METU - EE 442 - Operating Systems

Memory Management

Chapter 3

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Memory

- Average home computer today has 10,000 times more memory than the largest computer in the early 1960s.
- Parkinson's Law, "Programs expand to fill the memory available to hold them."
- Ideal computer memory:
 - Private, infinitely large, infinitely fast
 - Nonvolatile (does not lose its contents when the electric power is switched off)
 - Inexpensive

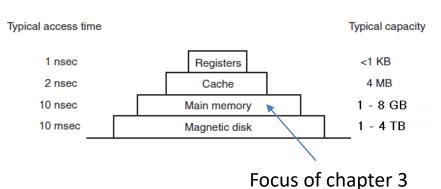
Memory Hierarcy in a Typical Computer System

- A few megabytes of very fast, expensive, volatile cache memory,
- A few gigabytes of medium-speed, medium-priced, volatile main memory,
- A few terabytes of slow, cheap, nonvolatile magnetic or solidstate disk storage (+ some removable storage, such as DVDs and USB sticks)

OS abstracts this hierarchy into a useful model and then manages this abstraction.

Memory Manager

- Keeps track of which parts of memory are in use,
- · allocates memory to processes when they need it,
- deallocate memory when they are done.



Memory Management

 In a multiprogramming system, a number of processes must be kept in memory in order to share the processor.

 Partitioning, paging and segmentation approaches are among possible choices used for memory abstraction.

 Memory has to managed through memory management algorithms, which may require some hardware support.

Memory Management

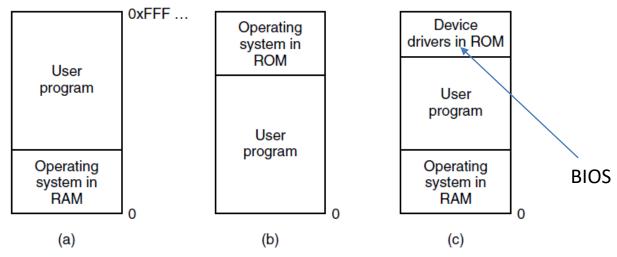
 In order to be able to load programs anywhere in memory, the compiler must generate relocatable object code.

 Also, we must make sure that a program in memory addresses only its own area but no other program's area.

 Therefore, some protection mechanism is also needed.

No Memory Abstraction

- Memory presented to the programmer is simply physical memory.
 - a set of addresses from 0 to some maximum
 - each address corresponding to a cell containing some number of bits, commonly eight.

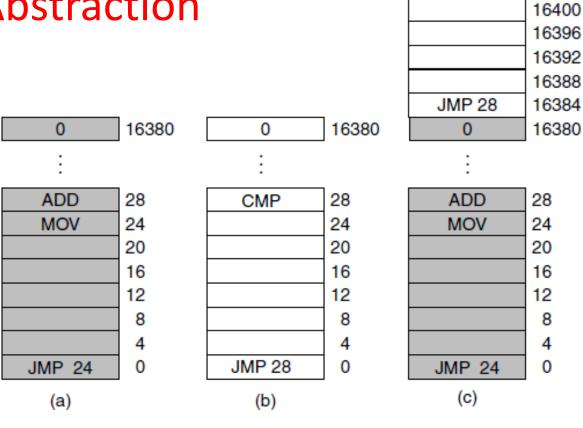


Three simple ways of organizing memory with an operating system and one user process. Other possibilities also exist.

Drawbacks

- multiprocessing not possible (multiple threads may be possible).
- User programs can easily trash OS.

Running Multiple Programs Without a Memory Abstraction



CMP

Illustration of the relocation problem. (a) A 16-KB program. (b) Another 16-KB program. (c) The two programs loaded consecutively into memory.

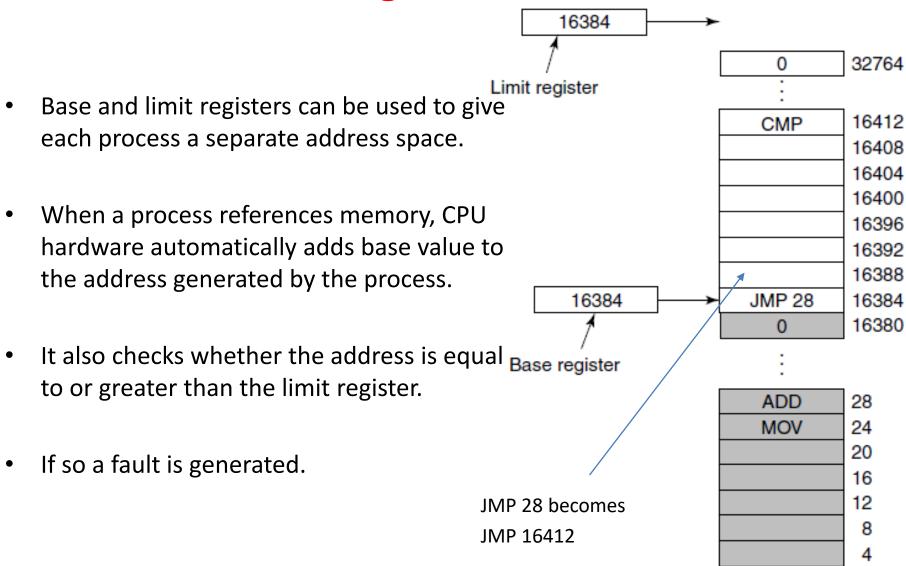
No Memory Abstraction

- History repeats itself in computer world.
 - direct addressing (no memory abstraction) is <u>not used</u>
 <u>anymore</u> in
 - mainframes, minicomputers, desktop computers, notebooks, and smartphones
 - no memory abstraction is still common in
 - embedded and smart card systems such as
 - radios, washing machines, and microwave ovens, etc.

 No memory abstraction is OK in some embedded systems since for example users are not free to run their own software on their toaster.

Address Space

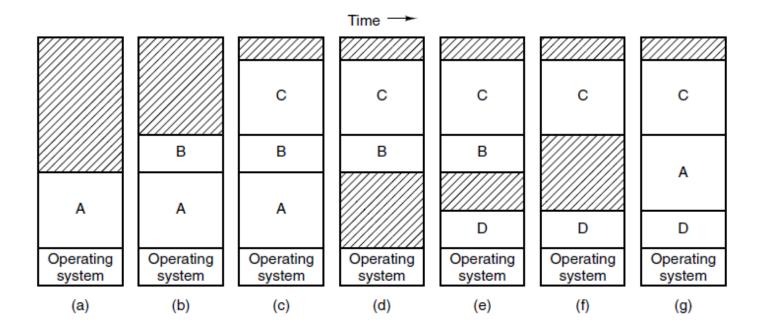
- Base and Limit Registers -



JMP 24

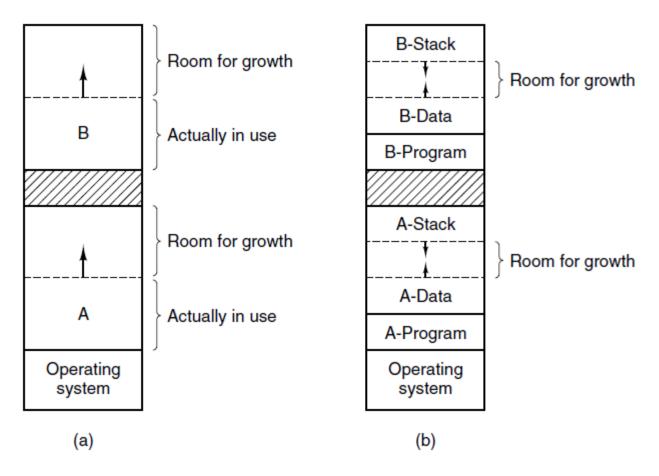
Swapping (1)

- Keeping all processes in memory all the time requires a huge amount of memory and cannot be done if there is insufficient memory.
- Swapping: bring in each process in its entirety, run it for a while, then put it back on the disk.



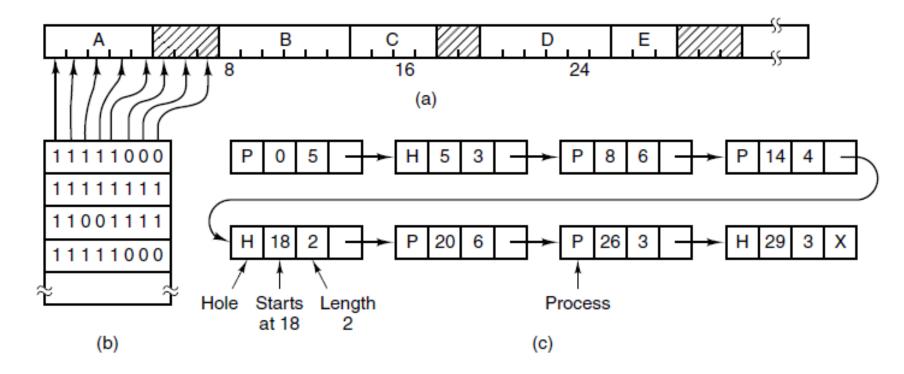
Memory allocation changes as processes come into memory and leave it. The shaded regions are unused memory

Swapping (2)



(a) Allocating space for a growing data segment.(b) Allocating space for a growing stack and a growing data segment.

Memory Management with Bitmaps and Linked Lists

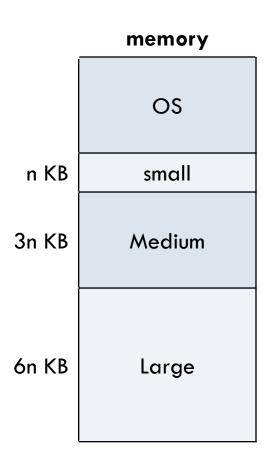


(a) A part of memory with five processes and three holes.The tickmarks show the memory allocation units. The shaded regions (0 in the bitmap) are free. (b) The corresponding bitmap. (c) The same information as a list.

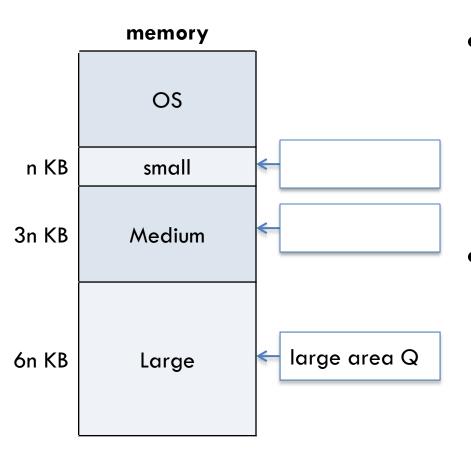
Memory Management with Linked Lists



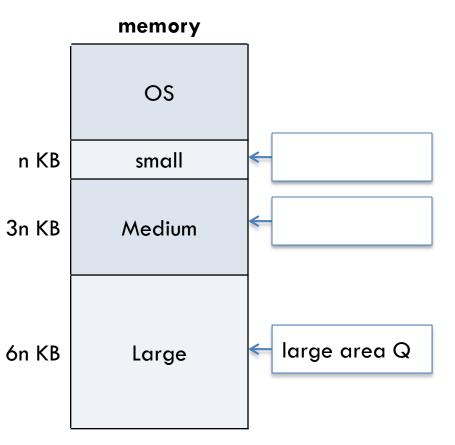
Four neighbor combinations for the terminating process, *X*.



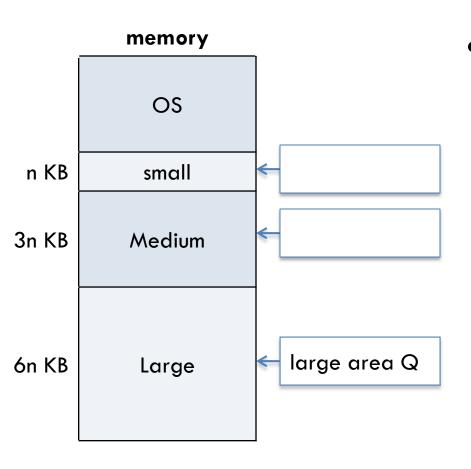
- In this method, memory is divided into partitions whose sizes are fixed.
- OS is placed into the lowest bytes of memory.
- Relocation of processes is not needed.



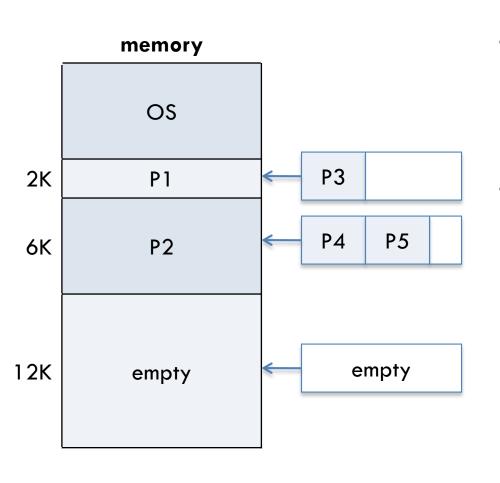
- On entry to the system, processes are classified according to their memory requirements.
- We need one *Process* Queue (PQ) for each class of process.



- If a process is selected and is allocated memory, it starts residing in memory and can compete for the processor.
- The number of fixed partitions gives the degree of multiprogramming.
- Since each queue has its own memory region, there is no competition between queues for the memory.

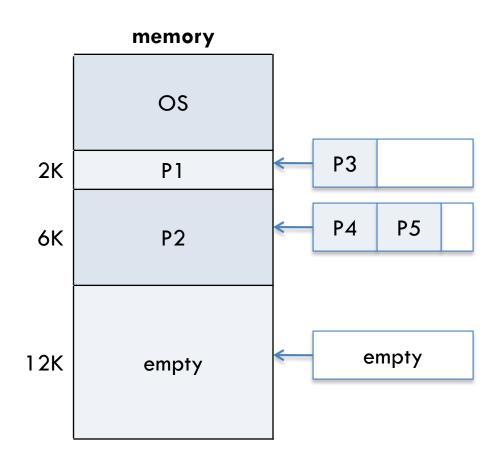


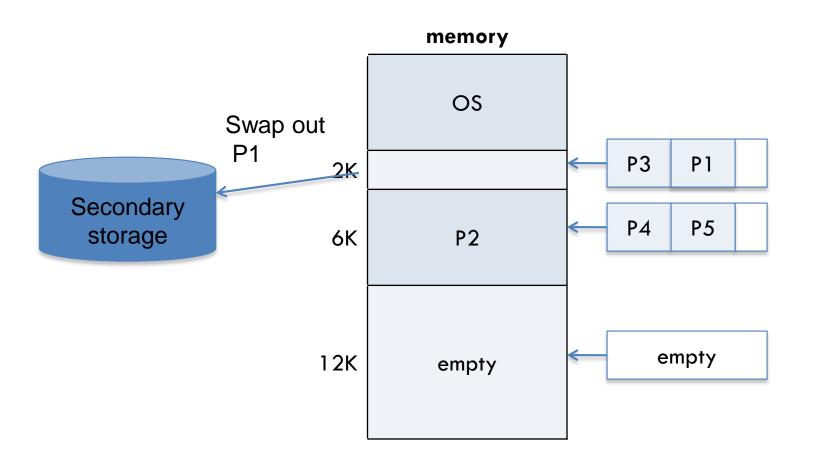
- The main problems
 with fixed partitioning
 method are
 - how to determine the number of partitions,
 - how to determine partition sizes.

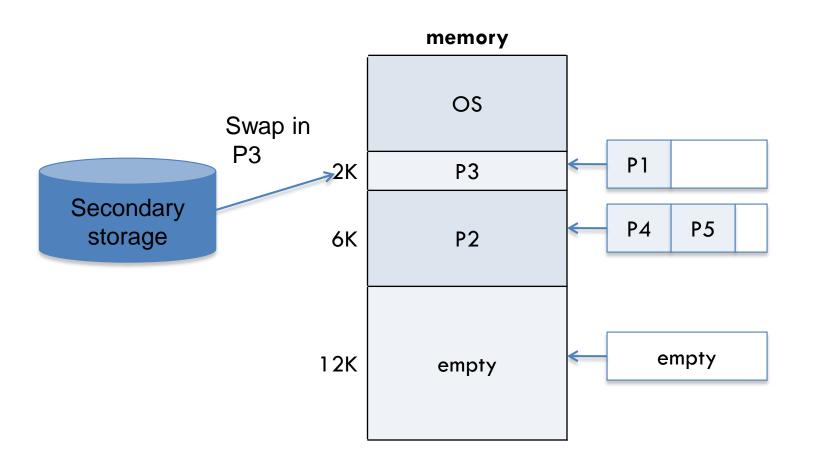


- This is a version of fixed partitioning that uses RRS with some time quantum.
- When time quantum for a process expires, it is swapped out of memory to disk and the next process in the corresponding queue is swapped into the memory.

