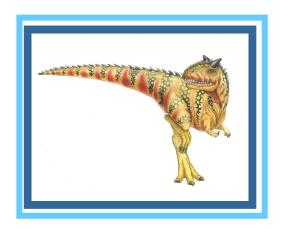
# **Chapter 9: Virtual Memory**





#### **Chapter 9: Virtual Memory**

- Background
- Demand Paging
- Copy-on-Write
- Page Replacement
- Allocation of Frames
- Thrashing
- Allocating Kernel Memory
- Other Considerations
- Operating-System Examples





#### **Objectives**

- To describe the benefits of a virtual memory system
- To explain the concepts of demand paging, page-replacement algorithms, and allocation of page frames
- To discuss the principle of the working-set model



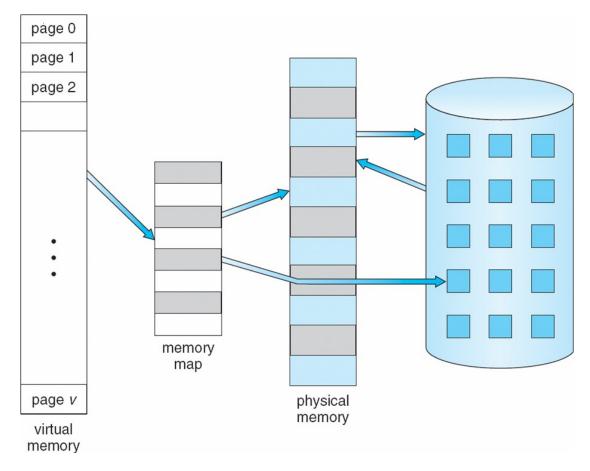


#### **Background**

- Virtual memory a further 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
  - Allows for more efficient process creation key is that only a small portion of physical memory needs to be allocated initially
- Virtual memory can be implemented via:
  - Demand paging
  - Demand segmentation



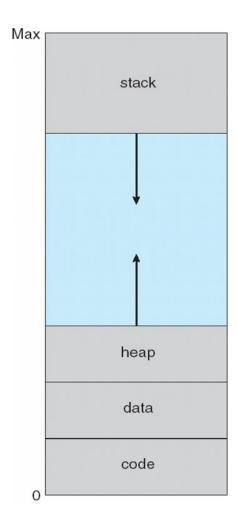
#### Virtual Memory That is Larger Than Physical Memory



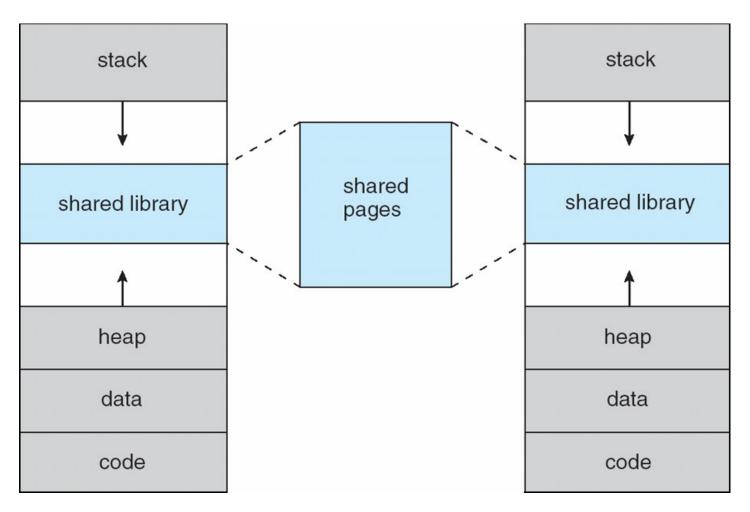




#### Virtual-address Space



# **Shared Library Using Virtual Memory**



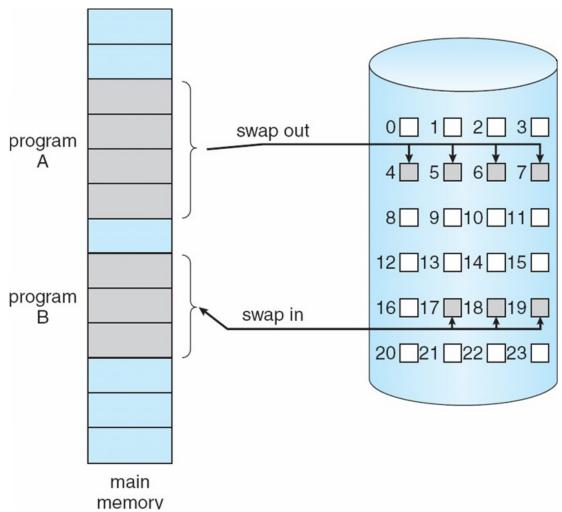


#### **Demand Paging**

- Bring a page into memory only when it is needed
  - Less I/O needed
  - Less memory needed
  - Faster response
  - More users
- 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



