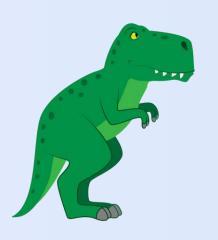
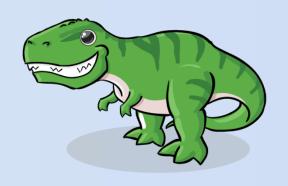


Chapter 10.

Virtual Memory



Operating System Concepts (10th Ed.)





10.1 Background

Virtual Memory

- a technique to allow the execution of processes
 - that are not completely in memory
 - so, programs can be larger than physical memory.
- abstracts main memory into an extremely large array of storage,
 - separating logical memory from physical memory.
- provides an efficient mechanism
 - for sharing files and libraries and process creation.



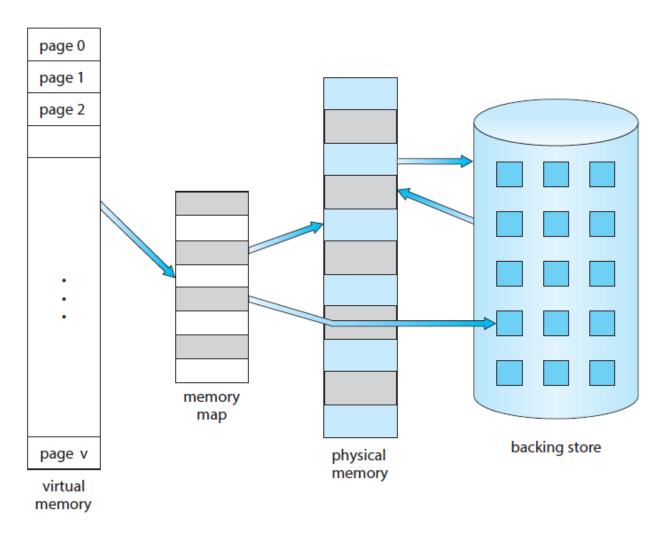


Figure 10.1 Diagram showing virtual memory that is larger than physical memory.





10.1 Background

Virtual Address Space

- the logical (or virtual) view of how a process is stored in memory.
- Typically, begins a certain logical address, to say, address 0,
- and exists in contiguous memory.

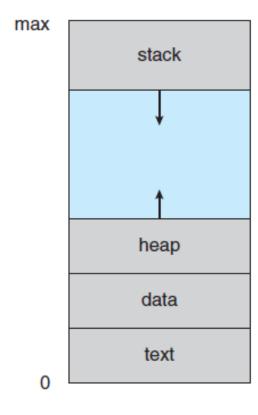


Figure 10.2 Virtual address space of a process in memory.





10.1 Background

- Virtual Memory
 - allows *files* and *memory* to be shared by two or more processes
 - through page sharing.

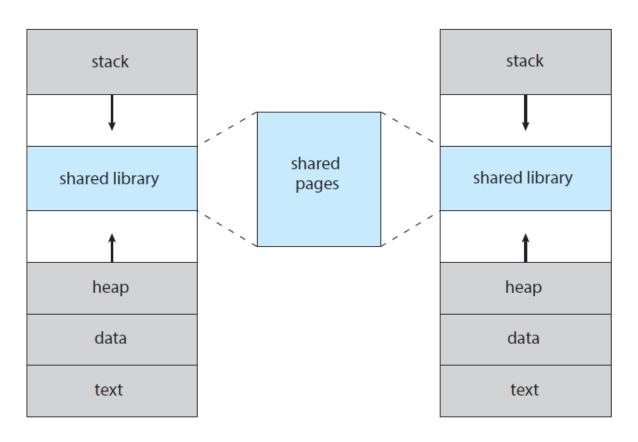


Figure 10.3 Shared library using virtual memory.





- Consider how an executable program
 - might be loaded from secondary storage into memory.
 - One option is to load the entire program in physical memory
 - The *demand paging* is an alternative strategy
 - to load pages only as they are needed.
 - commonly used in virtual memory systems.
 - With demand-paged virtual memory,
 - pages are loaded only when they are *demanded* during execution.





- Basic Concepts of the Demand Paging:
 - While a process is executing,
 - some pages will be *in memory* and some will be *in secondary storage*.
 - To distinguish between these two situations,
 - the *valid-invalid bit* scheme can be used.
 - *valid*: the page is both legal and in memory.
 - *invalid*: the either is not valid or currently in secondary storage.