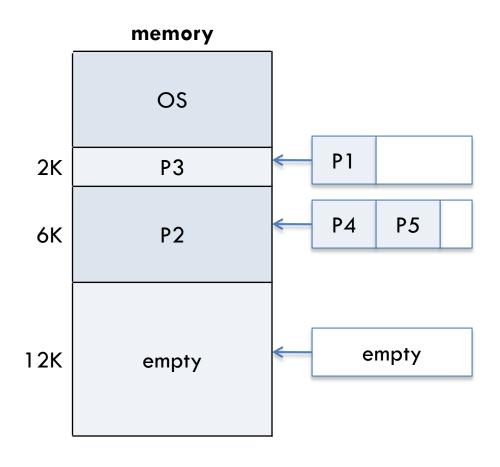
Secondary storage

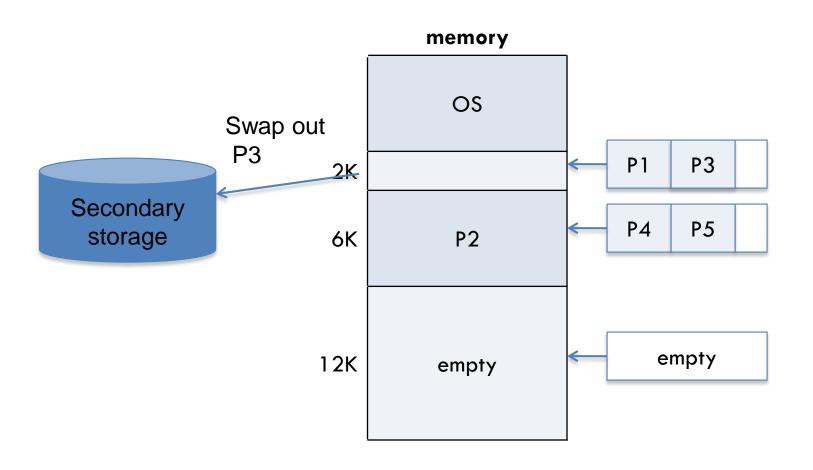


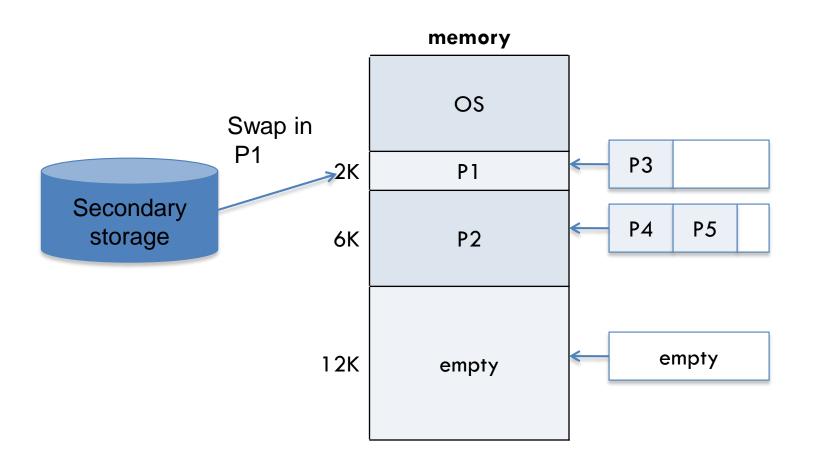




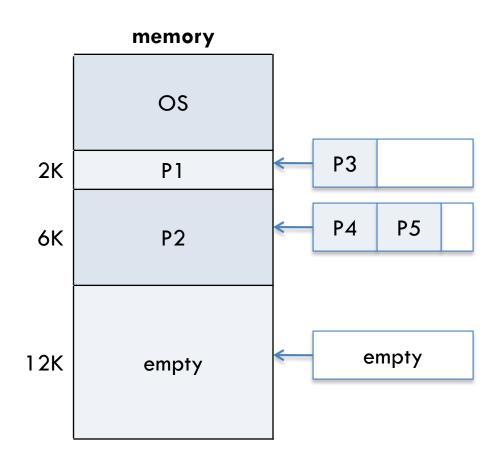
Secondary storage



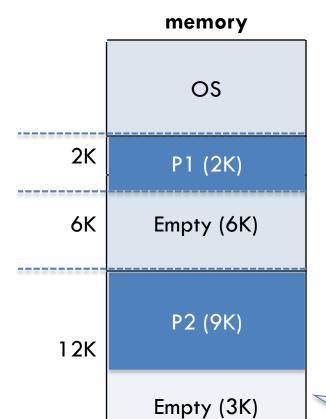




Secondary storage



Fragmentation



If a whole partition is currently not being used, then it is called an external fragmentation.

If a partition is being used by a process requiring some memory smaller than the partition size, then it is called an internal fragmentation.

Variable Partitioning

 With fixed partitions we have to deal with the problem of determining the number and sizes of partitions to minimize internal and external fragmentation.

 If we use variable partitioning instead, then partition sizes may vary dynamically.

 In the variable partitioning method, we keep a table (linked list) indicating used/free areas in memory.

Variable Partitioning

• Initially, the whole memory is free and it is considered as one large block.

• When a new process arrives, the OS searches for a block of free memory large enough for that process.

• After process is loaded into memory, we keep the rest available (free) for the future processes.

• If a block becomes free, then the OS tries to merge it with its neighbors if they are also free.

Memory Management Algorithms for Variable Partitioning

- First fit
- Next fit
- Best fit
- Worst fit
- Quick fit

<u>First Fit</u>: Allocate the first free block that is large enough for the new process.

This is a fast algorithm.

Initial memory mapping



P4 of 3KB arrives

OS P1 12 KB <FREE> 10 KB P2 20 KB <FREE> 16 KB P3 6 KB <FREE> 4 KB

P4 of 3KB loaded here by FIRST FIT OS

P1 12 KB

P4 3 KB

<FREE> 7 KB

P2 20 KB

<FREE> 16 KB

P3 6 KB

<FREE> 4 KB

P5 of 15KB arrives

OS P1 12 KB P4 3 KB <FREE> 7 KB P2 20 KB <FREE> 16 KB P3 6 KB <FREE> 4 KB

P5 of 15 KB loaded here by FIRST FIT

OS P1 12 KB P4 3 KB <FREE> 7 KB P2 20 KB P5 15 KB <FREE> 1 KB P3 6 KB <FREE> 4 KB

Best fit

Best Fit :

- Allocate the smallest block among those that are large enough for the new process.
- In this method, OS has to search the entire list, or it can keep it sorted and stop when it hits an entry, which has a size larger than the size of new process.
- This algorithm produces the smallest left over block.
- However, it requires more time for searching all the list or sorting it
- If sorting is used, merging the area released when a process terminates to neighboring free blocks, becomes complicated.

Initial memory mapping

OS P1 12 KB <FREE> 10 KB P2 20 KB <FREE> 16 KB P3 6 KB <FREE> 4 KB

P4 of 3KB arrives

OS P1 12 KB <FREE> 10 KB P2 20 KB <FREE> 16 KB P3 6 KB <FREE> 4 KB

P4 of 3KB loaded here by BEST FIT OS

P1 12 KB

<FREE> 10 KB

P2 20 KB

<FREE> 16 KB

P3 6 KB

P4 3 KB

<FREE> 1 KB

P5 of 15KB arrives

OS P1 12 KB <FREE> 10 KB P2 20 KB <FREE> 16 KB P3 6 KB P4 3 KB <FREE> 1 KB

P5 of 15 KB loaded here by BEST FIT

OS P1 12 KB <FREE> 10 KB P2 20 KB P5 15 KB <FREE> 1 KB P3 6 KB P4 3 KB <FREE> 1 KB

- Worst Fit: Allocate the largest block among those that are large enough for the new process.
- Again a search of the entire list or sorting it is needed.
- This algorithm produces the largest over block.

Initial memory mapping

OS P1 12 KB <FREE> 10 KB P2 20 KB <FREE> 16 KB P3 6 KB <FREE> 4 KB

P4 of 3KB arrives

OS P1 12 KB <FREE> 10 KB P2 20 KB <FREE> 16 KB P3 6 KB <FREE> 4 KB

P4 of 3KB Loaded here by WORST FIT OS

P1 12 KB

<FREE> 10 KB

P2 20 KB

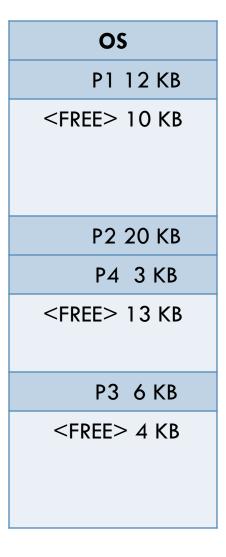
P4 3 KB

<FREE> 13 KB

P3 6 KB

<FREE> 4 KB

No place to load P5 of 15K



No place to load P5 of 15K

Compaction is needed!!

OS

P1 12 KB

<FREE> 10 KB

P2 20 KB

P4 3 KB

<FREE> 13 KB

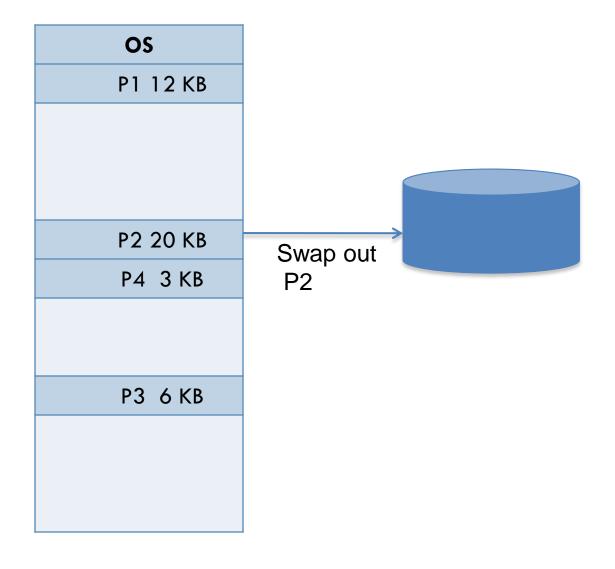
P3 6 KB

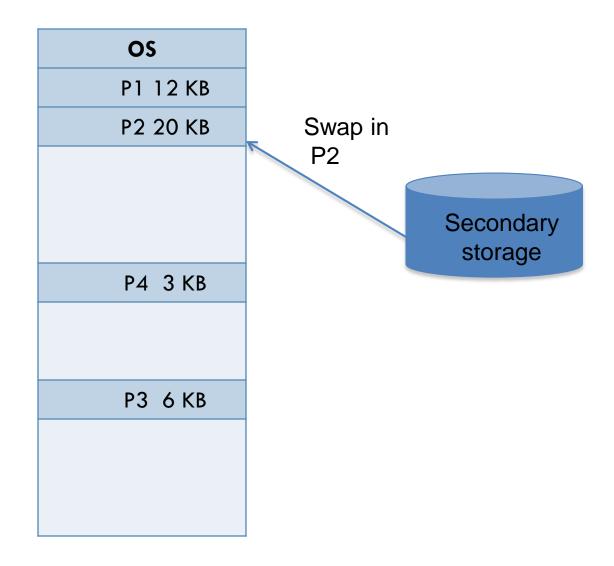
<FREE> 4 KB

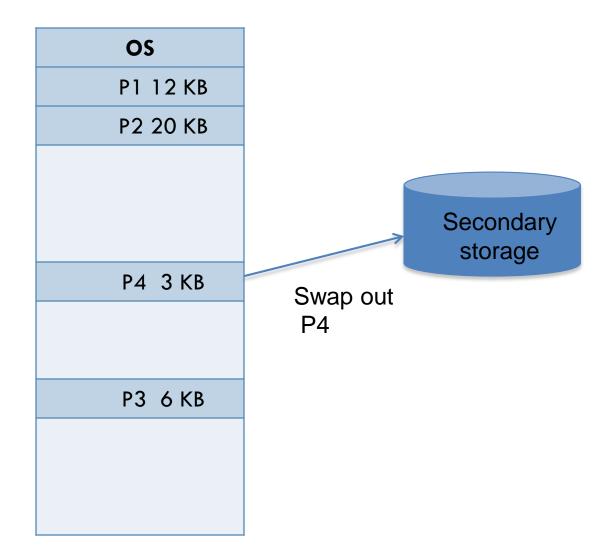
- Compaction is a method to overcome the external fragmentation problem.
- All free blocks are brought together as one large block of free space.
- Compaction requires dynamic relocation.
- Certainly, compaction has a cost and selection of an optimal compaction strategy is difficult.
- One method for compaction is swapping out those processes that are to be moved within the memory, and swapping them into different memory locations

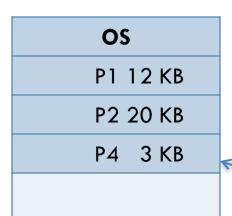
Memory mapping before compaction

OS P1 12 KB <FREE> 10 KB P2 20 KB P4 3 KB <FREE> 13 KB P3 6 KB <FREE> 4 KB





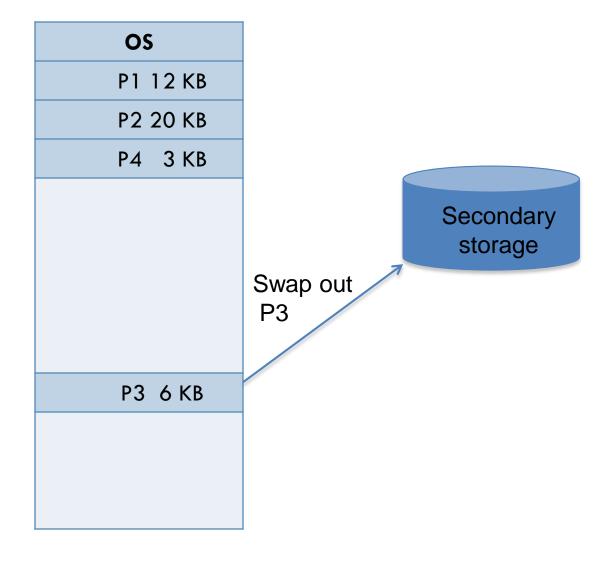


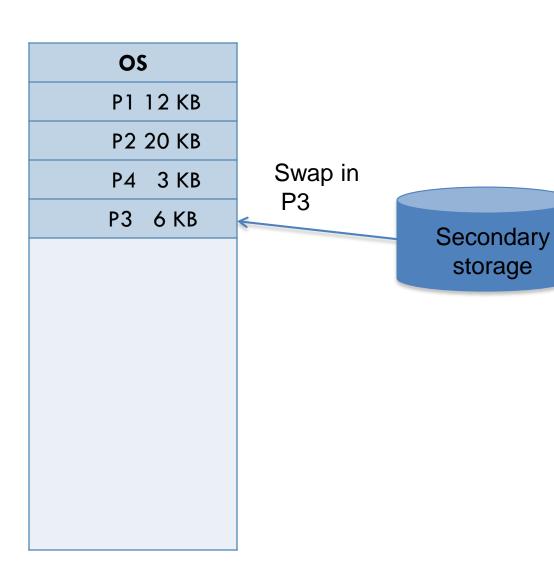


P3 6 KB

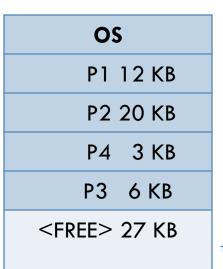
Swap in P4 with a different starting address

Secondary storage





Memory mapping after compaction



Now P5 of 15KB can be loaded here

OS

P1 12 KB

P2 20 KB

P4 3 KB

P3 6 KB

P5 12 KB

<FREE> 12 KB

P5 of 15KB is loaded

Relocation

- Static relocation: A process may be loaded into memory, each time possibly having a different starting address
 - Necessary for variable partitioning
- Dynamic relocation: In addition to static relocation, the starting address of the process may change while it is already loaded in memory
 - Necessary for compaction

 All the memory management policies we have discussed so far, try to keep a number of processes in the memory simultaneously to allow multiprogramming.

 But they require an entire process to be loaded in the memory before it can execute.

- With virtual memory technique, we can execute a process, which is only partially loaded in memory.
- Thus, the logical address space may be larger than physical memory.
- More processes can reside in memory to execute concurrently, hence a greater degree of multiprogramming can be achieved.

