# Virtual Memory

#### Virtual Memory

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

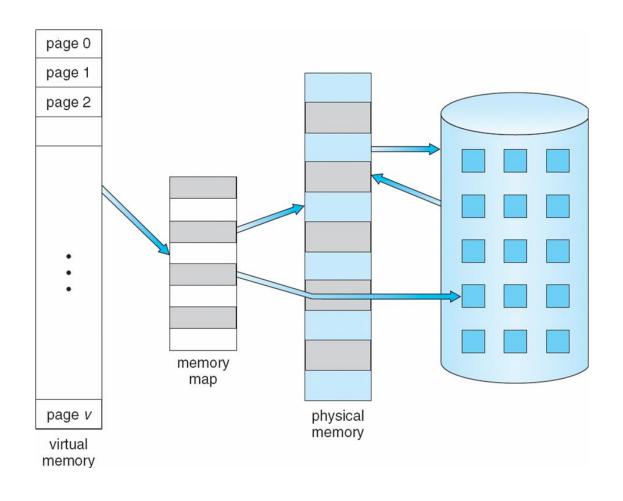
#### Objectives

- 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

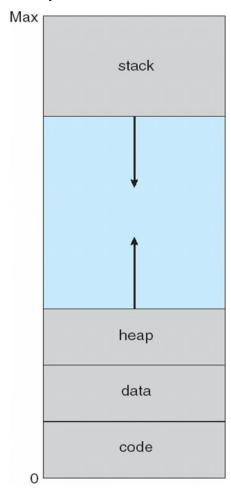
#### Background

- Virtual memory 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
- Virtual memory can be implemented via:
  - Demand paging
  - Demand segmentation

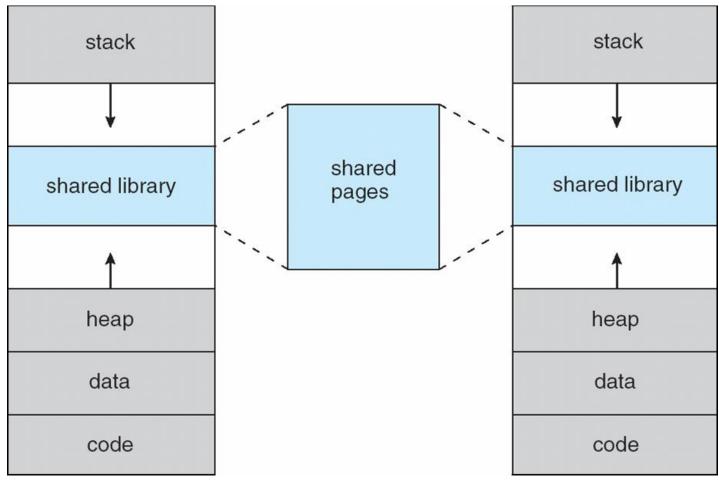
#### Virtual Memory That is Larger Than Physical Memory