#### Transfer of a Paged Memory to Contiguous Disk Space





#### **Valid-Invalid Bit**

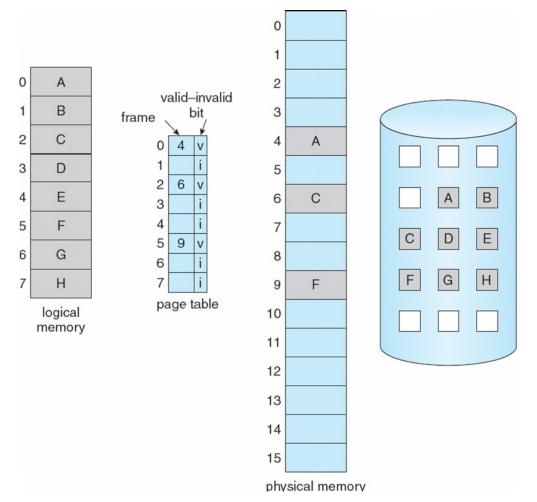
- With each page table entry a valid—invalid bit is associated (v : in-memory, i : not-in-memory)
- Initially valid—invalid bit is set to i on all entries
- Example of a page table snapshot:

Frame #	valid-invalid bit		
	V		
	V		
	V		
	V		
	-		
	i		
	i		
nago table			

page table

During address translation, if valid—invalid bit in page table entry is I => 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:

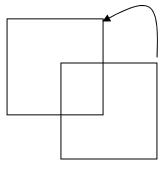
#### page fault

- 1. Operating system looks at another table to decide:
  - Invalid reference ⇒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



#### Page Fault (Cont.)

- Restart instruction
  - block move

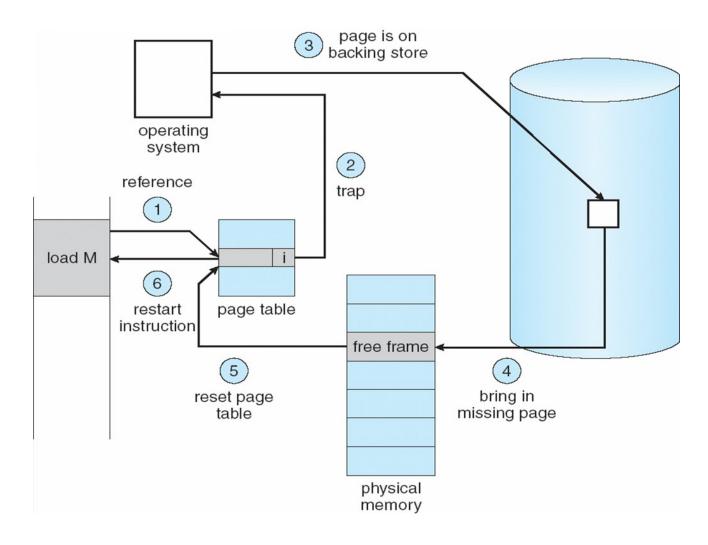


auto increment/decrement location





# **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)

```
EAT = (1 - p) x memory access
+ p (page fault overhead
+ swap page out
+ swap page in
+ restart overhead
```



#### **Demand Paging Example**

- Memory access time = 200 nanoseconds
- Average page-fault service time = 8 milliseconds

EAT = 
$$(1 - p) \times 200 + p$$
 (8 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!!