- The need to run programs that are too large to fit in memory exists since the early days of computing.
- Solution adopted in 1960s, split programs into little pieces, called overlays
 - programs kept on the disk, swapped in and out of memory by the overlay manager.
- Virtual memory: each program has its own address space, broken up into chunks called pages

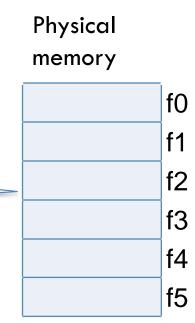
Each page is a contiguous range of addresses.

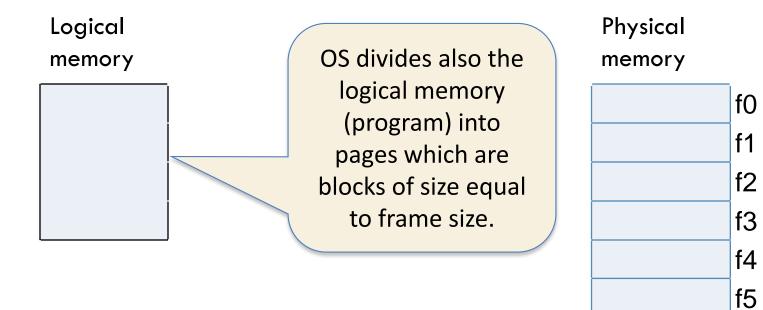
- Pages are mapped onto physical memory, but not all pages have to be in physical memory at the same time.
 - When a page in physical memory is addressed,
 HW performs the mapping on the fly.
 - When the addressed page is not in physical memory, OS is alerted to get the missing page and re-execute the instruction that failed.

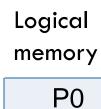
In paging, the OS divide the physical memory into frames which are blocks of small and fixed size

Physical memory

In paging, the OS divide the physical memory into frames which are blocks of small and fixed size







P1 P2 P3 OS divides also the logical memory (program) into pages which are blocks of size equal to frame size.

Physical memory



Logical memory

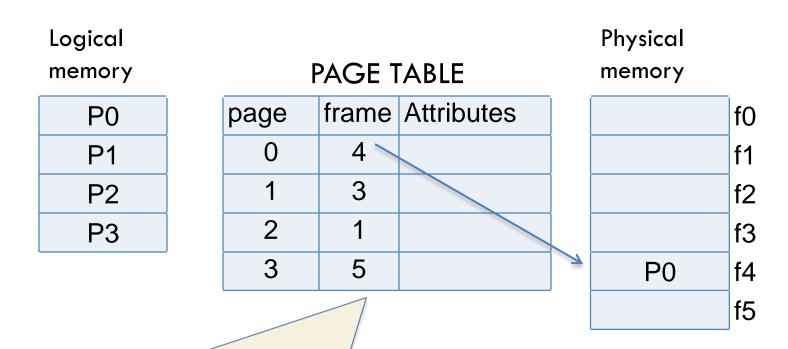
PAGE TABLE

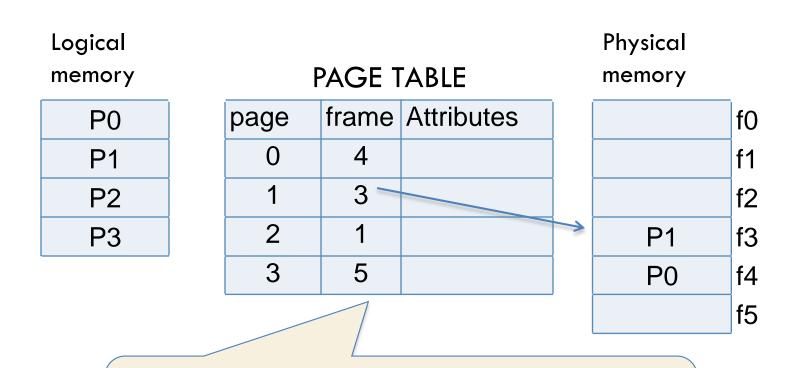
Physical memory

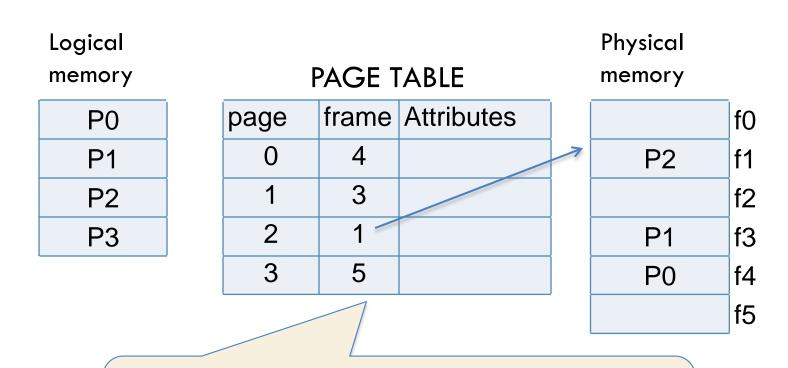
P0
P1
P2
P3

page	frame	Attributes		
0	4			
1	3			
2	1			
3	5			









Logical memory

PAGE TABLE

Physical memory

P0
P1
P2
P3

page	frame	Attributes
0	4	
1	3	
2	1	
3	5 -	

f0 P2 f1 f2 P1 f3 P0 f4 P3 f5

Logical memory

PAGE TABLE

Physical memory

P0	
P1	
P2	
P3	

page	frame	Attributes
0	4	
1	3	
2	1	
3	5	

		fO
	P2	f1
	1	f2
/	P1	f3
	P0	f4
	P3	f5

Paging permits a program to allocate noncontiguous blocks of memory

- Page size (S) is defined by the hardware.
 - Generally page size is chosen as a power of 2 such as 512 words/page or 4096 words/page etc.

 With this arrangement, the words in the program have an address called as logical address.

Every logical address is formed of <p,d> pair.

Logical address: <p,d>

- p is page numberp = logical address div S
- d is displacement (offset)d = logical address mod S

- When a logical address <p, d> is generated by the processor,
 - frame number f corresponding to page p is determined by using the page table
 - physical address is calculated as (f*S+d) and the memory is accessed.

- Demand paging is the most common virtual memory management system.
- It is based on the locality model of program execution.
- Locality is defined as a set of pages actively used together.
- As a program executes, it moves from locality to locality.
- A program is composed of several different localities that may overlap:
 - for example, a small procedure when called, defines a new locality.
 - a while-do loop when being executed defines a new locality.

- In demand paging, programs reside on a swapping device (typically a disk) commonly known as the backing store.
- When OS decides to start a new process, it swaps only a small part of this new process (maybe a few pages) into memory.
- The page table of this new process is prepared and loaded into memory, and the valid/invalid bits of all pages that are brought into memory are set to "valid".
- All the other valid/invalid bits are set to "invalid" showing that those pages are not brought into memory.

- If the process currently executing tries to access a page, which is not in the memory, a page fault (PF) occurs.
- In case of a PF, OS finds the desired page on the backing store.
- If there exits no free frame in memory, OS chooses a suitable page (victim page), and swaps it out to the backing store.
- OS changes the valid bit of the victim page in page table to invalid indicating that it is no longer in memory.
- It swaps the desired page into the newly freed frame, modifies frame table and sets the valid/invalid bit of the new page to valid.
- Then executing process is allowed to go on.

- 'Page Fault Service' operations can be summarized as follows:
 - Suspend the process and do context switch (fast)
 - Check the address and find a free frame or a victim page (fast)
 - Swap out victim page to secondary storage (slow)
 - Swap in the page from secondary storage (slow)
 - Context switch for the suspended process and resume its execution (fast)
- In servicing a PF, time is spent mainly for swap-out and swap-in operations. Time spent for others are negligible in comparison.

- Virtual memory can be implemented in the form of:
 - paging systems
 - paged segmentation systems
 - segmentation systems (variable size pages)
 (However, segment replacement is much more sophisticated than page replacement since segments are of variable size)

Performance Calculation of Demand Paging

 If there is no page fault, effective access time is effective memory acces time (emat)

If there is a page fault, we have

$$eat_{PF} = pfst + emat \cong pfst$$

where pfst is page fault service time.

 In general, emat is very small compared to pfst hence it can be ignored.

Performance Calculation of Demand Paging

- Let p be the probability for a page fault ($0 \le p \le 1$) to occur.
- Then, the effective access time can be calculated as follows:

eat = p * eat_{PF} +
$$(1 - p)$$
 * eat_{NO-PF}
 \cong p * pfst + $(1 - p)$ * emat

Performance Calculation of Demand Paging

Example:

Effective memory access time for a system is given as 1 microseconds, and the average page fault service time is given as 10 milliseconds. Let p=0.001. Then, effective access time is

```
eat = 0.001 * 10 msec +(1 – 0.001) * 1 \musec
= 0.001 * 10 000 \musec + 0.999 * 1 \musec
\approx 10 \musec + 1 \musec
```

Dirty bit

- In order to reduce PF service time, a special bit called the dirty bit can be associated with each page.
- The dirty bit is set to "1" by the hardware whenever the page is modified (written into).
- When we select a victim by using a page replacement algorithm, we examine its dirty bit.
- If it is set, that means the page has been modified since it was swapped in.
- In this case we have to write that page into the backing store.

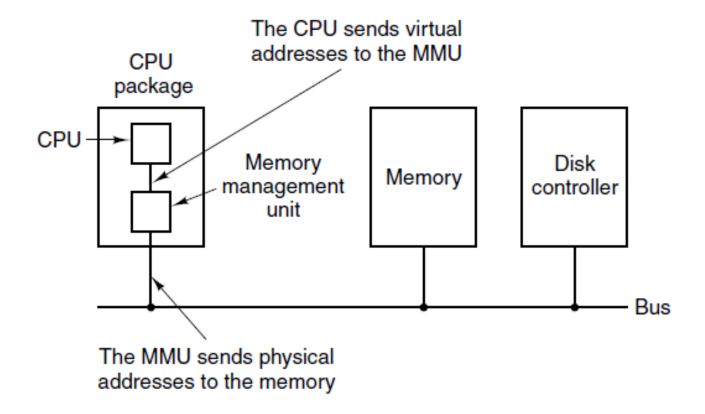
Dirty bit

- However if the dirty bit is reset, that means the page has not been modified since it was swapped in, so we don't have to write it into the backing store. The copy in the backing store is valid.
- Let the probability of a page being dirty be d.

In this case effective access time becomes:

```
eat = p * [ (1-d) * swap_in + d * (swap_in + swap_out) ] + (1 - p) * emat
```

Paging (1)

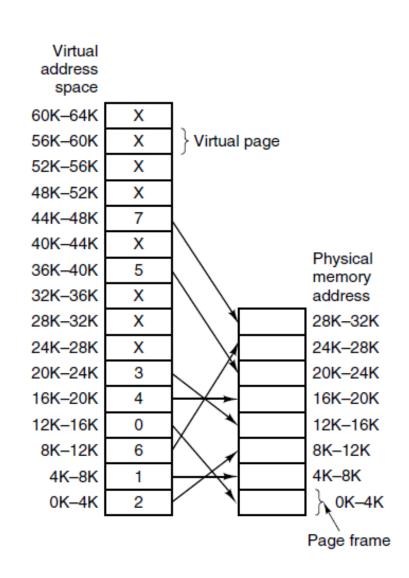


The position and function of the MMU.

- Here the MMU is shown as being a part of the CPU chip because it commonly is nowadays.
- However, logically it could be a separate chip and was so years ago.

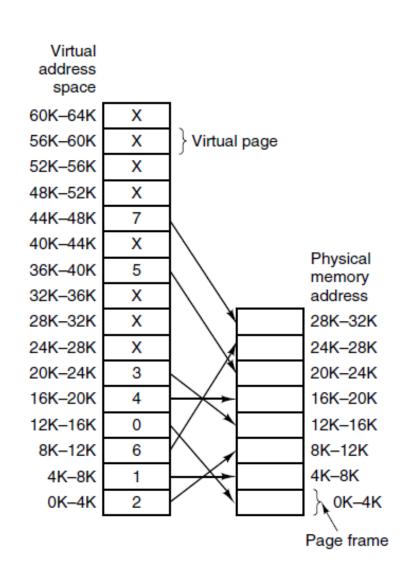
Paging (2)

- The relation between virtual addresses and physical memory addresses is given by the page table.
- Every page begins on a multiple of 4096 and ends 4095 addresses higher
- 4K–8K means 4096–8191
- 8K to 12K means 8192–12287



Paging (3)

- MOV REG,0 (virtual page 0)
 becomes MOV REG,8192 (physical page 2)
- MOV REG, 8192(virtual page 2)
 becomes MOV REG, 24576 (physical page 6)
- MOV REG, 32780 (byte 12 in virtual page 8)
 - → PAGE FAULT
 - → SWAP frame 1 and page 8
- MOV REG, 32780 (byte 12 in virtual page 8)
 becomes MOV REG, 4108 (4096+12)



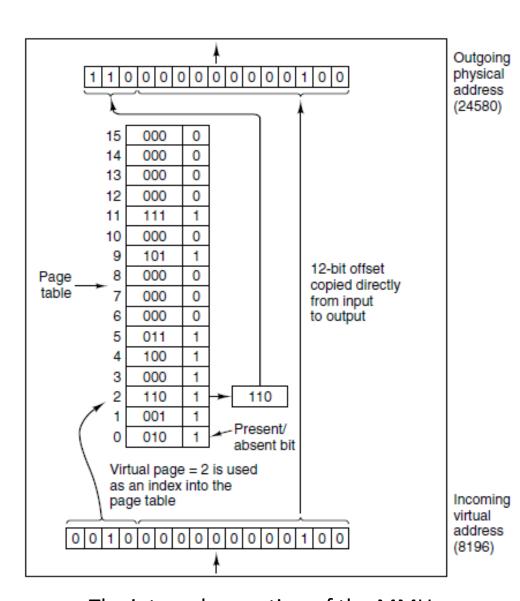
Paging (4)

The page number is used as an index into the **page table.**

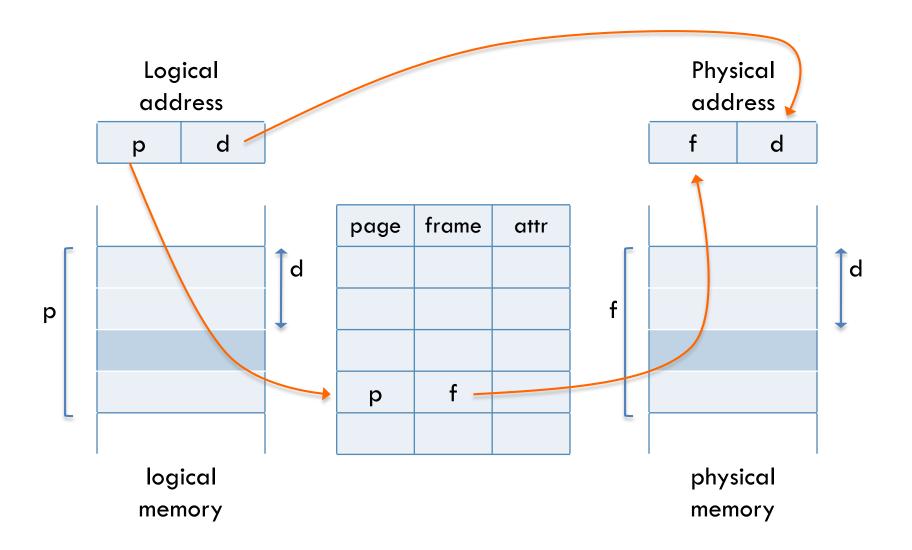
If the *Present/absent* bit is 0, a trap to the operating system is caused.

If the bit is 1, the page frame number is copied to the high-order 3 bits of the output register, along with the 12-bit offset

Together they form a 15-bit physical address.



The internal operation of the MMU with 16 4-KB pages.



Example

- Consider the following to form a physical memory map.
- Page Size = 8 words → d: 3 bits
- Physical Memory Size = 128 words

=
$$128/8=16$$
 frames \rightarrow f: 4 bits

- Assume maximum program size is 4 pages → p: 2 bits
- A program of 3 pages where P0 \rightarrow f3; P1 \rightarrow f6; P2 \rightarrow f4

Logical memory

9.00	· • /
Word 0	
Word 1	Page 0
	(P0)
Word 7	
Word 8	
Word 9	Page 1
	(P1)
Word 15	
Word 16	
Word 17	Page 2
	(P2)
Word 23	
	i e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e e

PAGE TABE

Page	Frame
0	3
1	6
2	4

Physical memory

Word 0				
Word 1	Frame 3			
	(f3)			
Word 7				
Word 16				
Word 17	Frame 4			
	(f4)			
Word 23				
	•••			
Word 8				
Word 9	Frame 6			
•••	(f6)			
Word 15				
92				

Program Line

Word 0

Word 1

. . .