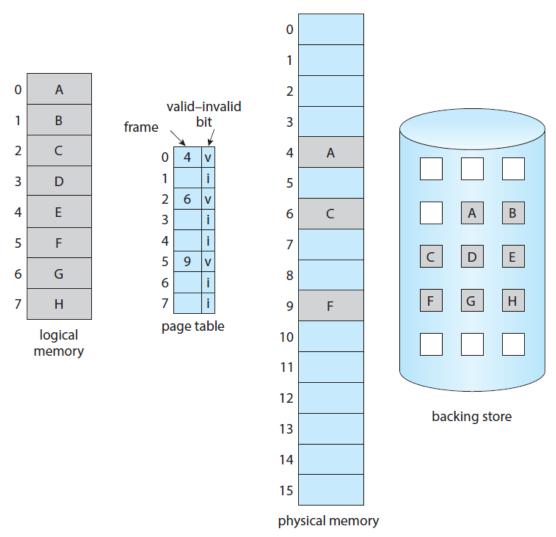


Figure 10.4 *Page table when some pages are not in main memory.*





- The procedure for handling the *Page Fault*:
 - 1. Check an internal table for the process to determine
 - whether the reference was *valid* or *invalid* memory access.
 - 2. If the reference was valid, terminate the process,
 - or valid but page fault, we now *page it in*.
 - 3. Find a *free frame* (by taking one from the free-frame list)
 - 4. Schedule a secondary storage operation
 - to *read the desired page* into the newly allocated frame.
 - 5. When the storage read is complete, *modify the internal table and*
 - *the page table* to indicate that the page is now in memory.
 - 6. Restart the instruction that was interrupted by the trap.



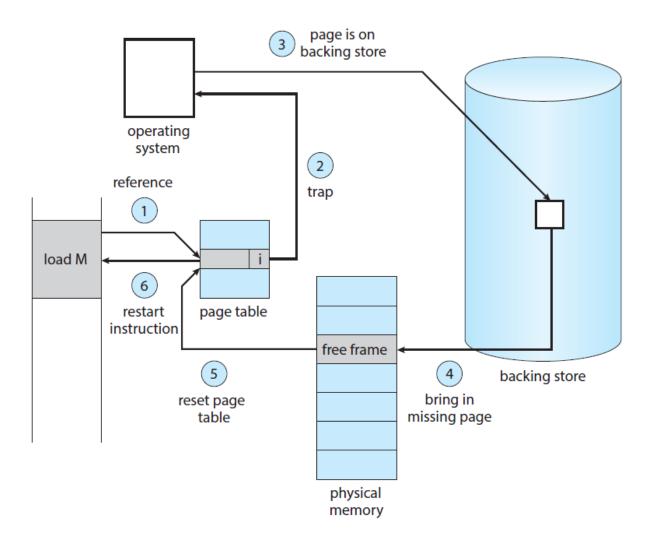


Figure 10.5 Steps in handling a page fault.





• **Pure** Demand Paging:

- never bring a page into memory until it is required.
- With the scheme of pure demand paging,
 - we can start executing a process with *no pages* in memory.
- When the OS sets the instruction pointer
 - to the *first instruction* of the process with a *page fault*,
 - the page of the process would be paged in.





Locality of Reference:

- If a program accesses several new pages with each instruction,
 - to say, one page for the instruction and many pages for data,
 - possibly causes multiple page faults per instruction.
- Fortunately, analysis running processes
 - show that this behavior is exceedingly unlikely.
- Programs tend to have the locality of reference,
 - which results in *reasonable performance* from *demand paging*.





- An Example of Program Structure (\$10.9.5)
 - Let the page size to be 128 and an array to be 128×128 ,
 - then compare the following two codes.

- Careful selection of data structures and programming structures
 - can increase the locality of code or data
 - hence, lower the page-fault rate and enhance the system performance.



- Hardware Support to Demand Paging:
 - Page table:
 - has the ability to mark valid or invalid. (with a valid-invalid bit)
 - Secondary memory: (=**swap space**)
 - holds those pages that are not present in main memory.
 - usually a high-speed disk or NVM device





• Instruction Restart:

- A crucial requirement for demand paging.
 - the ability to restart any instruction after page fault.
- When the page fault occurs,
 - the state of interrupted process (registers, condition code, instruction counter, etc.) is saved.
- Therefore, *restart* the process in *exactly the same place and state*.
- If a page fault occurs on the instruction fetch,
 - restart by fetching the instruction again.
- If a page fault occurs while we are fetching an operand,
 - fetch and decode the instruction again and then fetch the operand.