## Virtual-address Space



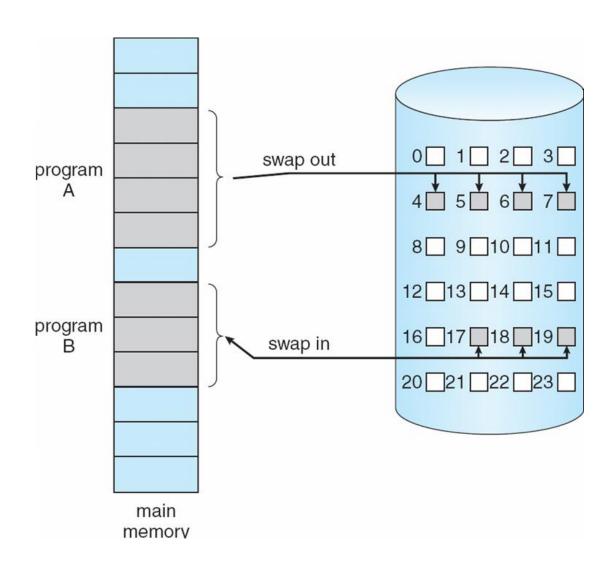
### Shared Library Using Virtual Memory



#### Demand Paging

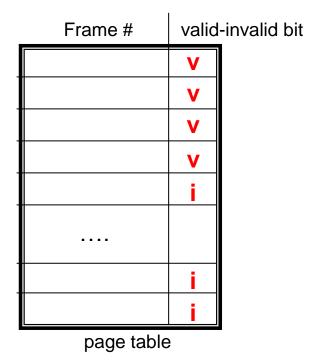
- Bring a page into memory only when it is needed
  - Less I/O needed
  - Less memory needed
  - Faster response
  - More users
- Page is needed ⇒ reference to it
  - invalid reference ⇒ abort
  - not-in-memory ⇒ bring to memory
- Lazy swapper never swaps a page into memory unless page will be needed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

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



#### Valid-Invalid Bit

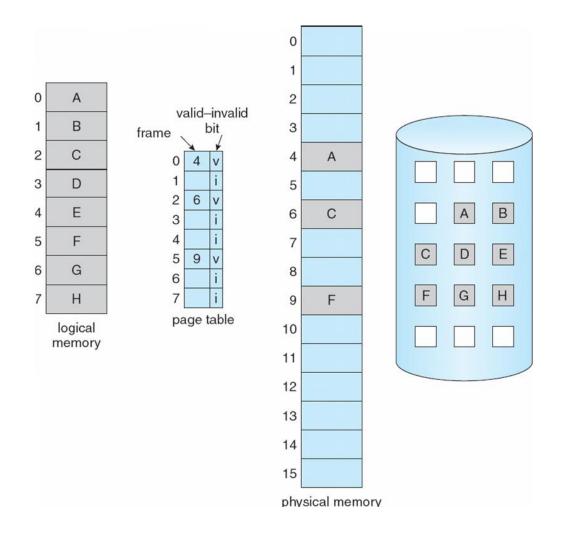
- With each page table entry a valid—invalid bit is associated
   (v ⇒ in-memory, i ⇒ not-in-memory)
- Initially valid—invalid bit is set to i on all entries
- Example of a page table snapshot:



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

is  $I \Rightarrow$  page fault

#### Page Table When Some Pages Are Not in Main Memory



#### Page Fault

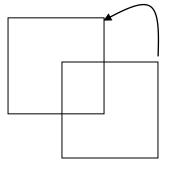
• If there is a reference to a page, first reference to that page will trap to operating system:

#### page fault

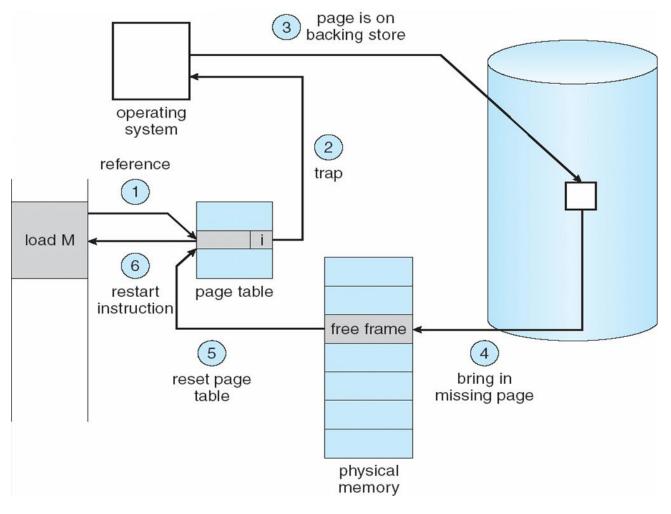
- 1. Operating system looks at another table to decide:
  - Invalid reference ⇒ abort
  - Just not in memory
- 2.Get empty frame
- 3. Swap page into frame
- 4.Reset tables
- 5.Set validation bit = v
- 6. Restart the instruction that caused the page fault