#### **Process Creation**

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

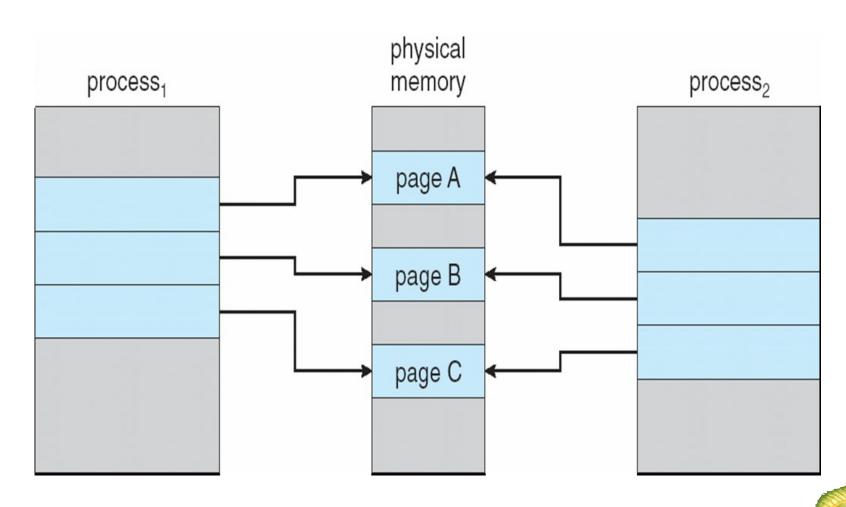




#### **Copy-on-Write**

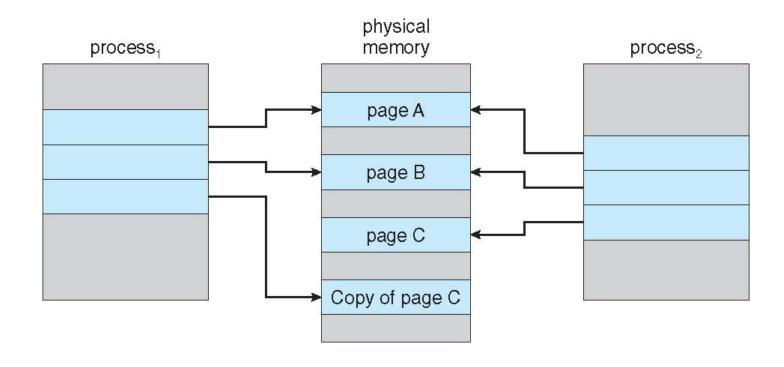
- Copy-on-Write (COW) allows both parent and child processes to initially share the same pages in memory
  - If either process modifies a shared page, only then is the page copied
- COW allows more efficient process creation as only modified pages are copied
- Free pages are allocated from a pool of zeroed-out pages

# **Before Process 1 Modifies Page C**





# After 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





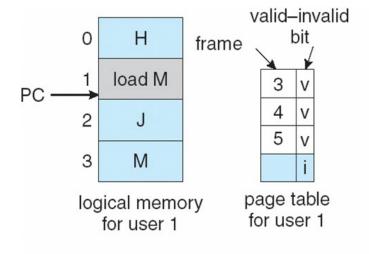
#### Page Replacement

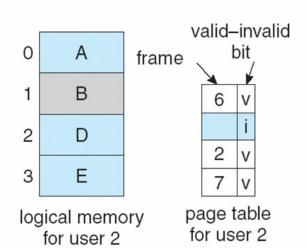
- Prevent over-allocation of memory by modifying page-fault service routine to include page replacement
- Use modify (dirty) bit to reduce overhead of page transfers only modified pages are written to disk
- Page replacement completes separation between logical memory and physical memory – large virtual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

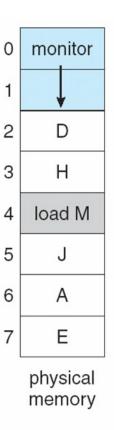


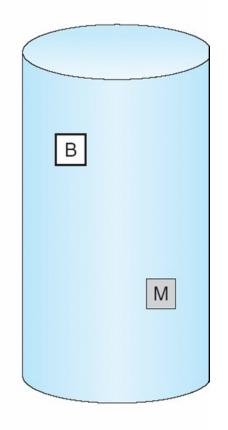


#### **Need For Page Replacement**











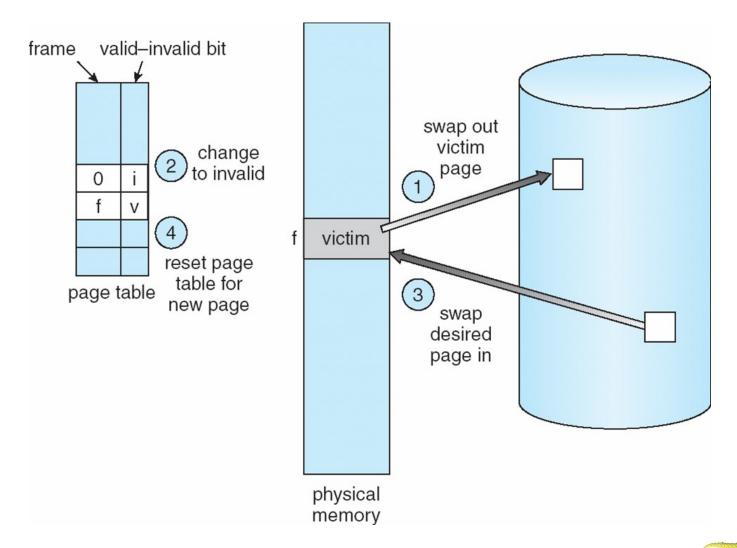
#### **Basic Page Replacement**

- 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 the (newly) free frame; update the page and frame tables
- 4. Restart the process





