Virtual Memory

Outline

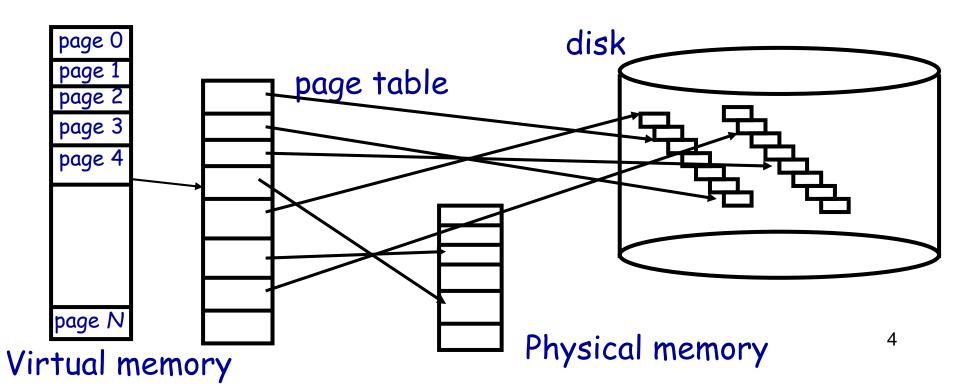
- Background
- Virtual memory
- How does it work?
 - Page faults
 - Resuming after page faults
- When to fetch?
- What to replace?
 - Page replacement algorithms
 - FIFO, OPT, LRU (Clock)
 - Page Buffering
 - Allocating Pages to processes

Background

- Modern programs require a lot of physical memory
- Code needs to be in memory to execute, but entire program rarely used
 - Error code, unusual routines, large data structures
- Entire program code not needed at same time
 - 90-10 rule: programs spend 90% of their time in 10% of their code
 - Wasteful to require all of user's program code to be in memory
- Consider ability to execute partially-loaded program
 - Program no longer constrained by limits of physical memory
 - Each program takes less memory while running -> more programs run at the same time
 - Increased CPU utilization and throughput with no increase in response time or turnaround time
 - Less I/O needed to load or swap programs into memory -> each user program runs faster

What is virtual memory?

- Each process has illusion of large address space
 - 2³² for 32-bit addressing
- However, physical memory is much smaller
- How do we give this illusion to multiple processes?
 - Virtual Memory: some addresses reside in disk (more precisely, swap space on the disk) and fetched on demand



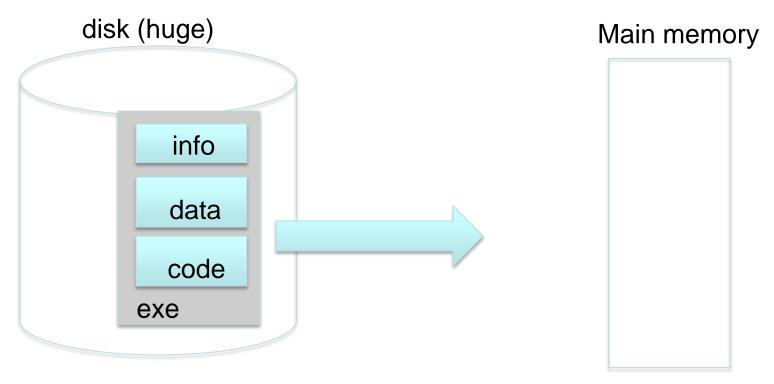
Virtual Memory

- Separates users 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 & increases degree of multiprogramming
 - Improves response to the processes (low I/O than in swapping)
 - Better than Dynamic loading where only main program is loaded initially & other routines are loaded on demand with the help of relocatable linking loader