Word 7

Word 8

Word 9

. . .

Word 15

Word 16

Word 17

. . .

Word 23

Program Line	Logical Address
Word 0	00 000
Word 1	00 001
•••	
Word 7	00 111
Word 8	01 000
Word 9	01 001
•••	
Word 15	01 111
Word 16	10 000
Word 17	10 001
Word 23	10 111

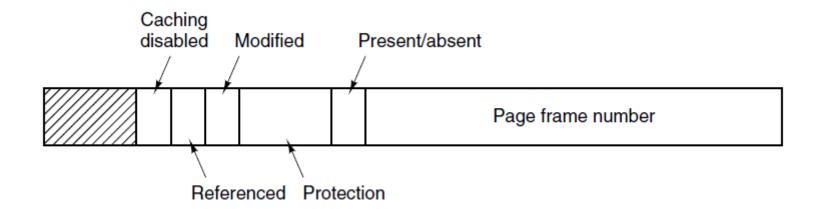
Program Line	Logical Address	Offset
Word 0	00 000	000
Word 1	00 001	001
Word 7	00 111	111
Word 8	01 000	000
Word 9	01 001	001
Word 15	01 111	111
Word 16	10 000	000
Word 17	10 001	001
Word 23	10 111	111

Program Line	Logical Address	Offset	Page Number
Word 0	00 000	000	00
Word 1	00 001	001	00
Word 7	00 111	111	00
Word 8	01 000	000	01
Word 9	01 001	001	01
Word 15	01 111	111	01
Word 16	10 000	000	10
Word 17	10 001	001	10
Word 23	10 111	111	10

Program Line	Logical Address	Offset	Page Number	Frame Number
Word 0	00 000	000	00	0011
Word 1	00 001	001	00	0011
Word 7	00 111	111	00	0011
Word 8	01 000	000	01	0010
Word 9	01 001	001	01	0010
Word 15	01 111	111	01	0010
Word 16	10 000	000	10	0100
Word 17	10 001	001	10	0100
Word 23	10 111	111	10	01,00

Program Line	Logical Address	Offset	Page Number	Frame Number	Physical Address
Word 0	00 000	000	00	0011	0011 000
Word 1	00 001	001	00	0011	0011 001
Word 7	00 111	111	00	0011	0011 111
Word 8	01 000	000	01	0110	0110 000
Word 9	01 001	001	01	0110	0110 001
Word 15	01 111	111	01	0110	0110 111
Word 16	10 000	000	10	0100	0100 000
Word 17	10 001	001	10	0100	0100 001
Word 23	10 111	111	10	01,00	0100 111

Structure of a Page Table Entry



A typical page table entry.

- Protection bits tell what kinds of access are permitted (for example read/write/execute).
- Modified and Referenced bits keep track of page usage.
- Modified bit is sometimes called the dirty bit.
- Referenced bit is set whenever a page is referenced, either for reading or for writing.

Virtual Memory Implementation

 A process is an abstraction of the physical processor (CPU).

 Virtual memory (address space) is an abstraction of physical memory

- Virtual memory can be implemented by breaking the virtual address space up into pages, and
- mapping each one onto some page frame of physical memory or having it (temporarily) unmapped.

Speeding Up Paging

Major issues faced:

- The mapping from virtual address to physical address must be fast.
- 2. If the virtual address space is large, the page table will be large.

32 bit address space -> 4 GB

4K page size -> 1 M pages ~

64 bit address space -> \sim 1,8 x 10¹⁹

4K page size -> \sim 4,5 x 10¹⁵ pages

each process needs its own page table

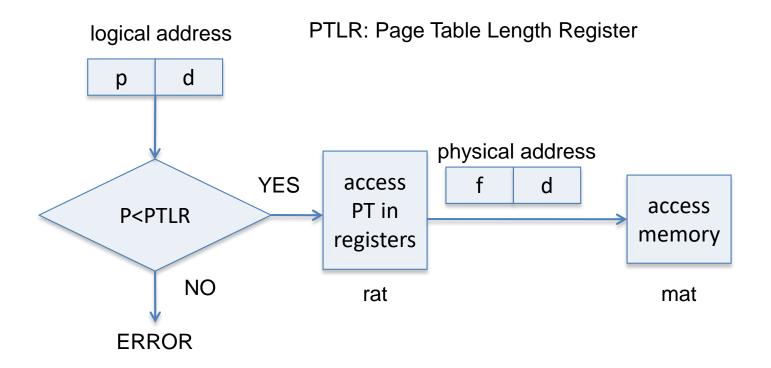
- Every access to memory should go through the page table.
- Therefore, it must be implemented in an efficient way.

- How to implement the page table?
 - Using fast dedicated registers
 - Keep the page table in main memory
 - Use content-addressable associative registers

Using fast dedicated registers

- A single page table consisting of
 - an array of fast hardware registers,
 - one entry for each virtual page,
 - indexed by virtual page number
- When a process is started up, OS loads the registers with the process' page table from main memory.
- Only the OS is able to modify these registers.
- Advantages
 - requires no memory references during mapping.
- Disadvantage
 - unbearably expensive if the page table is large
 - loading full page table at every context

Using fast dedicated registers

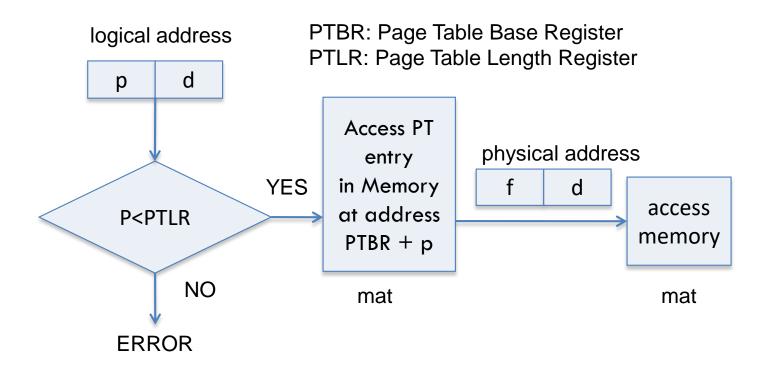


Effective Memory Access Time emat=rat+mat

Keep the page table in main memory

- In this second method, the OS keeps a page table in the memory, instead of registers.
- For every logical memory reference, two memory accesses are required:
 - 1. To access the page table in the memory, in order to find the corresponding frame number.
 - 2. To access the memory word in that frame
- This is cheap but a time consuming method.

Keep the page table in main memory



Effective Memory Access Time:

emat=mat+mat=2mat

Translation Lookaside Buffers (TLB)

<u>Associative memory</u> (TLB or content addressable memory):

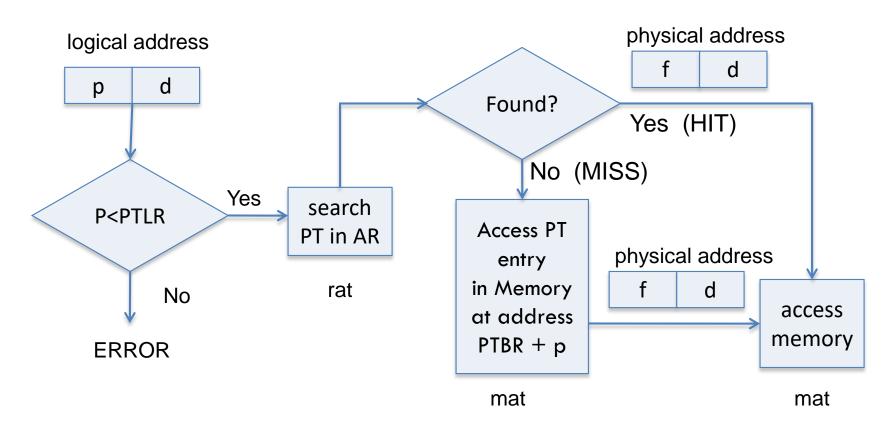
- a special h/w that can do search in parallel for a content and provides a result of MATCH (HIT) or NO MATCH (MISS).

Valid	Virtual page	Modified	Protection	Page frame
1	140	1	RW	31
1	20	0	RX	38
1	130	1	RW	29
1	129	1	RW	62
1	19	0	RX	50
1	21	0	RX	45
1	860	1	RW	14
1	861	1	RW	75

Contents of an example TLB (associative memory) used to speed up paging.

Use content-addressable associative registers

- This is a mixing of first two methods.
- Associative registers are small, high speed registers built in a special way so that they permit an associative search over their contents.
- That is, all registers may be searched in one machine cycle simultaneously. However, associative registers are quite expensive. So, a small number of them should be used.
- Overall, the method is not-expensive and not-slow.



Effective Memory Access Time:

h: hit ratio

Emat=h *emat_{HIT} + (1-h) * emat_{MISS} =h(rat+mat)+(1-h)(rat+mat+mat)

- Assume we have a paging system that uses associative registers.
- These associative registers have an access time of 30 ns, and the memory access time is 470 ns.
- The system has a hit ratio of 90 %.
- rat=30 ns
- mat=470ns
- h=0.9

- Now, if the page number is found in one of the associative registers, then the effective access time:
- $emat_{HIT} = 30 + 470 = 500 \text{ ns.}$
- Because one access to associative registers and one access to the main memory is sufficient.

rat=30 ns, mat=470ns, h=0.9

- On the other hand, if the page number is not found in associative registers, then the effective access time:
- $emat_{MISS} = 30 + (470+470) = 970 \text{ ns.}$
- Since one access to associative registers and two accesses to the main memory are required.

```
rat=30 ns, mat=470ns, h=0.9 
emat<sub>HIT</sub> = 500 ns, emat<sub>MISS</sub> = 970 ns.
```

Then, the emat is calculated as follows:

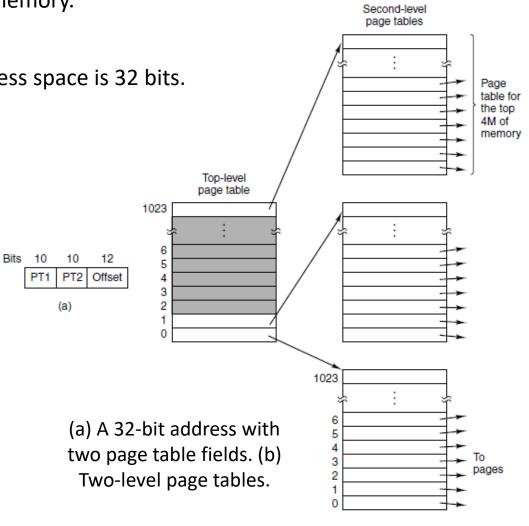
```
emat= h *emat<sub>HIT</sub> + (1-h) * emat<sub>MISS</sub>
= 0.9 * 500 + 0.1 * 970
= 450 + 97 = 547 \text{ ns}
```

Multilevel Page Tables

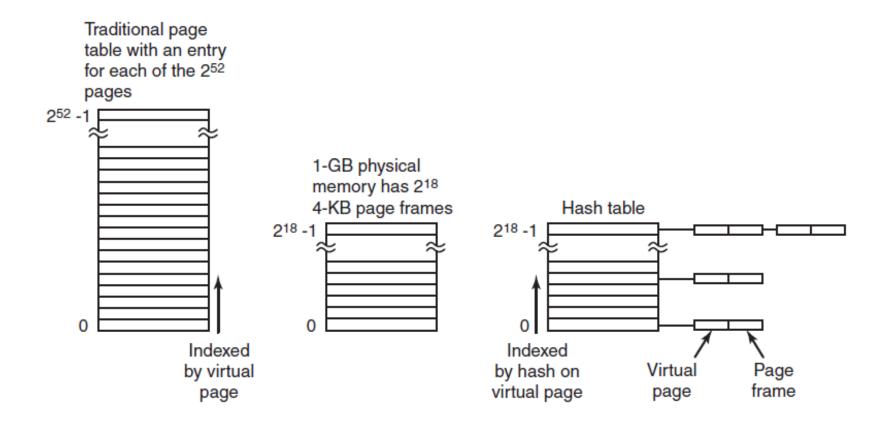
Avoid keeping all the page tables in memory.

Consider the case where virtual address space is 32 bits.
 Assume pages are 4 KB.
 This implies 4M pages per process

- Using a 2-level page table approach, we need to keep only four tables of size 1024 instead.
- Ex:Virtual address=0x00403004PT1=1, PT2=3, offset=4
- Unused pages are marked in the first level and generates an error if referenced.



Inverted Page Tables



Comparison of a traditional page table with an inverted page table.

Sharing Pages

- Sharing pages is possible in a paging system, and is an important advantage of paging.
- It is possible to share system procedures or programs, user procedures or programs, and possibly data area.
- Sharing pages is especially advantageous in time-sharing systems.

Sharing Pages

- A re-entrant program (non-self-modifying code = read only) never changes during execution.
- So, more than one process can execute the same code at the same time.
- Each process will have its own data storage and its own copy of registers to hold the data for its own execution of the shared program.

Sharing Pages

Example

- Consider a system having page size=30 MB.
- There are 3 users executing an editor program which is 90 MB (3 pages) in size, with a 30 MB (1 page) data space.
- To support these 3 users, the OS must allocate 3 * (90+30) = 360 MB space.
- However, if the editor program is reentrant (non-self-modifying code = read only), then it can be shared among the users, and only one copy of the editor program is sufficient.
- Therefore, only 90 + 30 * 3 = 180 MB of memory space is enough for this case

User-1

P0 e1 P1 e2 P2 e3 P3 data1

PT-1

Page#	Frame#
0	8
1	4
2	5
3	7

Physical Memory

f0	OS
f1	OS
f2	OS
f3	
f4	e2
f5	e3
f6	
f7	data1
f8	e1
f9	
10	
11	
12	
13	
14	
15	

USEI-I	l	J	36	rد	-1
--------	---	---	----	----	----

P0	e1
P1	e2
P2	e3
P3	data1

PT-1

Page#	Frame#
0	8
1	4
2	5
3	7

User-2

P0	e1
P1	e2
P2	e3
P3	data2

PT-2

Page#	Frame#
0	8
1	4
2	5
3	12

Physical Memory

	111011101
f0	OS
f1	OS
f2	OS
f3	
f4	e2
f5	e3
f6	
f7	data1
f8	e1
f9	
f10	
f11	
f12	data 2
f13	
f14	
f15	

U	S	е	r-	1

P0 e1 P1 e2 P2 e3 P3 data1

PT-1

Page#	Frame#
0	8
1	4
2	5
3	7

Physical Memory

OS f0 OS f1 f2 OS f3 e2 f4 f5 **e**3 f6 data1 f7 f8 e1 f9 data3 f10 f11 data 2 f12 f13 f14 f15

User-2

P0 e1 e2 e3 P3 data2

PT-2

Page#	Frame#
0	8
1	4
2	5
3	12

User-3

P0 e1 e2 e3 P3 data3

PT-3

Page#	Frame#
0	8
1	4
2	5
3	10

User-1

P0 e1 P1 e2

P2 **e**3

P3 data1 PT-1

Page#	Frame#
0	8
1	4
2	5
3	7

Physical

Memory

e3

e1

OS f1 OS

f2 OS

f3

f0

e2 f4

f5

f6

f7 data1

f8

f9 f10 data3

£11

f12

f13

f14

f15

User 2 terminates:

Data2 page is removed from memory, but editor pages remain..

User-3

P0 e1 P1 e2

P2 **e**3

P3 data3 PT-3

Page#	Frame#
0	8
1	4
2	5
3	10

User 1 terminates: data1 is also removed from memory.

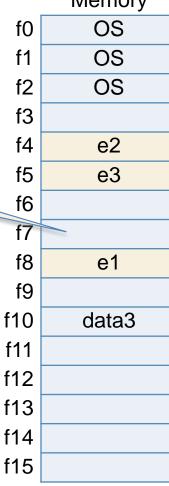
User-3

P0 e1
P1 e2
P2 e3
P3 data3

PT-3

Page#	Frame#
0	8
1	4
2	5
3	10

Physical Memory



When User 3
terminates:
Data-3 and also editor
segments are removed
from memory.

Physical Memory fo OS f1 OS OS

f3 f4

f5 f6

f7

f8 f9

f10 f11

f12

f13

f14

f15

Page Replacement Algorithms

- Optimal algorithm
- Not recently used algorithm
- First-in, first-out (FIFO) algorithm
- Second-chance algorithm
- Clock algorithm
- Least recently used (LRU) algorithm
- Working set algorithm
- WSClock algorithm

Page Replacement Algorithms

- A page replacement algorithm determines how victim page (page to be replaced) is selected when a page fault occurs.
 - The aim is to minimize the page fault rate.
- Efficiency is evaluated by running the algorithm on a particular string of memory references and computing the number of page faults.
- Reference strings are either generated randomly, or by tracing the paging behavior of a system and recording the page number for each logical memory reference.