# Page Replacement



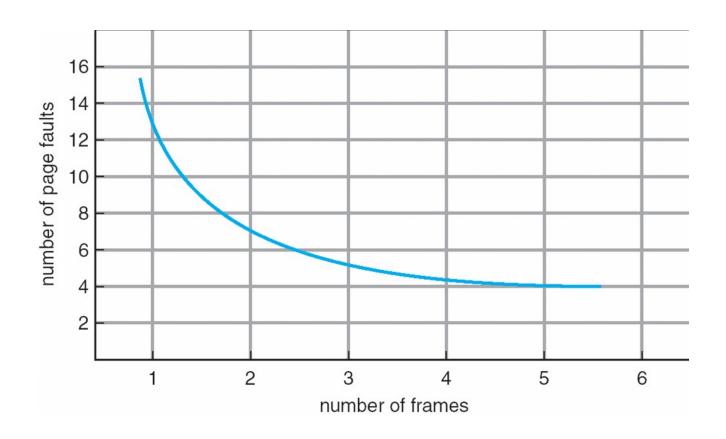


#### Page Replacement Algorithms

- 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



#### Graph of Page Faults Versus The Number of Frames







### First-In-First-Out (FIFO) Algorithm

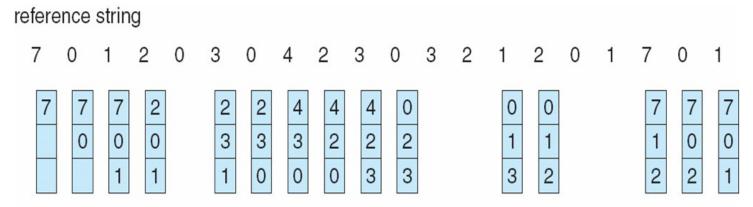
- Reference string: 1, 2, 3, 4, 1, 2, 5, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5
- 3 frames (3 pages can be in memory at a time per process)

4 frames

■ Belady's Anomaly: more frames ⇒more page faults



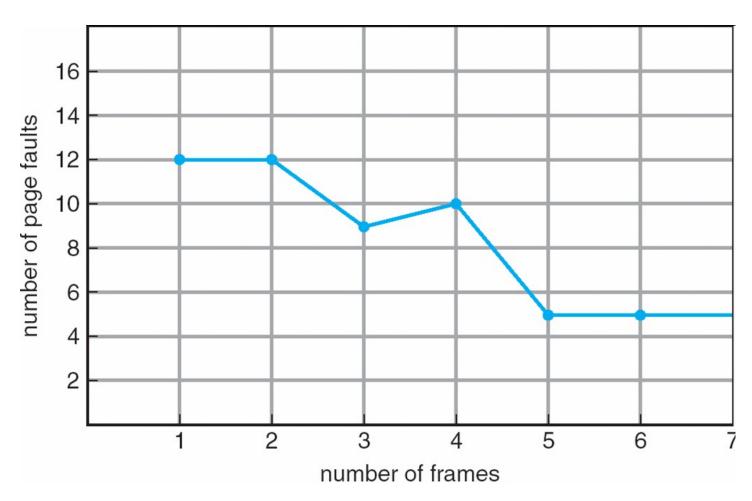
#### FIFO Page Replacement



page frames



# FIFO Illustrating Belady's Anomaly





#### **Optimal Algorithm**

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

1	4	
2		6 page faults
3		
4	5	

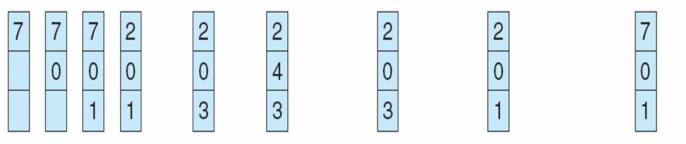
- How do you know this?
- Used for measuring how well your algorithm performs



