Module 9: Virtual Memory

- Background
- Demand Paging
- Performance of Demand Paging
- Page Replacement
- Page-Replacement Algorithms
- Allocation of Frames
- Thrashing
- Other Considerations
- Demand Segmentation
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 ⇒ in-memory, 0 ⇒ not-in-memory)
- Initially valid–invalid bit is set to 0 on all entries.
- Example of a page table snapshot.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>frame #</th>
<th>valid-invalid bit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</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: 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)

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

\[
EAT = (1 - p) \times 1 + p \times 15000 \\
= 1 + 15000P \quad \text{(in msec)}
\]
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)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th></th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9 page faults

- 4 frames

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th></th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10 page faults

- FIFO Replacement – Belady’s Anomaly
  - more frames ≠ 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
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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- 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 \( p_i \)
  - \( S = \Sigma s_i \)
  - \( m = \) total number of frames
  - \( a_i = \) allocation for \( p_i = \frac{s_i}{S} \times m \)

\[
m = 64 \\
\begin{align*}
s_1 &= 10 \\
s_2 &= 127 \\
a_1 &= \frac{10}{137} \times 64 \approx 5 \\
a_2 &= \frac{127}{137} \times 64 \approx 59
\end{align*}
\]
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.
Why does paging work?
Locality model
- Process migrates from one locality to another.
- Localities may overlap.

Why does thrashing occur?
\[ \sum \text{size of locality} > \text{total memory size} \]
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 $\Delta$ (varies in time)
  
  - If $\Delta$ too small will not encompass entire locality.
  - If $\Delta$ 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
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
    \[
    \text{for } j := 1 \text{ to } 1024 \text{ do} \\
    \text{for } i := 1 \text{ to } 1024 \text{ do} \\
    A[i, j] := 0;
    \]
    1024 $\times$ 1024 page faults
  - Program 2
    \[
    \text{for } i := 1 \text{ to } 1024 \text{ do} \\
    \text{for } j := 1 \text{ to } 1024 \text{ do} \\
    A[i, j] := 0;
    \]
    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.