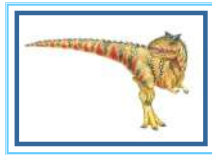


Chapter 9: Virtual-Memory Management



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

- 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
- Consider ability to execute partially-loaded program
 - Program no longer constrained by limits of physical memory
 - Program and programs could be larger than physical memory

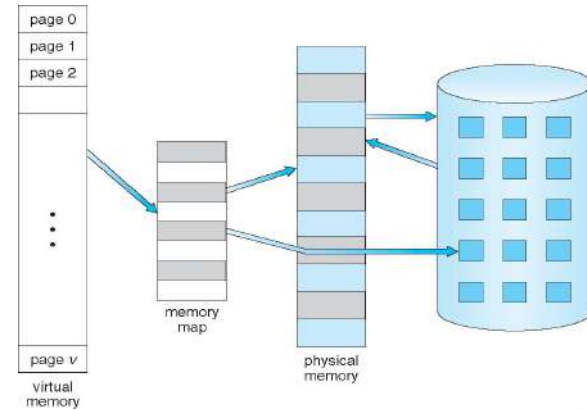


Background

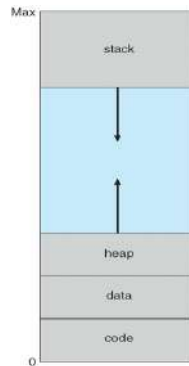
- **Virtual memory** – separation of user logical memory from physical memory
 - Only part of the program needs to be in memory for execution
 - Logical address space can therefore be much larger than physical address space
 - Allows address spaces to be shared by several processes
 - Allows for more efficient process creation
 - More programs running concurrently
 - Less I/O needed to load or swap processes
- Virtual memory can be implemented via:
 - Demand paging
 - Demand segmentation



Virtual Memory That is Larger Than Physical Memory



Virtual-address Space



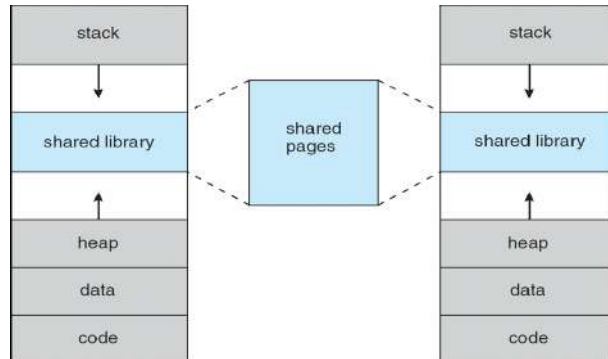
Virtual Address Space

- Enables **sparse** address spaces with holes left for growth, dynamically linked libraries, etc
- System libraries shared via mapping into virtual address space
- Shared memory by mapping pages read-write into virtual address space
- Pages can be shared during `fork()`, speeding process creation





Shared Library Using Virtual Memory

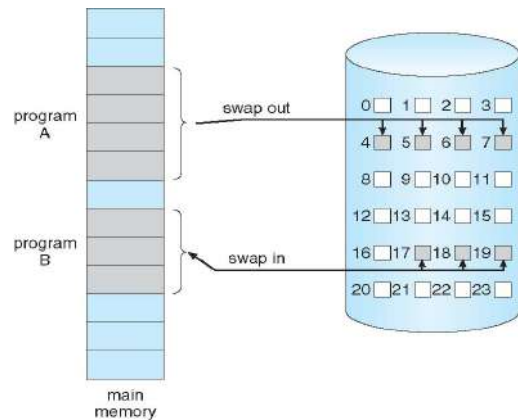


Demand Paging

- Could bring entire process into memory at load time
- Or bring a page into memory only when it is needed
 - Less I/O needed, no unnecessary I/O
 - Less memory needed
 - Faster response
 - More users
- Page is needed \Rightarrow reference to it
 - invalid reference \Rightarrow abort
 - not-in-memory \Rightarrow 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 ($v \Rightarrow$ in-memory – **memory resident**, $i \Rightarrow$ 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

