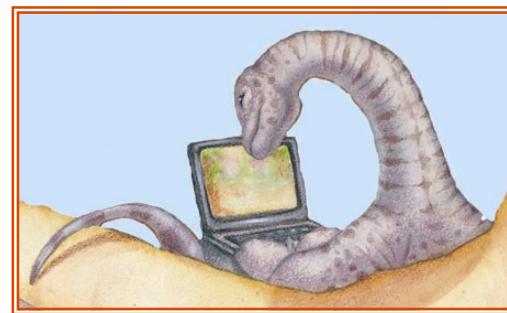


Chapter 9: Virtual-Memory Management





Chapter 9: Virtual-Memory Management

- 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

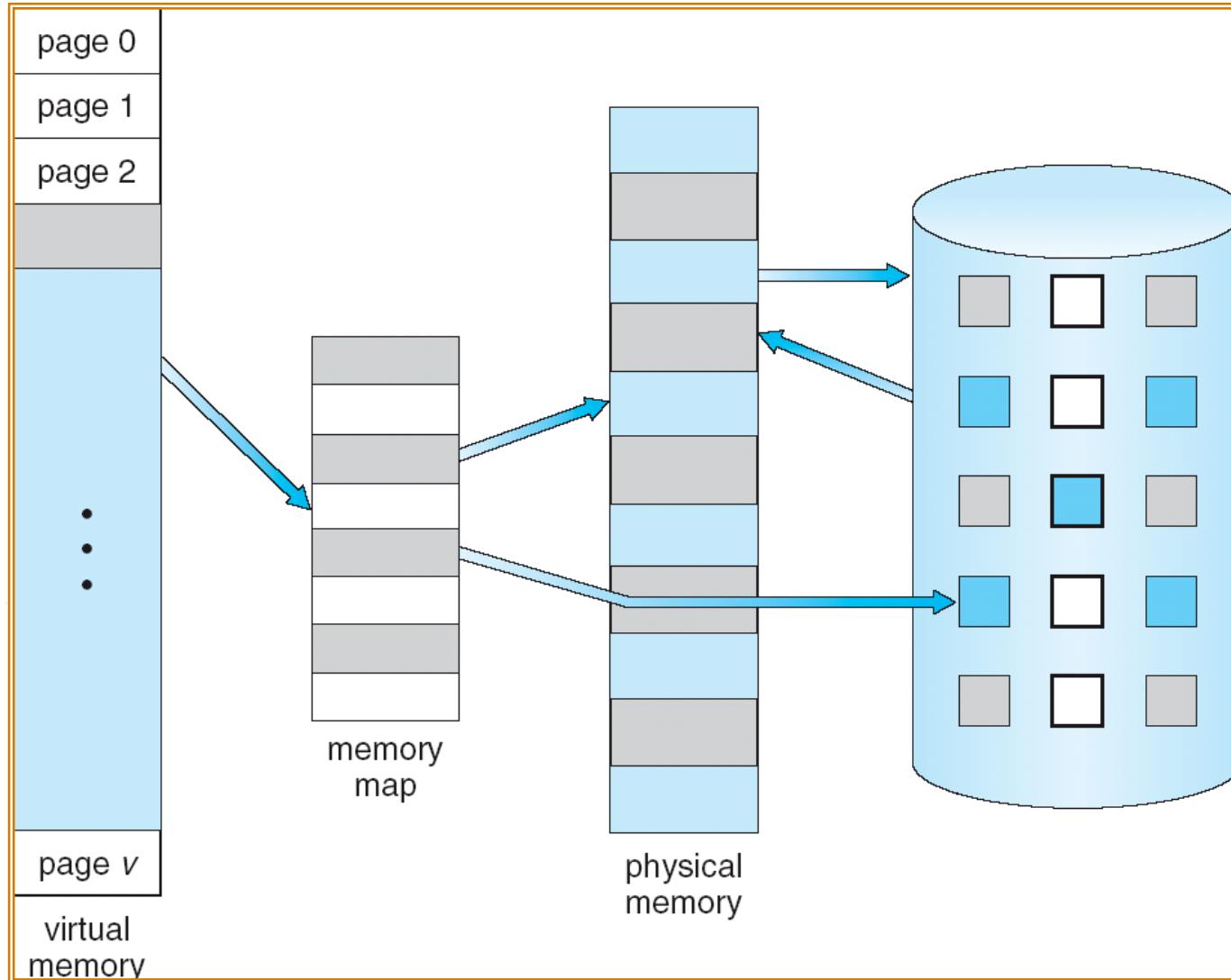
- **Virtual memory** – separation of user logical memory from physical memory.
 - Only part of the program needs to be in memory for execution
 - Logical address space can therefore be much larger than physical address space
 - Allows address spaces to be shared by several processes
 - Allows for more efficient process creation