#### **Optimal Page Replacement**







page frames

# 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

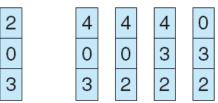


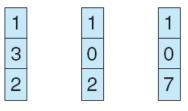
#### LRU Page Replacement

reference string



7	7	7	2
	0	0	0
		1	1





page frames



#### LRU Algorithm (Cont.)

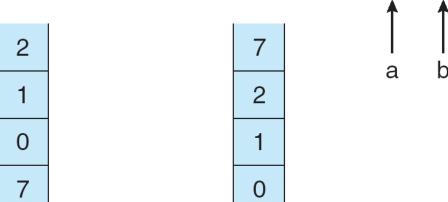
- Stack implementation keep a stack of page numbers in a double link form:
  - Page referenced:
    - move it to the top
    - requires 6 pointers to be changed
  - No search for replacement



# Use Of A Stack to Record The Most Recent Page References

reference string





4

4

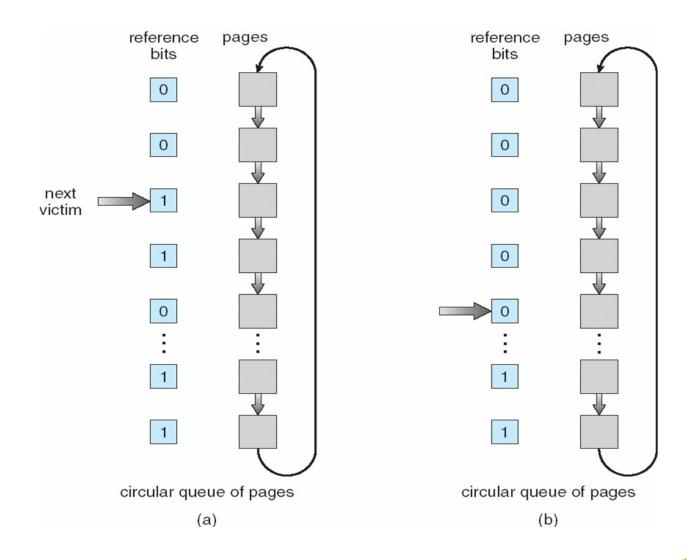


### **LRU Approximation Algorithms**

- Reference bit
  - With each page associate a bit, initially = 0
  - When page is referenced bit set to 1
  - Replace the one which is 0 (if one exists)
    - We do not know the order, however
- Second chance
  - Need reference bit
  - Clock replacement
  - If page to be replaced (in clock order) has reference bit = 1 then:
    - set reference bit 0
    - leave page in memory
    - replace next page (in clock order), subject to same rules



#### Second-Chance (clock) Page-Replacement Algorithm





### **Counting Algorithms**

- Keep a counter of the number of references that have been made to each page
- LFU Algorithm: replaces page with smallest count
- 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 pages
- 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
- Two major allocation schemes
  - fixed allocation
  - priority allocation





#### **Fixed Allocation**

- Equal allocation For example, if there are 100 frames and 5 processes, give each process 20 frames.
- Proportional allocation Allocate according to the size of process

$$-s_i$$
 = size of process  $p_i$ 

$$-S = \sum s_i$$

-m = total number of frames

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

$$m = 64$$

$$s_i = 10$$

$$s_2 = 127$$

$$a_1 = \frac{10}{137} \times 64 \approx 5$$

$$a_2 = \frac{127}{137} \times 64 \approx 59$$



### **Priority Allocation**

- Use a proportional allocation scheme using priorities rather than size
- $\blacksquare$  If process  $P_i$  generates a page fault,
  - select for replacement one of its frames
  - select for replacement a frame from a process with lower priority number





#### 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
- Local replacement each process selects from only its own set of allocated frames





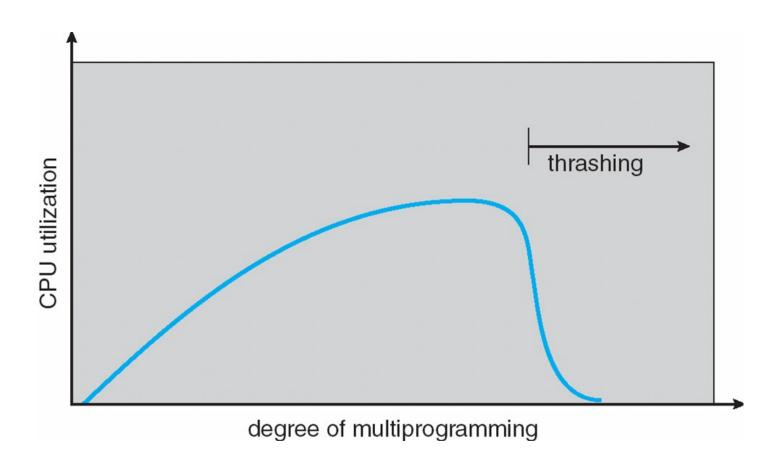
#### **Thrashing**

- 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**  $\equiv$  a process is busy swapping pages in and out