## Page Fault (Cont.)

- Restart instruction
  - block move



### 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)

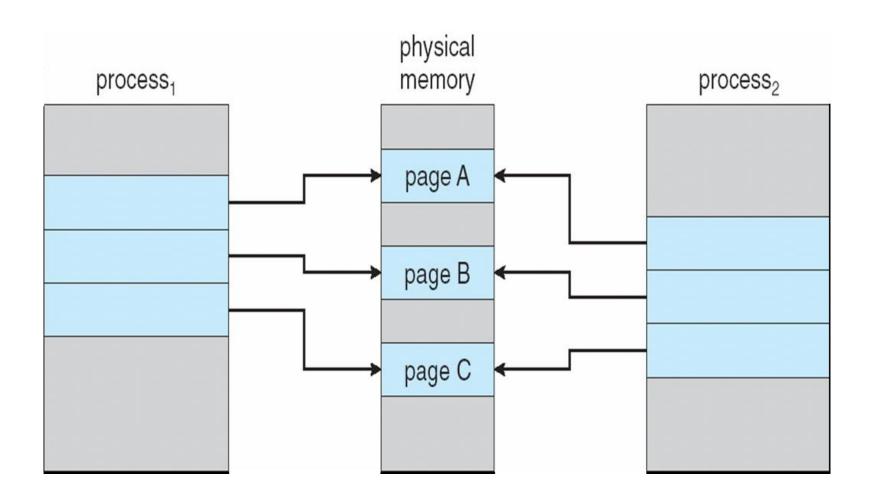
#### Copy-on-Write

 Copy-on-Write (COW) allows both parent and child processes to initially share the same pages in memory

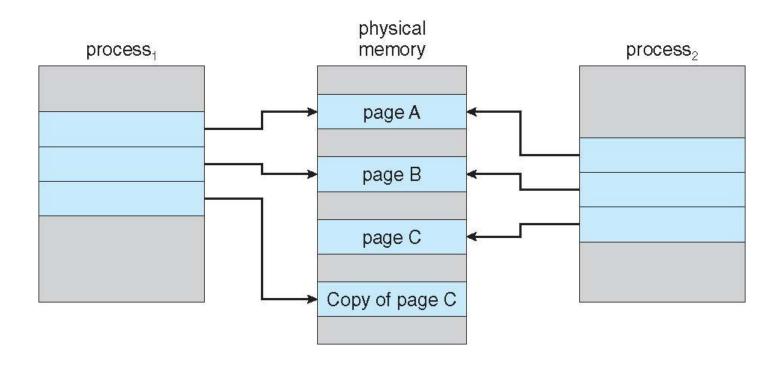
If either process modifies a shared page, only then is the page copied

- 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



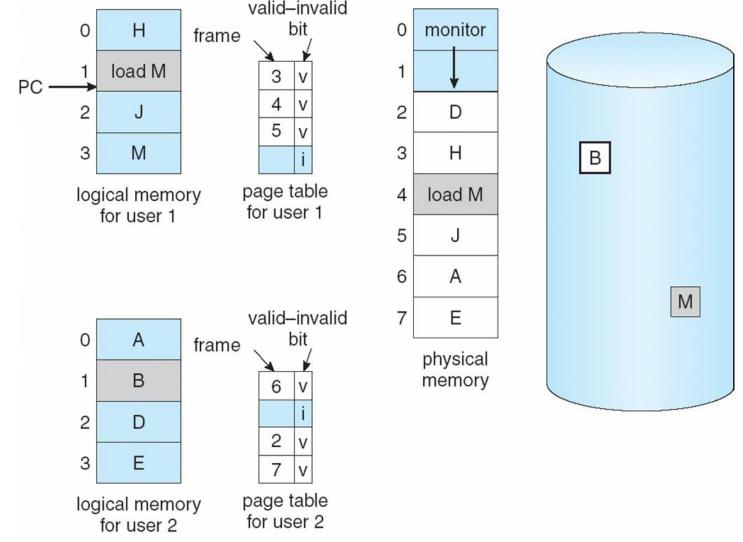
#### What happens if there is no free frame?

