

Module 9: Virtual Memory

- Background
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- Page-Replacement Algorithms
- Allocation of Frames
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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.
 - Need to allow pages to be *swapped* in and out.
- Virtual memory can be implemented via:
 - Demand paging
 - Demand segmentation

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 \Rightarrow reference to it
 - invalid reference \Rightarrow abort
 - not-in-memory \Rightarrow bring to memory

Valid-Invalid Bit

- With each page table entry a valid-invalid bit is associated (1 \Rightarrow in-memory, 0 \Rightarrow not-in-memory)
- Initially valid-invalid bit is set to 0 on all entries.
- Example of a page table snapshot.

frame #	valid-invalid bit
	1
	1
	1
	1
	0
⋮	
	0
	0

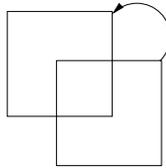
page table

- During address translation, if valid-invalid bit in page table entry is 0 \Rightarrow page fault.

Page Fault

- If there is ever a reference to a page, first reference will trap to OS \Rightarrow *page fault*.
- OS looks at another table to decide:
 - Invalid reference \Rightarrow abort.
 - Just not in memory.
- Get empty frame.
- Swap page into frame.
- Reset tables, validation bit = 1.
- Restart instruction: Least Recently Used

- block move



- auto increment/decrement location

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.

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)

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

Demand Paging Example

- Memory access time = 1 microsecond
- 50% of the time the page that is being replaced has been modified and therefore needs to be swapped out.
- Swap Page Time = 10 msec = 10,000 msec

$$\begin{aligned} \text{EAT} &= (1 - p) \times 1 + p (15000) \\ &= 1 + 15000P \quad (\text{in msec}) \end{aligned}$$

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.

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.

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	1	4	5	
2	2	1	3	9 page faults
3	3	2	4	

- 4 frames

1	1	5	4	
2	2	1	5	10 page faults
3	3	2		
4	4	3		

- FIFO Replacement – Belady’s Anomaly
 - more frames \nrightarrow less page faults

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

1	4	
2		6 page faults
3		
4	5	

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

Least Recently Used (LRU) Algorithm

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

1			5
2			
3	5	4	
4	3		

- 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 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

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.

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 – e.g., If 100 frames and 5 processes, give each 20 pages.
- 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.

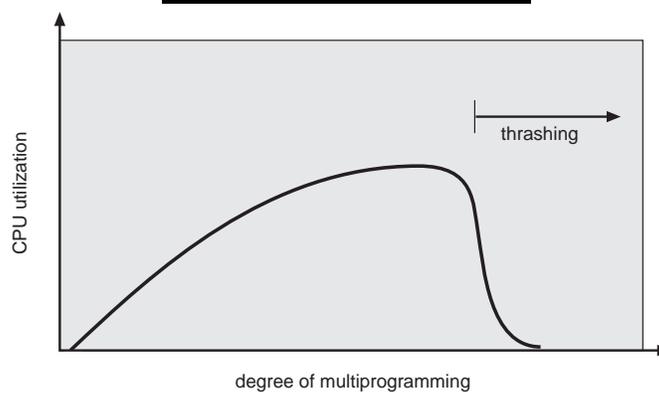
Global vs. Local Allocation

- 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 \equiv a process is busy swapping pages in and out.

Thrashing Diagram



- Why does 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

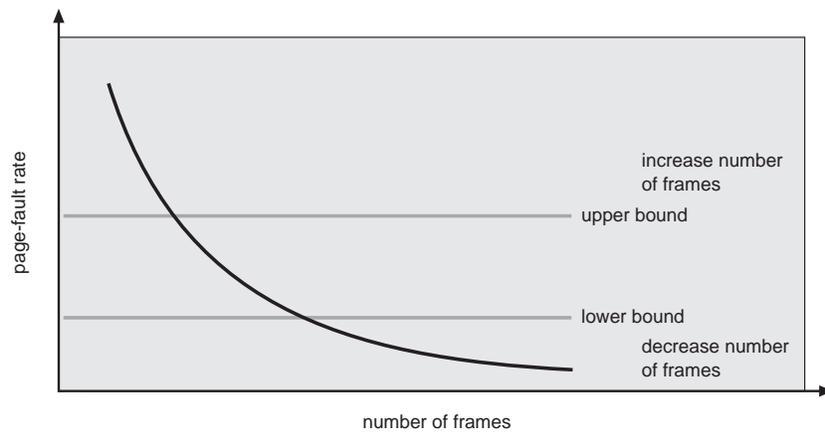
Working-Set Model

- $\Delta \equiv$ working-set window \equiv a fixed number of page references
Example: 10,000 instruction
- 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
- If $D > m \Rightarrow$ thrashing.
- Policy if $D > m$, then suspend one of the processes.

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 Scheme



- Establish “acceptable” page-fault rate.
 - If actual rate too low, process loses frame.
 - If actual rate too high, process gains frame.

Other Considerations

- Prepaging
- Page size selection
 - fragmentation
 - table size
 - I/O overhead
 - locality

Other Considerations (Cont.)

- Program structure
 - Array A[1024,1024] of integer
 - Each row is stored in one page
 - One frame
 - Program 1 **for j := 1 to 1024 do**
 for i := 1 to 1024 do
 A[i, j] := 0;

1024 × 1024 page faults
 - Program 2 **for i := 1 to 1024 do**
 for j := 1 to 1024 do
 A[i, j] := 0;

1024 page faults
- I/O interlock and addressing

Demand Segmentation

- Used when insufficient hardware to implement demand paging.
- OS/2 allocates memory in segments, which it keeps track of through *segment descriptors*.
- Segment descriptor contains a valid bit to indicate whether the segment is currently in memory.
 - If segment is in main memory, access continues,
 - If not in memory, segment fault.