Virtual Memory (Part II)

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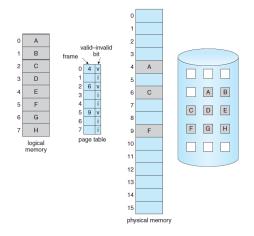
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Reminder

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- ► Partially-loaded programs
- ▶ Virtual memory: much larger than physical memory



Reminder

- ▶ Demand paging similar to paging + swapping
- Locality
- ► Page fault
- ► Page replacement algorithms:
 - FIFO, optimal, LRU, LRU-approximate, counting-based

Allocation of Frames

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- ▶ If we have 93 free frames and two processes, how many frames does each process get?

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 - Example: IBM 370: 6 pages to handle MOVE instruction:
 - Instruction is 6 bytes, might span 2 pages
 - 2 pages to handle from
 - 2 pages to handle to

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- Decreases the number of frames:
 - Increases the page-fault rate
- When a page fault occurs before an executing instruction is complete, the instruction must be restarted.
 - We must have enough frames to hold all the different pages that any single instruction can reference.

Allocation Schemes

► Fixed allocation

Priority allocation

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- ► Fixed allocation
 - Equal allocation
 - Proportional allocation
- ► Priority allocation

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- ▶ Split *m* frames among *n* processes: $\frac{m}{n}$ frames to each process.

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- ► Example, if there are 93 frames and 5 processes
 - Each process will get 18 frames.
 - The 3 leftover frames can be used as a free-frame buffer pool.

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- ► Wasting 21 frames

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

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- ► Two processes:
 - A student process: 10KB
 - An interactive database: 127KB
- ► Equal allocation: $s_1 = 10, s_2 = 127, S = 137, m = 62$
- ► $a_1 = \frac{10}{137} \times 62 \approx 4$ $a_2 = \frac{127}{137} \times 62 \approx 57$

Priority Allocation

► Use a proportional allocation scheme using priorities rather than size.

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.

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Global vs. Local Allocation

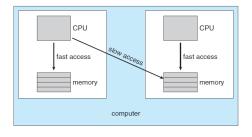
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 - The process execution time can vary greatly.
 - The greater throughput so more common.
- ► Local replacement: each process selects from only its own set of allocated frames
 - More consistent per-process performance
 - Possibly underutilized memory

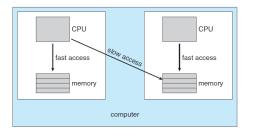
Non-Uniform Memory Access

- ► So far all memory accessed equally.
- ► Many systems are NUMA: speed of access to memory varies.



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▶ Optimal performance: allocate memory close to the CPU on which the thread is scheduled.

Thrashing

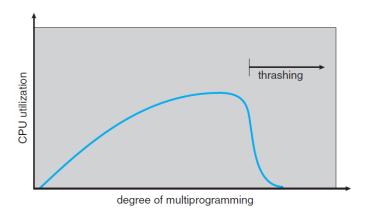
Thrashing (1/2)

- ▶ If a process does not have enough pages, the page-fault rate is very high.
 - Page fault to get page
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- ► If a process does not have enough pages, the page-fault rate is very high.
 - · Page fault to get page
 - · Replace existing frame
 - · But quickly need replaced frame back
- ► This leads to:
 - Low CPU utilization
 - OS thinks it needs to increase the degree of multiprogramming
 - Another process added to the system

Thrashing (2/2)



► Thrashing: a process is busy swapping pages in and out.

Prevent Thrashing

▶ Providing a process with as many frames as it needs.

Prevent Thrashing

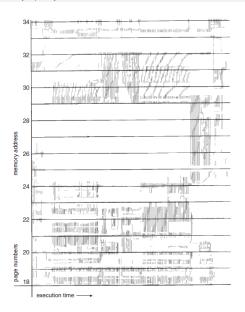
- ▶ Providing a process with as many frames as it needs.
- ► How do we know how many frames it needs?