Virtual Memory

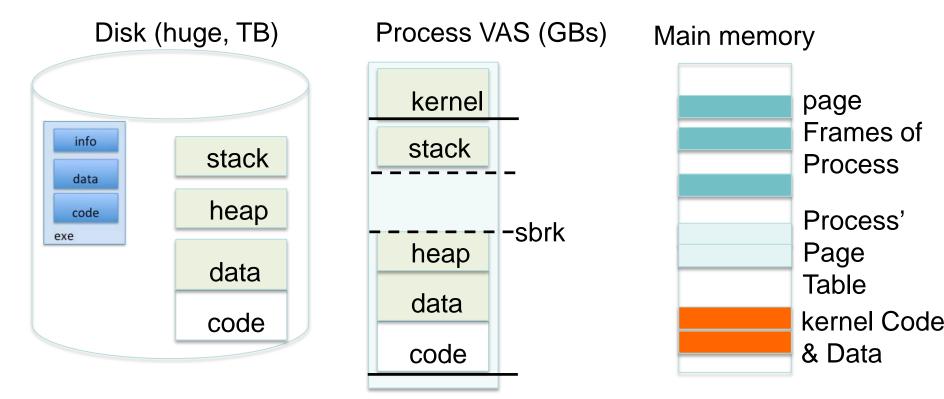
- Without Virtual Memory: Load entire process in memory (swapping in), run it, and exit
 - Is slow (for big processes)
 - Wasteful (might not require everything)
- Solutions: partial residency
 - Paging: only bring in pages, not all pages of process
 - Demand paging: bring only pages that are required as and when needed
 - Also Demand Segmentation
- Where to fetch page from?
 - Have a contiguous space in disk: swap space/file

Loading an executable into memory



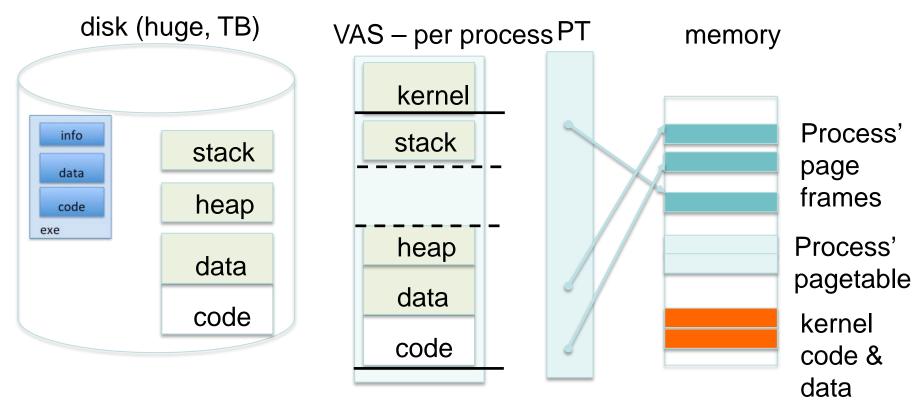
- .exe
 - lives on disk in the file system
 - contains contents of code & data segments, relocation entries and symbols
 - OS loads it into memory, initializes registers (and initial stack pointer)
 - program sets up stack and heap upon initialization:
 crt0 (C runtime initialization before Main() is called)

Create Virtual Address Space of a Process



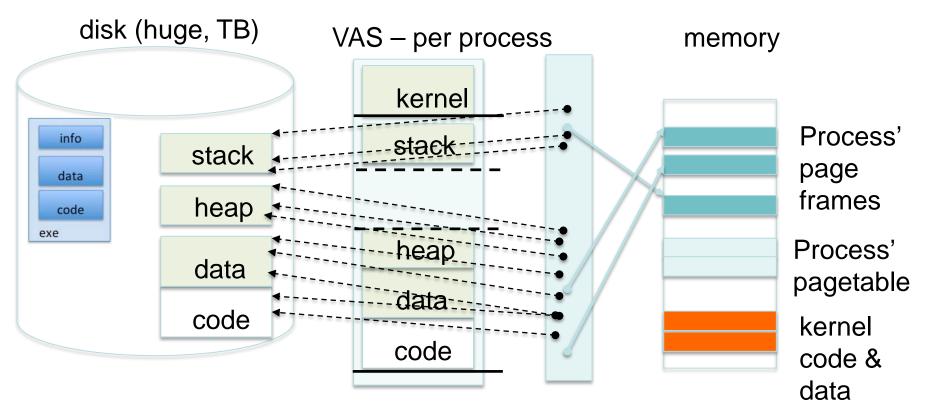
- Kernel mapped into VAS of process, but not accessible to process!
- Utilized pages in the VAS are backed by a page block on disk
 - Called the backing store or swap space/file
 - Swap space I/O faster than file system I/O even if on the same device
 - Swap allocated in larger chunks, less management needed than file system
 - Pages swapped into and out of memory as needed for every process

Create Virtual Address Space of a Process



- Process' Page Table maps entire VAS
 - Resident pages to the page frames in main memory they occupy
 - The portion of Page Table that the HW needs to access must be resident in main memory