- 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

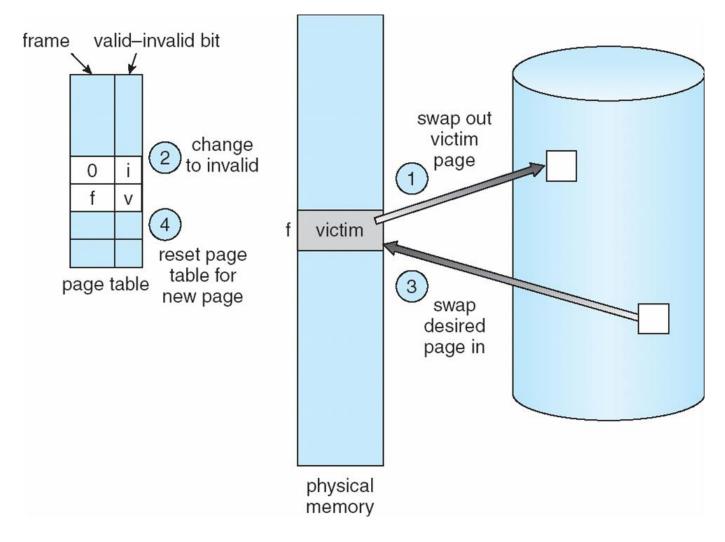
# Need For Page Replacement



#### Basic Page Replacement

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

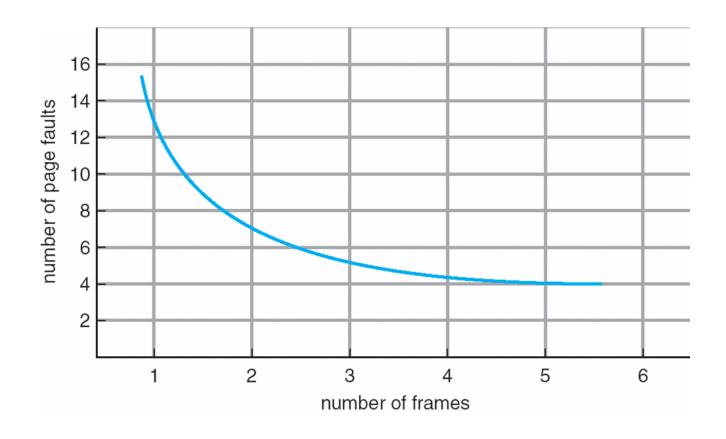
### Page Replacement



#### 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



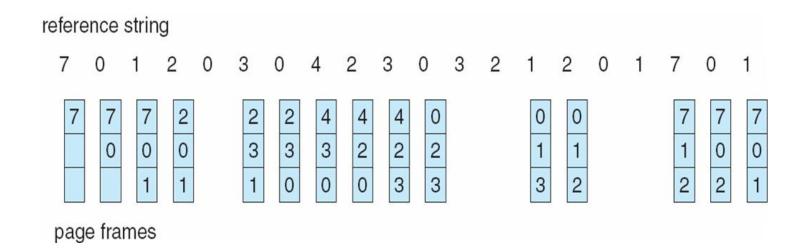
#### First-In-First-Out (FIFO) Algorithm

- 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)