Page Replacement Algorithms

• Consecutive references to the same page may be reduced to a single reference, because they won't cause any page fault except possibly the first one: $(1,4,1,6,1,1,1,3) \rightarrow (1,4,1,6,1,3)$.

 We have to know the number of page frames available in order to be able to decide on the page to be replaced.

Optionally, a frame allocation policy may be followed.

- In this algorithm,
 - the victim is the page, which will not be used for the longest period.
- For a fixed number of frames, OPT has the lowest page fault rate among all page replacement algorithms.
- Problem: OPT is not possible to be implemented in practice since it requires future knowledge.
- It is used for performance comparison.

Example

- Assume we have 3 frames
- Consider the reference string below.

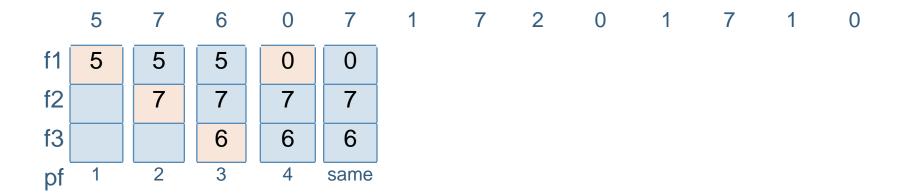
- Show the content of memory after each memory reference if OPT page replacement algorithm is used.
- Find also the number of page faults

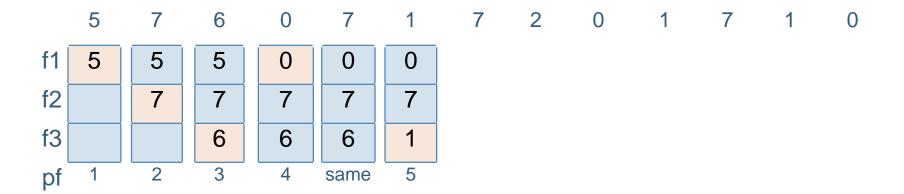


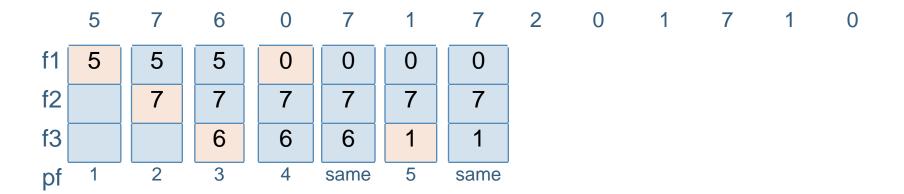


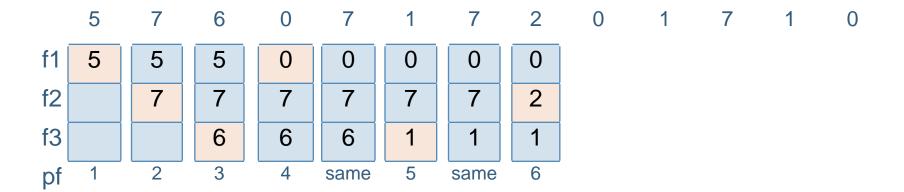


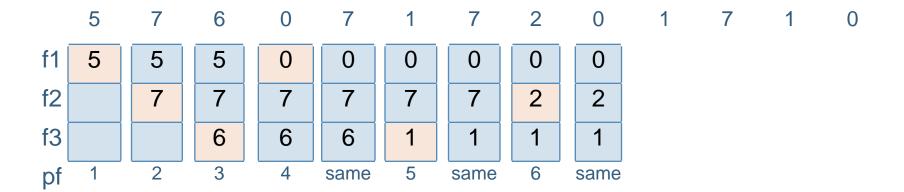


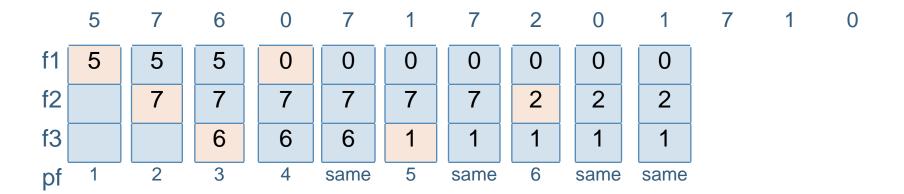


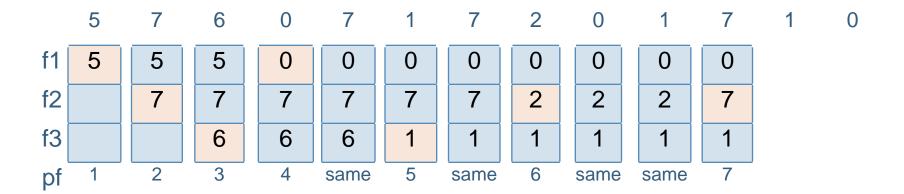


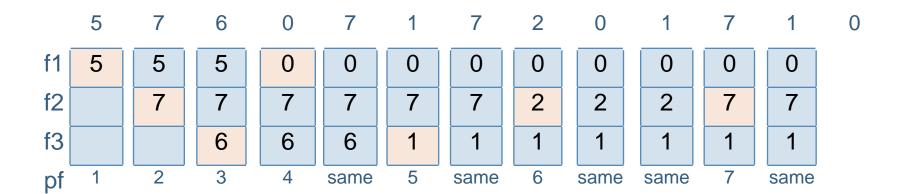


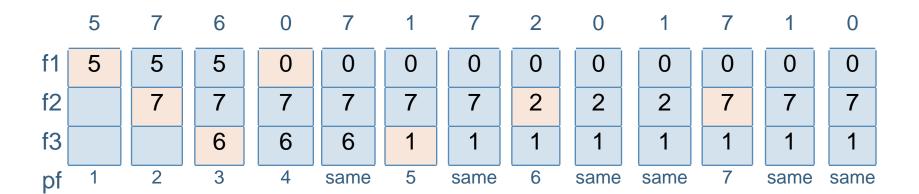




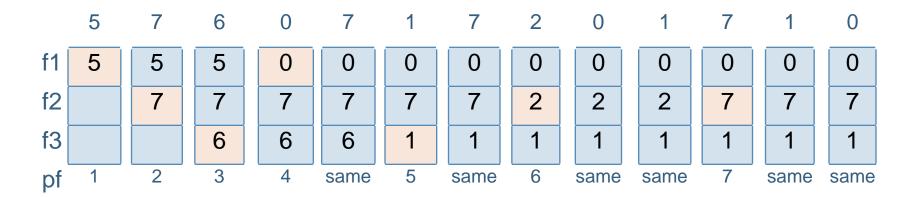








The victim is the page, which will not be used for the longest period.



According to the given information, this algorithm generates a page replacement scheme with 7 page faults.

Not Recently Used Algorithm

- At page fault, system inspects pages
- Categories of pages based on the current values of their R and M bits:

Class 0: not referenced, not modified.

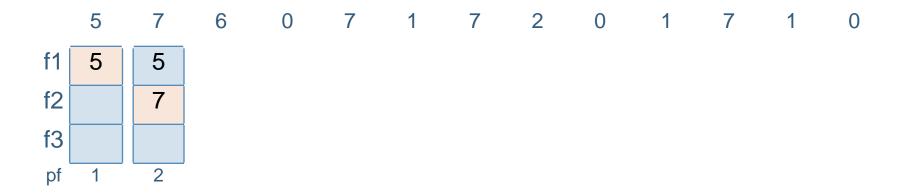
Class 1: not referenced, modified.

Class 2: referenced, not modified.

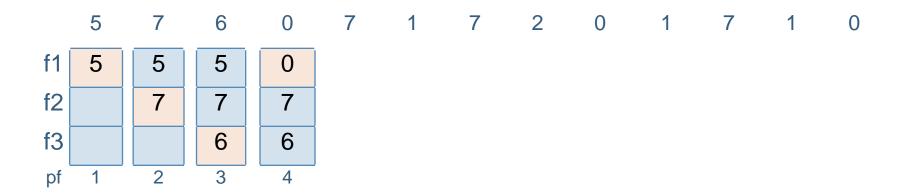
Class 3: referenced, modified.

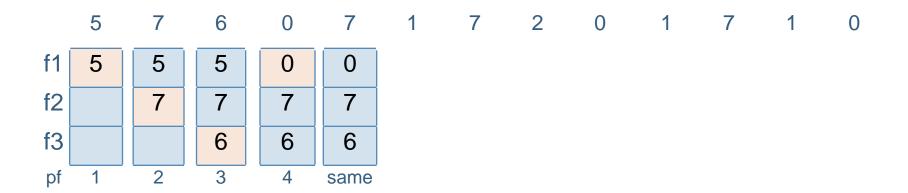
 The NRU (Not Recently Used) algorithm removes a page at random from the lowest-numbered nonempty class.

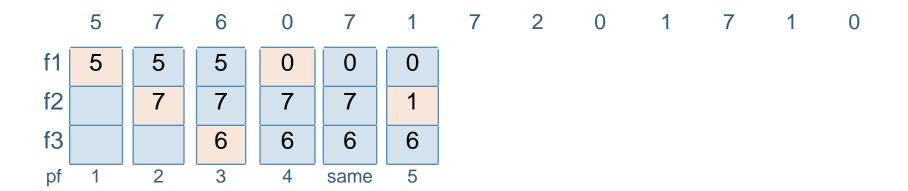


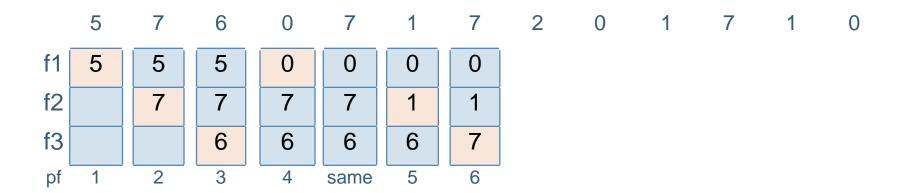


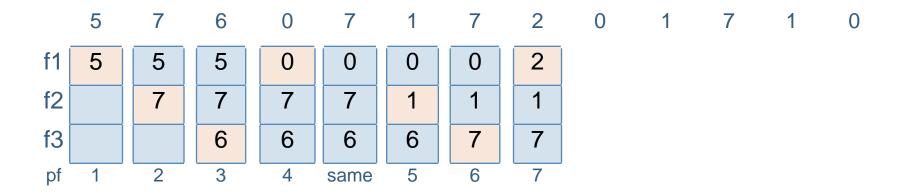


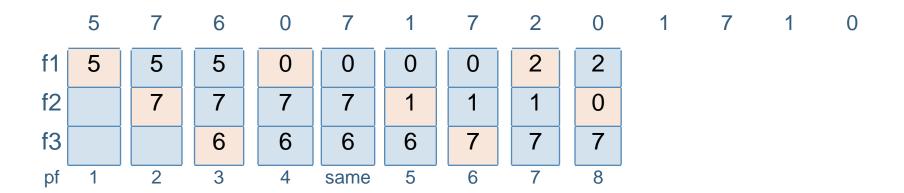


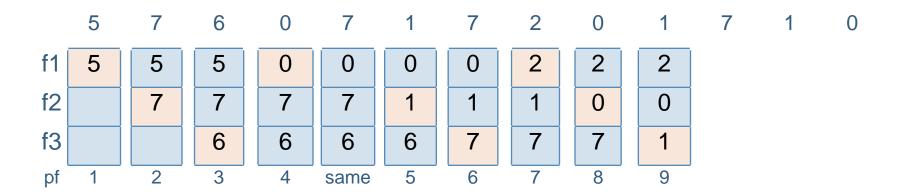


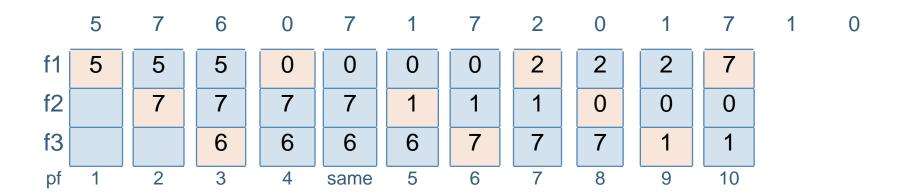


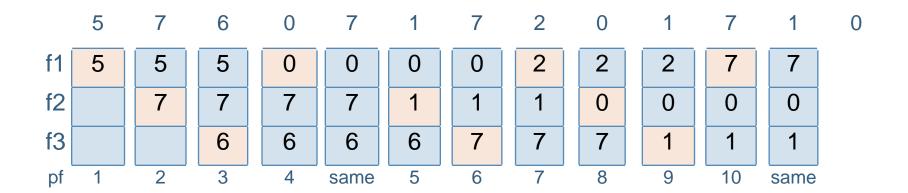


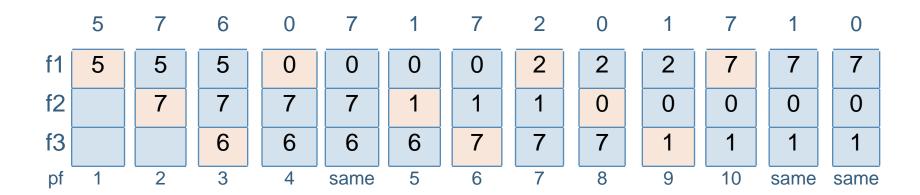




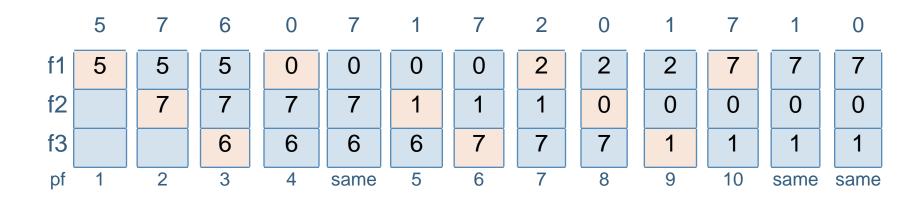








This is a simple algorithm, and easy to implement. The idea is straight forward: choose the oldest page as the victim.



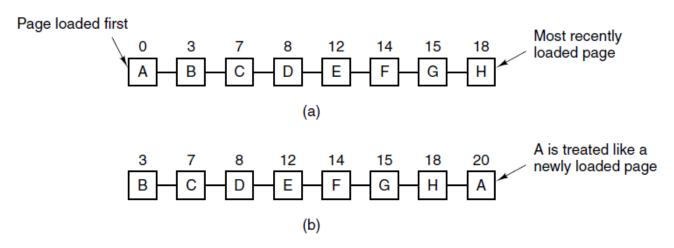
10 page faults.

Belady's Anomaly

- Normally, one would expect that as the total number of frames increases, the number of page faults decreases.
- However, for FIFO, there are cases where this generalization fails.
 This is called Belady's Anomaly.
- As an exercise consider the reference string below. Reference string: 1, 2, 3, 4, 1, 2, 5, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5
- Apply the FIFO method and find the number of page faults considering different number of frames.
- Then, examine whether the replacement suffers Belady's anomaly.

Second-Chance Algorithm

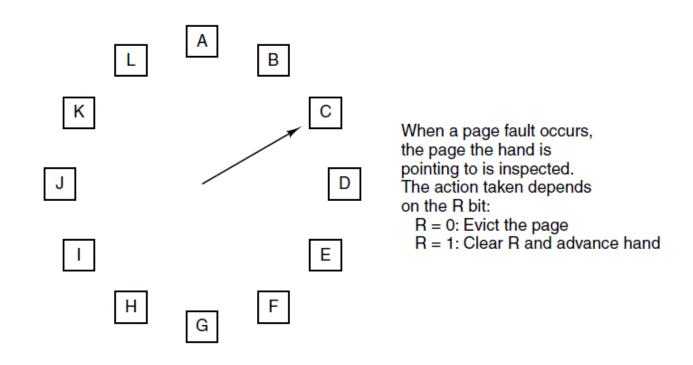
If R=0, the page is both old and unused, so it is replaced immediately. If R=1, the bit is cleared, the page is put onto the end of the list of pages, and its load time is updated as though it had just arrived in memory. Then the search continues.



Operation of second chance. (a) Pages sorted in FIFO order. (b) Page list if a page fault occurs at time 20 and A has its R bit set. The numbers above the pages are their load times.