Provide Backing Store for VAS



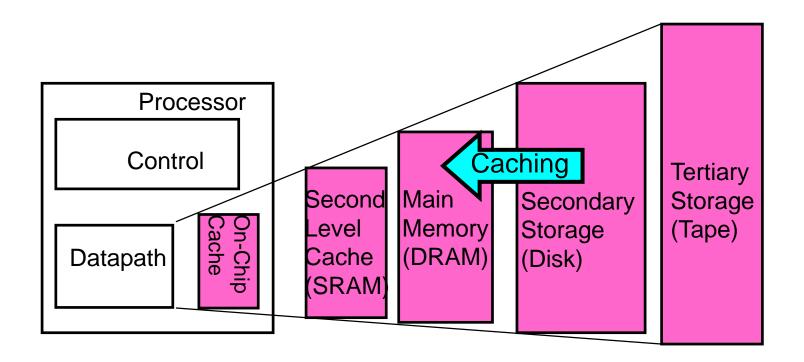
- Process' Page Table maps entire VAS
- Resident pages mapped to page frames
- For all other pages, OS must record where to find them on disk's swap space

What Data Structure Maps Non-Resident Pages to Disk?

- FindBlock(PID, page#) → disk_block
 - Some OSs utilize spare space in PTE for paged blocks
 - Like the PT, but purely software
- Where to store it?
 - In memory can be compact representation if swap storage is contiguous on disk
 - Could use hash table (like Inverted PT)
- Usually want backing store for resident pages too
- May map code segment directly to on-disk image
 - Saves a copy of code to swap file
- May share code segment with multiple instances of the program

Demand Paging

- Lazy swapper never swaps a page into memory unless page will be needed
- It uses main memory as cache for disk

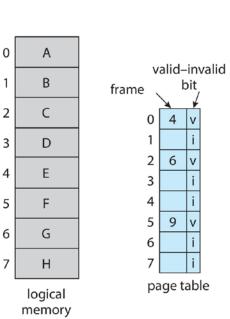


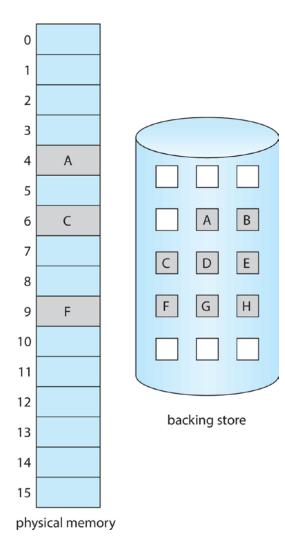
Demand Paging is Caching

- Since Demand Paging is Caching, must ask:
 - What is block size?
 - 1 page
 - What is organization of this cache (i.e. direct-mapped, setassociative, fully-associative)?
 - Fully associative: arbitrary virtual → physical mapping
 - How do we find a page in the cache when look for it?
 - First check TLB, then page-table traversal
 - What is page replacement policy? (i.e. LRU, Random...)
 - This requires more explanation... (kinda LRU)
 - What happens on a miss?
 - Go to lower level to fill miss (i.e. disk)
 - What happens on a write? (write-through, write back)
 - Definitely write-back. Need dirty bit in Page Table entry!

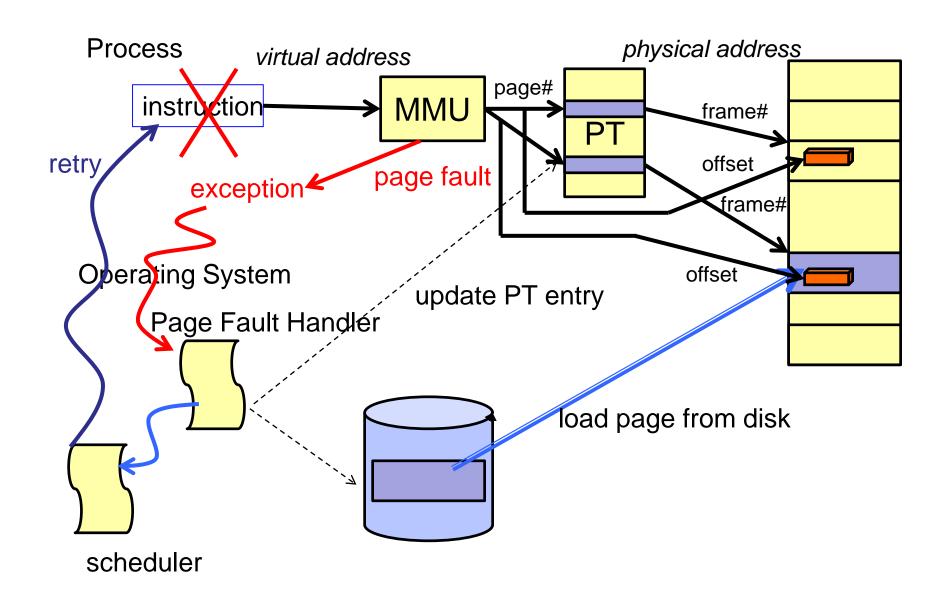
How does Demand Paging work?