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



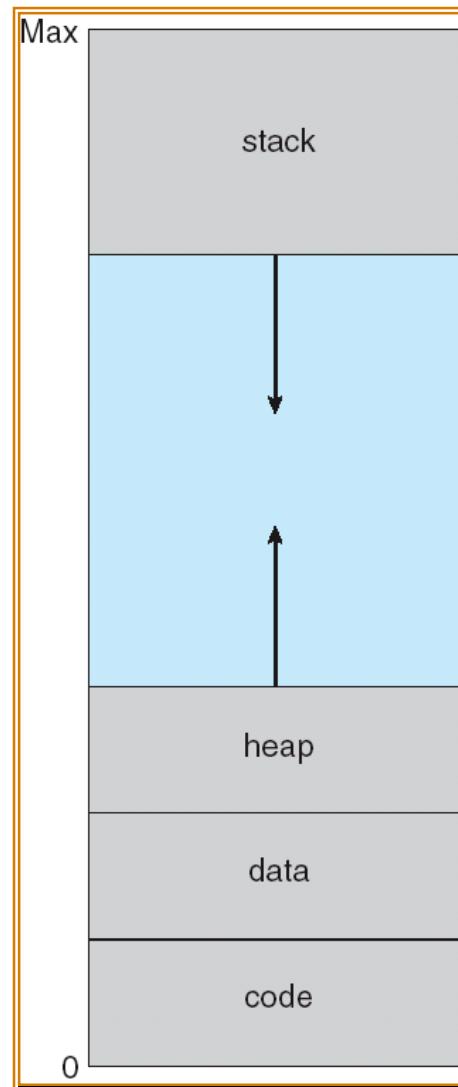


Virtual Memory That is Larger Than Physical Memory



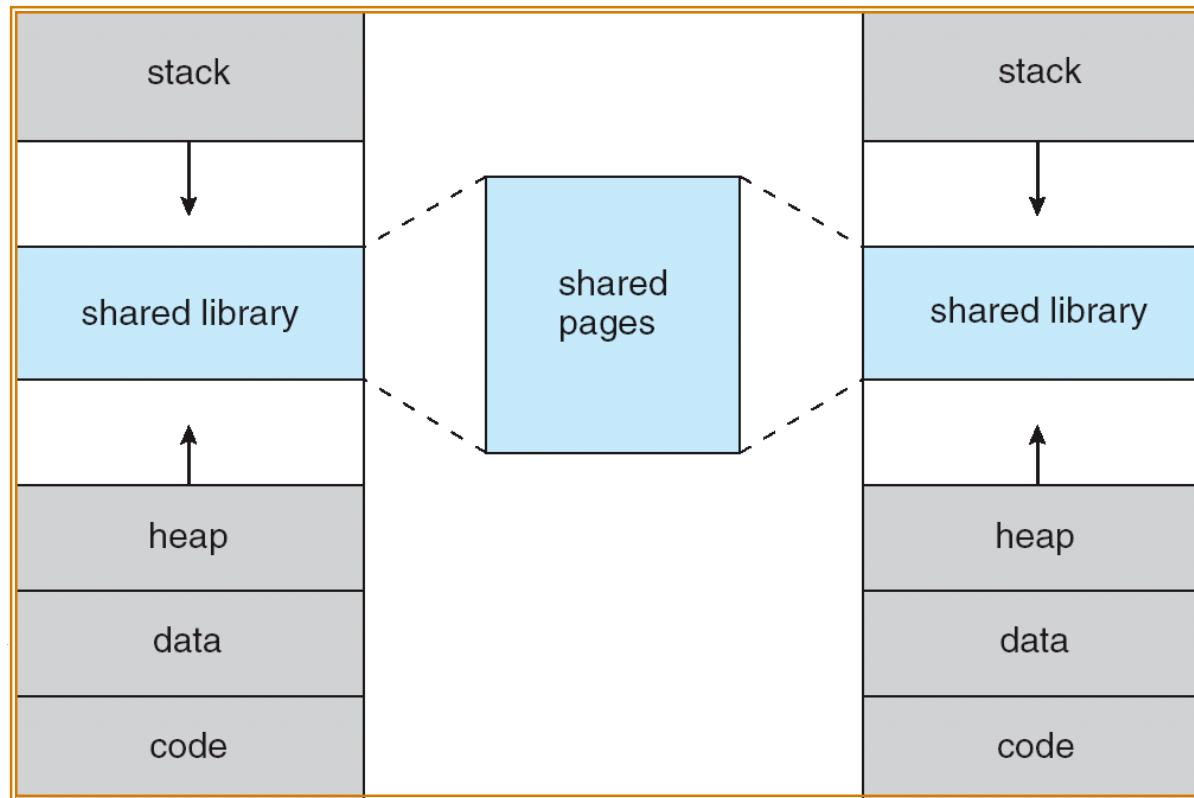


Virtual-address Space





Shared Library Using Virtual Memory





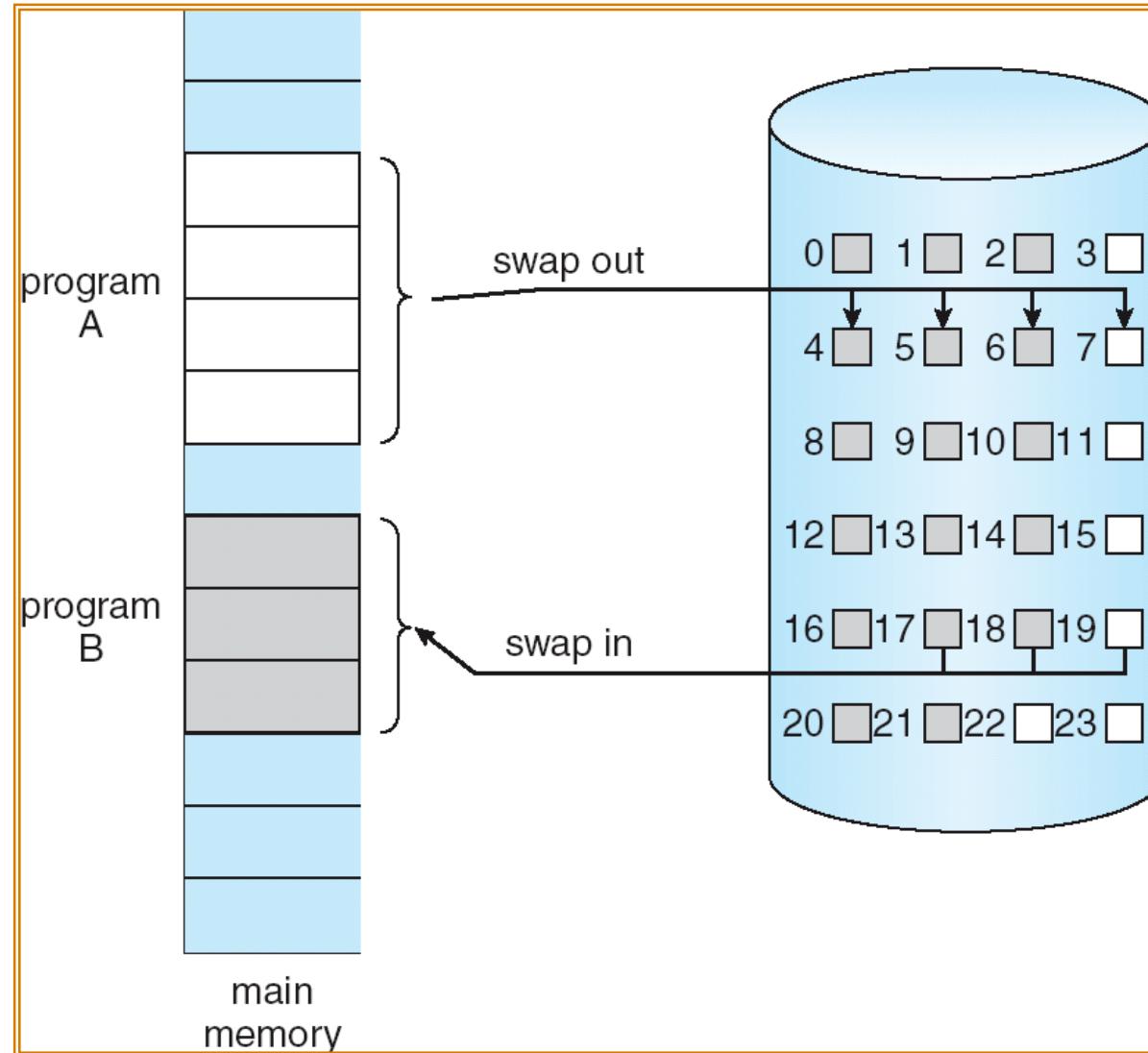
Demand Paging

- 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:

Frame #	valid-invalid bit
	v
	v
	v
	v
	i
....	
	i
	i

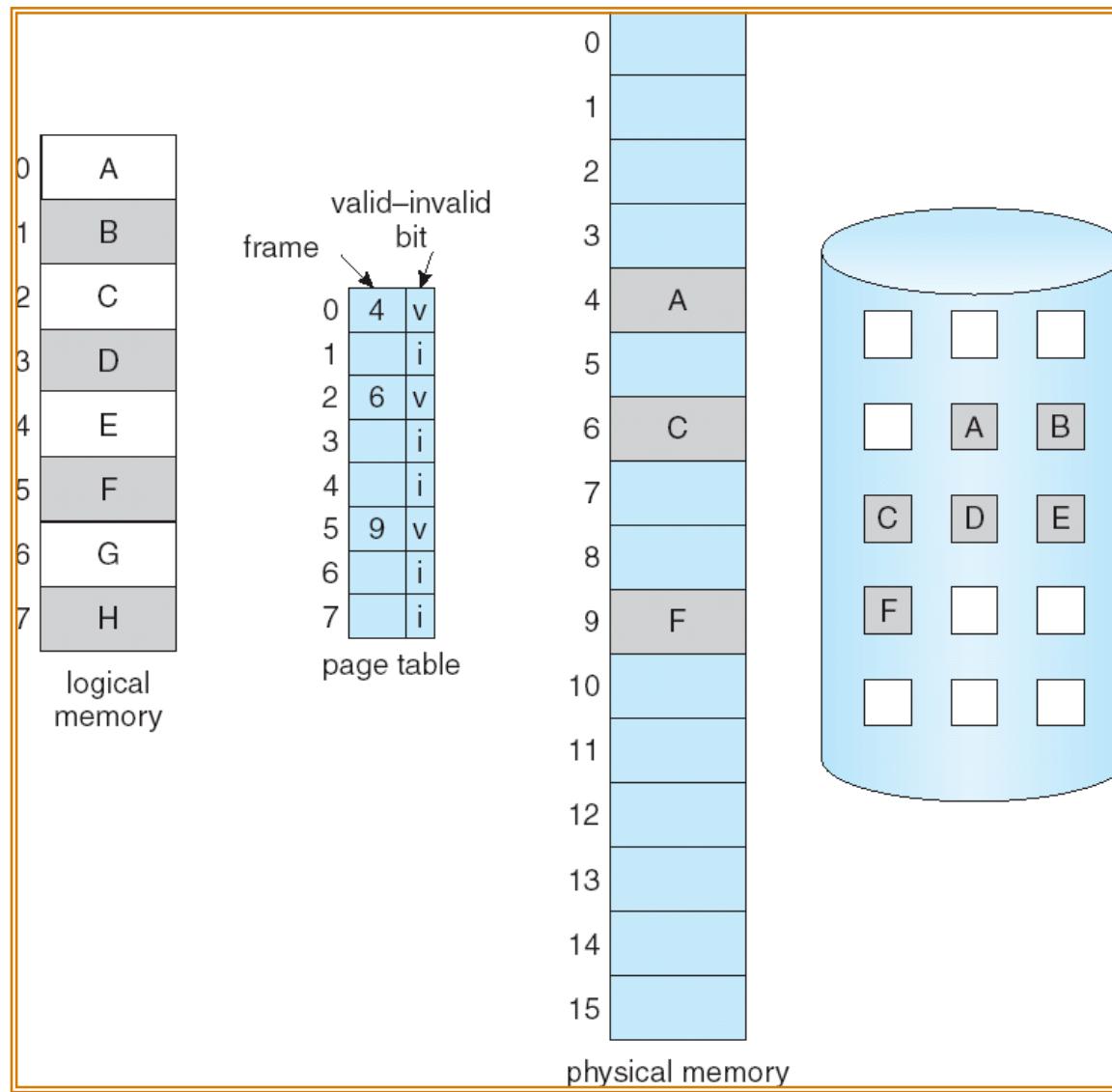
page table

- During address translation, if valid–invalid bit in page table entry is **i** ⇒ 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

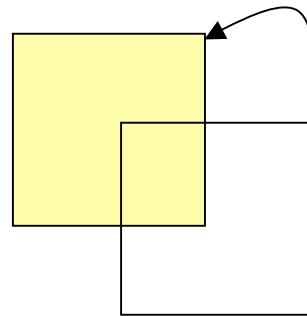
- ☛ Operating system looks at another table to decide:
 - Invalid reference \Rightarrow abort
 - Just not in memory
- ☛ Get empty frame
- ☛ Swap page into frame
- ☛ Reset tables
- ☛ Set validation bit = **V**
- ☛ Restart the instruction that caused the page fault





Page Fault (Cont.)