- As a worst-case example:
 - ADD A, B, C; three address instruction, adding A and B into C.
 - 1. Fetch and decode the instruction (ADD)
 - 2. Fetch A
 - 3. Fetch B
 - 4. ADD A and B
 - 5. Store the sum in C





• Free Frame List:

- When a page fault occurs,
 - OS must bring the desired page from secondary storage into memory.
- To resolve page faults, OS maintains the *free frame list*:
 - a pool of free frames for satisfying such requests.
- Free frames must also be allocated
 - when the stack or heap segments from a process expand.



Figure 10.6 *List of free frames.*





- Performance of Demand Paging:
 - How to compute the *effective access time* for a *demand-paged* memory?
 - Let *ma* to denote the *memory-access time*.
 - Let *p* be the *probability* of a *page fault*.
 - EAT = $(1 p) \times ma + p * (page fault time)$.
 - How much time is needed to service a page fault?
 - three major activities:
 - Service the page-fault interrupt.
 - Read in the page.
 - Restart the process.



- Consider a system:
 - with an average page-fault service time of 8 *milliseconds*
 - and a memory access time of 200 nanoseconds,
 - EAT = $(1 p) \times 200 + p \times 8,000,000$ = $200 + 7,999,800 \times p$
 - If one access out of 1,000 causes a page fault (p = 0.001),
 - EAT = 200 + 7999.8 = 8199.8 *nanoseconds* ≅ 8.2 *microseconds*



10.3 Copy-on-Write

Copy-on-Write:

- *copy* a shared page *only when* a process *writes* to a shared page.
- Recall the process creation with fork() and exec().

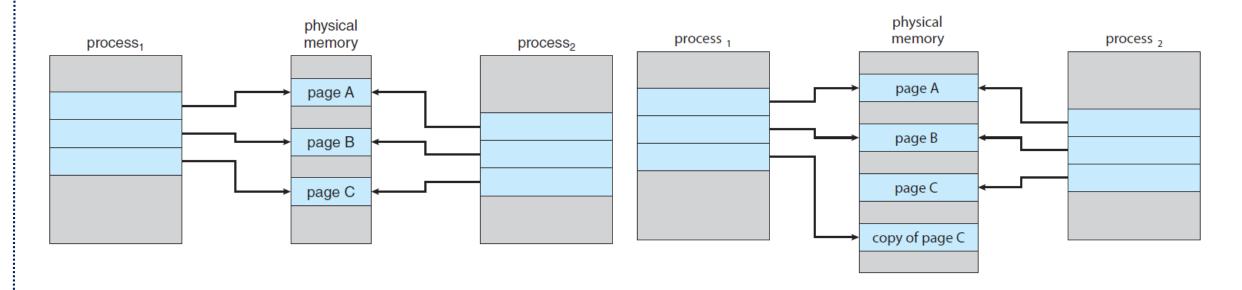


Figure 10.7 Before process 1 modifies page C. **Figure 10.8** After process 1 modifies page C.





- What happens if there is no free frames?
 - If we increase our degree of multiprogramming,
 - we are over-allocating memory.
 - If we have 40 frames and run 6 processes,
 - each of which is 10 pages in size, but actually uses only 5 pages.
 - Then, we manage to demand-paged system with 10 frames spared.
 - However, what if the processes *suddenly want to use all 10 pages*,
 - or need a huge buffer consuming more pages than available ones?