- Modify Page Tables with another bit ("valid") in PTE
 - If page in memory,valid = 1, else valid = 0
 - Initially valid=0 for all entries in page table
 - If page is in memory, translation works as before
 - If page is not in memory, MMU traps to OS and resulting trap is called as page fault





Steps in Handling a Page Fault



What happens on Page Faults?

- On a page fault:
 - OS finds a free frame, or evicts one from memory (which one?)
 - Want knowledge of the future?
 - Issues disk request to fetch data for page (what to fetch?)
 - Just the requested page, or more?
 - Block current process (moved to I/O waiting queue), context switch to new process (how?)
 - Process might be in the middle of executing an instruction
 - When disk request completes, set valid bit in page table of blocked process to 1, and move process from I/O waiting queue to CPU Ready Queue

Other Aspects of Demand Paging

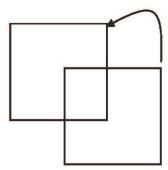
- Extreme case start process with no pages in memory
 - OS sets instruction pointer to first instruction of process, non-memory-resident -> page fault
 - And for every other process pages on first access
 - Pure demand paging
- Actually, a given instruction could access multiple pages -> multiple page faults
 - Consider fetch and decode of instruction which adds 2 numbers from memory and stores result back to memory
 - Pain decreased because of locality of reference
- Hardware support needed for demand paging
 - Page table with valid / invalid bit
 - Secondary memory (swap device with swap space)
 - Instruction restart

Resuming after a page fault

- Should be able to restart the instruction
- For RISC processors this is simple:
 - Instructions are idempotent until references are done
- More complicated for CISC:
 - Block Move: e.g., MVC instruction in IBM 360/370
 - E.g. move 256 bytes from one location to another



- Ensure pages are in memory before the instruction executes
- Use temporary registers to store intermediate (partial) state/results



When to fetch?

- Demand Paging (reactive):
 - Fetch a page when it faults
 - So, incurs page fetching delay
- Prepaging (hybrid):
 - Get the page on fault + some of its neighbors, or
 - Get all pages in use last time process was swapped out

Performance of Demand Paging

- Three major activities
 - Service the interrupt careful coding means just several hundred instructions needed
 - Read the page from Disk a lot of time
 - Restart the process again just a small amount of time
- 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)

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EAT = (1 - p) x memory access time
+ p x (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 = $(1 p) \times 200 + p (8 \text{ milliseconds})$ = $(1 - p) \times 200 + p \times 8,000,000$ = $200 + p \times 7,999,800$
- If one access out of 1,000 causes a page fault

$$EAT = ?$$

EAT = 8.2 microseconds

This is a slowdown by a factor of 40!!

- If want performance degradation < 10 percent
 - $-220 > 200 + 7,999,800 \times p$ $20 > 7,999,800 \times p$
 - p < .0000025
 - < one page fault in every 400,000 memory accesses</p>

What Factors Lead to Page faults?

Compulsory page faults:

- Pages that have never been paged into memory before
- How might we remove these misses?
 - Prefetching: loading them into memory before needed
 - Need to predict future somehow! More later

Capacity page faults:

- Not enough memory. Must somehow increase available memory size.
- Can we do this?
 - One option: Increase amount of DRAM (not quick fix!)
 - Another option: If multiple processes in memory: adjust percentage of memory allocated to each one!