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- ► A process moves from locality to locality.
- ► A program is generally composed of several different localities, which may overlap.
- ► For example, when a function is called, it defines a new locality: consists of memory references to the instructions of the function call, its local variables, and a subset of the global variables.



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- ► After allocating all the pages of the locality, it will not fault again until it changes localities.
- ► If we do not allocate enough frames to accommodate the size of the current locality, the process will thrash.

Working-Set Model (1/2)

- ▶ △: working-set window: a fixed number of page references
- ▶ WSS_i : working set of process p_i : total number of pages referenced in the most recent \triangle (varies in time).

page reference table

 $\ldots 2\ 6\ 1\ 5\ 7\ 7\ 7\ 5\ 1\ 6\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 1\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 4\ 4\ 3\ 4\ 3\ 4\ 4\ 4\ 1\ 3\ 2\ 3\ 4\ 4\ 4\ 3\ 4\ 4\ 4\ .\ .$





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- ▶ △: working-set window: a fixed number of page references
- ▶ WSS_i : working set of process p_i : total number of pages referenced in the most recent \triangle (varies in time).
 - If \triangle too small will not encompass entire locality
 - If \triangle too large will encompass several localities
 - If $\triangle = \infty$ will encompass entire program

page reference table

. . . 2 6 1 5 7 7 7 7 5 1 6 2 3 4 1 2 3 4 4 4 3 4 3 4 4 4 1 3 2 3 4 4 4 3 4 4 4 . .





Working-Set Model (2/2)

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- ▶ *D*: total demand frames: $D = \sum WSS_i$:
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- ▶ *D*: total demand frames: $D = \sum WSS_i$:
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- ▶ If D > m, then thrashing
- ▶ Policy: if D > m, then suspend or swap out one of the processes.

► Approximate with interval timer + a reference bit

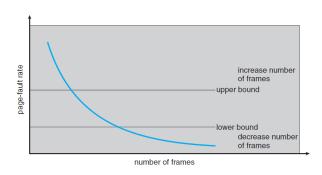
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- ightharpoonup Example: $\triangle = 10000$
 - Timer interrupts after every 5000 time units.
 - Keep in memory 2 bits for each page.
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- ▶ Improvement = 10 bits and interrupt every 1000 time units

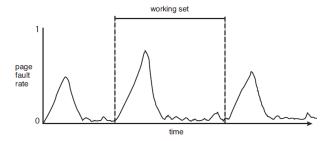
Page-Fault Frequency

- More direct approach than WSS
- Establish acceptable page-fault frequency (PFF) rate and use local replacement policy
 - If actual rate too low, process loses frame
 - If actual rate too high, process gains frame



Working Sets and Page-Fault Rates

- Direct relationship between working set of a process and its pagefault rate.
- ► Working set changes over time.
- Peaks and valleys over time.



Allocating Kernel Memory

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- ► 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, i.e. for I/O devices

Managing Free Memory Strategies

- Buddy system
- ► Slab allocation

Buddy System (1/2)

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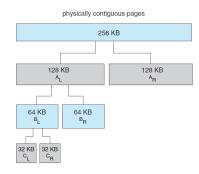
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 - Continue until appropriate sized chunk available.

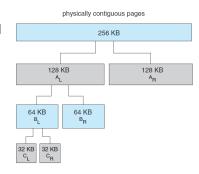
Buddy System (2/2)

- Assume 256KB chunk available, kernel requests 21KB.
 - Split into AL and AR of 128KB each.
 - One further divided into BL and BR of 64KB.
 - One further into CL and CR of 32KB each.

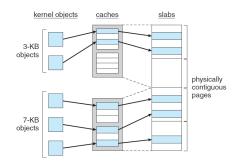


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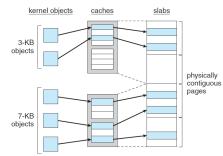
- Assume 256KB chunk available, kernel requests 21KB.
 - Split into AL and AR of 128KB each.
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 - One further into CL and CR of 32KB each.
- Advantage: quickly coalesce unused chunks into larger chunk
- ► Disadvantage: fragmentation



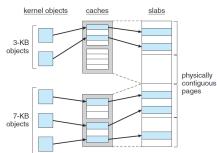
- Alternate strategy
- ► Slab is one or more physically contiguous pages.