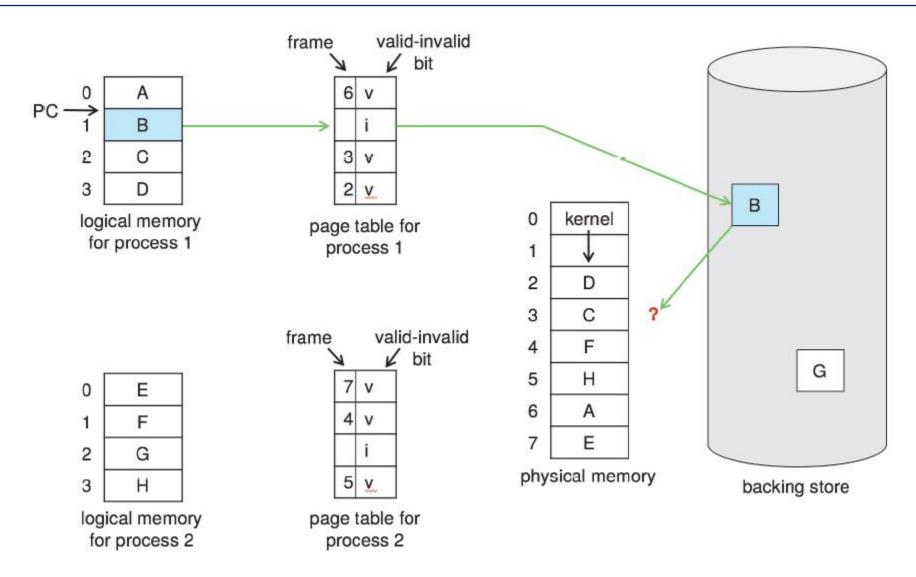


Figure 10.9 *Need for page replacement.*





Page Replacement:

- If no frame is free,
 - find one that is not currently being used and free it.
- Free a frame by writing its contents to swap space
 - and changing the page table
 - to indicate that the page is no longer in memory (invalid or dirty).
- Now, use the freed frame to hold page
 - for which the process faulted.



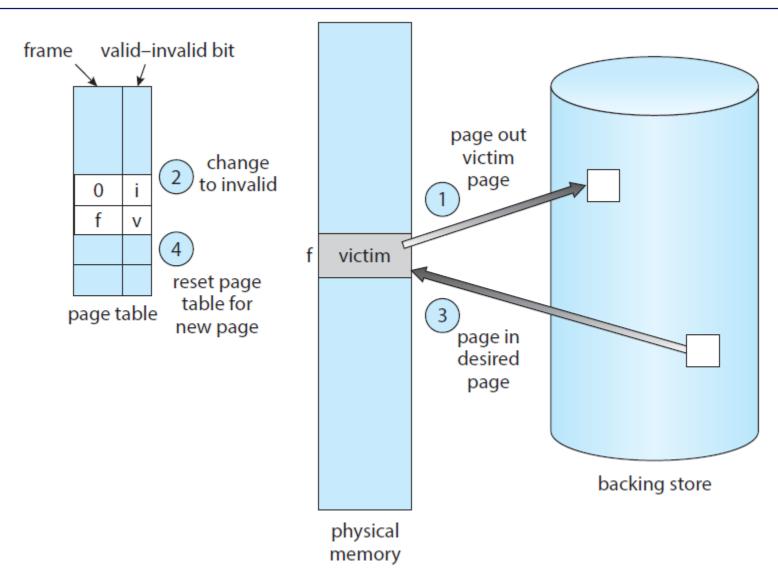


Figure 10.10 Page replacement.





- Page Fault Service Routine incl. Page Replacement:
 - 1. Find the location of the desired page on secondary storage.
 - 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.
 - Write the victim frame to secondary storage; change the page and frame tables accordingly.
 - Read the desired page into the *newly freed frame*
 - change the page and frame tables.
 - Continue the process from where the page fault occurred.



- Two major problems to implement demand paging:
 - Frame-allocation algorithm:
 - how many frames to allocated to each process?
 - Page-replacement algorithm:
 - select the frames that are to be replaced.
 - Since the secondary storage I/O is *so expensive*,
 - even *slight improvements* in demand-paging methods
 - can yield *large gains* in system performance.





- Evaluation of Page Replacement Algorithms:
 - reference string: a string of memory references.
 - Evaluate an algorithm by running it on a reference string
 - and computes the number of page faults. (minimize it!)
 - What about the number of page frames?
 - Obviously, the more frames, the less page faults.