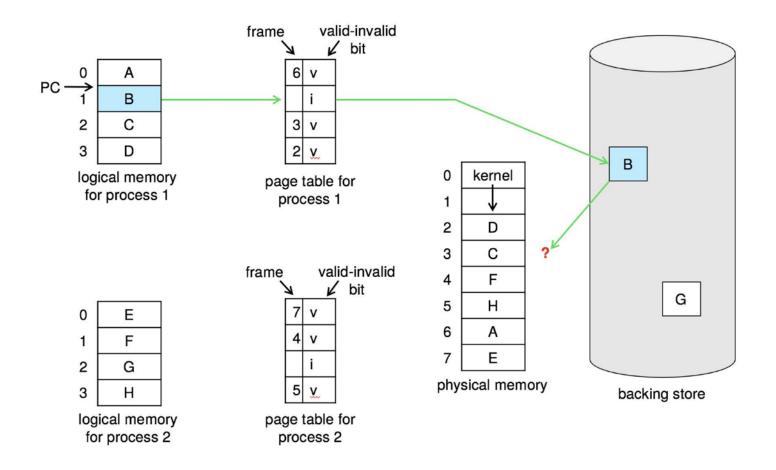
Conflict Misses:

 Technically, conflict misses don't exist in virtual memory, since it is a "fully-associative" cache

Policy Misses:

- Caused when pages were in memory, but kicked out prematurely because of the replacement policy
- How to fix? Need a better replacement policy!

Need for Page Replacement



All memory is in use; then how to address page fault?

What to replace?

- What happens if there is no free frame in memory?
 - find some page in memory, but not really in use, swap it out
- Page Replacement
 - When process has used up all frames it is allowed to use
 - OS must select a page to eject from memory to allow new page
 - The page to eject is selected using the Page Replacement Algorithm
- Goal: Select page that minimizes future page faults

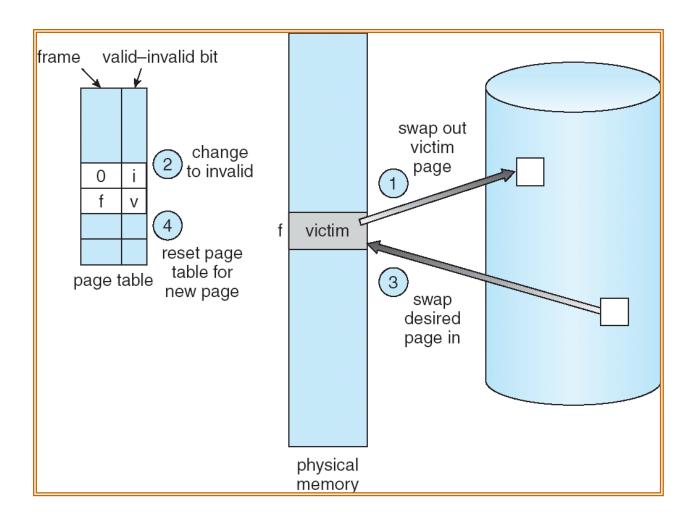
Page Replacement

- Prevent over-allocation of memory to processes 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
 - A large virtual memory can be provided on a smaller physical memory

Steps in 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.
 - Write victim frame to disk if dirty
- 3. Read the desired page into the (newly) free frame.
 - Update the page and frame tables.
- 4. Continue the process by restarting the instruction that caused page fault
- → Potentially 2 page transfers for single page fault
 - Increases EAT

Page Replacement

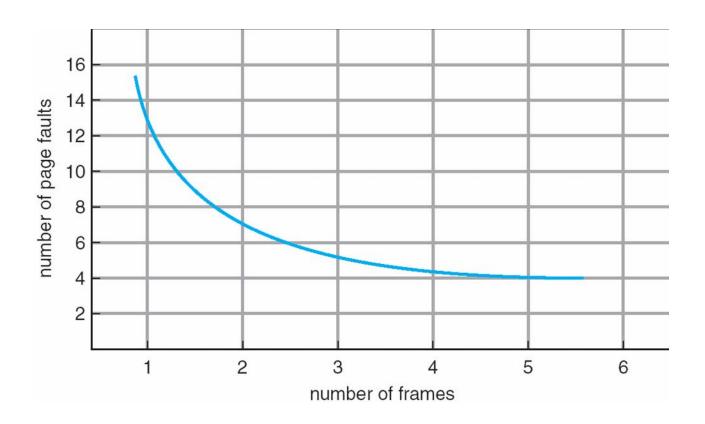


Assumption: Victim page and new page belong to the same process

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.
- How to get reference strings?
 - Extract Page numbers from logical addresses generated by CPU
 - Remove successive references to same page from the string as they do not cause page faults
 - Assumption: No context-switch!
- Page faults also depend on number of frames available
- In all our following examples, the reference string is