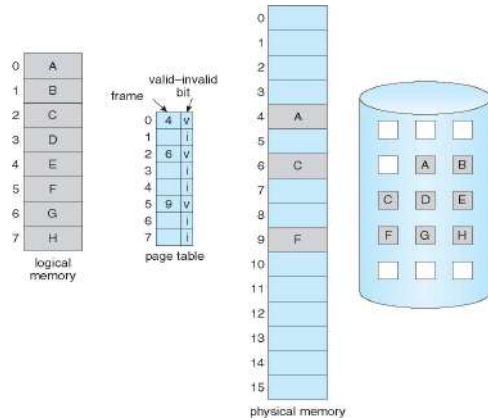
page table

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

1. Operating system looks at another table to decide:
 - Invalid reference \Rightarrow abort
 - Just not in memory
2. Get empty frame
3. Swap page into frame via scheduled disk operation
4. Reset tables to indicate page now in memory
Set validation bit = **v**
5. Restart the instruction that caused the page fault

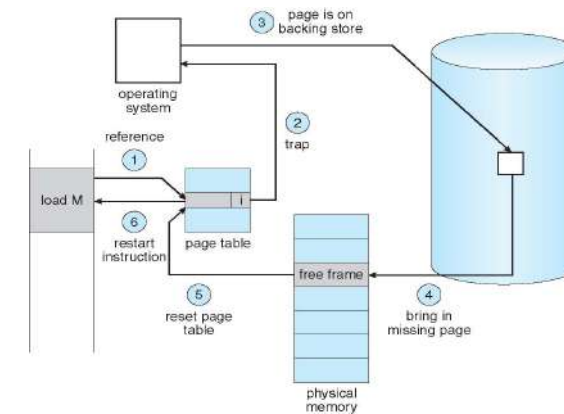


Aspects of Demand Paging

- Extreme case – start process with *no* pages in memory
 - OS sets instruction pointer to first instruction of process, non-memory-resident \rightarrow page fault
 - And for every other process pages on first access
 - **Pure demand paging**
- Actually, a given instruction could access multiple pages \rightarrow multiple page faults
 - 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



Steps in Handling a Page Fault

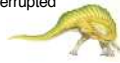




Performance of Demand Paging

- Stages in Demand Paging

 1. Trap to the operating system
 2. Save the user registers and process state
 3. Determine that the interrupt was a page fault
 4. Check that the page reference was legal and determine the location of the page on the disk
 5. Issue a read from the disk to a free frame:
 1. Wait in a queue for this device until the read request is serviced
 2. Wait for the device seek and/or latency time
 3. Begin the transfer of the page to a free frame
 6. While waiting, allocate the CPU to some other user
 7. Receive an interrupt from the disk I/O subsystem (I/O completed)
 8. Save the registers and process state for the other user
 9. Determine that the interrupt was from the disk
 10. Correct the page table and other tables to show page is now in memory
 11. Wait for the CPU to be allocated to this process again
 12. Restore the user registers, process state, and new page table, and then resume the interrupted instruction



Performance of Demand Paging (Cont.)

- Page Fault Rate $0 \leq p \leq 1$
 - if $p = 0$ no page faults
 - if $p = 1$, every reference is a fault

- Effective Access Time (EAT)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{EAT} = & (1 - p) \times \text{memory access} \\ & + p (\text{page fault overhead} \\ & \quad + \text{swap page out} \\ & \quad + \text{swap page in} \\ & \quad + \text{restart overhead} \\ &) \end{aligned}$$



Demand Paging Example

- Memory access time = 200 nanoseconds
- Average page-fault service time = 8 milliseconds
- $\text{EAT} = (1 - p) \times 200 + p$ (8 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, then $\text{EAT} = 8.2$ 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



Demand Paging Optimizations

- Copy entire process image to swap space at process load time
 - Then page in and out of swap space
 - Used in older BSD Unix
- Demand page in from program binary on disk, but discard rather than paging out when freeing frame
 - Used in Solaris and current BSD