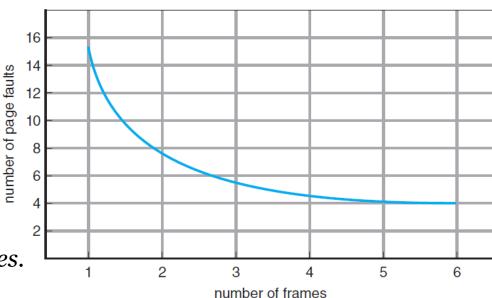
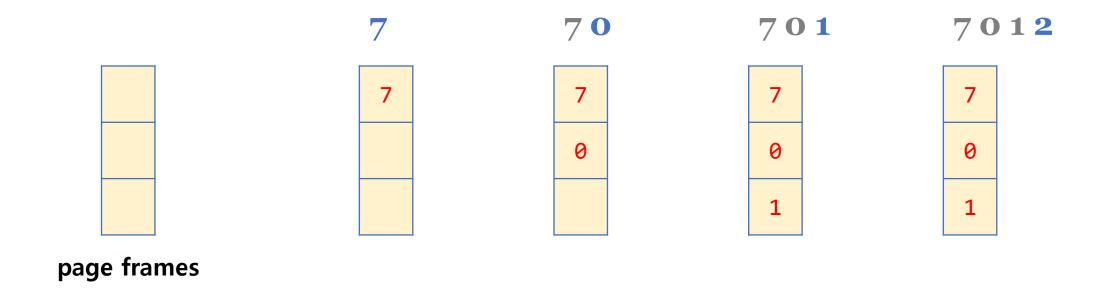


Figure 10.11 *Graph of page faults versus number of frames.*





- An example to evaluate algorithms:
 - reference string: 7 0 1 2 0 3 0 4 2 3 0 3 0 3 2 1 2 0 1 7 0 1
 - in a memory with *three* frames.







- FIFO Page Replacement:
 - FIFO: First-In-First-Out: the simplest algorithm.
 - Choose *the oldest page* when a page must be replaced.
 - There are 15 page faults with our example.

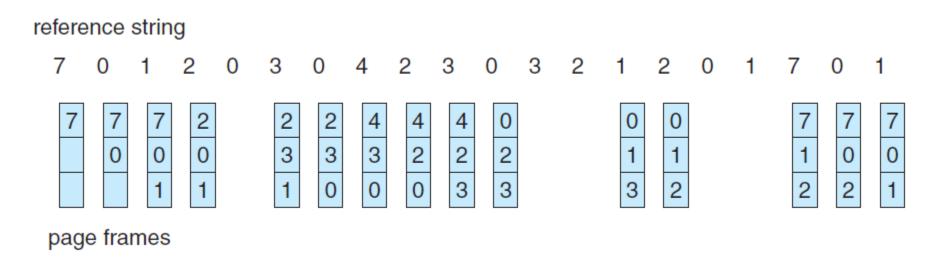


Figure 10.12 FIFO page-replacement algorithm.



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10.4 Page Replacement

Belady's Anomaly:

- The page-fault rate *may increase*
 - as the number of allocated frames increases.

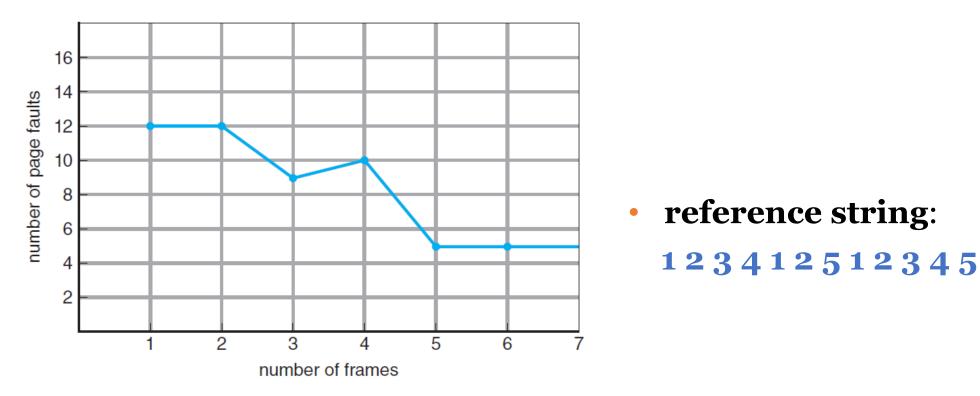


Figure 10.13 Page-fault curve of FIFO replacement on a reference string.





Optimal Page Replacement:

- Seeking for an optimal algorithm that has the lowest page-fault rate,
 - and never suffers from Belady's anomaly.
- OPT or MIN:
 - replace the page that *will not be used* for the *longest period of time*.
- OPT will guarantee the lowest possible page-fault rate.



