EECS 3221.3
**Operating System Fundamentals**

## No. 10

# Virtual Memory

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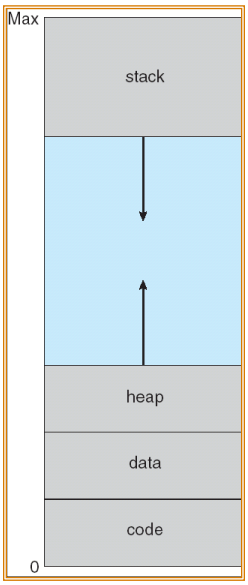
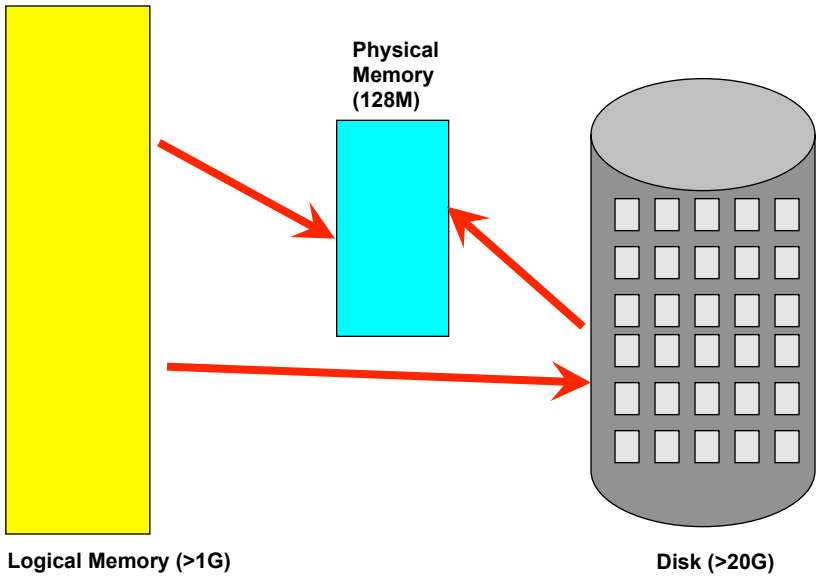
## Background

- Memory-management methods normally requires the entire process to be in memory before the process can execute.
- Better not to load the whole process in memory for execution:
  - Programs often have code to handle unusual error conditions.
  - Arrays, lists, and tables are often allocated more memory than they actually need.
  - Certain options and features of a program may be used rarely.
  - Even all codes are needed, they may not all be needed at the same time.
- Our goal: partially load a process.
  - No longer be constrained by the amount of physical memory.
  - Each process takes less memory → CPU utilization and throughput up.
  - Less I/O to load program → run faster.

# Logical Memory Space (review)




# Virtual Memory: concept



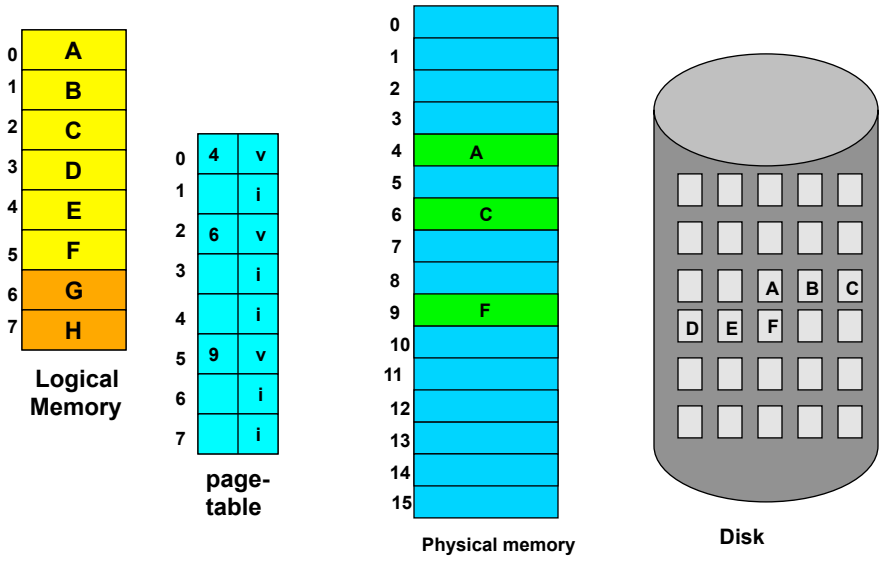
# Virtual Memory

- Virtual memory can be implemented via:
  - Demand paging
  - Demand segmentation
    - Hard since segments have variable size