- Restart instruction
 - block move

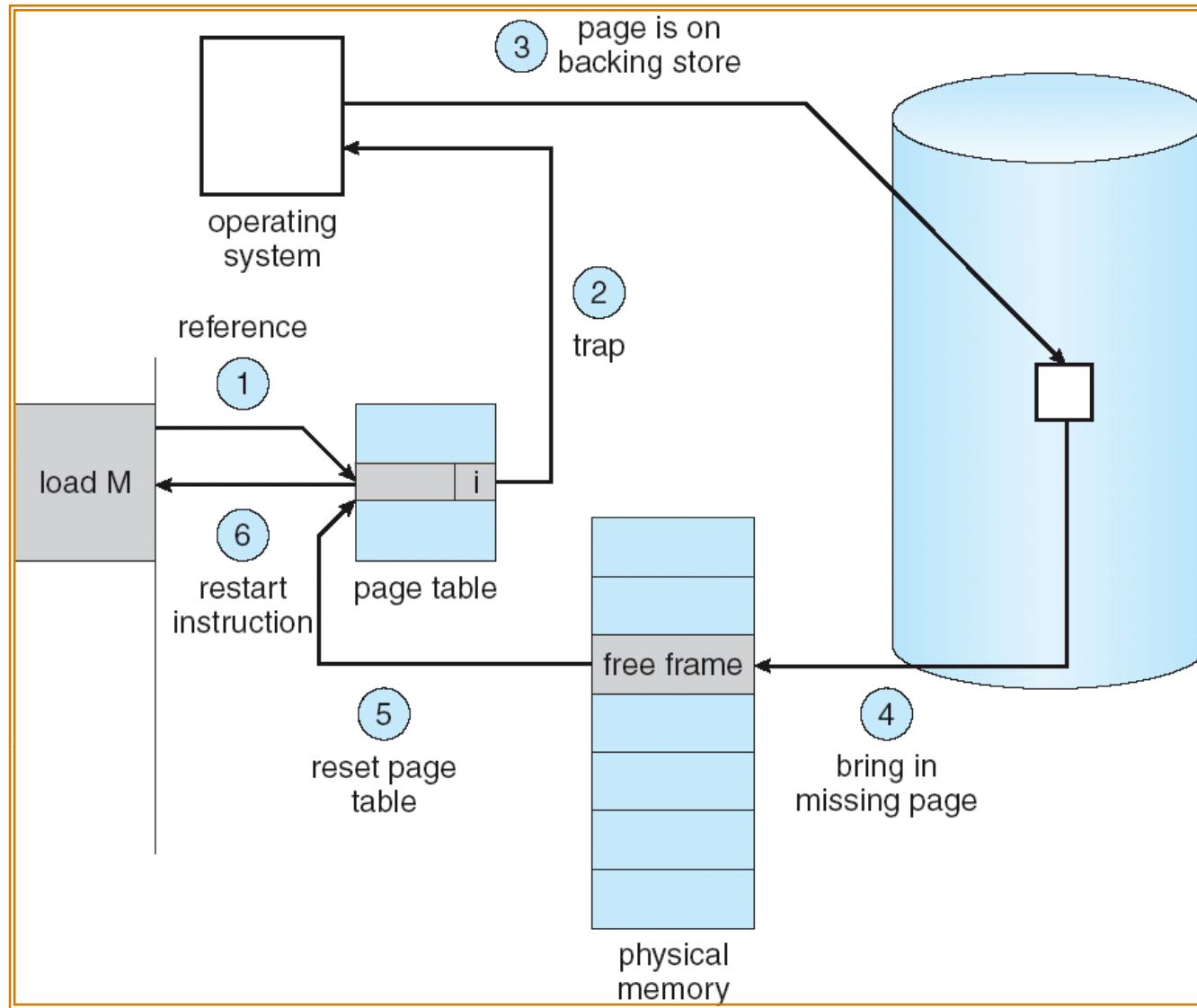


- auto increment/decrement location





Steps in Handling a Page Fault





Performance of Demand Paging

- Page Fault Rate $0 \leq p \leq 1.0$
 - if $p = 0$ no page faults
 - if $p = 1$, every reference is a fault
- Effective Access Time (EAT)
$$\text{EAT} = (1 - p) \times \text{memory access} + p (\text{page fault overhead} + \text{swap page out} + \text{swap page in} + \text{restart overhead})$$





Demand Paging Example

- Memory access time = 200 nanoseconds
- Average page-fault service time = 8 milliseconds
- $$\begin{aligned} \text{EAT} &= (1 - p) \times 200 + p \text{ (8 milliseconds)} \\ &= (1 - p) \times 200 + p \times 8,000,000 \\ &= 200 + p \times 7,999,800 \end{aligned}$$
- If one access out of 1,000 causes a page fault, then
 $\text{EAT} = 8.2 \text{ microseconds.}$
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)





