on top of the same stack
 - Over time, the page at the bottom of the stack is the LRU page
- Problems: rearranging the stack can require more overhead than the counter to keep track of page references
- Both stack- and counter-based LRU implementations require h/w assistance in practice, since memory references can be in the multiple millions per second



Example Stack Implementation





LRU Approximation

- With limited hardware support many computer systems implement alternatives, or approximations, to LRU
 - Some systems use a reference bit (for each page) set by the hardware when the page is referenced
 - Can replace a page whose reference bit is not set (if one exists)
 - ...but this loses historical ordering info about page references

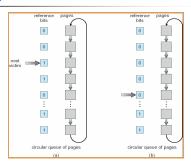


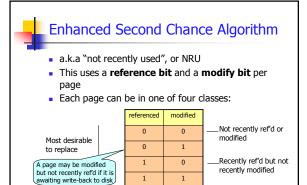
Second Chance (Clock) Algorithm

- Like FIFO replacement but first check the reference bit of a page
 - If bit=0, replace page
 - If bit=1, clear bit and check next page
 - This gives page a "second chance" to stay in memory
 - Worst-case: all bits are 1 for all pages in memory
 - Here, we cycle through all pages, clearing their reference bits, and return to the first page in the cycle (which is replaced)



Second-Chance (Clock) Page Replacement Algorithm







Counter Algorithms

- Using multiple reference bits (e.g., 8) for each page in memory, we can approximate a finite history of references
 - At regular intervals (e.g., 100mS) a timer interrupt causes the OS to right-shift by 1-bit an n-bit counter for each page, and then insert the reference bit of that page into the most significant bit of the counter
 - · Least significant bits are discarded
 - e.g. 1, if counter = 00000000 page has not been ref'd for last eight clock intervals
 - e.g. 2, a page with counter=10001100 has been more recently ref'd than one page with counter 01111111



Counter Algorithm Variants

- **LFU** replace page with smallest counter value
 - Problem?
 - A page might be referenced frequently and then not at all but may remain in memory long after it is needed
- MFU replace page w/ largest counter value as smallest one may have only just been brought into memory (and may need to be used again in the future)



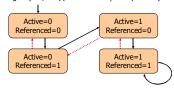
Global vs. Local Replacement

- Global replacement
 - System may replace a page from any process/address space
- Local replacement
 - System replaces a page associated with the local process/address space



Example - Linux

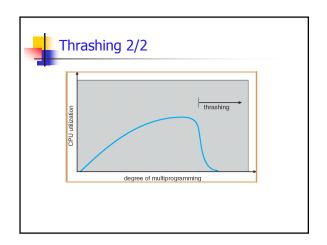
- Paging policy is a variant of the clock algorithm
- Linux maintains active and inactive lists for all pages in memory
- Pages move through the following states depending on the rate of them being referenced, while at given time intervals pages are aged (i.e., dropped to lower priority states)





Thrashing 1/2

- Suppose a process address space contains two pages, P1 and P2
- Let P2 be brought into memory at the cost of P1 being replaced
 - What happens if the process requires P1 shortly after it is swapped out?
 - Will end up with another page fault
 - If there is a lot of paging activity, a process may spend more time involved in paging than executing
 - Such a process is said to be thrashing





Ways to Limit Thrashing

- Decrease the degree of multiprogramming
- Use only local page replacement algorithms
 - i.e., replace pages from the local process and not other processes
- Provide a process with as many frames as it needs
 - How do we do this?



Locality of Reference

- "90:10" Rule
 - A program spends 90% of its time executing 10% of its code
 - Loops, subroutines, procedures/functions, basic code blocks define "localities of reference"
- If system allocates enough frames to a process for its current locality, page faults will be reduced until the process changes locality



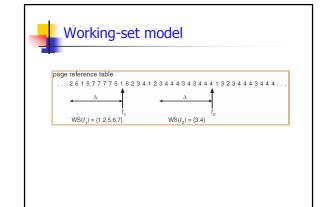
Working Set Model 1/2

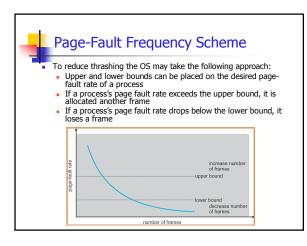
- The set of pages in the most recent ∆ page references is the working set
- The working set is an approximation of the program's locality
 - It is the set of pages currently being used by a process and the entire working set should be in memory to reduce page faults
- lacksquare Δ should be large enough to encompass a process's current locality, but no larger



Working Set Model 2/2

- Let α_i(t) be the working set size of process i at time, t
- Total demand for page frames from n processes is:
- $D=\sum_{\forall i} \alpha_i(t) \mid 1 <= i <= n$
- If D > total frames in system, thrashing will occur
- - OS monitors working set for each process and allocates enough frames for the working set corresponding to the current locality
 - If there are spare frames, a new process can begin (thereby increasing the degree of multiprogramming)
 - If D exceeds available frames, OS suspends one or more processes, by writing pages of suspended processes to disk





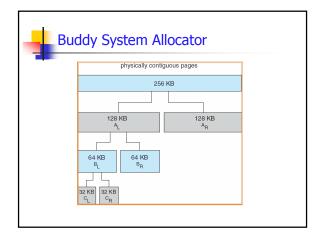


- Treated differently from user memory
- Often allocated from a free-memory pool
 - Kernel requests memory for structures of varying sizes
 - e.g., for file objects and process control blocks
 - Some kernel memory needs to be contiguous
 - e.g., for DMA transfers



Buddy System

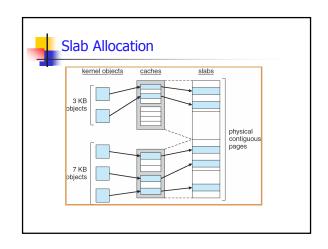
- Allocates memory from fixed-size segment consisting of physically-contiguous pages
- Memory allocated using power-of-2 allocator
 - Satisfies requests in units sized as power of 2
 - Request rounded up to next highest power of 2
 - When smaller allocation needed than is available, current chunk split into two buddies of next-lower power of 2
 - Continue until appropriate sized chunk available





Slab Allocator

- Alternate strategy
- Slab is one or more physically contiguous pages
- Cache consists of one or more slabs
- Single cache for each unique kernel data structure
 - Each cache filled with objects instantiations of the data structure
- When cache created, filled with objects marked as free
- When structures stored, objects marked as used
- If slab is full of used objects, next object allocated from empty slab
 - If no empty slabs, new slab allocated
- Benefits include no fragmentation, fast memory request satisfaction





Other Issues -- Prepaging

- 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 \emph{s} pages are prepaged and \emph{a} (fraction) of the pages are used
 - Is cost of $s*\alpha$ saved pages faults > or < than the cost of prepaging $s*(1-\alpha)$ unnecessary pages?
 - α near zero \Rightarrow prepaging less beneficial



Other Issues - Page Size

- Page size selection must take into consideration:
 - fragmentation
 - page table size
 - I/O overhead
 - locality



Other Issues - 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 TIR
 - Otherwise there is a high degree of page faults
- Increase the Page Size
 - This may lead to an increase in fragmentation as not all applications require a large page size
- Provide Multiple Page Sizes
 - This allows applications that require larger page sizes the opportunity to use them without an increase in fragmentation



Other Issues – 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