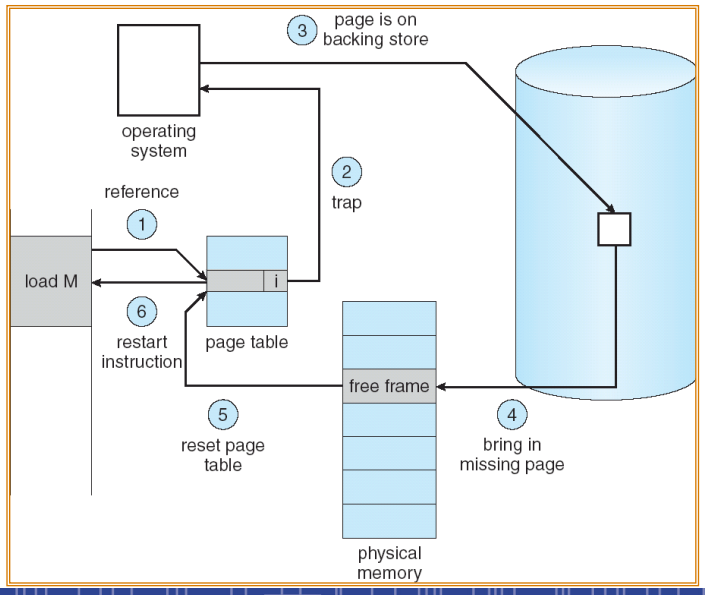
# Demand Paging(1)

- Demand paging:
  - A paging system with a lazy page swapper.
  - A lazy swapper: never swap a page into memory unless the page will be used.
- In demand paging:
  - When a process is executed,
  - The pager guess which pages are needed. (optional)
  - The pager brings only these necessary pages into memory. (optional)
  - When referring a page not in a memory, the pager bring it in as needed and possibly replace an old page when no more free space.
- Hardware support: to distinguish those pages in memory and those pages in disk.
  - Use valid-invalid bit.

# An example: Demand Paging




# Handle a page fault



# Handle a Page Fault

**The interrupt handler program to handle page fault in virtual memory:**

- Check an internal table to see if the reference was a valid or invalid memory access.
- If invalid, terminate the process; If valid, this page is on disk. Need page it into memory.
- Find a free frame from the free-frame list. (if no free frame, need replace an old page)
- Schedule a disk operation to read the desired page into the newly allocated frame.
- When the disk read is complete, modify the internal table and page table to set the bit as valid to indicate this page is now in memory.
- Restart the instruction that was interrupted. The process can now access the page as though it had always been in memory

# Handle a Page Fault (more details)

- Trap to the OS
- Save the user registers and process status.
- Determine the interrupt was a page fault.
- Determine the location of the page on the disk.
- Find a free frame from the free-frame list.
  - If no free frame, page replacement.
- Issue a read from the disk to the free frame:
  - Wait in a queue for the disk until serviced.
  - Wait for the disk seek and latency time.
  - Begin the transfer of the page to the free frame.
- While waiting, allocate the CPU to other process.
- Interrupt from the disk (I/O completed).
- Save the registers and process state for other running process.
- Determine the interrupt was from the disk.

## Handle a Page Fault (more details) (cont'd)

- …
- Correct the page table and other tables to show the desired page is now in memory.
- Wake up the original waiting process.
- Wait for the CPU to be allocated to this process again.
- Restore the user registers and process state and new page table.
- Resume the interrupted instruction.