Clock Page Replacement Algorithm

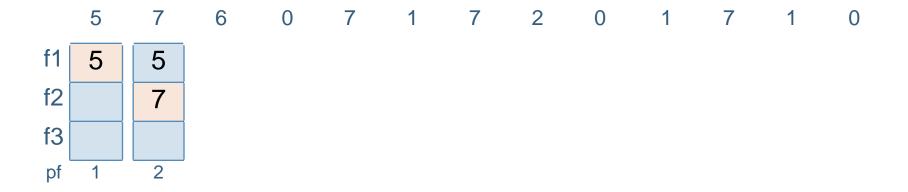
A better (more efficient) implementation of the second chance algorithm



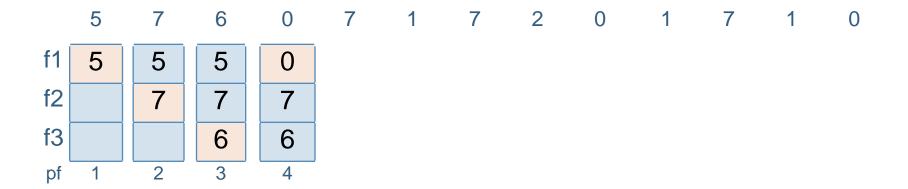
The clock page replacement algorithm.

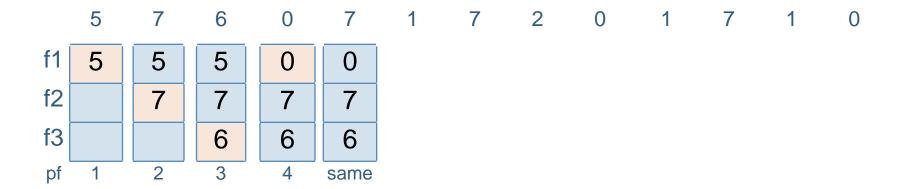
- In this algorithm,
 - victim is the page that has not been used for the longest period.
- OS using this method, has to associate with each page, the time it was last used, which means extra storage.
- In the simplest way, OS sets reference bit of a page to "1" when it is referenced.
- This bit will not give the order of use but it will simply tell whether the corresponding frame is referenced recently or not.
- The OS resets all reference bits periodically.

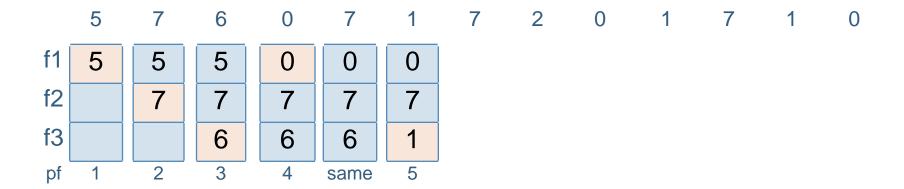


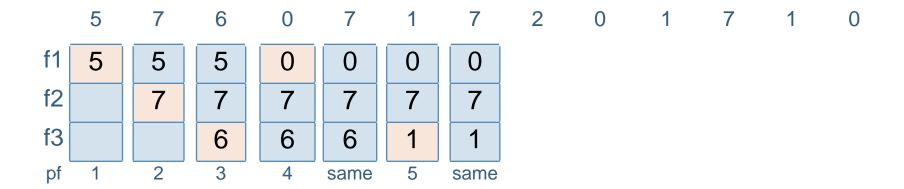


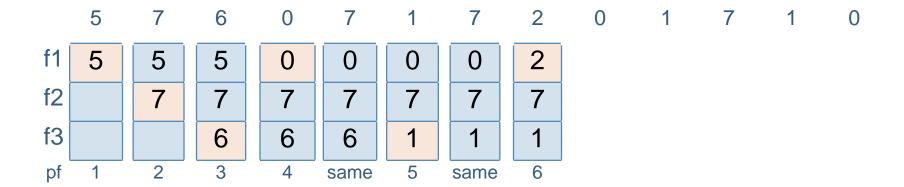


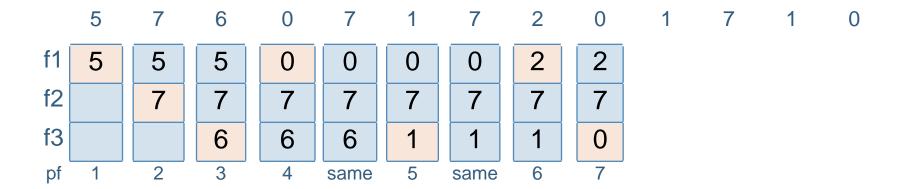


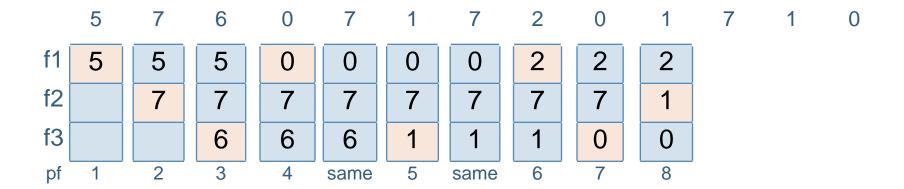


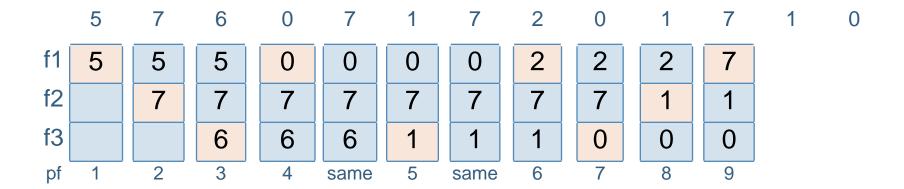


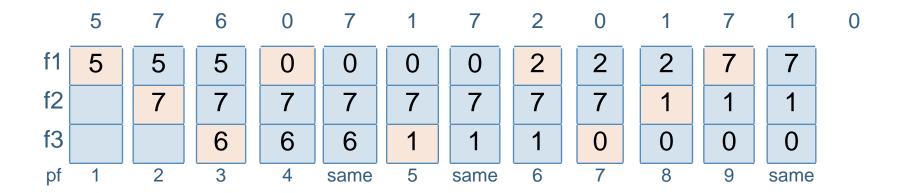


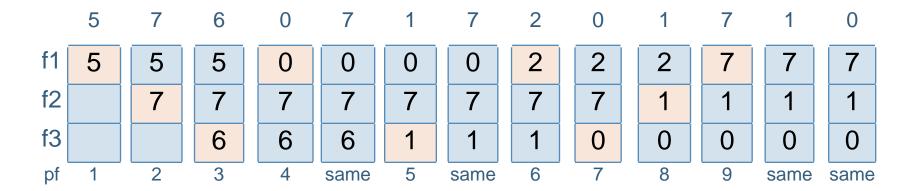




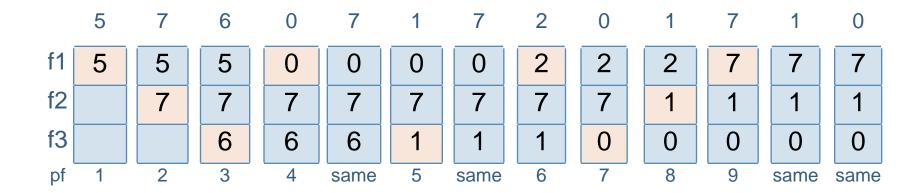








victim is the page that has not been used for the longest period.

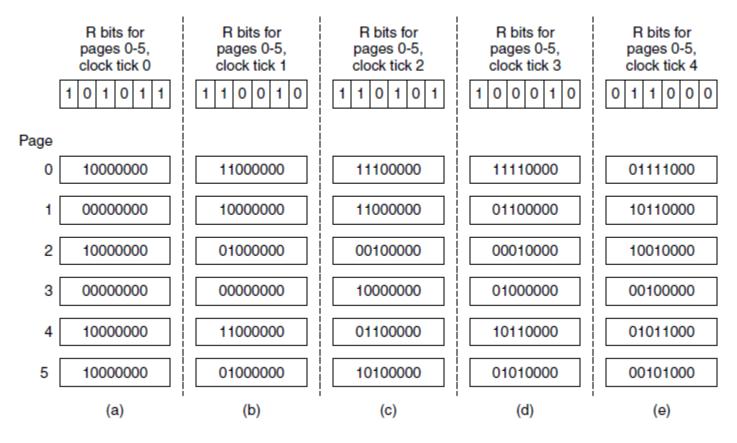


9 page faults.

LRU by Hardware

- Although LRU is theoretically realizable, it is costly to implement.
- Need to maintain a linked list of all pages in memory
 - The most recently used page at the front and the least recently used page at the rear.
- Difficulty: the list must be updated on every memory reference.
 - time consuming even if this structure is impemented in hardware
- There are other ways to implement LRU with special hardware.
 - equipping the hardware with a 64-bit counter, C, that is automatically incremented after each instruction
 - each page table has a field large enough to contain value of C
 - after each memory reference, the current value of C is stored in the page table entry for the page just referenced.
 - When a page fault occurs, OS examines all the counters in the page tables to find the lowest one.
 - It is the least recently used.

Simulating LRU in Software



The aging algorithm simulates LRU in software. Shown are six pages for five clock ticks. The five clock ticks are represented by (a) to (e).

Frame Allocation

 In page replacement, the following policies may be followed:

– Global Replacement:

A process can replace any page in the memory.

– Local Replacement:

 Each process can replace only from its own reserved set of allocated page frames.

Frame Allocation

- In case of local replacement, OS should determine how many frames should it allocate to each process.
- The number of frames for each process may be adjusted by using two ways:
 - Equal Allocation:
 - If there are n frames and p processes, n/p frames are allocated to each process.
 - Proportional Allocation:
 - Let virtual memory size for a process p be v(p). Let m processes and n frames.
 - Total virtual memory size: $V = \Sigma v(p)$.
 - Allocate (v(p) / V) * n frames to process p.

Frame Allocation

Example

Consider a system having 64 frames. Assume 4
processes with the following virtual memory sizes:

$$v(1) = 16$$
, $v(2) = 128$, $v(3) = 64$ and $v(4) = 48$.

- Equal Allocation:
 - OS allocates n/p = 64 / 4 = 16 frames to each process.

Frame Allocation

$$v(1) = 16$$
, $v(2) = 128$, $v(3) = 64$ and $v(4) = 48$.

- Proportional Allocation: V = 16 + 128 + 64 + 48 = 256.
 OS allocates:
 - -(16/256)*64 = 4 frames to process 1,
 - -(128/256)*64 = 32 frames to process 2,
 - -(64/256)*64 = 16 frames to process 3,
 - (48 / 256) * 64 = 12 frames to process 4.

Thrashing

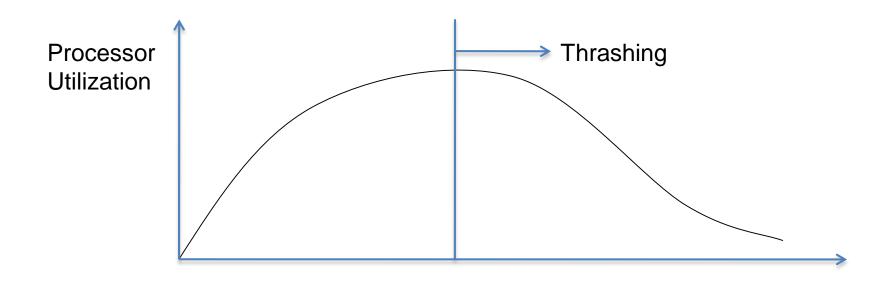
- A process is <u>thrashing</u> if it is spending more time for paging in/out (due to frequent page faults) than executing.
- Thrashing causes considerable degradation in system performance.
- If a process does not have enough number of frames allocated to it, it will issue a page fault.
- A victim page should then be chosen, but all pages may be in active use.
- So, victim page selection and new page replacement will be needed again in a very short time.
- This means that another page fault will be issued shortly, and so on and so forth.

Thrashing

- In case a process thrashes, the best thing to do is to suspend its execution and swap out all of its pages in the memory to the backing store.
- Local replacement algorithms can limit the effects of thrashing.

Thrashing

 If the degree of multiprogramming is increased over a limit, processor utilization falls down considerably because of thrashing.



Degree of multiprogramming

- To prevent thrashing, OS should provide a process as many frames as it needs.
- For this, working set model, which depends on the locality model of program execution, can be used.
- We shall use a parameter, Δ , called the **working set window size** and examine the last Δ page references.
- The set of pages in the last Δ references is to be called the **working set** of a process.

 Δ =10, calculate ws and wss at every 5 seconds

2 2 1 5 7 7 7 7 5 1

$$WS(t) = \{2,1,5,7\}$$
 $WSS(t) = 4$

Δ=10

2 2 1 5 7 7 7 7 5 1 3

Δ=10

2 2 1 5 7 7 7 7 5 1 3 4

Δ=10

2 2 1 5 7 7 7 7 5 1 3 4 4

Δ=10

2 2 1 5 7 7 7 7 5 1 3 4 4 4

Δ=10

2 2 1 5 7 7 7 7 5 1 3 4 4 4 3

t=15

$$WS(t) = \{7,5,1,3,4\}$$
 $WSS(t) = 5$

Δ=10

2 2 1 5 7 7 7 5 1 3 4 4 4 3 4

Δ=10

2 2 1 5 7 7 7 7 5 1 3 4 4 4 3 4 3

Δ=10

2 2 1 5 7 7 7 5 1 3 4 4 4 3 4 3 4

Δ=10

2 2 1 5 7 7 7 7 5 1 3 4 4 4 3 4 3 4 4

Δ=10

2 2 1 5 7 7 7 5 1 3 4 4 4 3 4 3 4 4 4

t=20

Δ=10

t=20

$$WS(t) = {3,4} WSS(t) = 2$$

- Note that in calculating the working sets, we do not reduce consequent references to the same page to a single reference.
- Choice of Δ is crucial.
 - If is to small, it will not cover the entire working set.
 - If it is too large, several localities of a process may overlap.
- It is suggested to be about 10.000 references.

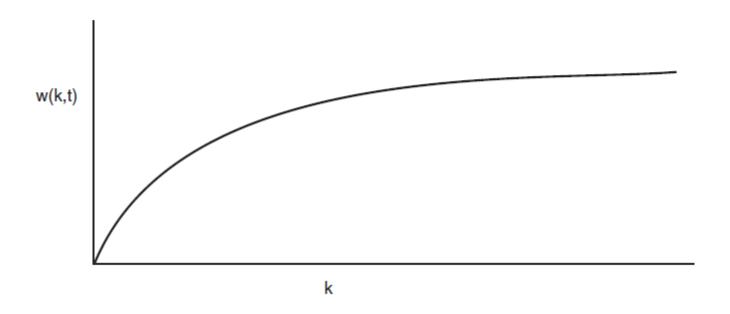
 Now, compute the WS size (WSS) for each process, and find the total demand, D of the system at that instance in time, as follows:

$$D(t_{now}) = \sum_{i=1}^{p} WSS_i(t_{now})$$

- If the number of frames is *n*, then
 - If D > n, the system is thrashing.
 - If D < n, the system is all right, hence degree of multiprogramming can possibly be increased.

- To be able to use the WS model for virtual memory management, OS keeps track of the WS of each process.
- It allocates each process enough frames to provide them with their WSs.
- If at one point D > n, OS selects a process to suspend.
- The frames that were used by the selected process are reallocated to other processes.
- PF frequency can also be used to decide on decreasing or increasing the no. of frames allocated to a process.

Working Set Algorithm (1)

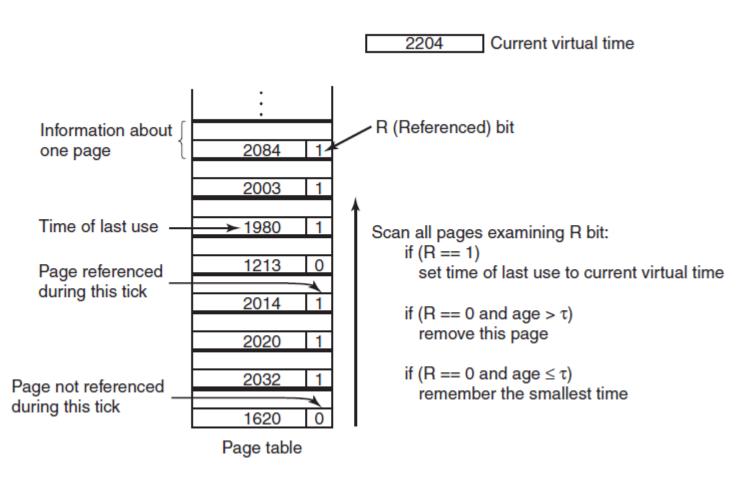


The working set is the set of pages used by the k most recent memory references. The function w(k, t) is the size of the working set at time t.