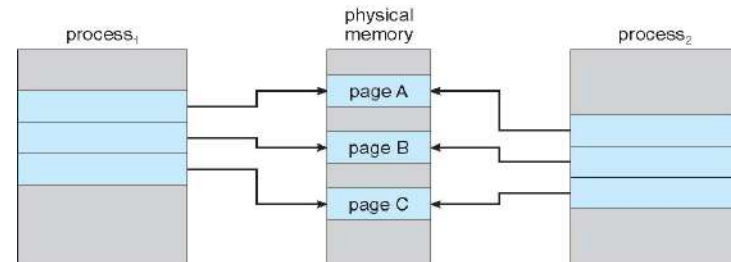


Copy-on-Write

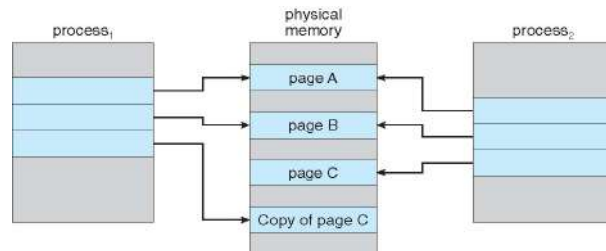
- **Copy-on-Write** (COW) allows both parent and child processes to initially *share* the same pages in memory
 - If either process modifies a shared page, only then is the page copied
- COW allows more efficient process creation as only modified pages are copied
- In general, free pages are allocated from a **pool of zero-fill-on-demand** pages
 - Why zero-out a page before allocating it?
- `vfork()` variation on `fork()` system call has parent suspend and child using copy-on-write address space of parent
 - Designed to have child call `exec()`
 - Very efficient



Before Process 1 Modifies Page C



After Process 1 Modifies Page C



What Happens if There is no Free Frame?

- Used up by process pages
- Also in demand from the kernel, I/O buffers, etc
- How much to allocate to each?
- Page replacement – find some page in memory, but not really in use, page it out
 - Algorithm – terminate? swap out? replace the page?
 - Performance – want an algorithm which will result in minimum number of page faults
- Same page may be brought into memory several times



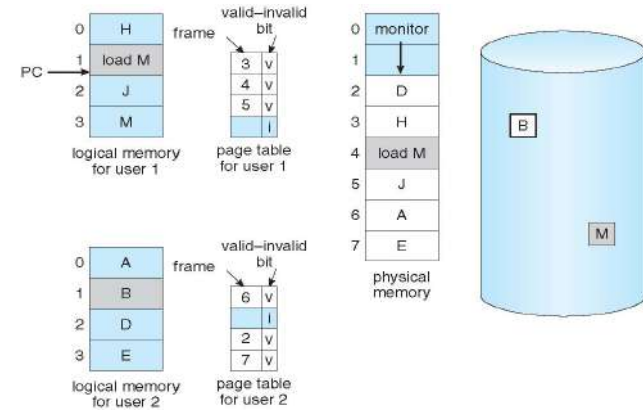


Page Replacement

- 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



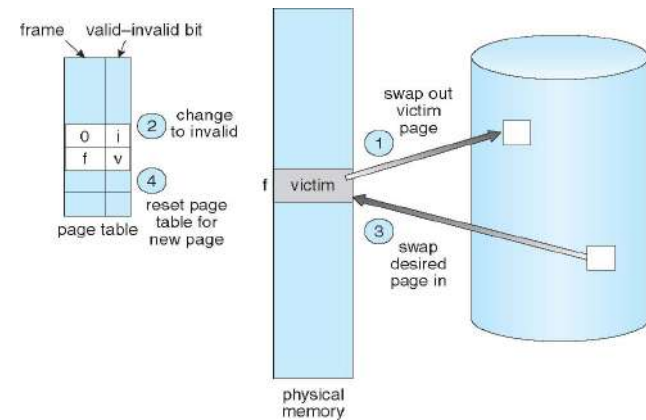
Basic Page Replacement

- 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**
 - Write victim frame to disk if dirty
- Bring the desired page into the (newly) free frame; update the page and frame tables
- Continue the process by restarting the instruction that caused the trap