## **Thrashing (Cont.)**



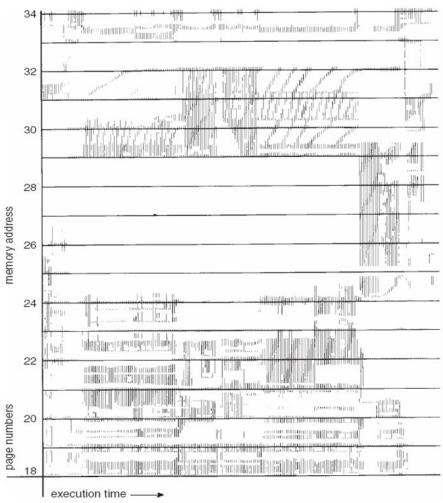


#### **Demand Paging and Thrashing**

- 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



### Locality In A Memory-Reference Pattern





#### **Working-Set Model**

- $\Delta$  = working-set window = a fixed number of page references Example: 10,000 instruction
- $WSS_i$  (working set of Process  $P_i$ ) = total number of pages referenced in the most recent  $\Delta$  (varies in time)
  - if  $\Delta$  too small will not encompass entire locality
  - if  $\Delta$  too large will encompass several localities
  - if  $\Delta = \infty$  will encompass entire program
- $D = \Sigma WSS_i \equiv \text{total demand frames}$
- if  $D > m \Rightarrow$ Thrashing
- Policy if D > m, then suspend one of the processes

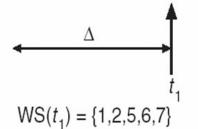


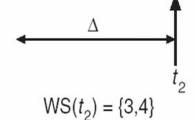


#### Working-set model

#### page reference table

...2615777751623412344434441323444344...









### **Keeping Track of the Working Set**

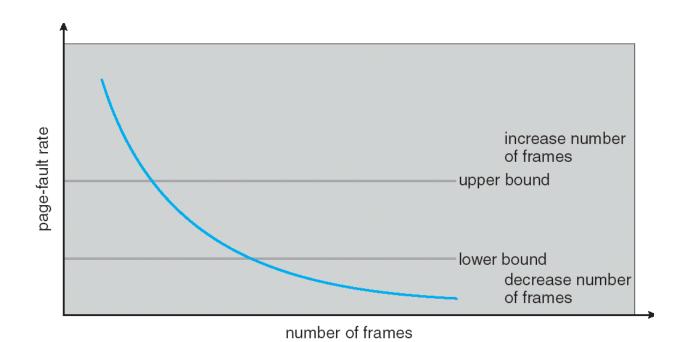
- Approximate with interval timer + a reference bit
- Example:  $\Delta = 10,000$ 
  - Timer interrupts after every 5000 time units
  - Keep in memory 2 bits for each page
  - Whenever a timer interrupts copy and sets the values of all reference bits to 0
  - If one of the bits in memory =  $1 \Rightarrow$  page in working set
- Why is this not completely accurate?
- Improvement = 10 bits and interrupt every 1000 time units





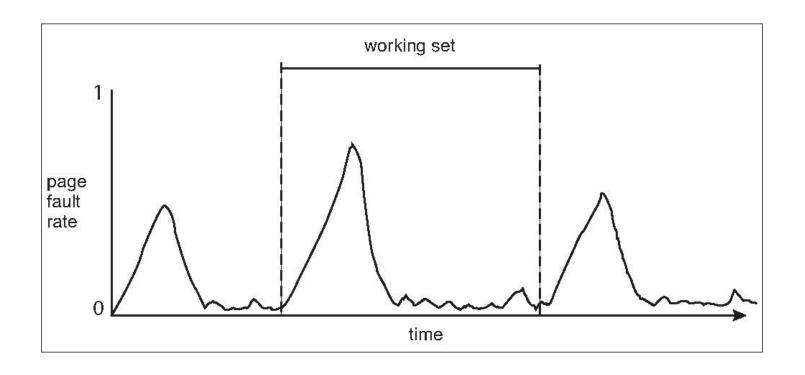
### Page-Fault Frequency Scheme

- Establish "acceptable" page-fault rate
  - If actual rate too low, process loses frame
  - If actual rate too high, process gains frame