## Pure Demand Paging vs. Pre-paging

- **Pure Demand Paging:**
  - **Never bring a page into memory until it is referred.**
  - **Start executing a process with no pages in memory**
  - **OS set instruction pointer to the first instruction**
  - **Once run, it causes a page fault to load the first page**
  - **Faulting as necessary until every page is in memory**
- **Pre-paging:**
  - **To prevent high page-fault rate at the beginning.**
  - **Try to bring more pages at once based on prediction.**

## Some Architecture Concerns in demand paging

- Straightforward in most cases:

**ADD A,B,C** →

1. Fetch and decode ADD
2. Fetch A
3. Fetch B
4. Add A and B
5. Store the sum to C

- But some instructions which may modify something are not easy to handle:
  - IBM 360/370: MVC (move 256 bytes)
  - PDP-11: auto-decrement or auto-increment addressing mode

*mov (R2)++, --(R3)*

## Performance of Demand Paging

- To service a page fault is very time-consuming:
  - Service the page-fault interrupt.
  - Read in the page.
  - Restart the process.
- Effective access time for a demand-paged system:

**Effective Access Time = (1-p) * ma + p * page fault time**

- One example: memory access 100 nanosecond
  page fault 25 millisecond

**Effective Access Time = 100 + 24,999,900 * p**

If **p**=1/1000, **EAT** = 25 microsecond ( slow down a factor of 250)
If requiring only 10% slow down, **p**<4/10,000,000 (one out of 2.5 million)

- How to achieve low page fault rate??

## Handling Swap Space on Disk

- For fast speed:
  - Use swap space, not file system.
  - Swap space: in larger blocks, no file lookup and indirect allocation.
  - Copying an entire file image into swap space at process startup and then perform demand paging from the swap space.
  - Or first load pages from file system, then write to swap space.

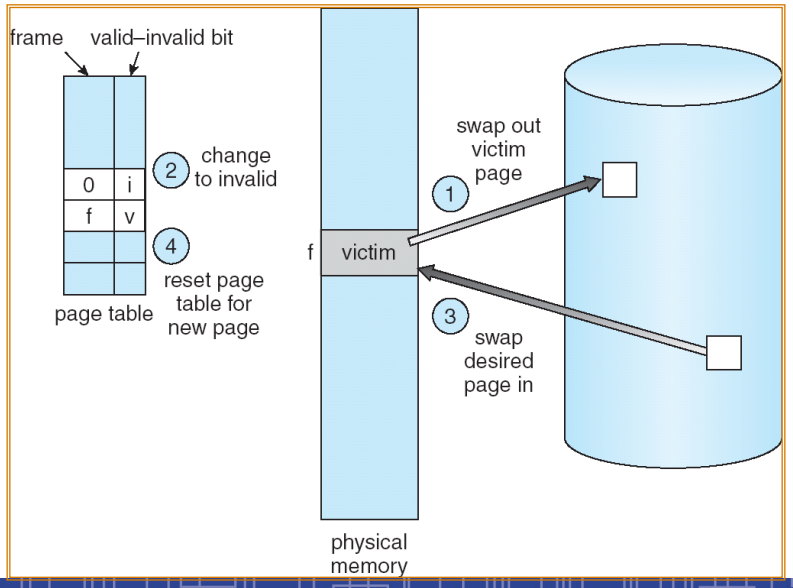
## Page Replacement(1)

- In demand paging, when increasing multiprogramming level, it is possible to run out of all free frames.
- How about if a page fault occurs when no free frame is available?
  - Stop the process.
  - Swap out another process to free some frames.
  - Page replacement:
    - Replacing in page level.

# Page Replacement(2)

- If no frame is free, find one frame that is not currently being used and free it.
  - Write the page into swap space and change page-table to indicate that this page is no longer in memory.
  - Use the freed frame to hold the page for which the process faulted.
- Use a page-replacement algorithm to select a victim frame.
- In this case, two disk accesses are required (one write one read).

# Page Replacement



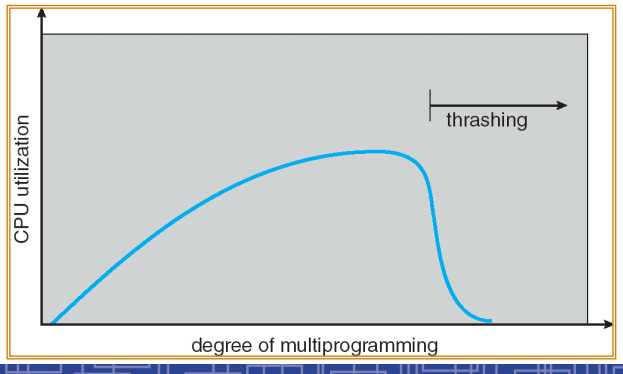
# Page Replacement(3)

- Use a *modify bit (dirty bit)* to reduce overhead:
  - Each frame has a modify bit associated in hardware.
  - Any write in page will set this bit by hardware.
  - In page replacement, if the bit is not set, no need to write back to disk.
- For read-only pages, always no need to write back.
- With page replacement, we can run a large program in a small memory.