Note now potentially 2 page transfers for page fault – increasing EAT



Page Replacement



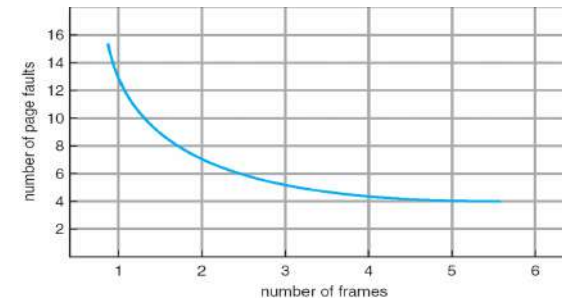


Page and Frame Replacement Algorithms

- **Frame-allocation algorithm** determines
 - How many frames to give each process
 - Which frames to replace
- **Page-replacement algorithm**
 - Want lowest page-fault rate on both first access and re-access
- Evaluate algorithm by running it on a particular string of memory references (reference string) and computing the number of page faults on that string
 - String is just page numbers, not full addresses
 - Repeated access to the same page does not cause a page fault
- In all our examples, the reference string is
7,0,1,2,0,3,0,4,2,3,0,3,0,3,2,1,2,0,1,7,0,1



Graph of Page Faults Versus The Number of Frames

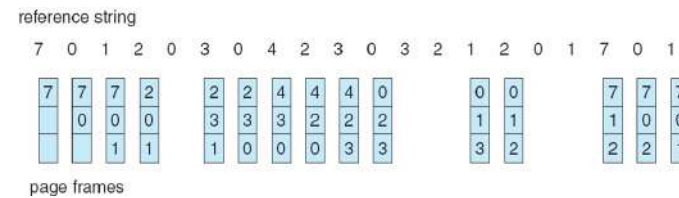


First-In-First-Out (FIFO) Algorithm

- Reference string: **7,0,1,2,0,3,0,4,2,3,0,3,0,3,2,1,2,0,1,7,0,1**
- 3 frames (3 pages can be in memory at a time per process)
- Adding more frames can cause more page faults!
 - **Belady's Anomaly**
- How to track ages of pages?
 - Just use a FIFO queue

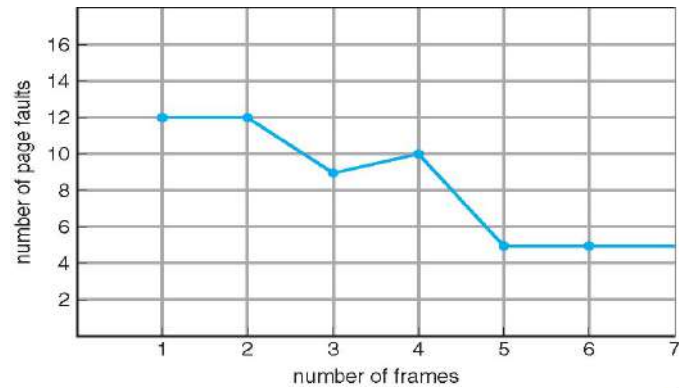


FIFO Page Replacement





FIFO Illustrating Belady's Anomaly



Optimal Algorithm

- Replace page that will not be used for longest period of time
 - 9 is optimal for the example on the next slide
- How do you know this?
 - Can't read the future
- Used for measuring how well your algorithm performs



Optimal Page Replacement

reference string

7 0 1 2 0 3 0 4 2 3 0 3 2 1 2 0 1 7 0 1

7	7	7	2	2	2	2	2	7
	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0
		1	1	3	3	3	1	1

page frames



Least Recently Used (LRU) Algorithm

- Use past knowledge rather than future
- Replace page that has not been used in the most amount of time
- Associate time of last use with each page

reference string

7 0 1 2 0 3 0 4 2 3 0 3 2 1 2 0 1 7 0 1

7	7	7	2	2	4	4	4	0	1	1	1
	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	3	0	0
		1	1	3	3	2	2	2	2	7	7

page frames

- 12 faults – better than FIFO but worse than OPT
- Generally good algorithm and frequently used
- But how to implement?