Page Faults Vs Number of Frames Allocated per Process



Note: No. of page faults saturates but does not reach Zero

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)

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

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

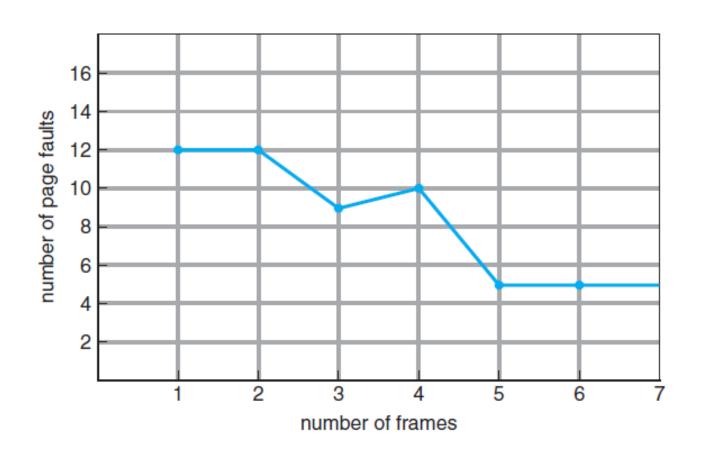
First-In-First-Out (FIFO) Algorithm

- Reference string: 1, 2, 3, 4, 1, 2, 5, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5
- 3 frames → 9 page faults
- 4 frames → How many page faults?

FIFO Replacement – Belady's Anomaly

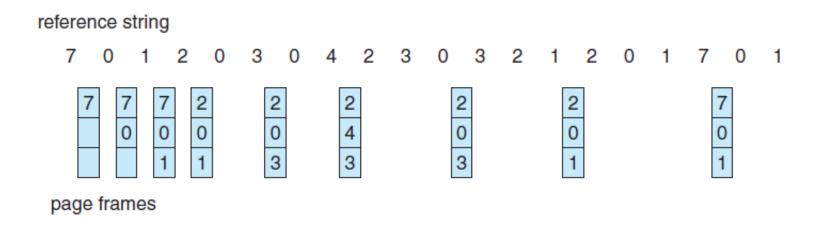
more frames ⇒ more page faults!

FIFO Illustrating Belady's Anamoly



Optimal Algorithm (OPT)

 Replace page that will not be used for longest period of time.



- How do you know this?
 - Requires future knowledge of page references
 - So, we can't implement it directly
- Used for measuring how well your algorithm performs.

Optimal Algorithm (OPT)

4 frames example

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

4

2

6 page faults

3

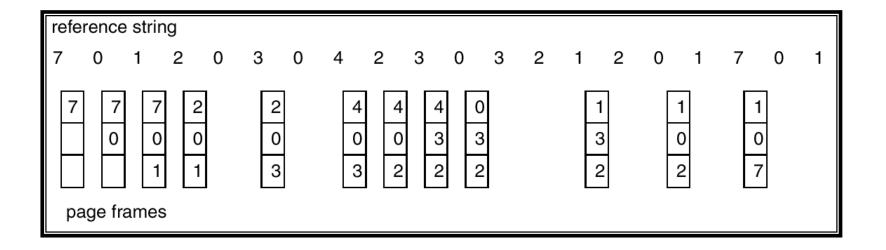
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Least Recently Used (LRU) Algorithm

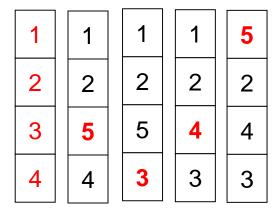
- FIFO uses the time when page was brought into memory
- OPT uses the time when page is to be used in future
- Recent past as an approximation of the near future
 - Replace page that has not been used for the longest period of time (LRU)
- LRU: OPT looking backward in time
- Page fault rate for OPT on S (reference string) is same as that for OPT on S^R
- Similarly, page fault rate for LRU on S (reference string) is same as that for LRU on S^R

