COMP2007: Operating Systems & Concurrency Week 8 – 9:00am Wednesday – 15 November 2023



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Figure: Attendance Monitoring

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Operating Systems and Concurrency

Memory Management 5 COMP2007

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Goals for Today

Overview

- Page tables: multi-level page tables, inverted page tables and performance
- Several key decisions have to be made when using virtual memory
 - When are pages fetched ⇒ demand or pre-paging
 - What pages are removed from memory ⇒ page replacement algorithms

The optimal and FIFO page replacement algorithm

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Recall

Last Lecture

- Virtual memory relies on localities that constitute groups of pages which are used together, e.g., related to a function (code, data, etc.)
 - Processes move between localities
 - If all required pages are in memory, no page faults will be generated
- Page tables become more complex (present/absent bits, referenced/modified bits) and larger

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Page Tables Revisited: Page Table Size

- For a 16 bit machine, the total address space is 2¹⁶
 - Assuming that 10 bits are used for the offset (2¹⁰)
 - 6 bits can be used to number the pages
 - I.e., $2^6 = 64$ pages can be maintained
- For a **32 bit machine**, total address space is 2³²
 - Assuming pages of 2¹² bytes (4KB)
 - 20 bits can be used to number the pages
 - I.e. 2²⁰ pages (approx. 1 million) can be maintained
 - 4MB at 4 bytes per page table entry!
- For a 64 bit machine . . .

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Page Tables Revisited: Challenges

- Size: how do we deal with the increasing size of page tables and where do we store them?
 - Their size prevents them from being stored in registers
 - Increasing the **page size** reduces the **page table size** (e.g, n+m=32)
 - They have to be stored in (virtual) main memory:
 - Multi-level page tables
 - Inverted page tables (for large virtual address spaces)
- Speed: address translation happens at every memory reference, it has to be fast!
 - Accessing main memory results in memory stalls
 - How can we maintain acceptable speeds?

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Page Tables Revisited: Multi-level Page Tables

- Solution:
 - Page the page table!
 - Tree-like structures to hold page tables
- The page number is divided into:
 - An index to a page table of second level
 - A page within a second level page table
- The page table is not kept entirely in memory

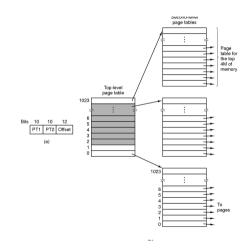


Figure: Multi-level page tables (from Tanenbaum)

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Page Tables Revisited: Multi-level Page Tables

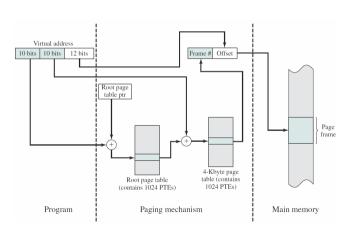


Figure: Multi-level Address Translation (from Stallings)

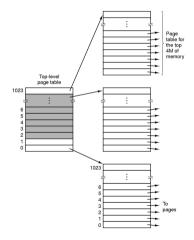


Figure: Multi-level page tables (from Tanenbaum)

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Access Speed on [multi-level] Page Tables

- Memory organisation of multi-level page tables:
 - The root page table is always maintained in memory
 - Page tables themselves are maintained in virtual memory due to their size
- Assume that a **fetch** from main memory takes T nano seconds
 - With a single page table level, access is 2 × T
 - With two page table levels, access is $3 \times T$
 - ...
- With two levels, every memory reference already becomes 3 times slower:
 - Assuming that the second level page table is already in main memory
 - Memory access already forms a bottleneck under normal circumstances

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Page Tables Revisited: Translation Look Aside Buffers (TLBs)

- Translation look aside buffers (TLBs) are (usually) located inside the memory management unit
 - They cache the most frequently used page table entries
 - They can be searched in parallel
- The principle behind TLBs is similar to other types of caching in operating systems
- Remember: locality states that processes make a large number of references to a small number of pages

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Translation Look Aside Buffers (TLBs)

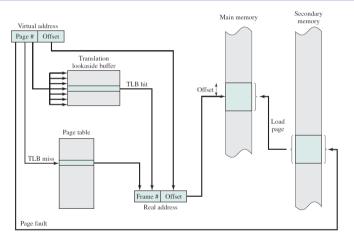


Figure: TLB Address Translation with a single-level page table(from Stallings)

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Page Tables Revisited: Translation Look Aside Buffers (TLBs)

- Memory access with TLBs:
 - Assume a single-level page table
 - Assume a 20ns associative TLB lookup
 - Assume a 100ns memory access time
 - TLB Hit \Rightarrow 20 + 100 = 120 ns
 - TLB Miss \Rightarrow 20 + 100 + 100 = 220ns
- Performance evaluation of TLBs:
 - For an 80% hit rate. the estimated access time is:

$$120 \times 0.8 + 220 \times (1 - 0.8) = 140$$
ns (i.e. 40% slowdown – relative to absolute addressing)

- For a 98% hit rate, the estimated access time is: $120 \times 0.98 + 220 \times (1 0.98) = 122$ ns (i.e. 22% slowdown)
- Note that page tables can be held in virtual memory

 further (initial) slow down due to page faults

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Page Tables Revisited: Inverted Page Tables