- Two important issues:
  - Page-replacement algorithm: how to select the frame to be replaced?
  - Frame-allocation algorithm: how many frames to allocate to each process?

# Thrashing

- Thrashing: a process is spending a significant time in paging.
- Thrashing results in severe performance problem. The process is spending more time in paging than executing.
- Cause of thrashing:
  - The process is not allocated enough frames to hold all the pages currently in active use.



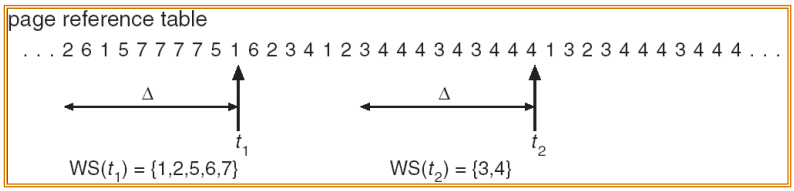
## Locality Model of Programs

- **A locality is a set of pages that are currently in an active use by process.**
- **A process moves from locality to locality.**
- **A program is generally composed of several different localities.**
- **The localities are defined by the program structure and its data structures**.
- **Locality model is the basic principle for caching as well as demand paging.**
  - We only need a small number of frames to hold all pages in the current locality in order to avoid further page faults.

## Working-set Model

- **The model define a working-set window, say Δ page references, e.g., 10,000 page references.**
- **The set of all referenced pages in the most recent Δ page references is the working set.**
- **How to choose the window ?**
  - **if Δ too small will not encompass entire locality.**
  - **if Δ too large will encompass several localities.**
  - **If Δ = ∞ will encompass entire program.**
- **If $WSS_i$ = working-set size of process $P_i$**
  - **➔ $D$ = $WSS_i$ : total demand frames**
- **if $D > m$ (m: total available frames) ➔ Thrashing.**
- **Policy:**
  - **CPU monitors working sets of all processes and allocate enough frames for the current working set.**
  - **if $D >$ m, then suspend one of the processes.**

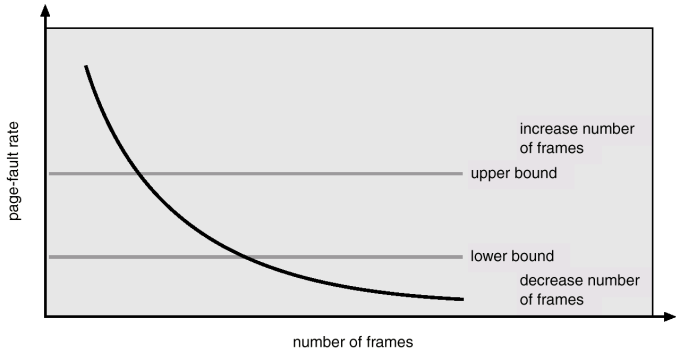
# Working-Set Model




# Keeping Track of the Working Set

- **Approximate with interval timer + a reference bit.**
- **Example: Λ = 10,000 references**
  - **Timer interrupts after every 5000 references.**
  - **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 page in working set.**
- **The cost to service these frequent interrupts is high.**

## Page-Fault Frequency




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

## Other Considerations in demand-paging

- Page size: in powers of 2 (2**12 – 2*22)
  - Small page size → large page-table.
  - Small page size → less internal fragmentation.
  - Small page size → more I/O overhead in paging.
  - Small page size → more page-faults.
  - Small page size → less I/O amount (better resolution) and less total allocated memory.
  - A historical trend is toward larger page sizes.

# Other Considerations in demand-paging

- **Program structure: a careful selection of data structure and programming structure**
  - **To increase locality and hence lower the page-fault rate.**
  - **To reduce total number of memory access.**
  - **To reduce total number of pages touched.**
- **Also compiler and loader can improve.**
- **Example: Array** `A[1024][1024]` **of integer**
  - **Each row is stored in one page**
  - **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 i = 1 to 1024 do
    for j = 1 to 1024 do
        A[i][j] = 0;
```

    **1024 page faults**