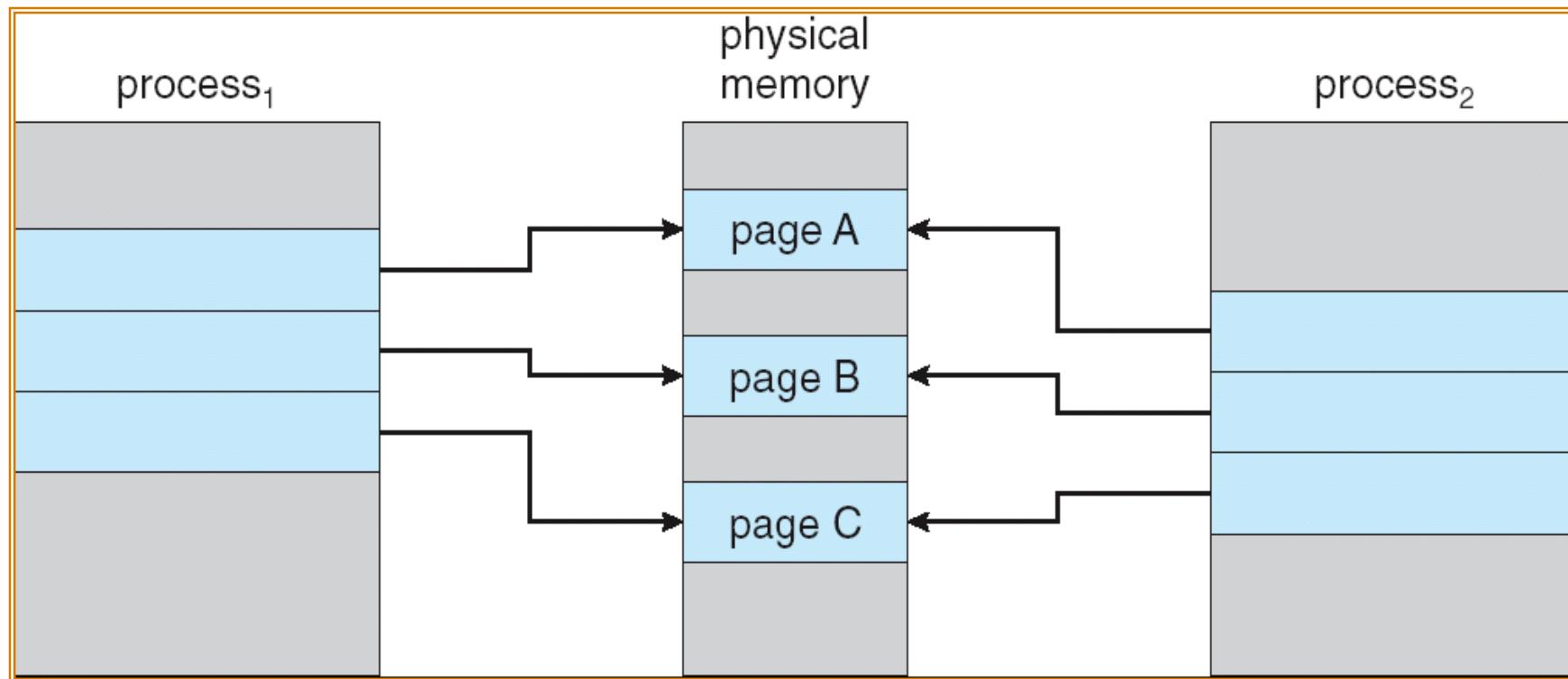
Copy-on-Write

- 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



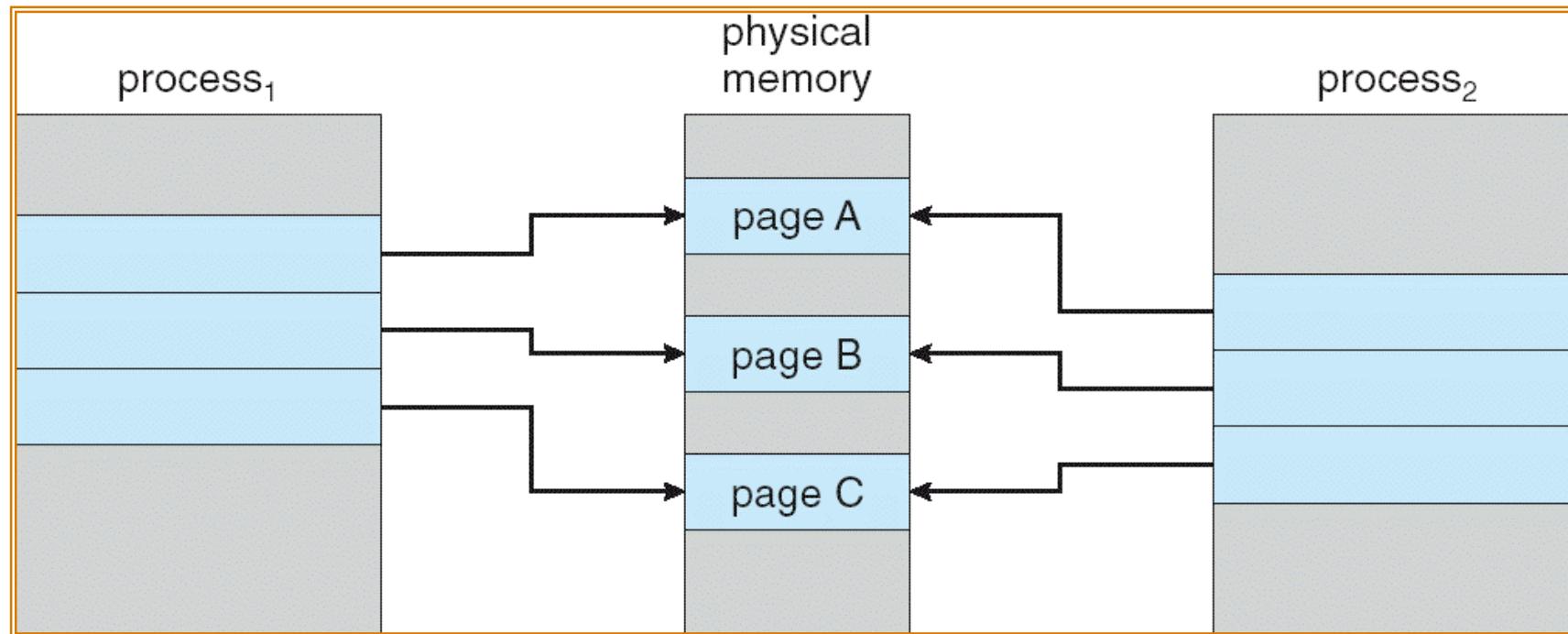


Before Process 1 Modifies Page C





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





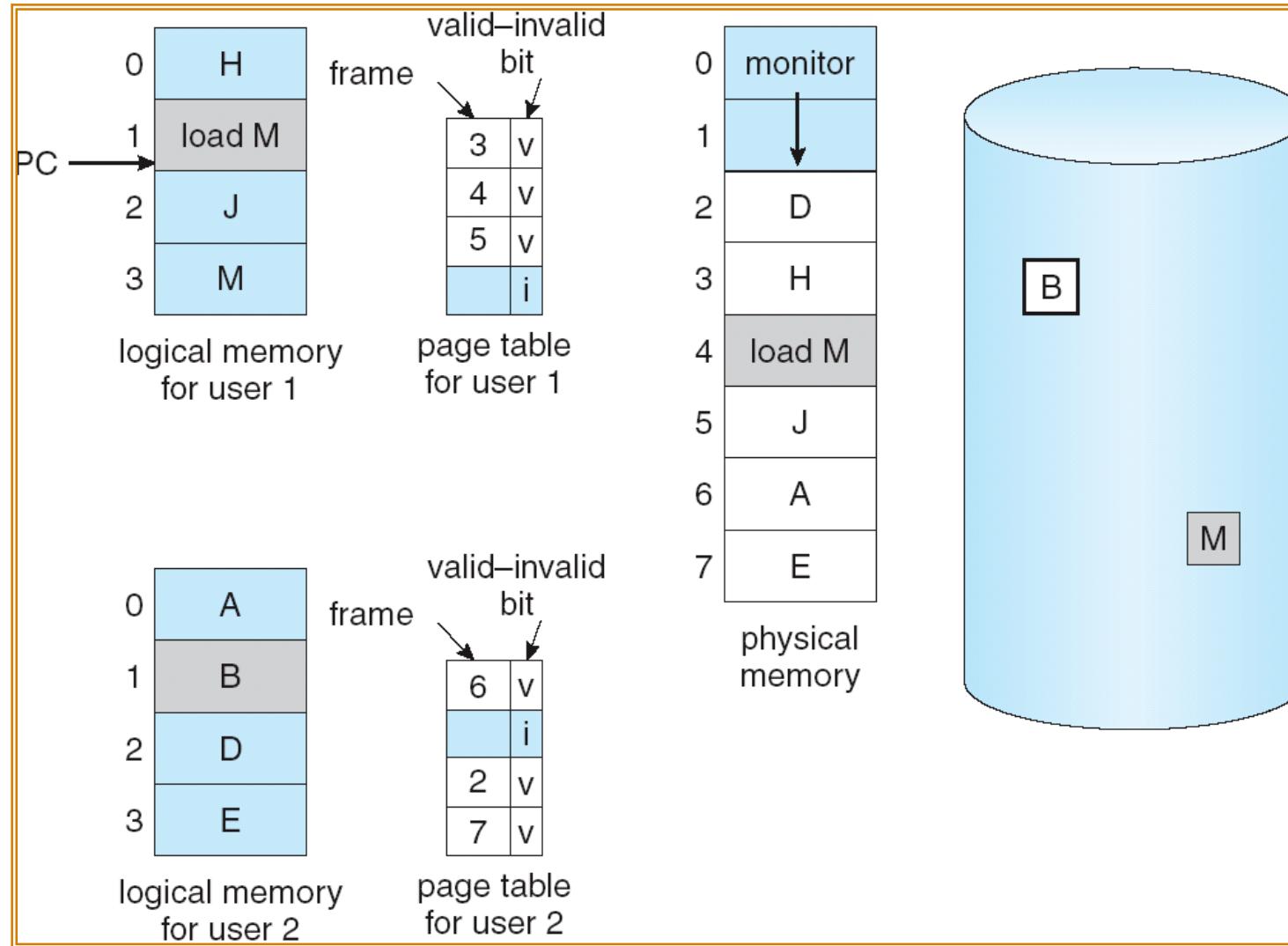
Page Replacement

- 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





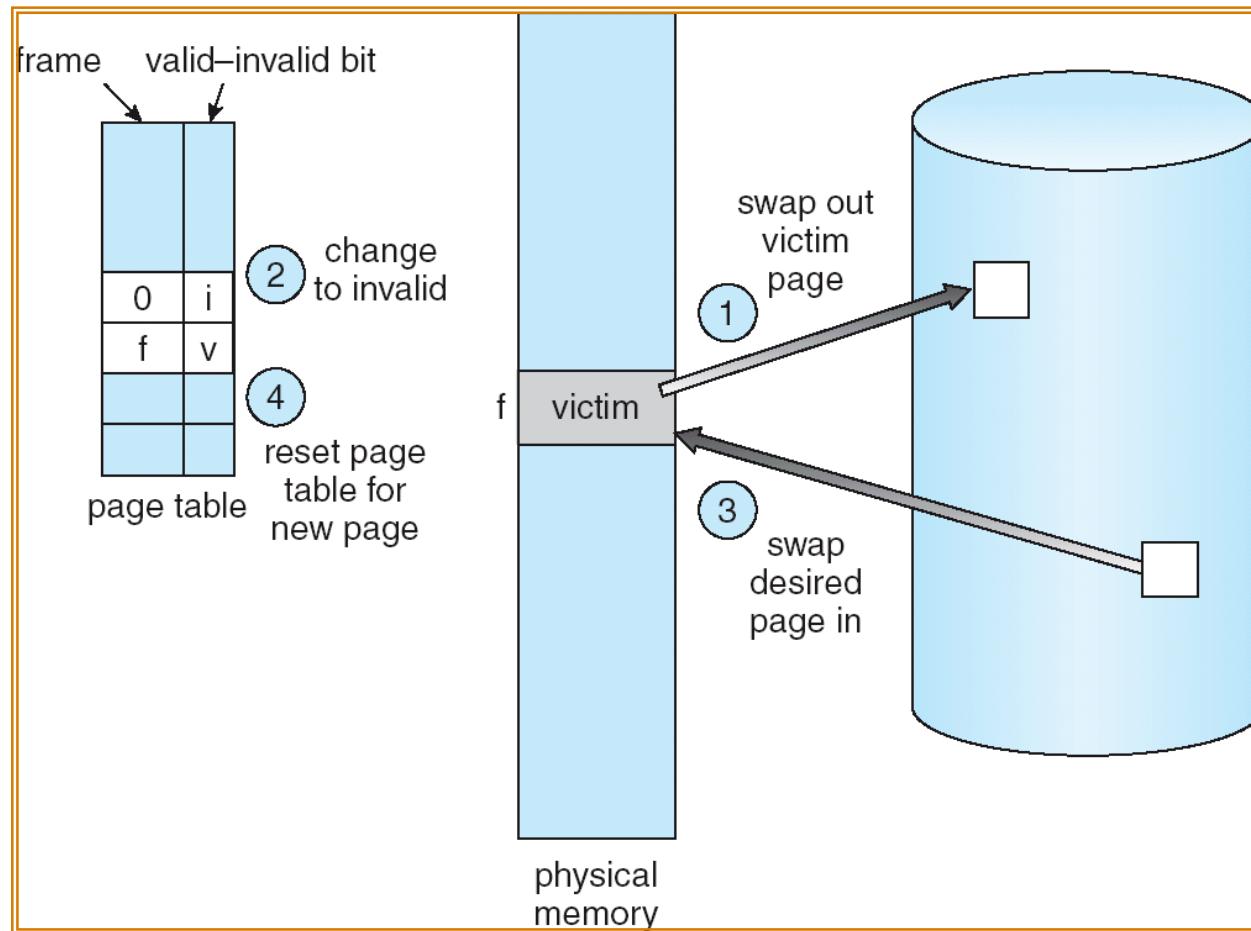
Basic Page Replacement

- ☛ Find the location of the desired page on disk
- ☛ 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
- ☛ Bring the desired page into the (newly) free frame;
update the page and frame tables
- ☛ Restart the process





Page Replacement





Page Replacement Algorithms

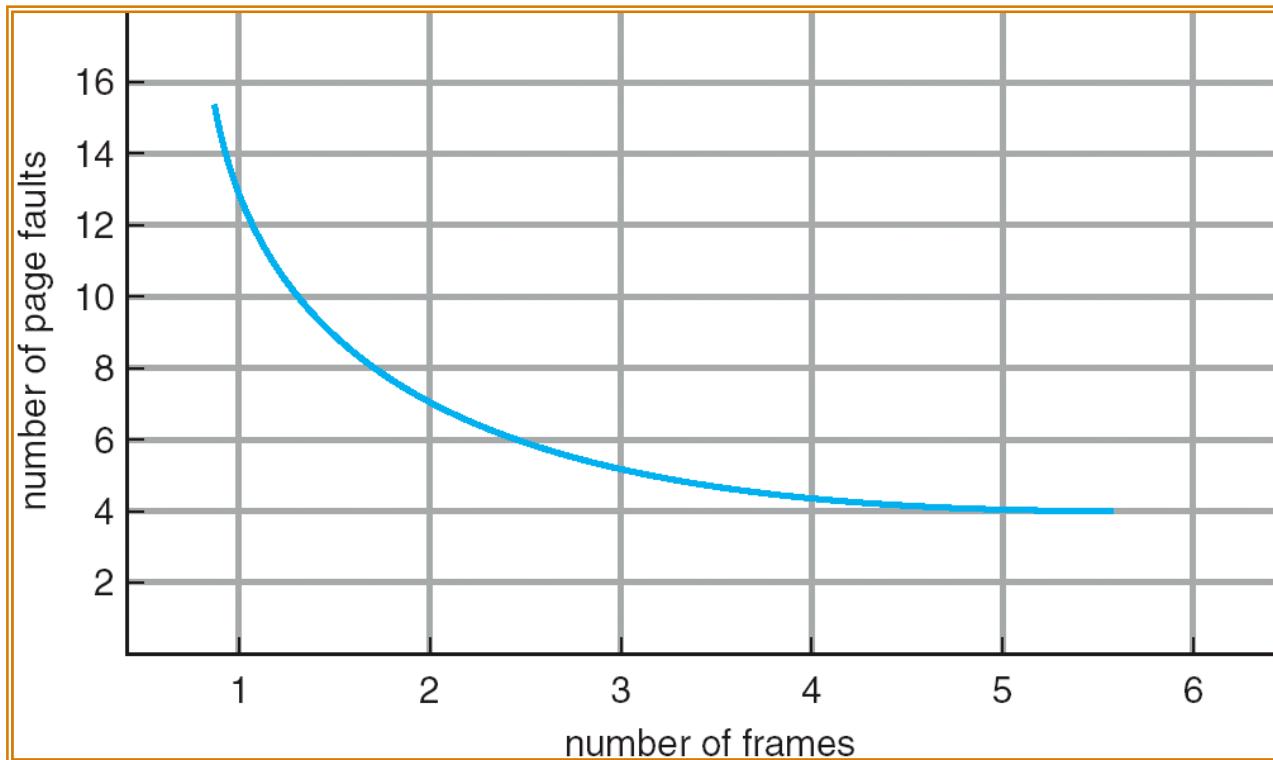
- Want lowest page-fault rate
- Evaluate algorithm by running it on a particular string of memory references (reference string) and computing the number of page faults on that string
- In all our examples, the reference string is