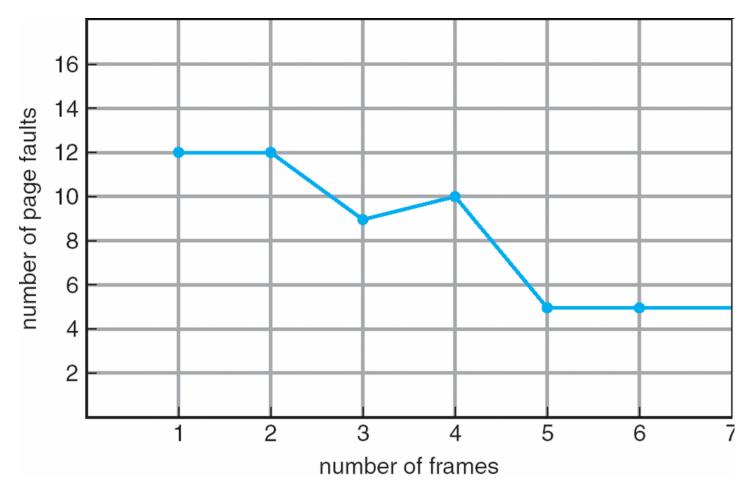
• 4 frames

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

### FIFO Page Replacement

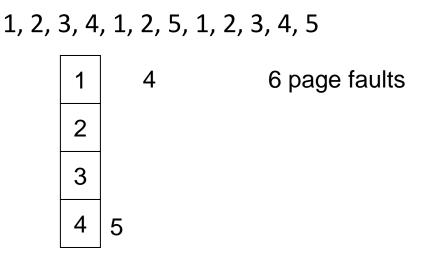


### FIFO Illustrating Belady's Anomaly



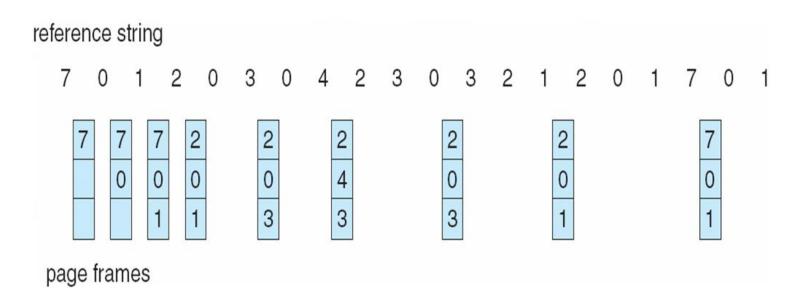
#### Optimal Algorithm

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



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

#### Optimal Page Replacement



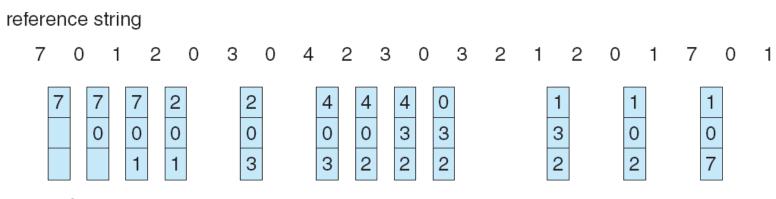
#### Least Recently Used (LRU) Algorithm

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

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

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

#### LRU Page Replacement



page frames

### How to implement LRU?

- Counters
- Stack

#### Counters

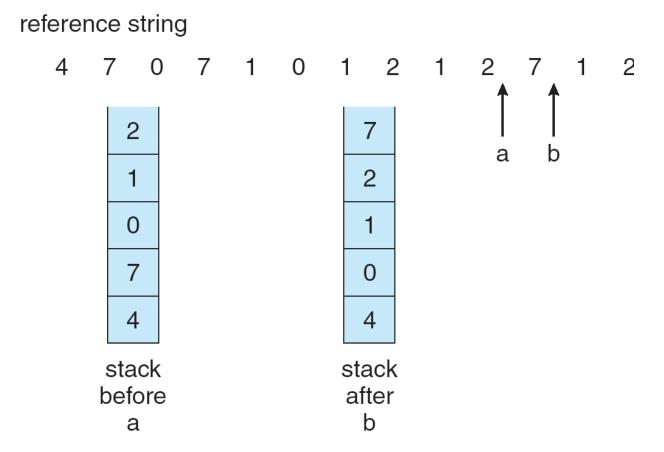
- Use a "time-of-use" field that is associated with each page
- When a page is referenced, the contents of the clock register is copied to this "time-of-use"
- To implement LRU
  - Replace page with smallest time value

- Drawbacks?
  - Need to search to find the entry with the smallest value
  - Need to update the entries with each access to memory