LRU Page Replacement



Least Recently Used (LRU) Algorithm

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

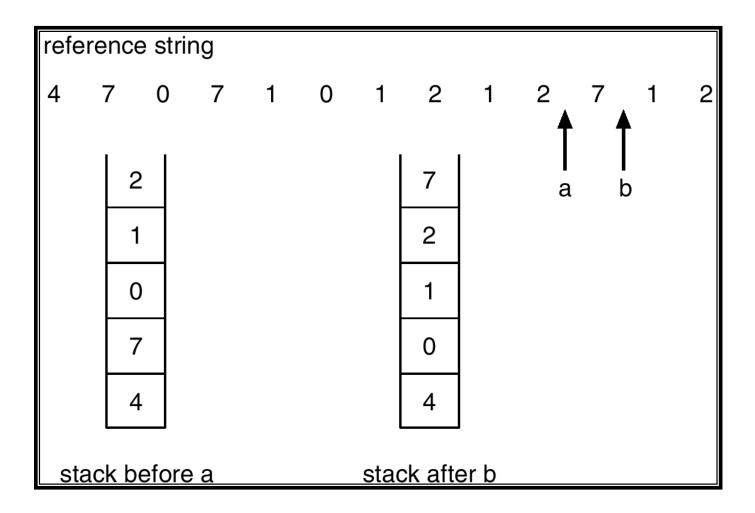


- 8 page faults vs 10 in FIFO
- Initial 4 page faults are ignored during comparison of page replacement algorithms
 - All algorithms including OPT suffer the initial page faults!

LRU Algorithm: Implementation

- Counter implementation
 - Every page table entry (PTE) has a time-of-use field
 - Every time a page is referenced, copy the contents of CPU clock register into the time-of-use field of its PTE.
 - Victim page: look at the time-of-field entries to determine page with the smallest time value for replacement.
 - Requires search in page table and updates to fields on each reference; Clocks may overflow
- Stack implementation keep a stack of page numbers in a doubly linked list data structure:
 - Page referenced:
 - move it to the top of the stack
 - requires 6 pointers to be changed
 - No search for replacement as the bottom one is the LRU page

Use of a Stack to record the Most Recent Page References



LRU Page Replacement

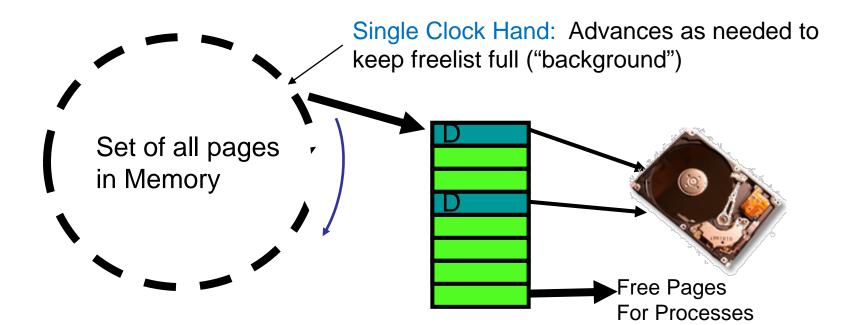
- Like OPT, LRU does not suffer from Belady's anomaly
- Both belong to class of algorithms called Stack algos
- Stack Algo: Set of Pages in memory for n frames is always subset of Set of Pages that would be in memory for n+1 frames
- Both Counter and Stack implementations of LRU incur huge overhead
 - Every memory reference lead to updating of Clock fields or Stack
 - So, we need LRU approximation algos to cut-down the cost!!

LRU Approximation Algorithms

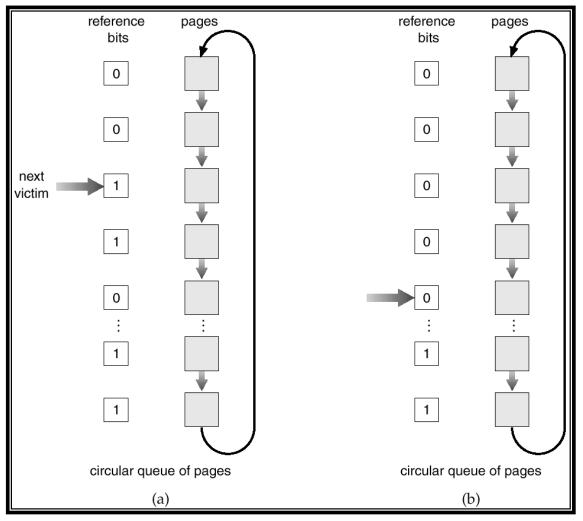
- Reference bit
 - With each page associate a bit in its PTE
 - Initially = 0 for all pages
 - When page is referenced, bit is set to 1 with the hardware support.
 - Replace the one which is 0 (if one exists).
 - We do not know the order, however.
- Extension: (Additional-Reference-Bits Algo)
 - 8-bit shift register per page to keep track of its historical use
 - Periodically, copy reference bit content to the shift register and reset it to 0
 - Replace the one which is having the lowest value in shift register