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





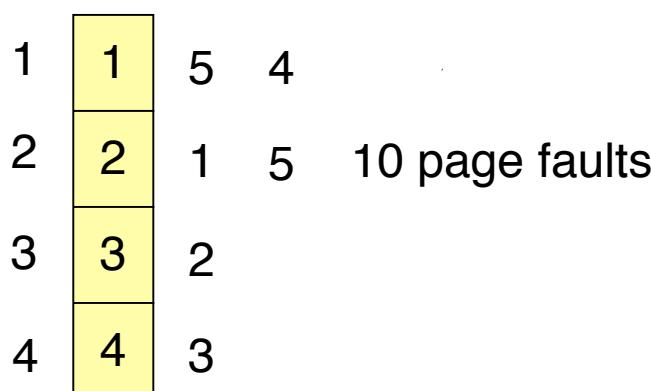
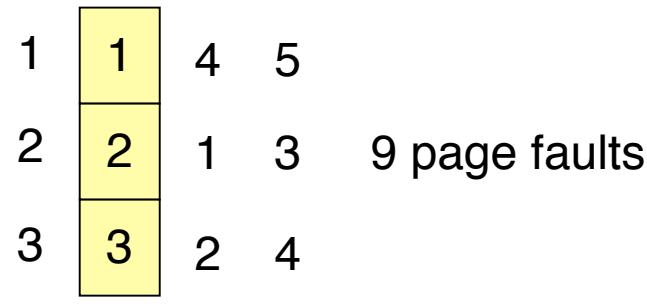
Graph of Page Faults Versus The Number of Frames





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)