- A "normal" page table's size is proportional to the number of pages in the virtual address space (prohibitive for modern machines)
- An "inverted" page table's size is proportional to the size of main memory
 - Contains one **entry for every frame** (i.e. not for every page)
 - Is indexed by frame number/hash code (not by page number)
 - When a process references a page, the OS must search the (entire) inverted page table for the corresponding entry (i.e. page and process id) ⇒ this could be too slow.
- Solution: Use a **hash function** that transforms page number (n bits) into an index in the inverted page table (hash table)

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Page Tables Revisited: Inverted Page Table Entries

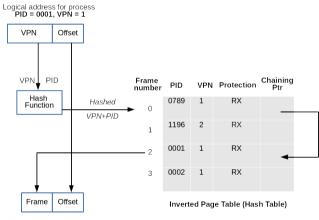
- Process Identifier (PID): the process that owns this page.
- Page Number (logical address space)
- Protection bits (Read/Write/Execution)
- Link Pointer: field points toward the next entry (hash table can have collisions)



Figure: Example of an Inverted Page Table Entry (other info bits are not shown here)

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Page Tables Revisited: Inverted Page Tables - Address translation



Physical address for process PID = 0001, Frame = 2

Page Tables Revisited: Inverted Page Tables

- Advantages:
 - The OS maintains a single inverted page table for all processes
 - Saves space (especially when the virtual address space is much larger than the physical memory)
- Disadvantages:
 - Logical-to-physical address translation becomes harder/slower.
 - Collisions have to be handled and will slow down address translation:
 - Hash tables eliminates searching the whole inverted table)
 - TLBs help to improve performance
- Commonly used on 64-bit machines (e.g. Windows 10)

http://answers.microsoft.com/en-us/windows/forum/windows_10-performance/physical-and-virtual-memory-in-windows-10/e36fb5bc-9ac8-49af-951c-e7d39b979938

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Page loading/replacement

- Two key decisions have to be made using virtual memory
 - What pages are loaded and when ⇒ predictions can be made
 - What pages are removed from memory and when ⇒ page replacement algorithms

Pages are shuttled between primary and secondary memory

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Demand Paging

On Demand

- Demand paging starts the process with no pages in memory
 - The first instruction will immediately cause a page fault
 - More page faults will follow, but they will stabilise over time until moving to the next locality
 - The set of pages that is currently being used is called its working set (⇔ resident set)

Pages are only loaded when needed, i.e. following page faults

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Pre-Paging

Predictive

- When the process is started, all pages expected to be used (i.e. the working set) could be brought into memory at once
 - This can drastically reduce the page fault rate
 - Retrieving multiple (contiguously stored) pages reduces transfer times (seek time, rotational latency, etc.)
- Pre-paging loads pages (as much as possible) before page faults are generated (⇒ a similar mechanism is used when processes are swapped out/in)

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Implementation Details

- Avoiding unnecessary pages and page replacement is important!
- Let:
 - ma denote the **memory access time** (multiple times for multi-level page table)
 - p denote the page fault rate
 - pft denote the page fault time
- The effective access time is then given by:

$$T_a = (1 - p) \times ma + pft \times p \tag{1}$$

Note that we are not considering here TLBs.

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Demand Paging

Performance Evaluation of Demand Paged Systems

- For a single-level page table:
 - Memory access time of 100ns (10⁻⁹)
 - Two memory accesses required (200ns)
 - A page fault time of 8ms (10^{-3} , recall that hard drives are slow)

$$T_a = (1 - p) \times 200 + p \times 8000000$$
 (2)

- The effective access time is proportional to page fault rate
 - Ideally, all pages would have to be loaded without demand paging

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Page Replacement

Concepts

- The OS must choose a page to remove when a new one is loaded (and all are occupied)
- This choice is made by page replacement algorithms and takes into account
 - When the page is last used/expected to be used again
 - Whether the page has been modified (only modified pages need to be written)
- Replacement choices have to be made intelligently (
 random) to save time/avoid thrashing

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Page Replacement

Algorithms

- Optimal page replacement
- FIFO page replacement
 - Second chance replacement
 - Clock replacement
- Not recently used (NRU)
- Least recently used (LRU)

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Page Replacement

Optimal Page Replacement

In an ideal/optimal world

- Each page is labeled with the **number of instructions** that will be executed/length of time before it is **used again**
- The page which is not going to be not referenced for the longest time is the optimal one to remove

• The optimal approach is not possible to implement

- It can be used for post-execution analysis
 what would have been the minimum number of page faults
- It provides a lowerbound on the number of page faults (used for comparison with other algorithms)

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Test Your Understanding

Address Translation

- Given a 4KB page/frame size, and a 16-bit address space, calculate:
 - Number M of bits for offset within a page
 - Number N of bits for representing pages
- What is the physical address for 0, 8192, 20500 using this page table?

Pages		Frames	
0	0000	0010	2
1	0001	0001	1
2	0010	0110	6
3	0011	0000	0
4	0100	0100	4
5	0101	0011	3
6	0110	X	X
7	0111	X	X
8	1000	X	X
9	1001	0101	5
10	1010	X	X
11	1011	0111	7
12	1100	Х	Χ

Table: Page table

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Recap

Take-Home Message

- Translation look aside buffers to speed up access to page tables
- Inverted page tables
- Fetching policies (demand paging, pre-paging)
- Page replacement strategies
- Reading: Tanenbaum Section 3.3, 3.4

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