LRU Approximation Algorithms

- Second chance algorithm
 - A variant of FIFO that uses just the reference bit in PTE.
 - Also called Clock algorithm
 - If page to be replaced (in clock order using FIFO) 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



Sensitive to sweeping interval

- Fast: expensive
- Slow: all pages look used

Page Buffering Algorithms

- Keep a pool of free frames, always
 - Then frame available when needed, not found at fault time
 - Read page into free frame and select victim to evict and add to free pool
 - When convenient, evict victim
- Possibly, keep list of modified pages
 - When backing store otherwise idle, write pages there and set to non-dirty
- Possibly, keep free frame contents intact and note what is in them
 - If referenced again before reused, no need to load contents again from disk
 - Generally useful to reduce penalty if wrong victim frame selected
 - E.g., FIFO

Enhanced Second-Chance Algorithm

- Improve algorithm by using reference bit and modify bit (if available in PTE) in concert
- Take ordered pair (reference, modify):
 - (0, 0) neither recently used not modified best page to replace
 - (0, 1) not recently used but modified not quite as good, must write out before replacement
 - (1, 0) recently used but clean probably will be used again soon
 - (1, 1) recently used and modified probably will be used again soon and need to write out before replacement
- When page replacement called for, use the clock scheme but use the four classes to replace a page in the lowest non-empty class
 - Might need to search circular queue several times

Counting Algorithms

- Keep a counter of the number of references that have been made to each page.
- LFU: Remove page with lowest count
 - No track of when the page was referenced
 - Use multiple bits. Shift right by 1 at regular intervals for Decaying
- MFU Algorithm: based on the argument that the page with the smallest count was probably just brought in and has yet to be used.
- LFU and MFU do not approximate OPT well and are expensive
 - So not commonly used

Allocation of Frames

- Each process needs **minimum** number of page frames
 - Want to make sure that all processes that are loaded into memory can make forward progress
- 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.
- min is defined by computer arch
- max is defined by DRAM size
- Two major allocation schemes.
 - fixed allocation
 - priority allocation

Fixed Allocation

- Equal allocation e.g., if 100 frames and 5 processes, give each 20 pages.
- Proportional allocation Allocate according to the size of process.

$$S_i = \text{size of process } p_i$$
 $S_i = S_i$
 $S_i = S_$

Priority Allocation

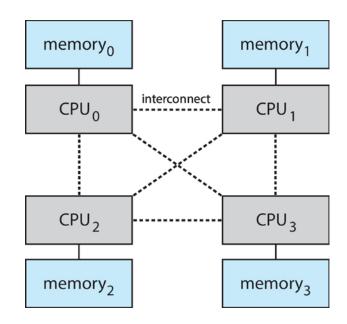
- Use a proportional allocation scheme using priorities rather than size.
- If process P_i generates a page fault,
 - select for replacement one of its frames.
 - select for replacement a frame from a process with lower priority number.

Global vs. Local Allocation

- Global replacement process selects a replacement frame from the set of all frames; one process can take a frame from another.
- Local replacement each process selects from only its own set of allocated frames.
- Global vs Local:
 - Global: page fault rate is no longer under a process' control
 - Local: More consistent per-process performance, but possibly underutilized memory
 - But Global gives better system throughput, degree of multiprogramming

Non-Uniform Memory Access

- So far all memory accessed equally
- Many systems are NUMA speed of access to memory varies
 - Consider system boards containing CPUs and memory, interconnected over a system bus
- NUMA multiprocessing architecture
 - Optimal performance comes from allocating memory "close to" the CPU on which the process is scheduled
 - What about multi-threaded programs?



Summary

- Demand Paging:
 - Treat main memory as cache of disk/backing Store
 - Cache miss → get page from backing Store
- Transparent Level of Indirection
 - User program is unaware of activities of OS behind scenes
 - Data can be moved without affecting application correctness
- Replacement policies
 - FIFO: Place pages on queue, replace page at end
 - OPT: replace page that will be used farthest in future
 - LRU: Replace page that hasn't be used for the longest time
- Clock Algorithm: Approximation to LRU
 - Arrange all pages in circular list
 - Sweep through them, marking as not "in use"
 - If page not "in use" for one pass, than can replace