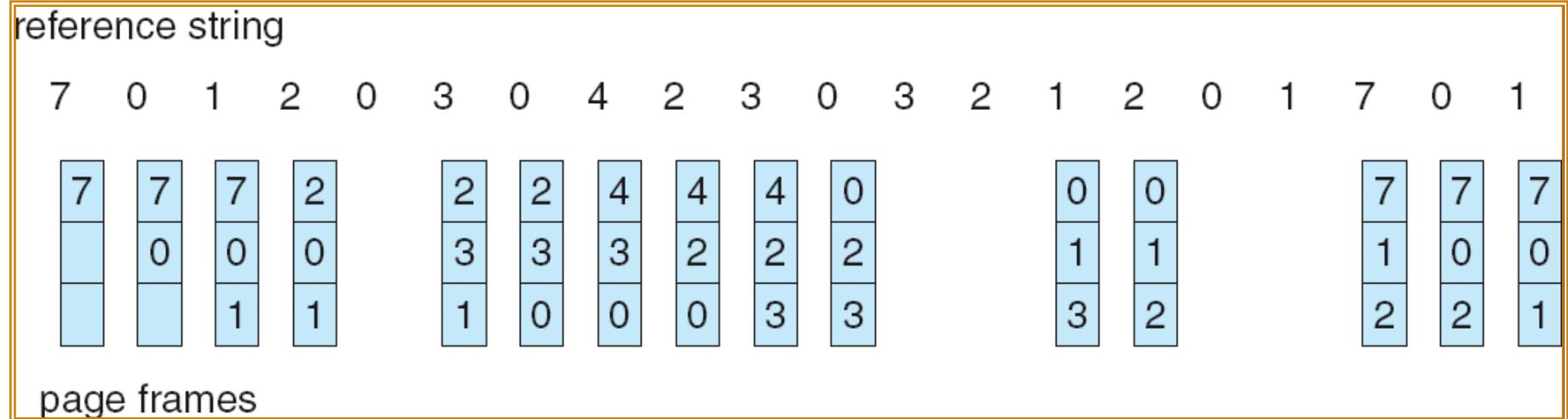


- Belady's Anomaly: more frames \Rightarrow more page faults



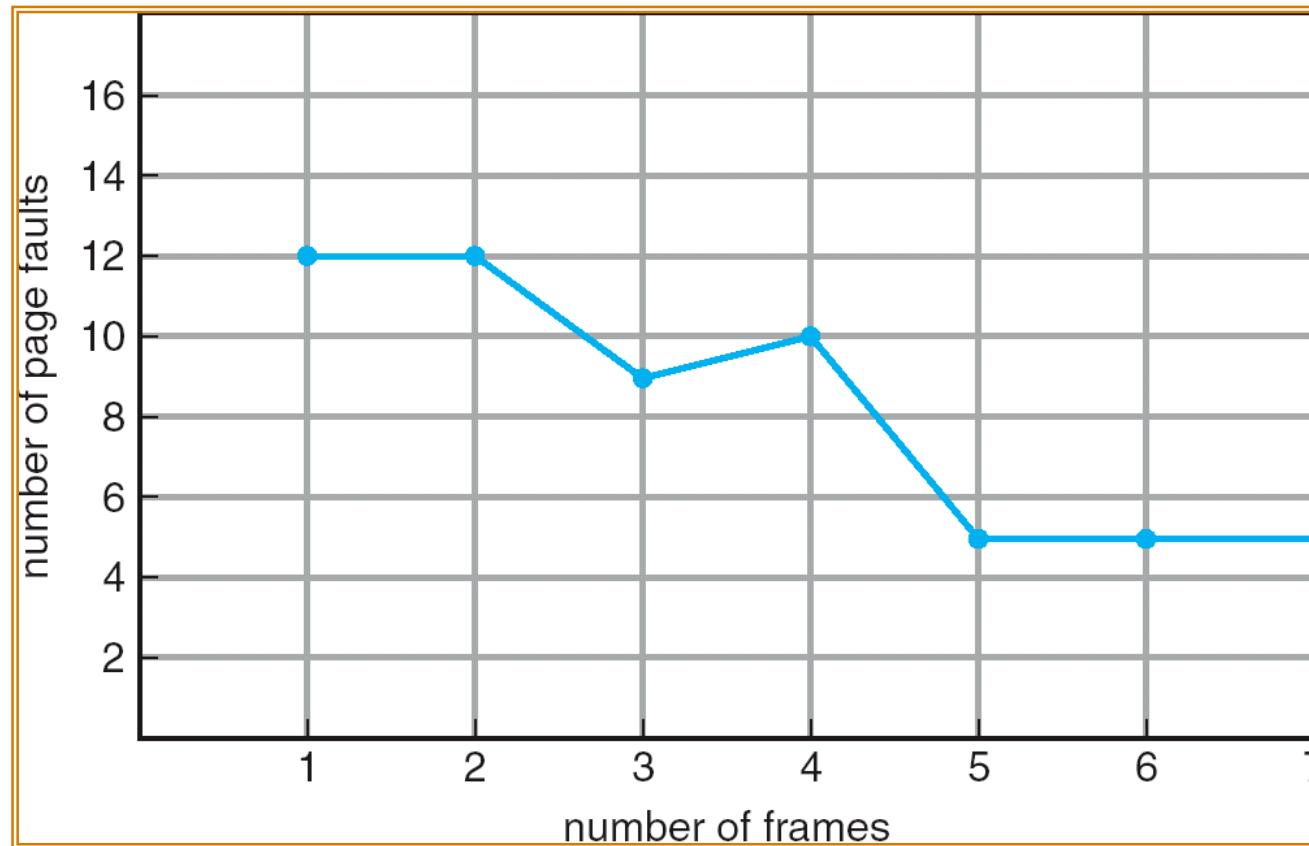


FIFO Page Replacement





FIFO Illustrating Belady's Anomaly

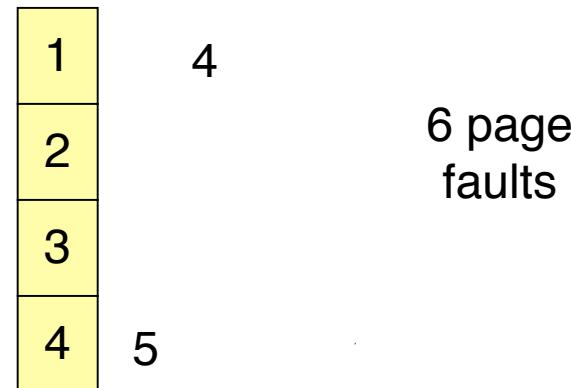




Optimal Algorithm

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

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

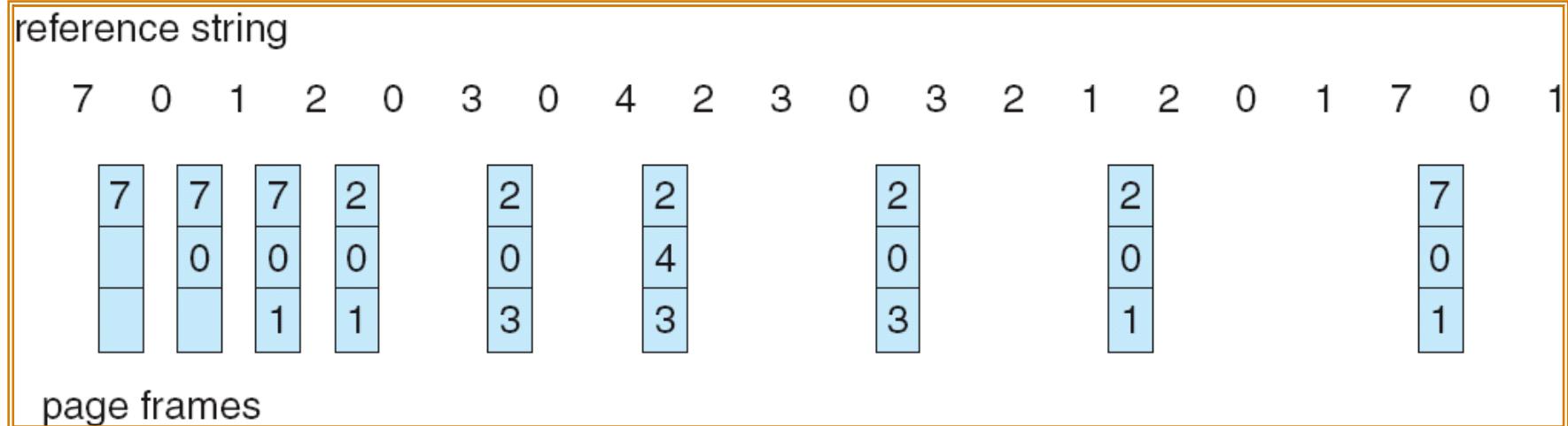


- How do you know this?
- Used for measuring how well your algorithm performs





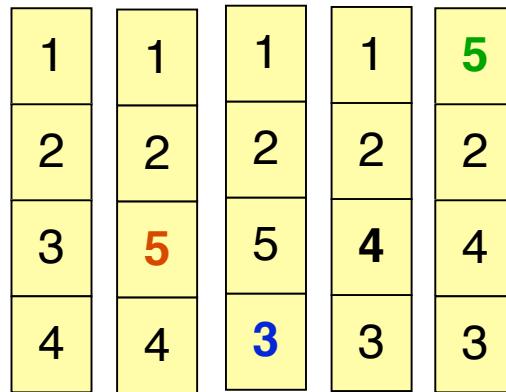
Optimal Page Replacement





Least Recently Used (LRU) Algorithm

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

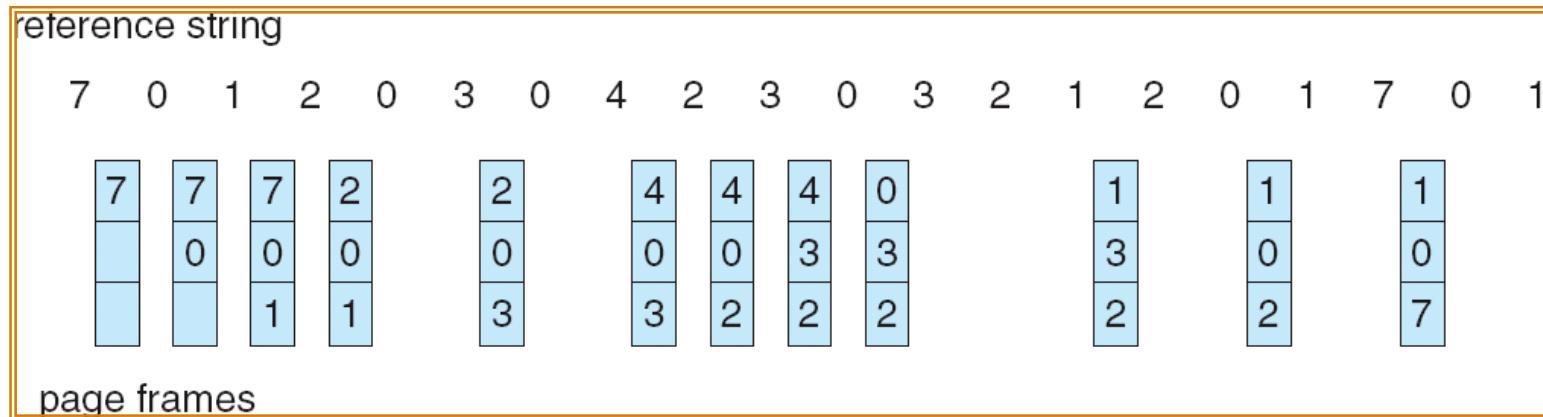


- Counter implementation
 - Every page entry has a counter; every time page is referenced through this entry, copy the clock into the counter
 - When a page needs to be changed, look at the counters to determine which are to change





LRU Page Replacement





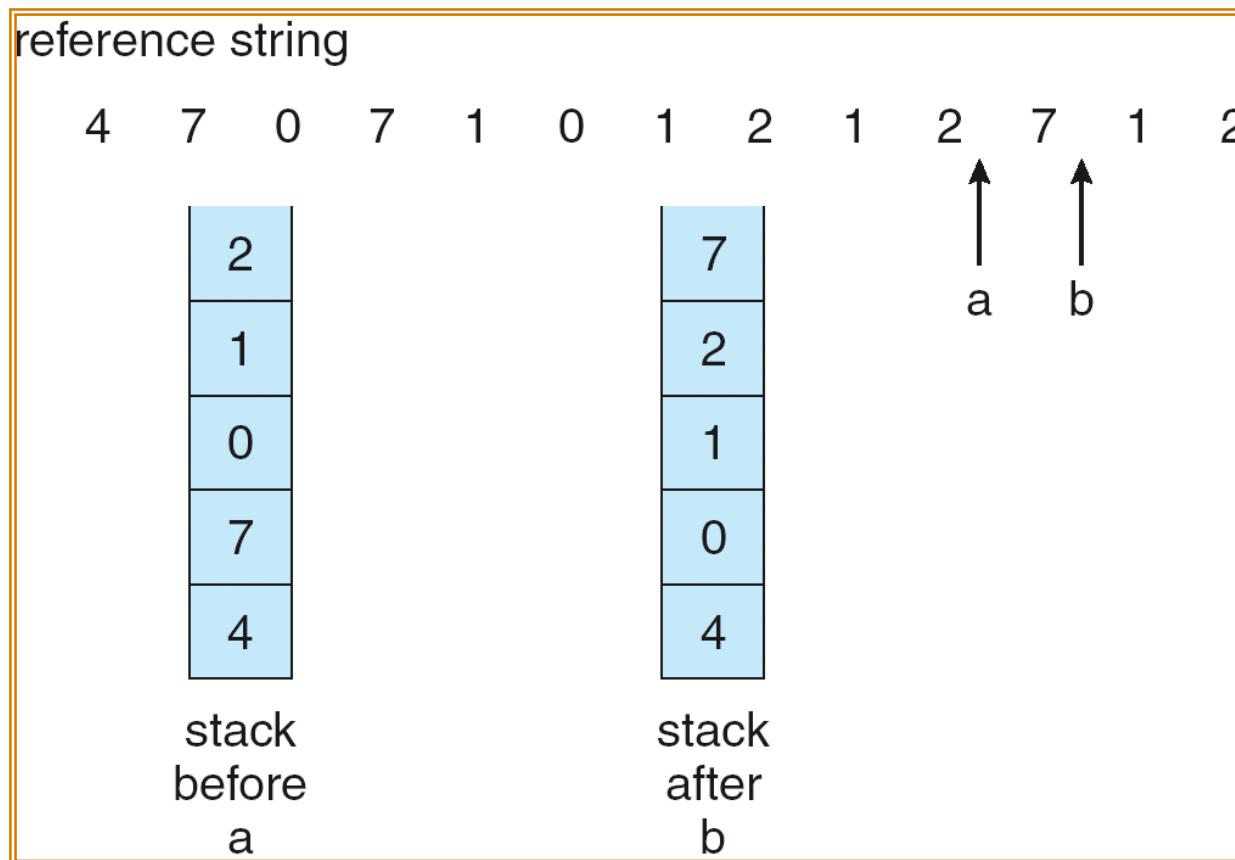
LRU Algorithm (Cont.)

- 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

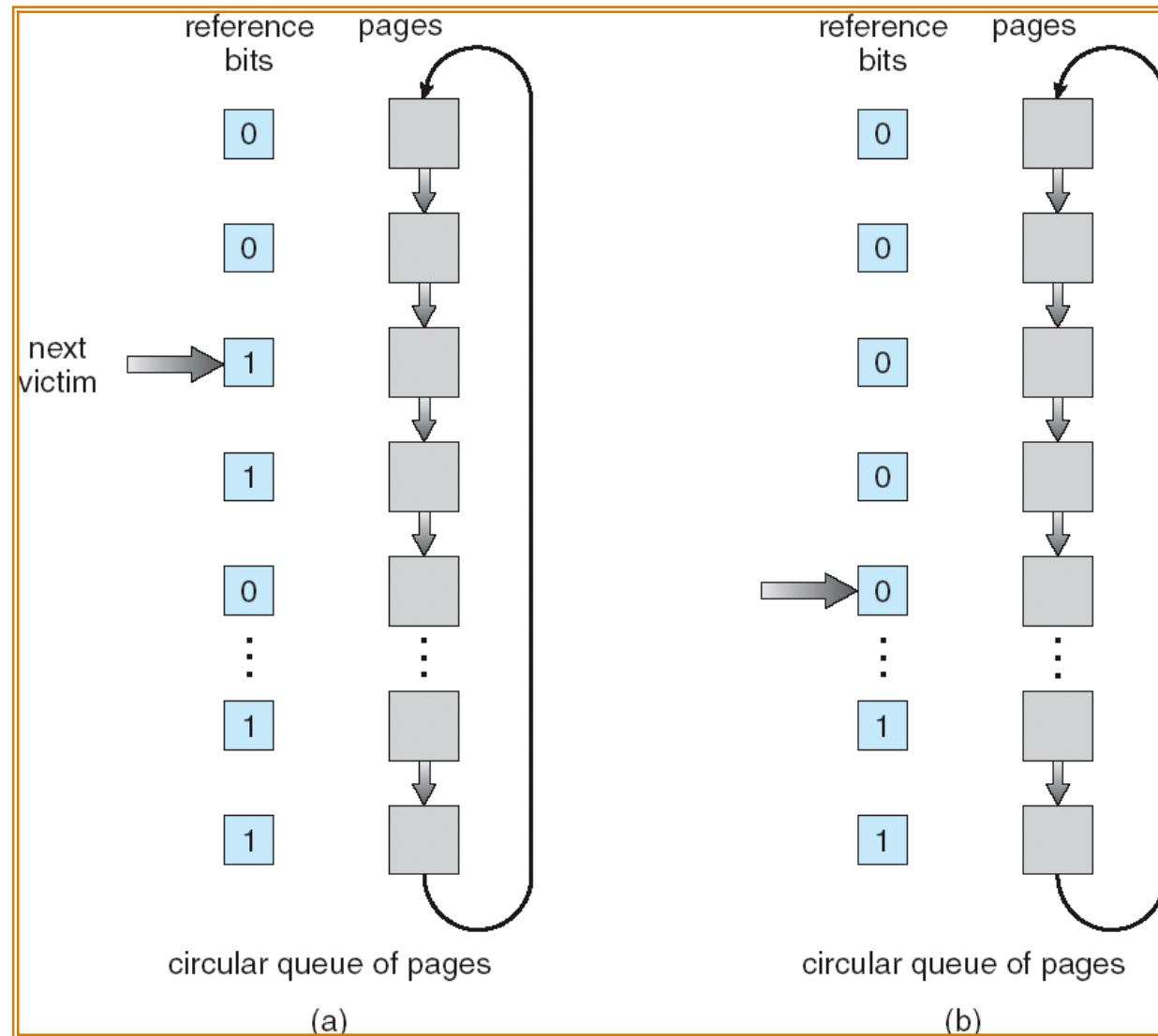
■ Second chance

- 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 = size of process p_i

— $S = \sum s_i$

— m = total number of frames

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

$$m = 64$$

$$s_1 = 10$$

$$s_2 = 127$$

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

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





Priority Allocation

- Use a proportional allocation scheme using priorities rather than size
- If process P_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