- The difficulty of implementing OPT:
 - There are *9 page faults* with our example.
 - OPT requires future knowledge of the reference string.
 - used mainly for comparison studies.

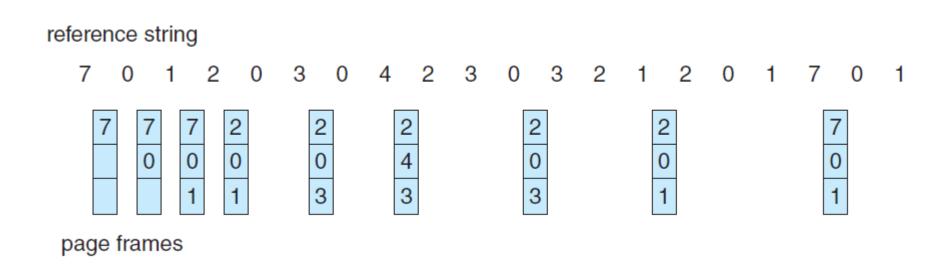


Figure 10.14 Optimal page-replacement algorithm.





- Recall the Shortest-Job-First CPU scheduler.
 - The key distinction between the FIFO and the OPT:
 - looking backward: when a page was brought in?
 - *looking forward*: when a page to *be used*?
 - If we use the *recent past*
 - as an approximation of the near future,
 - then we can replace the page
 - that has *not been used* for the *longest period of time*.





- **LRU** Page Replacement:
 - LRU: Least Recently Used
 - Associates with each page the time of that page's last use, and
 - choose the page that has *not been used* for the *longest period* of time.
 - There are 12 page faults with our example.

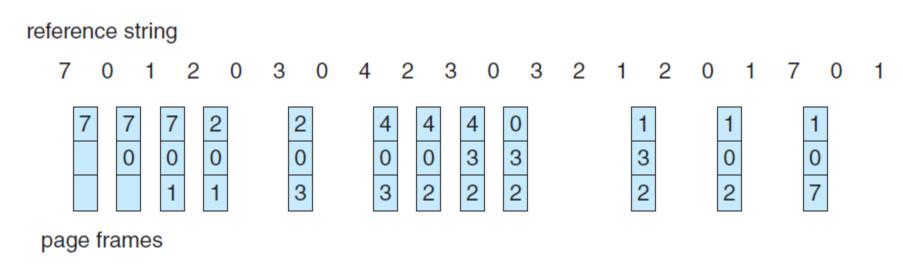


Figure 10.15 *LRU page-replacement algorithm.*





LRU policy

- is considered to be *good* and is *often used*.
- However, the problem to solve for the implementation of LRU is
 - to determine an order for the frames defined by the time of last use?
- It may require substantial *hardware assistance*.
 - Two implementations are possible: *counter* and *stack*
- LRU does not suffer from Belady's anomaly like OPT.





- Two implementation methods for the LRU:
 - *Counter* implementation:
 - Whenever a page is referenced, copy the counter (or the clock).
 - Replace the page with the smallest value.
 - *Stack* implementation:
 - Keep a stack of page numbers.
 - Note that entries must be removed from the middle of the stack.

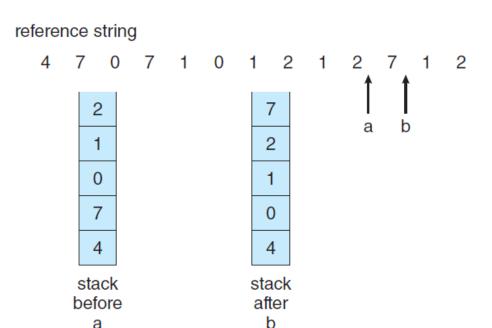


Figure 10.16 *Use of a stack to record the most recent page reference.*





LRU-Approximation

- LRU needs hardware support,
 - however, many systems provide some help with a *reference bit*.

• reference bit:

- initially o, a bit associated with each page.
- when a page is referenced, set to 1.
- replace any with reference bit = 0 (if any).





- Second-Change Algorithm
 - Use a FIFO replacement algorithm.
 - However, inspect its reference bit, when a page has been selected.
 - If the value is o, proceed to replace it.
 - If the value is 1, give the page a second change and move on to select the next FIFO page.
 - When a page gets a second change,
 - its reference bit is cleared,
 - and its arrival time is reset to the current time.



