Virtual Memory

CS 502
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WPI MetroWest/Southboro Campus

Virtual Memory Outline

- Background
- Demand Paging
- Performance of Demand Paging
- Page Replacement
- Page-Replacement Algorithms
- Allocation of Frames
- Thrashing
- Other Considerations
- Demand Segmentation

Background

- Virtual memory -- separation of user logical memory from physical memory.
  - Only part of the program needs to be in memory for execution. Explain.
  - 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 ⇒ in-memory, 0 ⇒ not-in-memory)
- Initially valid–invalid bit is set to 0 on all entries.
- Example of a page table snapshot.

Valid–Invalid Bit	Frame
1	
0	
1	
1	
0	
1	

Page Table

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

Page Fault

- If there is ever a reference to a page, first reference will trap to OS ⇒ page fault.
- OS looks at another table to decide:
  - Invalid reference ⇒ abort.
  - Just not in memory.
- Get empty frame.
- Swap page into frame.
- Reset tables, validation bit = 1.
- Restart instruction:
  - 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 $0 \le p \le 1.0$
- if $p = 0$, no page faults
- if $p = 1$, every reference is a fault
- Effective Access Time (EAT)

$$\begin{aligned}\text{EAT} = {} & (1 - p) \cdot ma \\ & + p \cdot (\mathit{page\_fault\_overhead} + \\ & \quad [\mathit{swap\_page\_out}] + \\ & \quad \mathit{swap\_page\_in} + \\ & \quad \mathit{restart\_overhead})\end{aligned}$$

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 μsec

EAT = (1 – p) 1 + p (15000)

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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.

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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.
  - Evaluation is “workload” specific
- 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

- Three Frames

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

- Four Frames

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

- FIFO Replacement -- Belady's Anomaly
  - more frames does not imply less page faults

Optimal Algorithm

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

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.

Least Recently Used (LRU) Algorithm

- Four Frames

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 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 (by hardware).
  - 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.

LRU Approximation (Cont.)

- Enhanced Second Chance – Consider the Reference Bit and the Modify Bit as an ordered pair (*r*, *m*)
  - (0, 0): neither recently used nor modified – best page to replace.
  - (0, 1): not recently used, but modified – not quite as good, because the page will need to be written 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 write out will be needed before replacing it.

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

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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 = virtual memory size of process p_i
  - $S = \Sigma s_i$
  - m = total number of frames
  - a_i = allocation for $p_i = (s_i / S) \cdot m$

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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.

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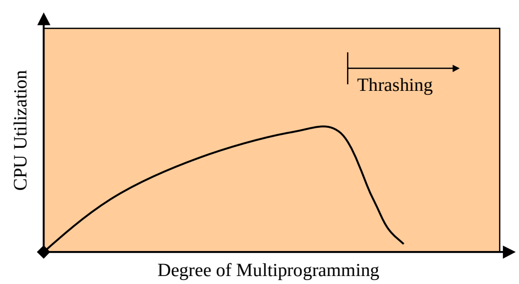
Thrashing Diagram



- 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

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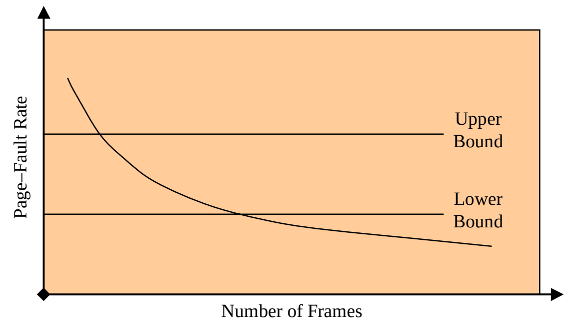
Working Set Model

- Let $\Delta \equiv$ working-set window $\equiv$ 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 \Delta (varies in time)
  - If Δ too small will not encompass entire locality.
  - If Δ too large will encompass several localities.
  - If $\Delta = \infty$ will encompass entire program.
- $D = \Sigma\, WSS_i \equiv$ 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
- Pool of Free Frames
- Page size selection
  - fragmentation
  - table size
  - I/O overhead
  - locality
- I/O interlock and addressing

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 x 1024 page faults
  - Program 2

```
for j := 1 to 1024 do
 for i := 1 to 1024 do
  A[i; j] := 0;
```

  - 1024 page faults

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.