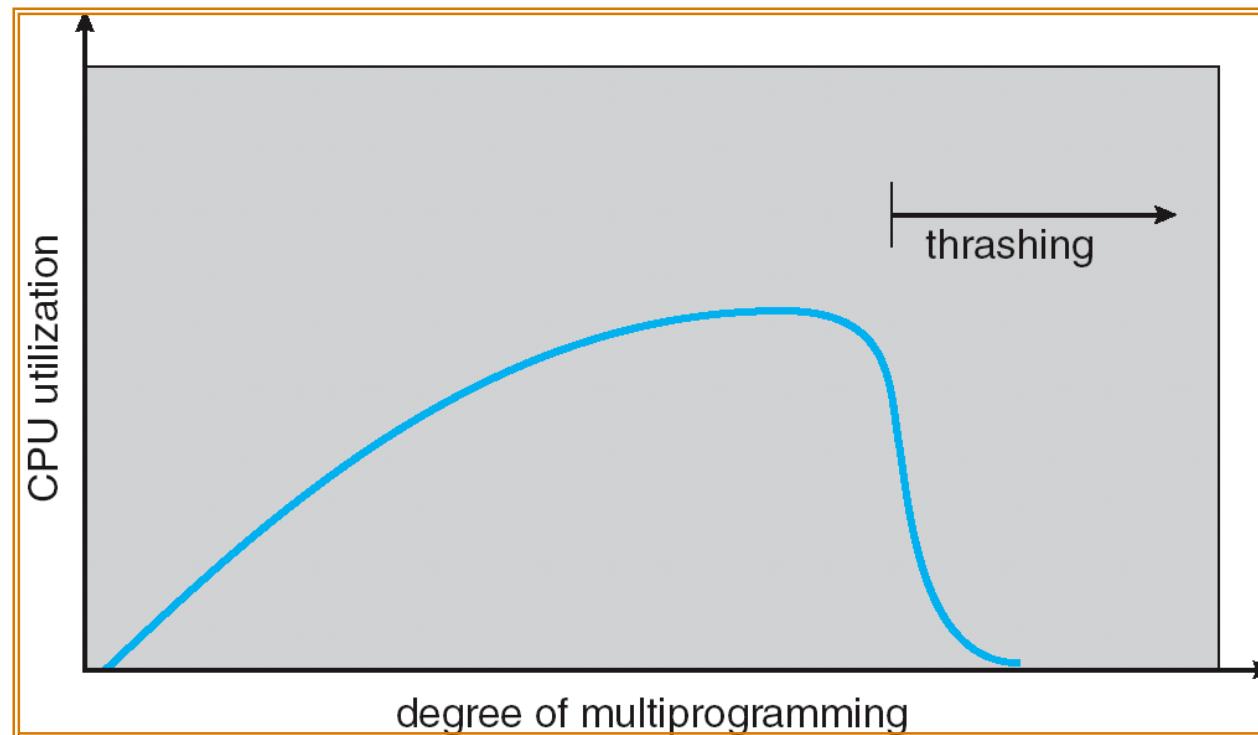
Thrashing

- 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

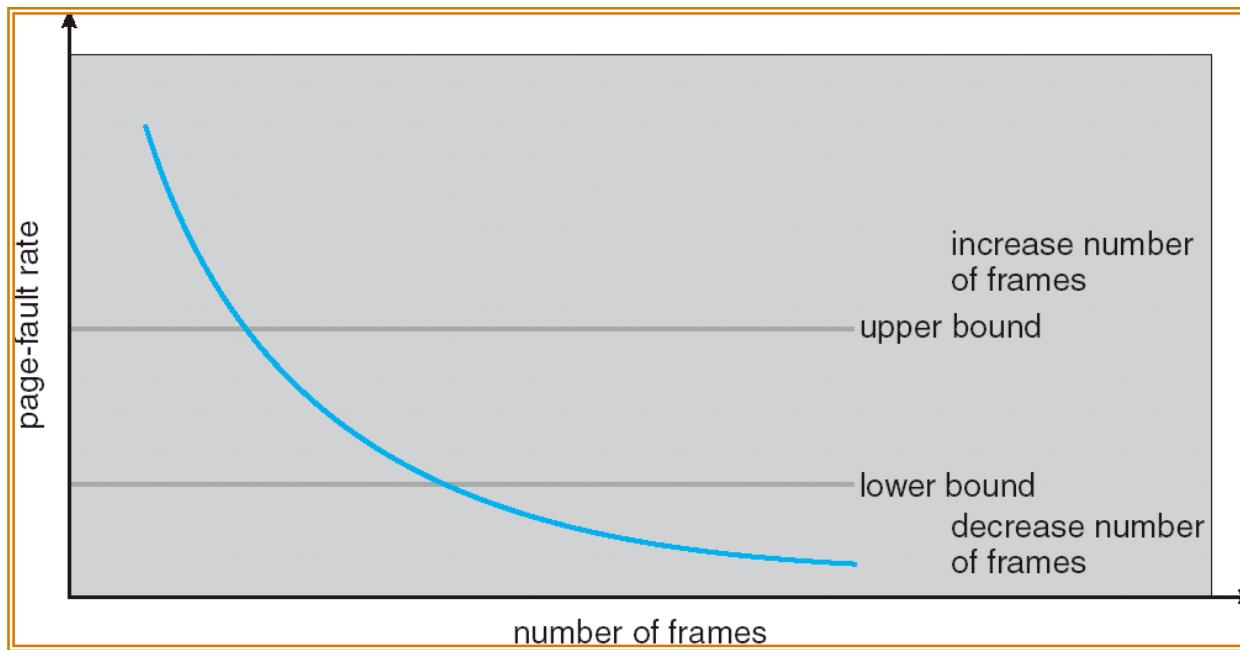
- Why does thrashing occur?
 Σ size of locality > total memory size