Working Set Algorithm (1)

- To implement WS model, it is necessary for OS to keep track of which pages are in WS.
- Algorithm: when a PF occurs, find a page not in the WS and evict it.
- To implement such an algorithm, we need a precise way of determining which pages are in the working set.

Working Set Algorithm (2)



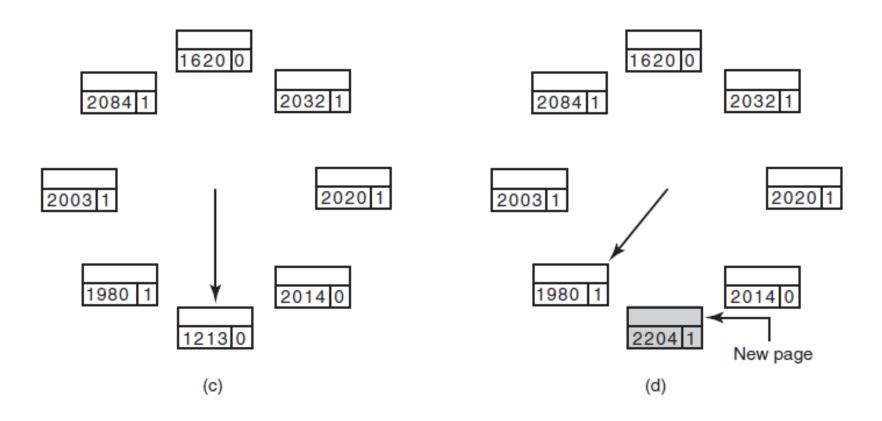
The working set algorithm.

WSClock Algorithm (1)

2204 Current virtual time 1620 0 1620 0 2032 1 2084 1 2032 1 2084 1 2020 1 2020 1 2003 1 2003 1 1980 1 1980 1 2014 0 2014 1 1213 0 1213 0 R bit Time of last use (a) (b)

Operation of the WSClock algorithm. (a) and (b) give an example of what happens when R = 1.

WSClock Algorithm (2)



Operation of the WSClock algorithm. (c) and (d) give an example of R = 0.

Summary of Page Replacement Algorithms

Algorithm	Comment	
Optimal	Not implementable, but useful as a benchmark	
NRU (Not Recently Used)	Very crude approximation of LRU	
FIFO (First-In, First-Out)	Might throw out important pages	
Second, chance	Big improvement over FIFO	
Clock	Realistic	
LRU (Least Recently Used)	Excellent, but difficult to implement exactly	
NFU (Not Frequently Used)	Fairly crude approximation to LRU	
Aging	Efficient algorithm that approximates LRU well	
Working set	Somewhat expensive to implement	
WSClock	Good efficient algorithm	

Page replacement algorithms discussed in the text.

Design Issues: Local versus Global Allocation Policies (1)

	Age
A0	10
A1	7
A2 A3	10 7 5 4
	4
A4	6
A5	3
B0	9
B1	9 4 6 2 5
B2	6
B3	2
B4	5
B5	6
B6	12
C1	3
C1 C2 C3	5
C3	6
(a)	

A0 A1 A2
A1
A2
A3
A4
(A6)
B0
B1
B2
B3
B4
B5
B6
C1
C1 C2 C3
C3
(b)

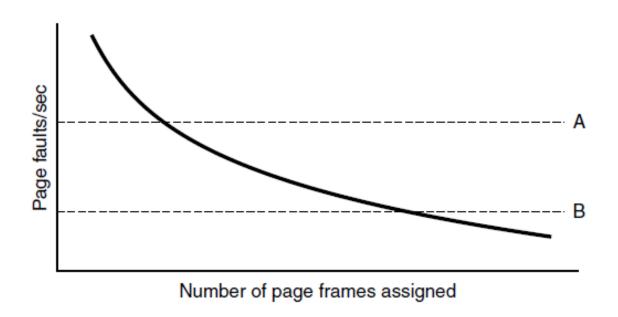
A0
A1
A2
A3
A4
A5
B0
B1
B2
(A6)
B4
B5
B6
C1
C2
C3
(c)

Local versus global page replacement.

(a) Original configuration. (b) Local page replacement.

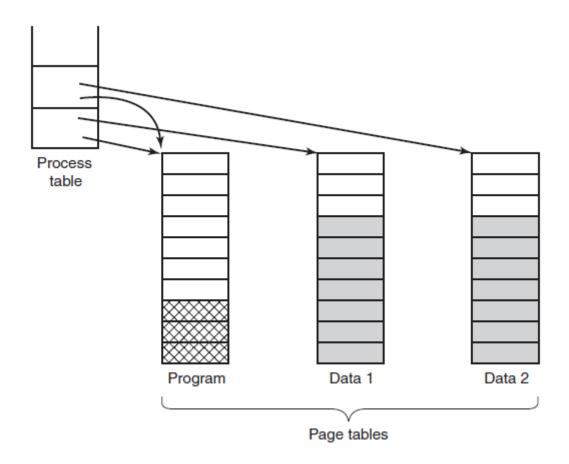
(c) Global page replacement.

Local versus Global Allocation Policies (2)



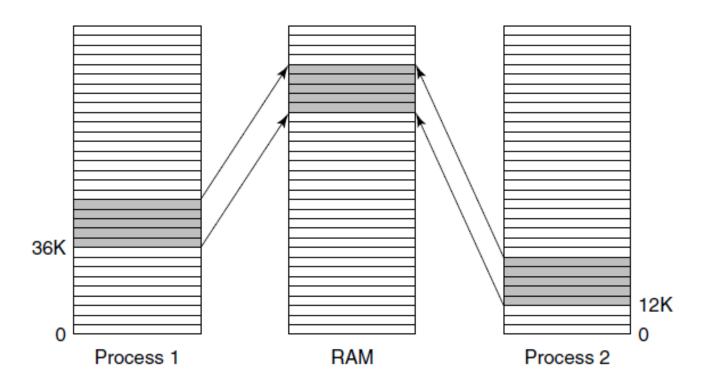
Page fault rate as a function of the number of page frames assigned.

Shared Pages



Two processes sharing the same program sharing its page table.

Shared Libraries



A shared library being used by two processes.

Page Fault Handling (1)

- 1. The hardware traps to kernel, saving program counter on stack.
- 2. Assembly code routine started to save general registers and other volatile info
- 3. System discovers page fault has occurred, tries to discover which virtual page needed
- 4. Once virtual address caused fault is known, system checks to see if address valid and the protection consistent with access

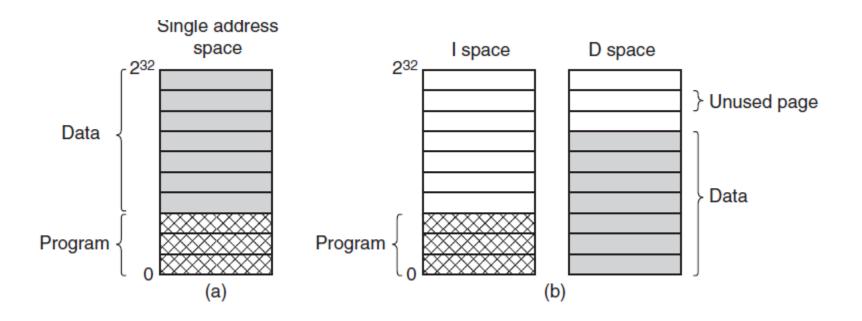
Page Fault Handling (2)

- 5. If frame selected dirty, page is scheduled for transfer to disk, context switch takes place, suspending faulting process
- 6. As soon as frame clean, operating system looks up disk address where needed page is, schedules disk operation to bring it in.
- 7. When disk interrupt indicates page has arrived, tables updated to reflect position, and frame marked as being in normal state.

Page Fault Handling (3)

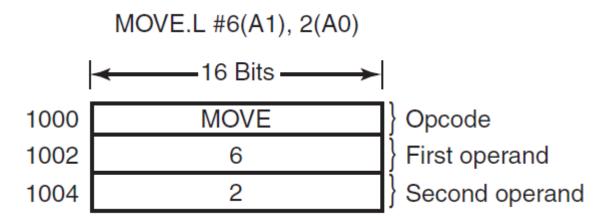
- 8. Faulting instruction backed up to state it had when it began and program counter is reset
- 9. Faulting process is scheduled, operating system returns to routine that called it.
- 10. Routine reloads registers and other state information, returns to user space to continue execution

Separate Instruction and Data Spaces



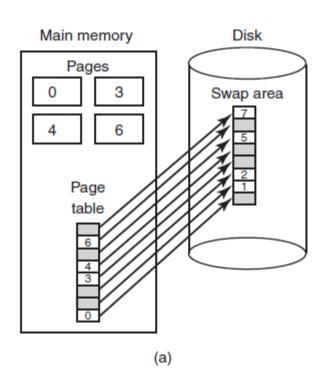
- (a) One address space.
- (b) Separate I and D spaces.

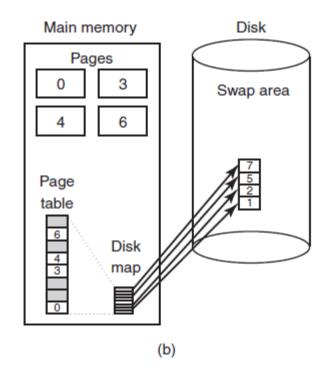
Instruction Backup



An instruction causing a page fault.

Backing Store





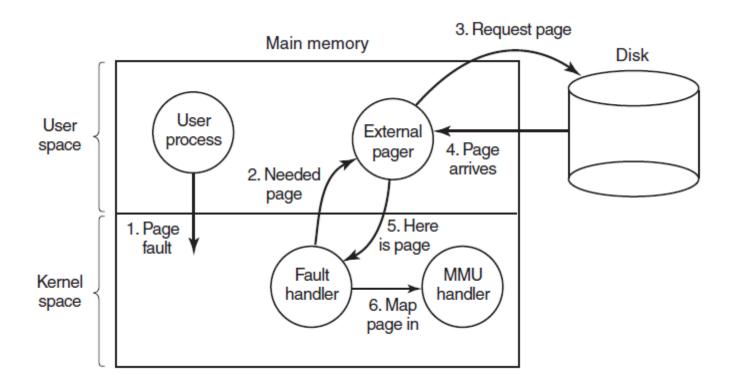
- (a) Paging to a static swap area.
- (b) Backing up pages dynamically.

Separation of Policy and Mechanism (1)

Memory management system is divided into three parts

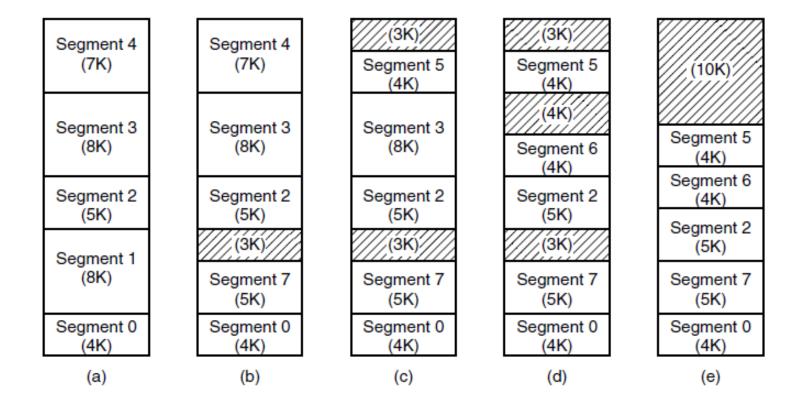
- 1. A low-level MMU handler.
- 2. A page fault handler that is part of the kernel.
- 3. An external pager running in user space.

Separation of Policy and Mechanism (2)



Page fault handling with an external pager.

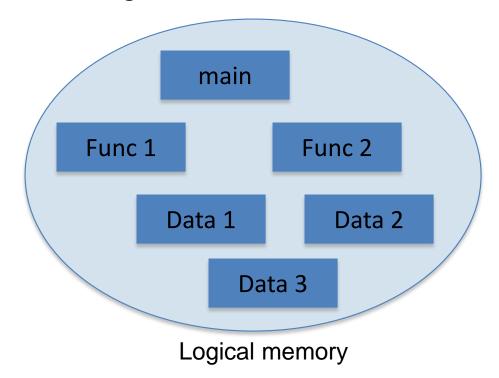
Implementation of Pure Segmentation



(a)-(d) Development of checkerboarding.(e) Removal of the checkerboarding by compaction.

- In segmentation, programs are divided into variable size segments, instead of fixed size pages.
- This is similar to variable partitioning, but programs are divided into small parts.
- Every logical address is formed of a segment name and an offset within that segment.
- In practice, segments are numbered.
- Programs are segmented automatically by the compiler or assembler.

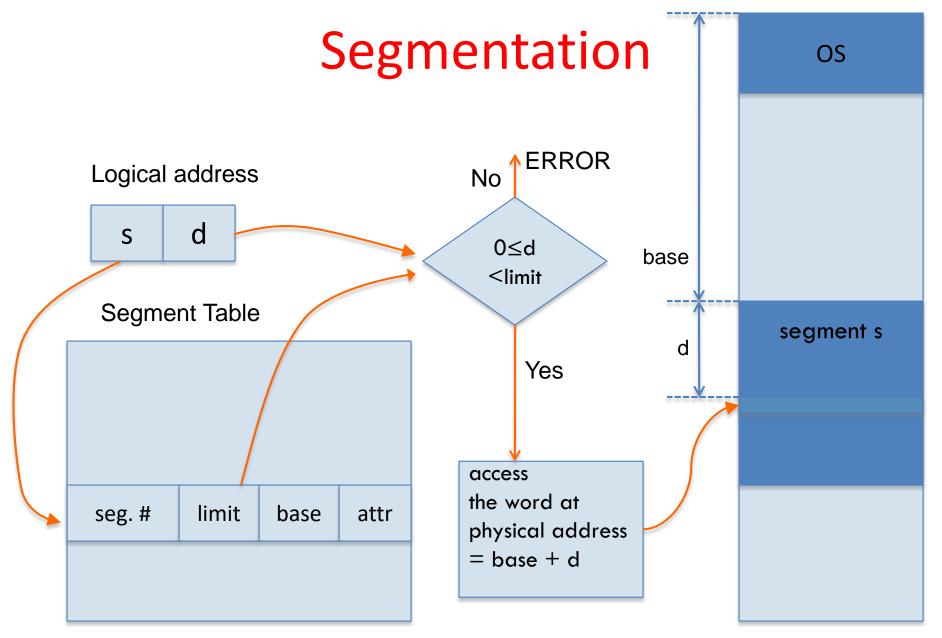
- For example, a C compiler may create segments for:
 - the code of each function
 - the local variables for each function
 - the global variables.



OS main Func 1 Func 2 Data 1 Data 2 Data 3

Physical memory

- For logical to physical address mapping, a segment table is used. When a logical address <s, d> is generated by the processor:
 - 1. Base and limit values corresponding to segment s are determined using the segment table
 - 2. The OS checks whether d is in the limit. $(0 \le d < limit)$
 - 3. If so, then the physical address is calculated as (base + d), and the memory is accessed.



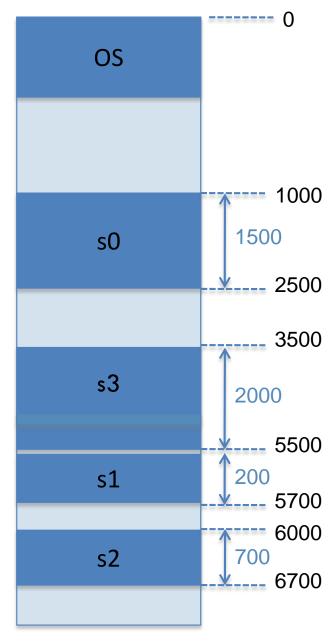
Physical memory

Example

 Generate the memory map according to the given segment table. Assume the generated logical address is <3,1123>; find the corresponding physical address.