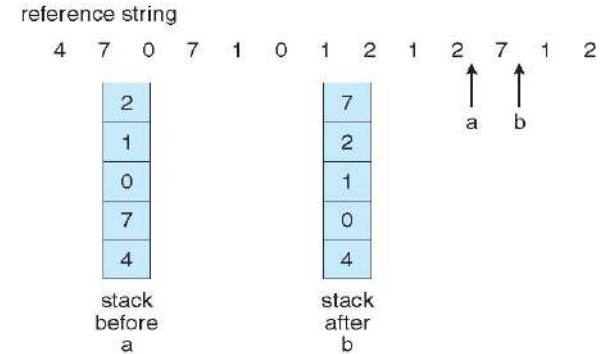


LRU Algorithm (Cont.)

- 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 find smallest value
 - Search through table needed
- 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
 - But each update more expensive
 - No search for replacement
- LRU and OPT are cases of **stack algorithms** that don't have Belady's Anomaly



Use Of A Stack To Record The Most Recent Page References

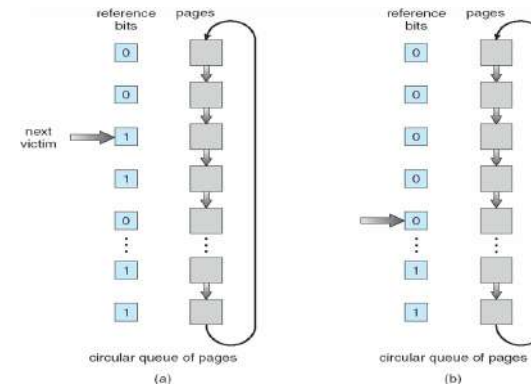


LRU Approximation Algorithms

- LRU needs special hardware and still slow
- Reference bit
 - With each page associate a bit, initially = 0
 - When page is referenced bit set to 1
 - Replace any with reference bit = 0 (if one exists)
 - We do not know the order, however
- Second-chance algorithm
 - Generally FIFO, plus hardware-provided reference bit
 - Clock replacement
 - If page to be replaced has
 - Reference bit = 0 -> replace it
 - reference bit = 1 then:
 - set reference bit 0, leave page in memory
 - replace next page, 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
 - Not common
- **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 frames
- 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*
- *Maximum* of course is total frames in the system
- Two major allocation schemes
 - fixed allocation
 - priority allocation
- Many variations



Fixed Allocation

- Equal allocation – For example, if there are 100 frames (after allocating frames for the OS) and 5 processes, give each process 20 frames
 - Keep some as free frame buffer pool
- Proportional allocation – Allocate according to the size of process
 - Dynamic as degree of multiprogramming, process sizes change

– 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
 - But then process execution time can vary greatly
 - But greater throughput so more common
- **Local replacement** – each process selects from only its own set of allocated frames
 - More consistent per-process performance
 - But possibly underutilized memory

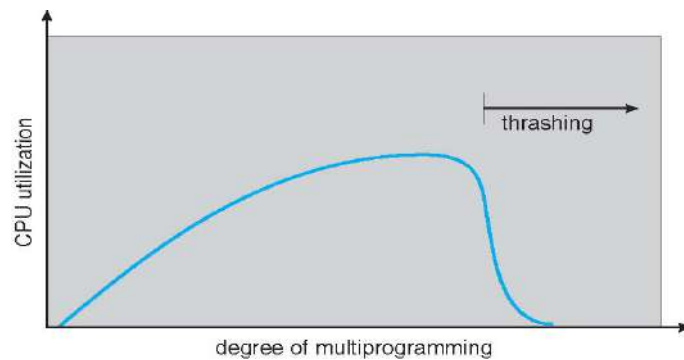


Thrashing

- 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
 - ▶ Operating system thinking 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.)