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





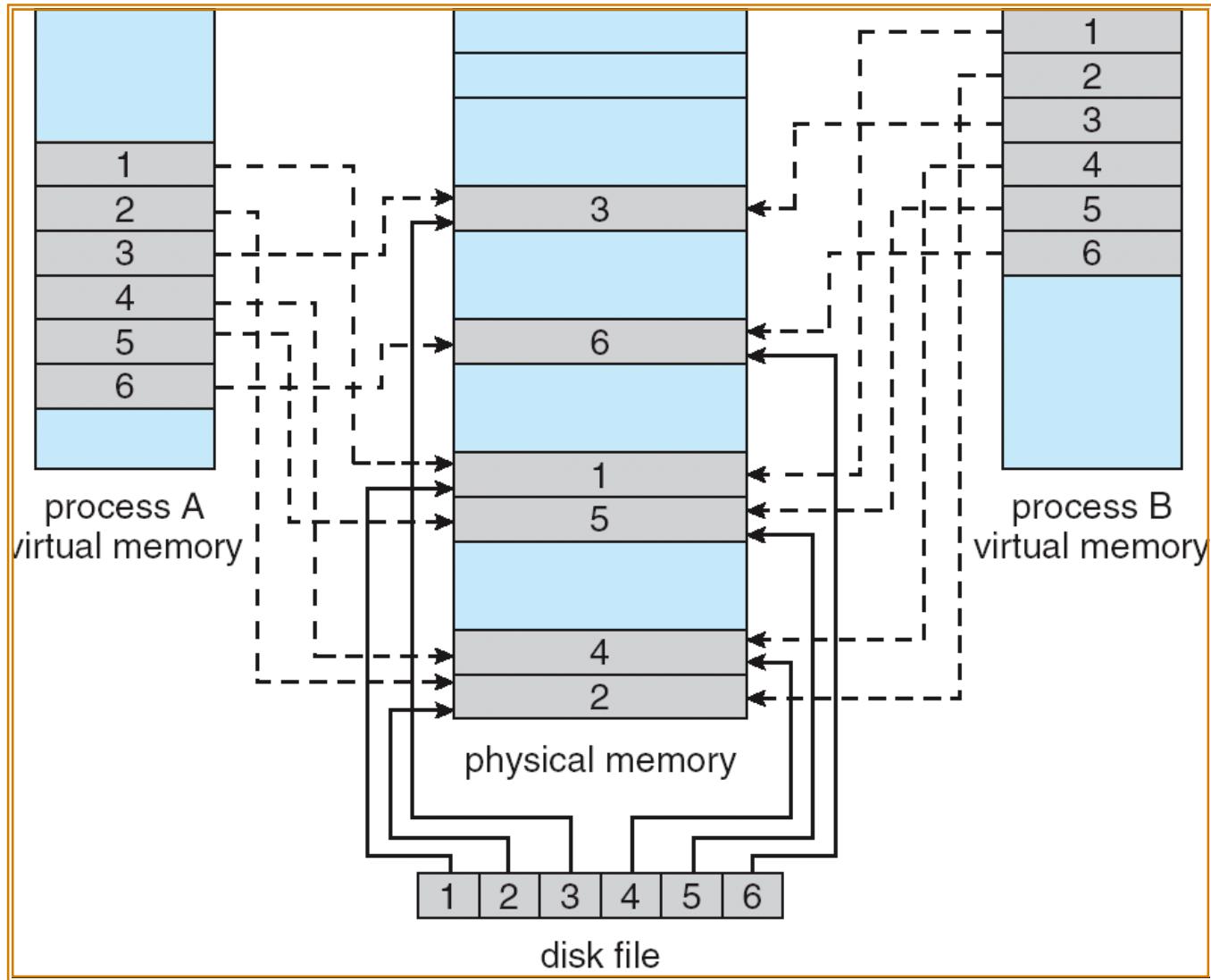
Memory-Mapped Files

- 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



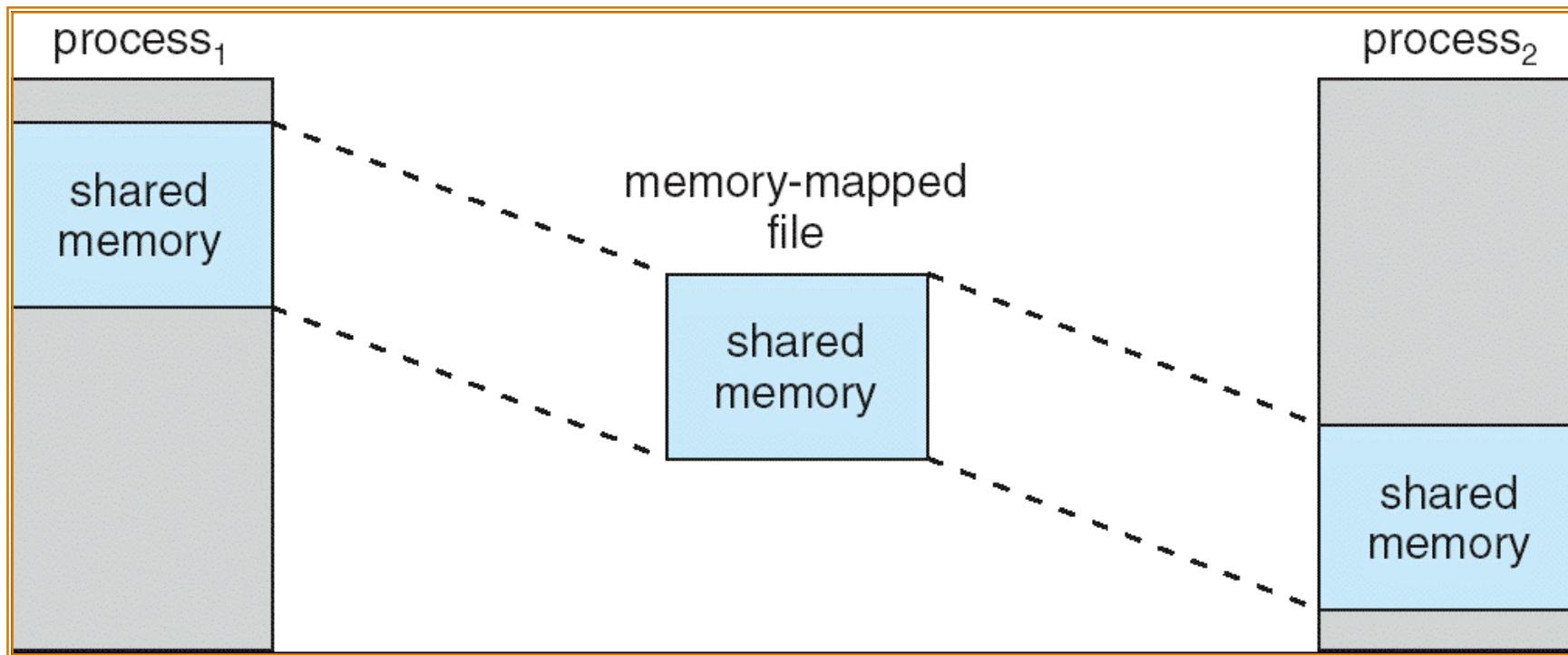


Memory Mapped Files





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





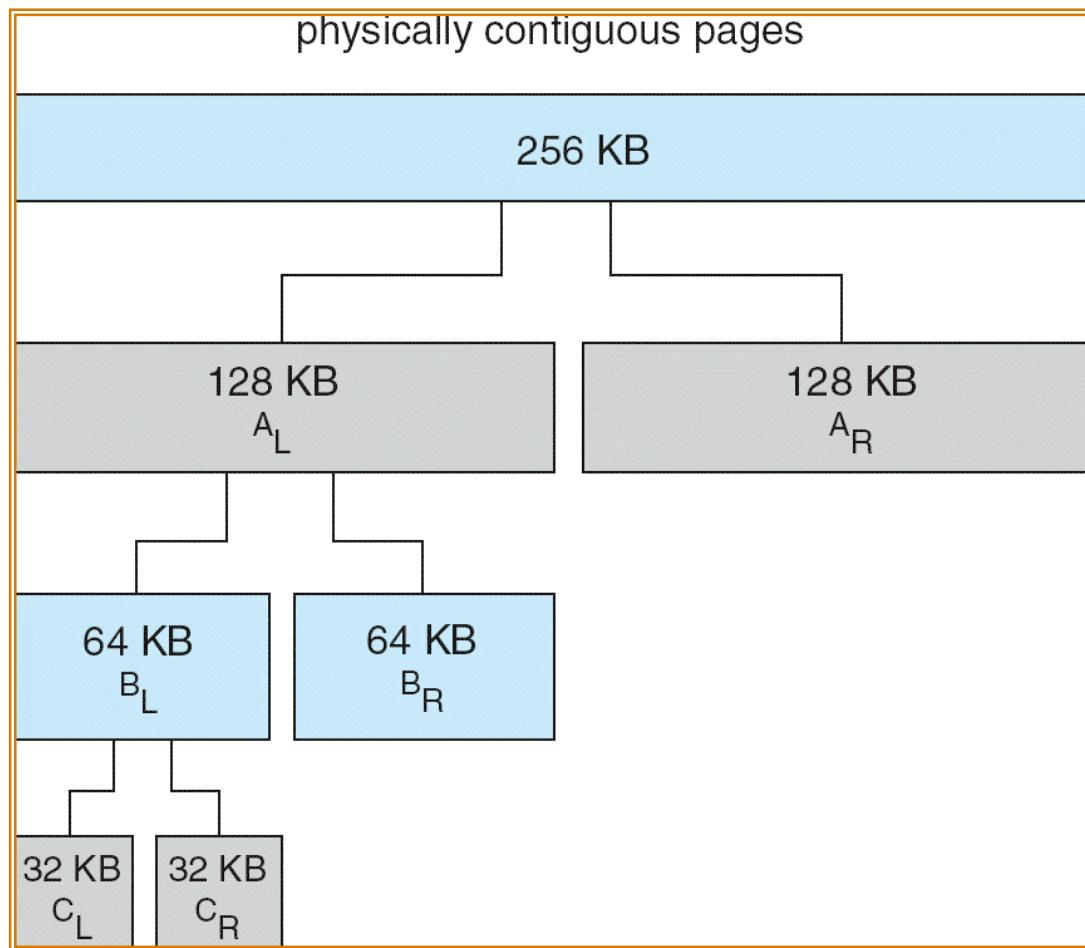
Buddy System

- Allocates memory from fixed-size segment consisting of physically-contiguous 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





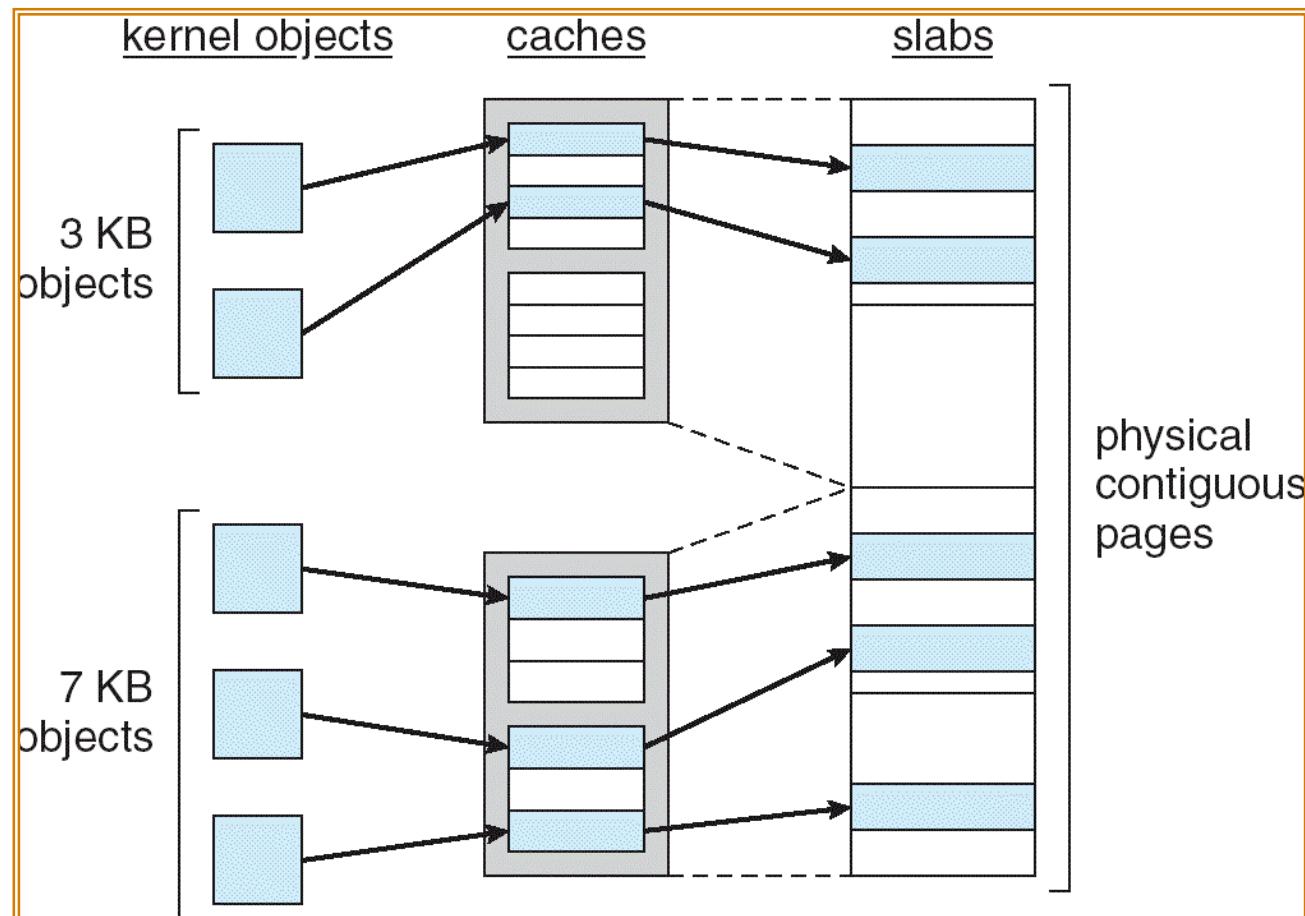
Slab Allocator

- 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 a of the pages is used
 - ▶ Is cost of $s * a$ save pages faults > or < than the cost of prepaging $s * (1 - a)$ unnecessary pages?
 - ▶ a near zero \Rightarrow prepaginaing 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
- $\text{TLB Reach} = (\text{TLB Size}) \times (\text{Page Size})$
- 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



End of Chapter 9