Segment	Limit	Base
0	1500	1000
1	200	5500
2	700	6000
3	2000	3500

Segment	Limit	Base
0	1500	1000
1	200	5500
2	700	6000
3	2000	3500



Physical memory

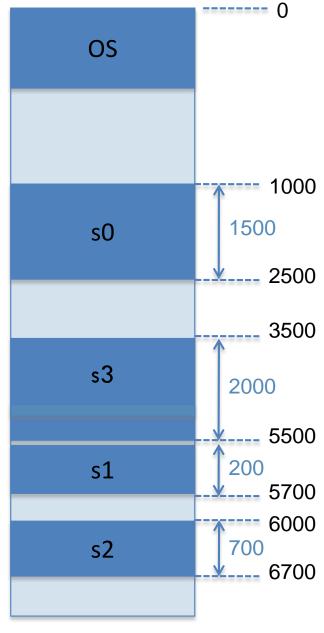
Segment	Limit	Base
0	1500	1000
1	200	5500
2	700	6000
3	2000	3500

Logical address: <3,1123>

s=3, d=1123

Check if dd1123<2000, OK

Physical address= base+d=3500+1123=4623



Physical memory

Segment	Limit	Base
0	1500	1000
1	200	5500
2	700	6000
3	2000	3500

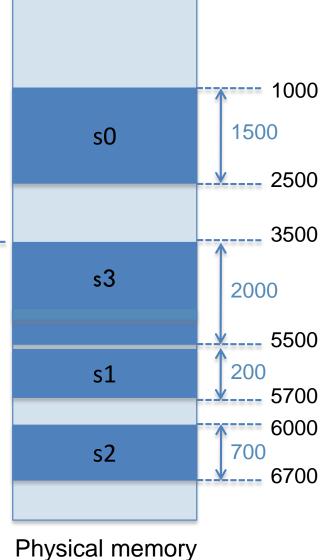
Base= 3500

Logical address: <3,1123>

s=3, d=1123

Check if dd1123<2000, OK

Physical address= base+d=3500+1123=4623



OS

Segment	Limit	Base
0	1500	1000
1	200	5500
2	700	6000
3	2000	3500

Base= 3500 d= 1123 4623

OS 1000 1500 s0 2500 3500 **s**3 2000 -- 5500 200 **s**1 **--** 5700 --- 6000 700 **s2** 6700

Logical address: <3,1123>

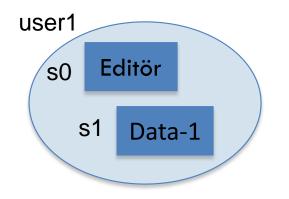
s=3, d=1123

Check if dif d1123<2000, OK

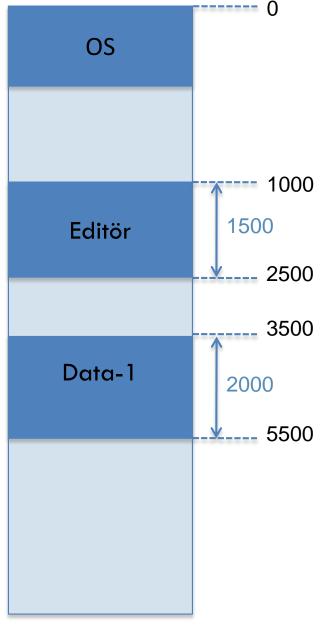
Physical address= base+d=3500+1123=4623

Physical memory

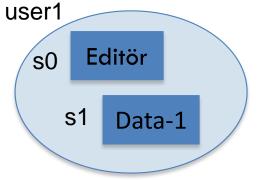
- Segment tables may be implemented in the main memory or in associative registers, in the same way it is done for page tables.
- Also sharing of segments is applicable as in paging. Shared segments should be read only and should be assigned the same segment number.



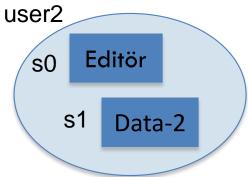




Physical memory

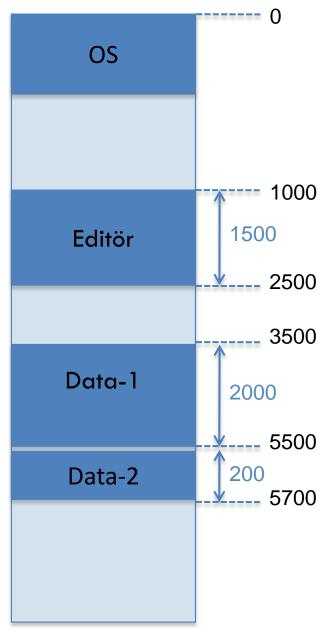


SII		
seg	lim	base
0	1500	1000
1	2000	3500

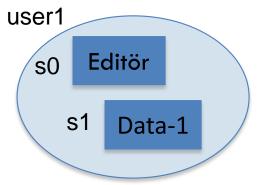


seg	lim	base
0	1500	1000
1	200	5500

ST2



Physical memory

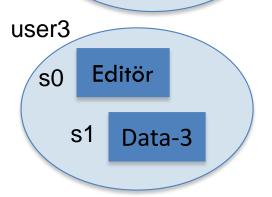


511		
seg	lim	base
0	1500	1000
1	2000	3500

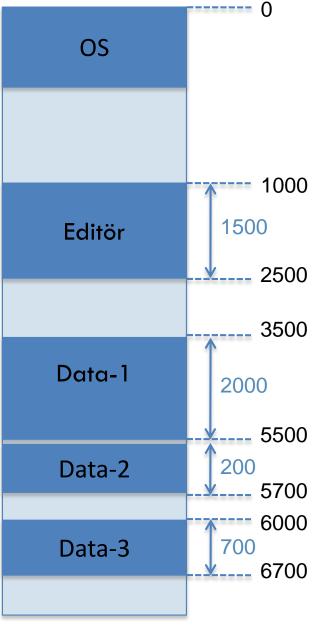
CT1



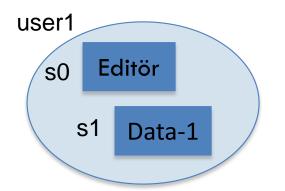
ST2		
seg	lim	base
0	1500	1000
1	200	5500



ST3		
seg	lim	base
0	1500	1000
1	700	6000

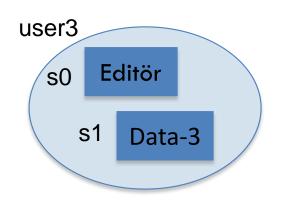


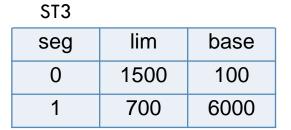
Physical memory

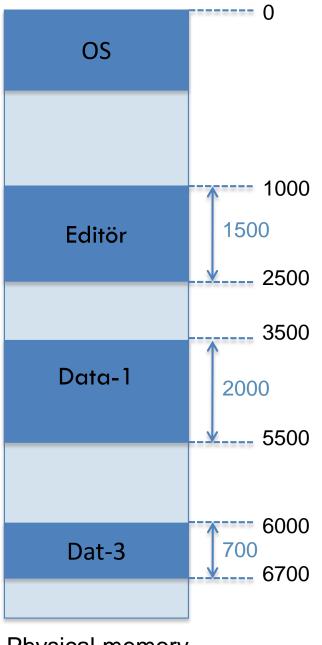


ST1		
seg	lim	base
0	1500	1000
1	2000	3500

User 2 terminates: Data-2 removed from memory, but editor remains..

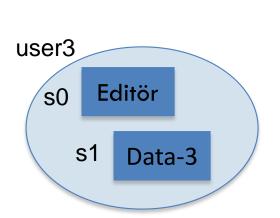






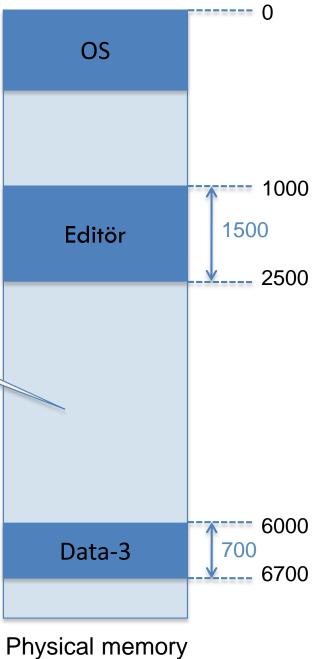
Physical memory

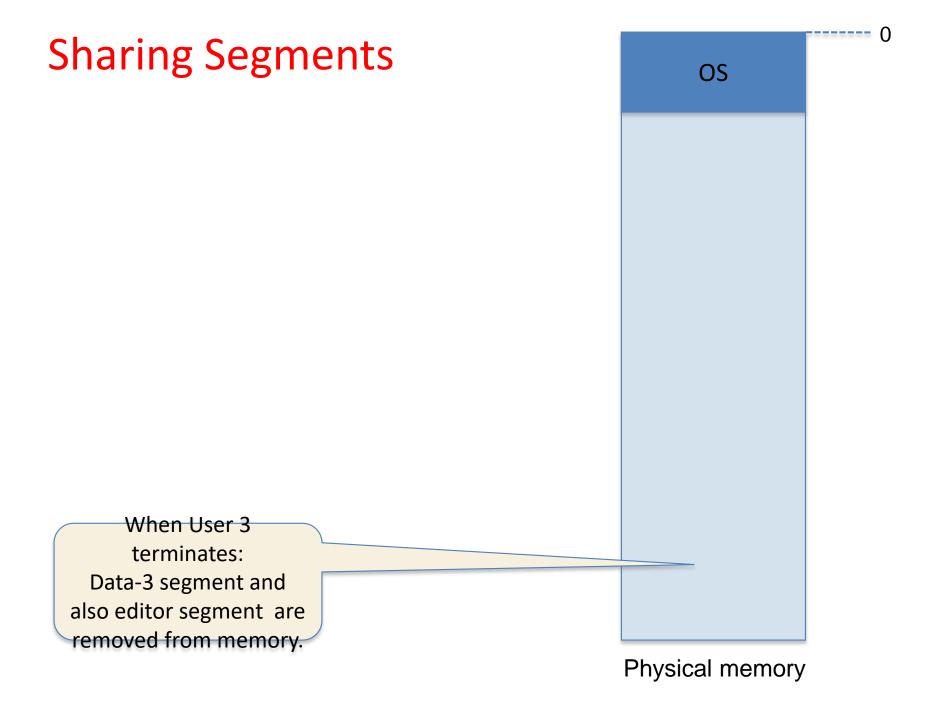
User 1 terminates: Data-1segment is removed from memory.



ST3

seg	lim	base
0	1500	100
1	700	6000



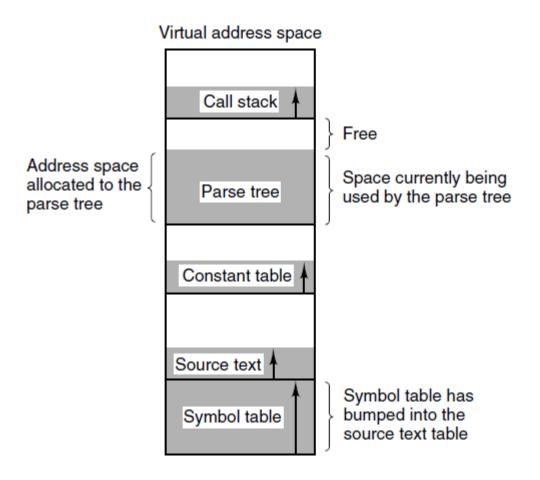


Segmentation (1)

Examples of tables generated by compiler:

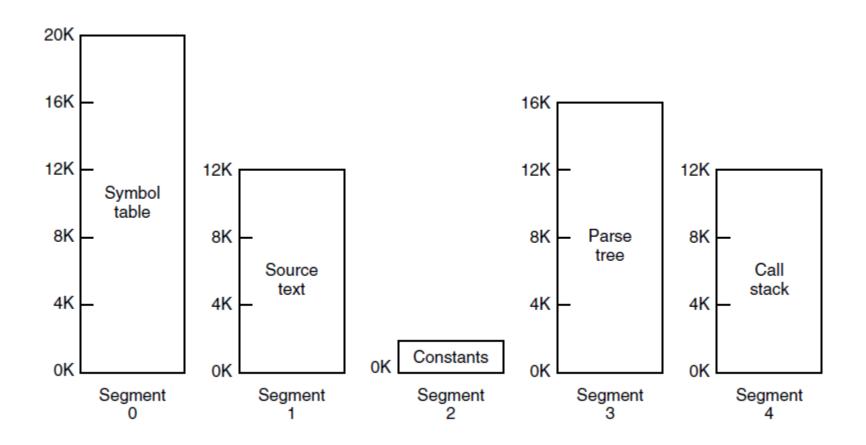
- 1. The source text being saved for the printed listing
- 2. The symbol table, names and attributes of variables.
- 3. The table containing integer and floating-point constants used.
- 4. The parse tree, syntactic analysis of the program.
- 5. The stack used for procedure calls within compiler.

Segmentation (2)



In a one-dimensional address space with growing tables, one table may bump into another.

Segmentation (3)



A segmented memory allows each table to grow or shrink independently of the other tables.

Segmentation (4)

Consideration

Paging

Segmentation

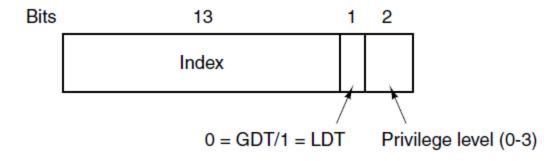
Consideration	Paging	Segmentation
Need the programmer be aware that this technique is being used?	No	Yes
How many linear address spaces are there?	1	Many
Can the total address space exceed the size of physical memory?	Yes	Yes
Can procedures and data be distinguished and separately protected?	No	Yes
Can tables whose size fluctuates be accommodated easily?	No	Yes
Is sharing of procedures between users facilitated?	No	Yes
Why was this technique invented?	To get a large linear address space without having to buy more physical memory	To allow programs and data to be broken up into logically independent address spaces and to aid sharing and protection

Comparison of paging and segmentation

Reading Assignment

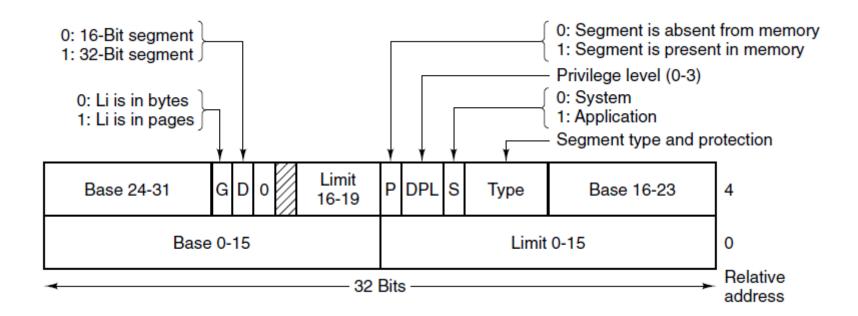
- 3.7.2. excluded
- 3.7.3. reading assignment

Segmentation with Paging: The Intel x86 (1)



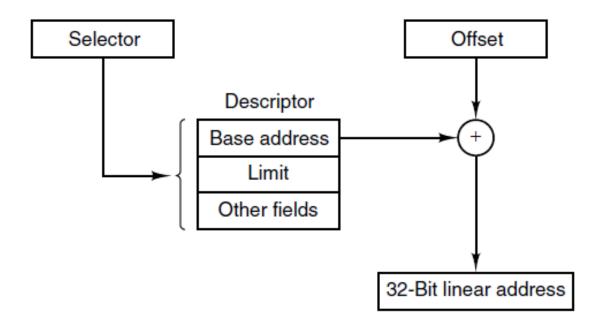
An x86 selector.

Segmentation with Paging: The Intel x86 (2)



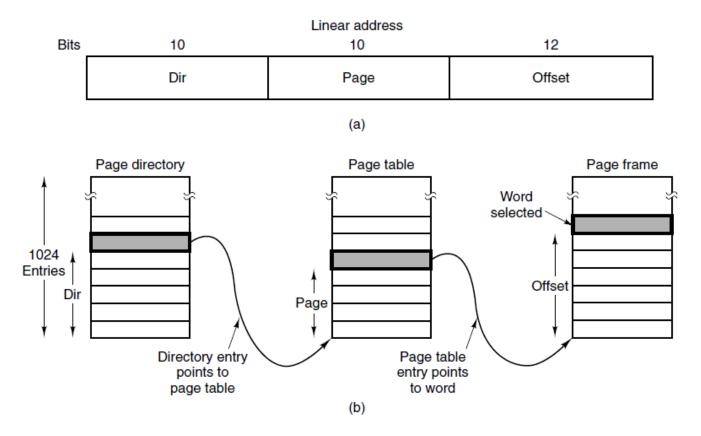
x86 code segment descriptor. Data segments differ slightly.

Segmentation with Paging: The Intel x86 (3)



Conversion of a (selector, offset) pair to a linear address.

Segmentation with Paging: The Intel x86 (4)



Mapping of a linear address onto a physical address.

End

Chapter 3