### **Working Sets and Page Fault Rates**



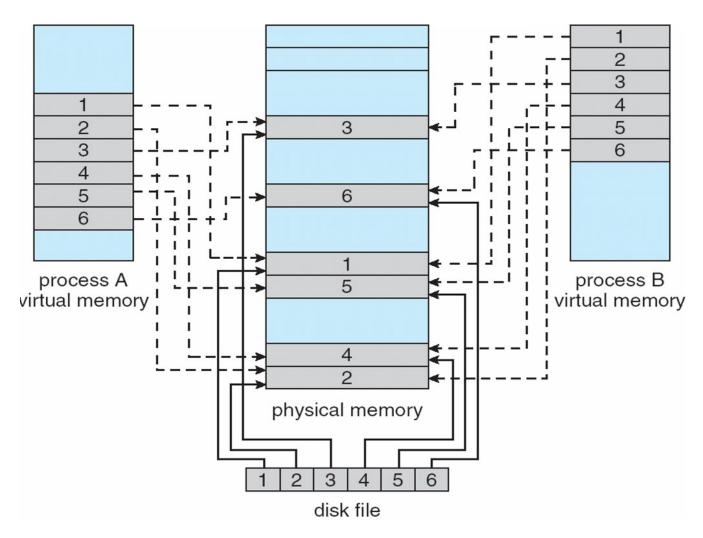


#### **Memory-Mapped Files**

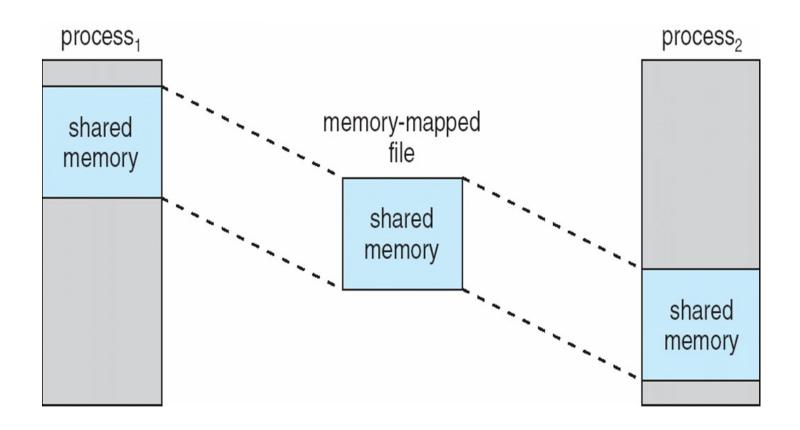
- Memory-mapped file I/O allows file I/O to be treated as routine memory access by mapping a disk block to a page in memory
- A file is initially read using demand paging. A page-sized portion of the file is read from the file system into a physical page. Subsequent reads/writes to/from the file are treated as ordinary memory accesses.
- Simplifies file access by treating file I/O through memory rather than read() write() system calls
- Also allows several processes to map the same file allowing the pages in memory to be shared



# **Memory Mapped Files**



### Memory-Mapped Shared Memory in Windows







#### **Allocating Kernel Memory**

- Treated differently from user memory
- Often allocated from a free-memory pool
  - Kernel requests memory for structures of varying sizes
  - Some kernel memory needs to be contiguous





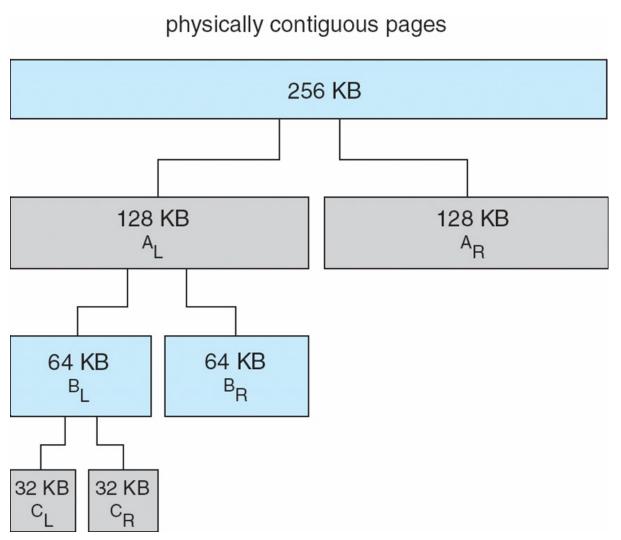
#### **Buddy System**

- Allocates memory from fixed-size segment consisting of physicallycontiguous 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