## Stack

- 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

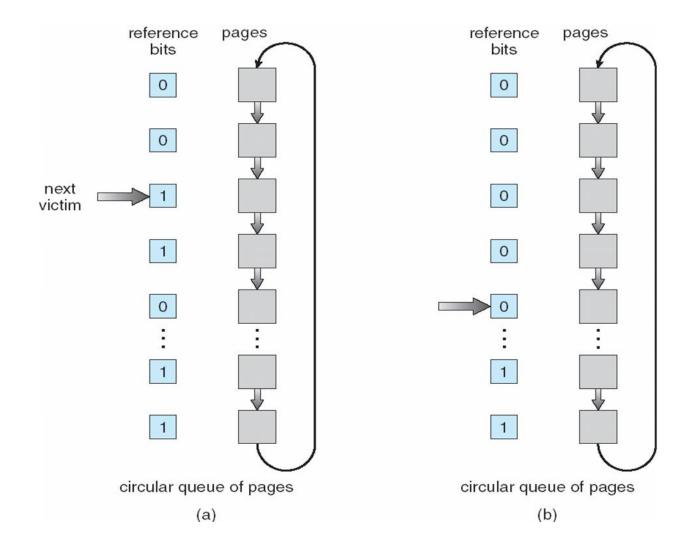
#### Use Of A Stack to Record The Most Recent Page References



## 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

$$-s_i = \text{size of process } p_i$$

$$-S = \sum S_i$$

-m = total number of frames

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

$$m = 64$$

$$s_i = 10$$

$$s_2 = 127$$

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

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

## Priority Allocation

- Use a proportional allocation scheme using priorities rather than size
- If process P<sub>i</sub> generates a page fault,
  - select for replacement one of its frames
  - select for replacement a frame from a process with lower priority number

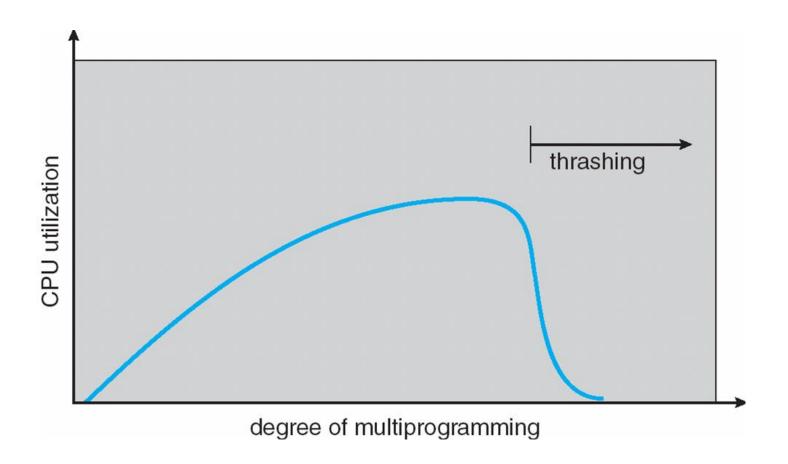
### Global vs. Local Allocation

- 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 = a process is busy swapping pages in and out

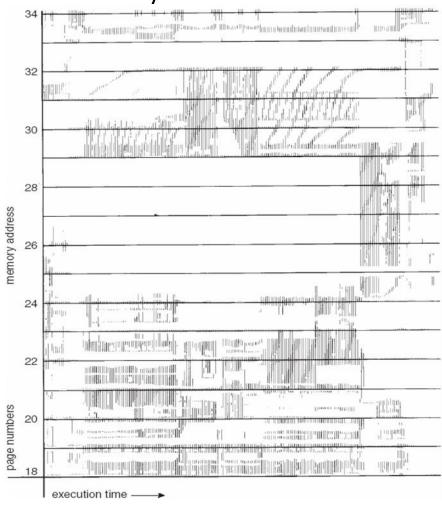
# Thrashing (Cont.)