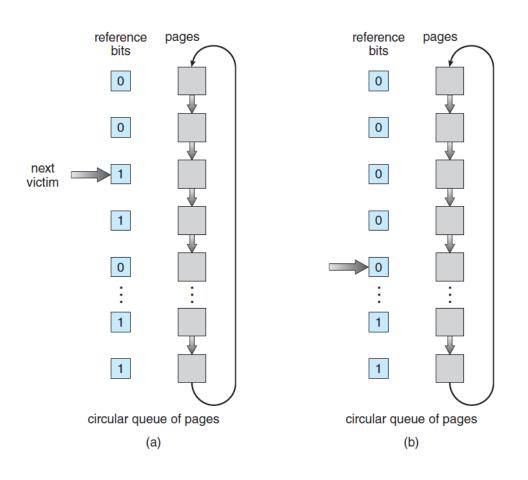


Figure 10.17 Second-chance (clock) page-replacement algorithm.





10.5 Allocation of Frames

- The Issues for Frame Allocation:
 - Consider a simple case of a system with 128 frames.
 - OS may take 35, leaving 93 frames for the user process.
 - Using the *pure-demand-paging*,
 - 93 frames would be put on the *free-frame list*.
 - The first 93 page faults would get free frames.
 - 94th page faults would cause a page replacement.
 - Then, if we have *two processes*,
 - how do we *allocate 93 frames* to these *two processes*?



10.5 Allocation of Frames

- The strategies for frame allocation
 - Equal .vs. Proportional:
 - equal allocation: give every process an equal share.
 - proportional allocation: allocate according to the size of process.
 - Global .vs. Local:
 - *local replacement*: selects from *only its own* set of allocated frames.
 - *global replacement*: selects a replacement frame from the set of all the frames in the system.



10.6 Thrashing

• Thrashing:

- a situation that a process is busy swapping pages in and out.
- If a process does *not* have *enough pages*,
 - the page-fault rate is very high.

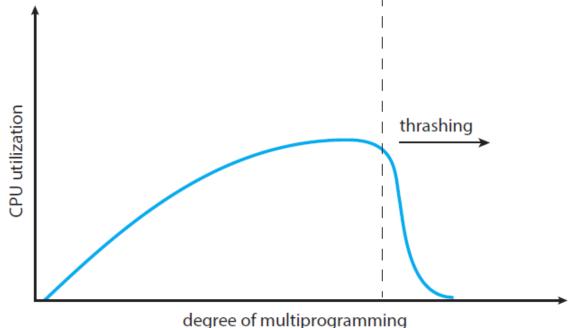


Figure 10.20 Thrashing.



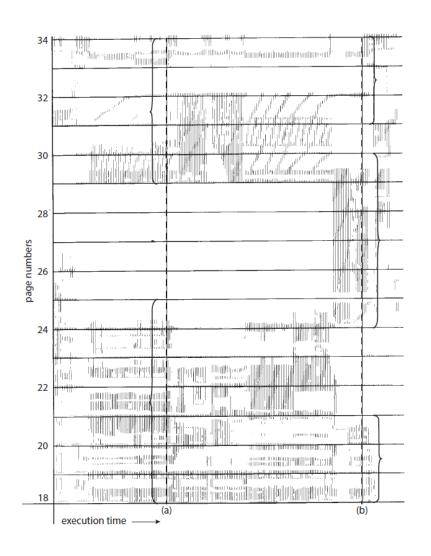


10.6 Thrashing

- Working-Set Model:
 - based on the assumption of *locality*.
 - define the *working-set window* with a parameter Δ .
 - The idea is to examine the most recent Δ page references.
 - working-set: the set of pages in the most recent Δ page references
 - If a page is in active use,
 - it will be in the working set.
 - If it is no longer being used,
 - it will drop from the working set time units after its last reference.



10.6 Thrashing



page reference table

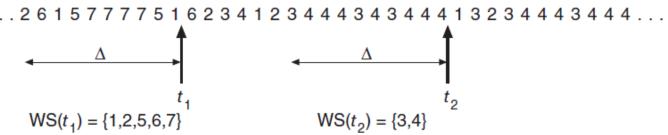


Figure 10.22 Working-set model.

Figure 10.21 Locality in a memory-reference pattern.



Any Questions?