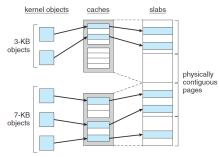
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- Objects: instantiations of the data structure



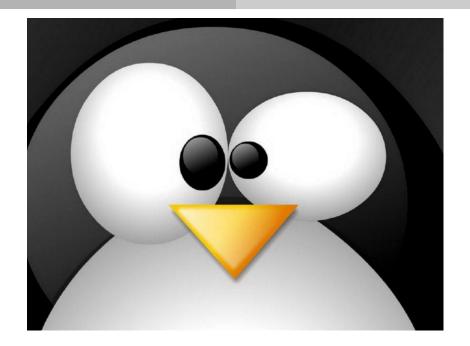
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- ▶ If no empty slabs, new slab allocated.
- Benefits include no fragmentation and fast memory request satisfaction.



Slab Allocator in Linux (1/3)

- Process descriptor: type struct task_struct
- ► Approx 1.7KB of memory
- lacktriangle New task ightarrow allocate new struct from cache
 - Will use existing free struct task_struct
- ► Slab can be in three possible states
 - · Full: all used
 - Empty: all free
 - · Partial: mix of free and used

Slab Allocator in Linux (2/3)

- ► Upon request, slab allocator
 - 1 Uses free struct in partial slab.
 - ② If none, takes one from empty slab.
 - If no empty slab, create new empty.

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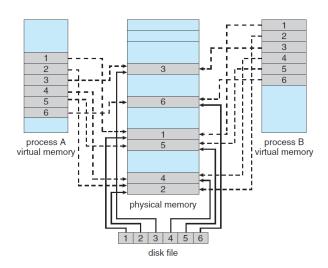
Slab Allocator in Linux (3/3)

- ► Linux originally used the buddy system.
- ► Kernel 2.2 had SLAB.
- ▶ Recent distribution added two more allocators:
 - SLOB (Simple List of Blocks): for systems with limited memory, maintains 3 list objects for small, medium, large objects
 - SLUB is performance-optimized SLAB, removes per-CPU queues, metadata stored in page structure, from kernel 2.6.24

Memory-Mapped Files

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- ► 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.



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- When does written data make it to disk?
 - Periodically and/or at file close() time.

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- ► Ranges of memory addresses are mapped to the device registers.
- ► Reads and writes to these memory addresses cause the data to be transferred to and from the device registers.
 - Called, I/O port

Other Considerations

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- ► Prepage all or some of the pages a process will need, before they are referenced.
- ▶ If prepaged pages are unused, I/O and memory was wasted.
- Assume s pages are prepaged and a fraction $0 \le \alpha \le 1$ of the pages are used.
 - Cost of $s \times \alpha >$ or < than the cost of prepaging $s \times (1 \alpha)$ unnecessary pages?
 - If α close to 0: prepaging loses; if α close to 1, prepaging wins

Page Size

- Page size selection must take into consideration:
 - Fragmentation
 - Page table size
 - Resolution
 - I/O overhead
 - · Number of page faults
 - Locality
 - TLB size and effectiveness
- ► Always power of 2

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- ► Increase the page size
 - This may lead to an increase in fragmentation
- Provide multiple page sizes
 - This allows applications that require larger page sizes the opportunity to use them without an increase in fragmentation

- ▶ 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;</pre>
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▶ Program 2

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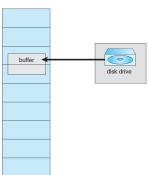
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128 page faults

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.



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- ► Allocating kernel memory: buddy system and slab allocation

- Frame allocation: fixed and priority allocations
- ► Global and local allocation
- ► Thrashing: total demand frames > total num. of frames
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- ▶ Memory-mapped files and I/O

Questions?

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