# 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?  $\Sigma$  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  $\Delta = \infty \Rightarrow$  will encompass entire program
- $D = \sum WSS_i \equiv \text{total demand frames}$
- if  $D > m \Rightarrow$  Thrashing
- Policy if *D* > m, then suspend one of the processes

# Working-set model

# page reference table



$$WS(t_1) = \{1,2,5,6,7\}$$

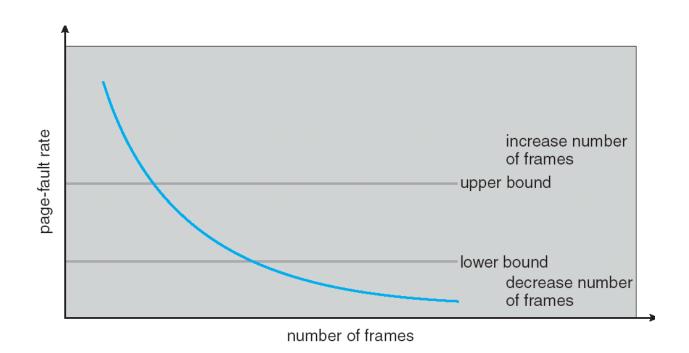
$$WS(t_2) = \{3,4\}$$

## Keeping Track of the Working Set

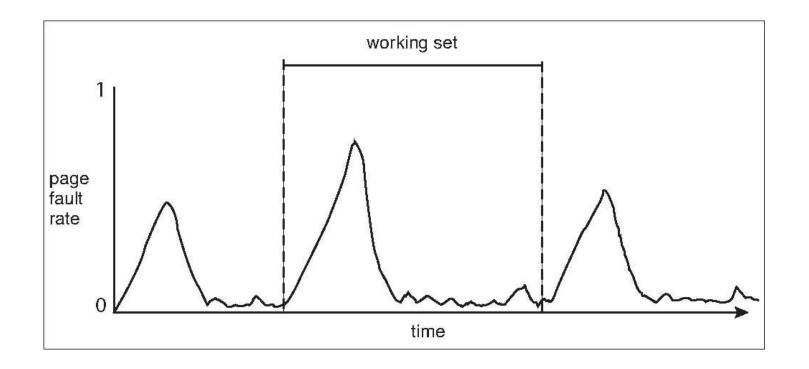
- Approximate with interval timer + a reference bit
- Example:  $\Delta = 10,000$ 
  - Timer interrupts after every 5000 time units
  - Keep in memory 2 bits for each page
  - Whenever a timer interrupts copy and sets the values of all reference bits to
  - If one of the bits in memory =  $1 \Rightarrow$  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