### **Buddy System Allocator**



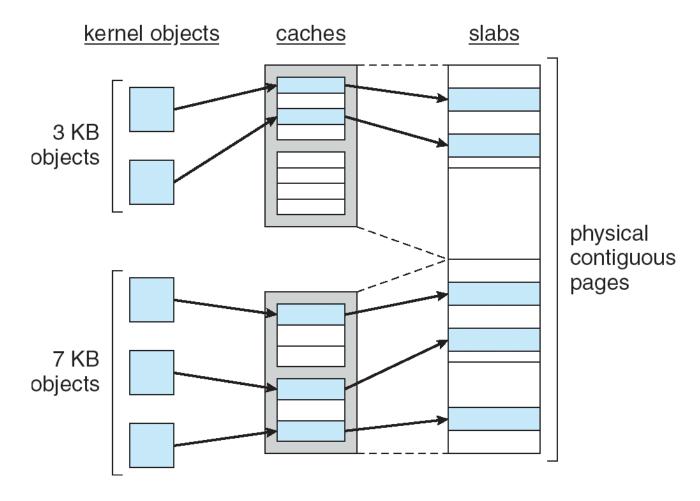


#### **Slab Allocator**

- 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



#### **Slab Allocation**





#### **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 s pages are prepaged and  $\alpha$  of the pages is used
  - Is cost of s \* α save pages faults > or < than the cost of prepaging
    - $s * (1-\alpha)$  unnecessary pages?
  - α near zero ⇒prepaging loses





#### Other Issues – Page Size

- Page size selection must take into consideration:
  - fragmentation
  - 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 TLB
  - 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 - Program Structure

- Program structure
  - Int[128,128] data;
  - Each row is stored in one page
  - Program 1

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

 $128 \times 128 = 16,384$  page faults

Program 2

128 page faults

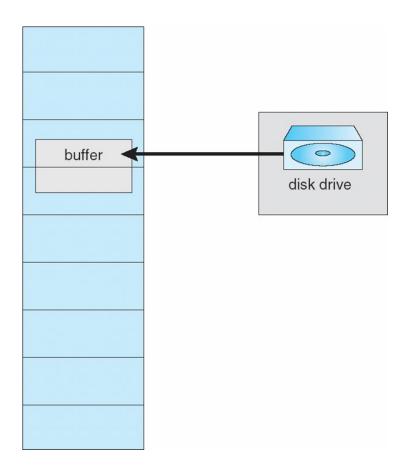


### Other Issues – I/O interlock

- 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



#### Reason Why Frames Used For I/O Must Be In Memory





### **Operating System Examples**

- Windows XP
- Solaris





#### Windows XP

- Uses demand paging with clustering. Clustering brings in pages surrounding the faulting page
- Processes are assigned working set minimum and working set maximum
- Working set minimum is the minimum number of pages the process is guaranteed to have in memory
- A process may be assigned as many pages up to its working set maximum
- When the amount of free memory in the system falls below a threshold, automatic working set trimming is performed to restore the amount of free memory
- Working set trimming removes pages from processes that have pages in excess of their working set minimum

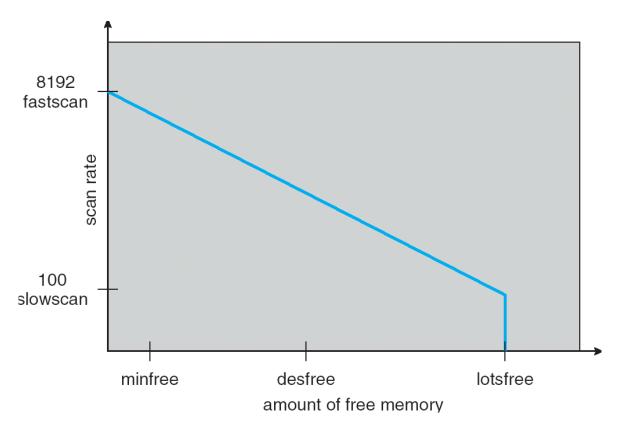


#### **Solaris**

- Maintains a list of free pages to assign faulting processes
- Lotsfree threshold parameter (amount of free memory) to begin paging
- Desfree threshold parameter to increasing paging
- Minfree threshold parameter to being swapping
- Paging is performed by pageout process
- Pageout scans pages using modified clock algorithm
- Scanrate is the rate at which pages are scanned. This ranges from slowscan to fastscan
- Pageout is called more frequently depending upon the amount of free memory available



### **Solaris 2 Page Scanner**



# **End of Chapter 9**