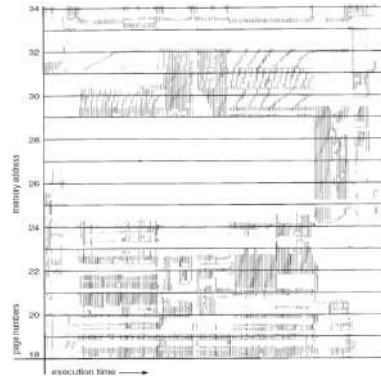
Demand Paging and Thrashing

- 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
 - Limit effects by using local or priority page replacement





Locality In A Memory-Reference Pattern



Working-Set Model

- Δ \equiv working-set window = a fixed number of page references
Example: 10,000 instructions
- WSS_i (working set of Process P_i) = total number of pages referenced in the most recent Δ (varies in time)
 - if Δ too small will not encompass entire locality
 - if Δ too large will encompass several localities
 - if $\Delta = \infty \Rightarrow$ will encompass entire program
- $D = \sum WSS_i \equiv$ total demand frames
 - Approximation of locality
- if $D > m \Rightarrow$ Thrashing
- Policy if $D > m$, then suspend or swap out one of the processes



Working-set model

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 ...



Keeping Track of the Working Set

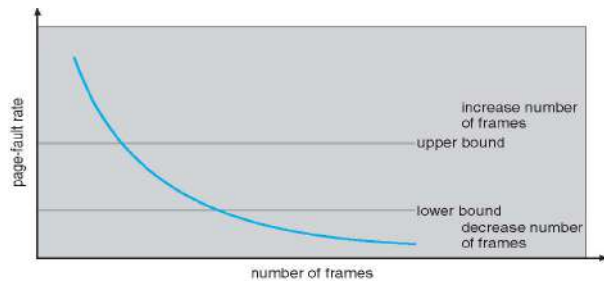
- Approximate with interval timer + a reference bit
- Example: $\Delta = 10,000$
 - Timer interrupts after every 5000 time units
 - Keep in memory 2 bits for each page
 - Whenever a timer interrupts copy and sets the values of all reference bits to 0
 - If one of the bits in memory = 1 \Rightarrow page in working set
- Why is this not completely accurate?
- Improvement = 10 bits and interrupt every 1000 time units



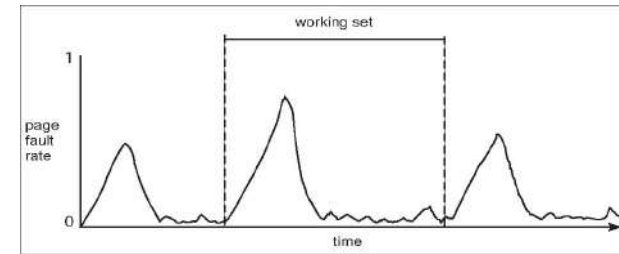


Page-Fault Frequency

- More direct approach than WSS
- Establish "acceptable" **page-fault frequency** 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



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 and speeds file access by driving file I/O through memory rather than `read()` and `write()` system calls
- Also allows several processes to map the same file allowing the pages in memory to be shared
- But when does written data make it to disk?
 - Periodically and / or at file `close()` time
 - For example, when the pager scans for dirty pages



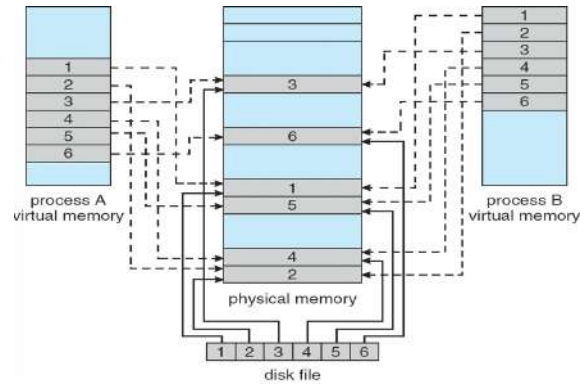
Memory-Mapped File Technique for all I/O

- Some OSes use memory mapped files for standard I/O
- Process can explicitly request memory mapping a file via `mmap()` system call
 - Now file mapped into process address space
- For standard I/O (`open()`, `read()`, `write()`, `close()`), `mmap` anyway
 - But map file into kernel address space
 - Process still does `read()` and `write()`
 - Copies data to and from kernel space and user space
 - Uses efficient memory management subsystem
 - Avoids needing separate subsystem
- COW can be used for read/write non-shared pages
- Memory mapped files can be used for shared memory (although again via separate system calls)





Memory Mapped Files



Memory-Mapped Shared Memory in Windows