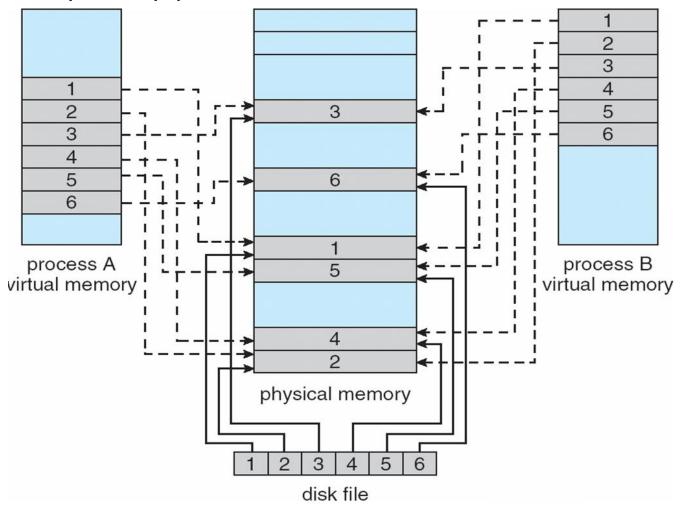
# Working Sets and Page Fault Rates



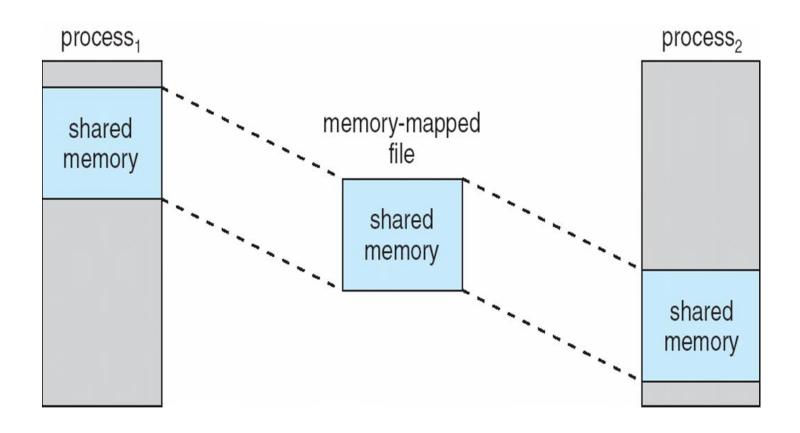
## Memory-Mapped Files

- 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



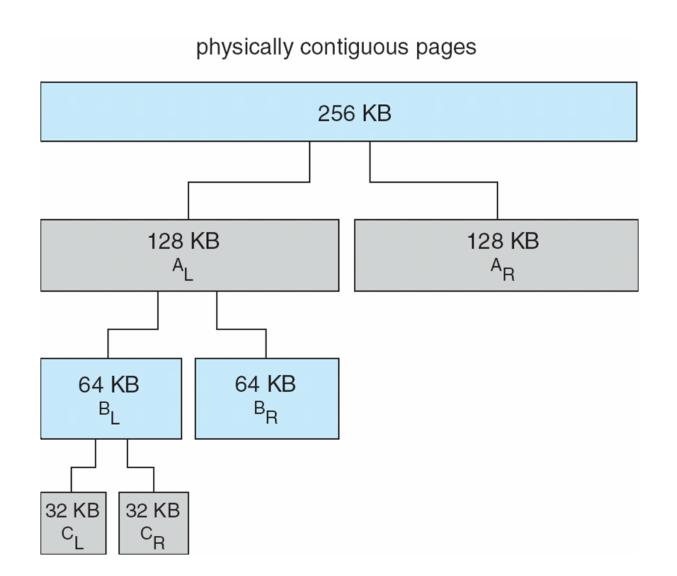
# Allocating Kernel Memory

- 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

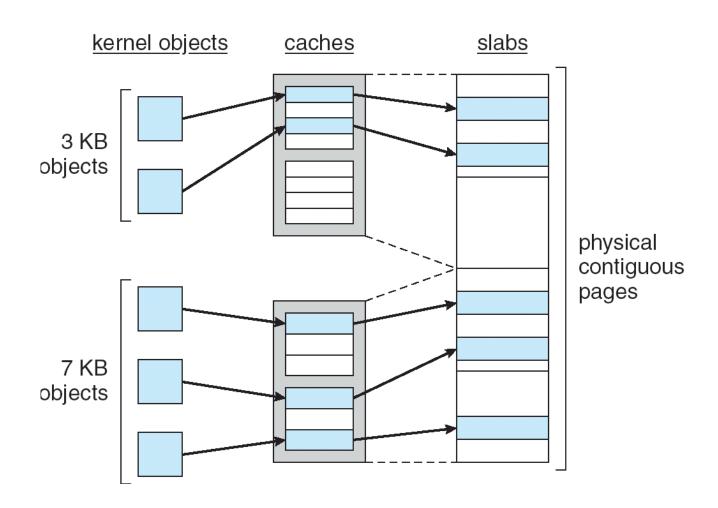
# Buddy System Allocator



### 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  $s * \alpha$  save pages faults > or < than the cost of prepaging  $s * (1-\alpha)$  unnecessary pages?
    - $\alpha$  near zero  $\Rightarrow$  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

```
for (i = 0; i < 128; i++)

for (j = 0; j < 128; j++)

data[i,j] = 0;
```

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

