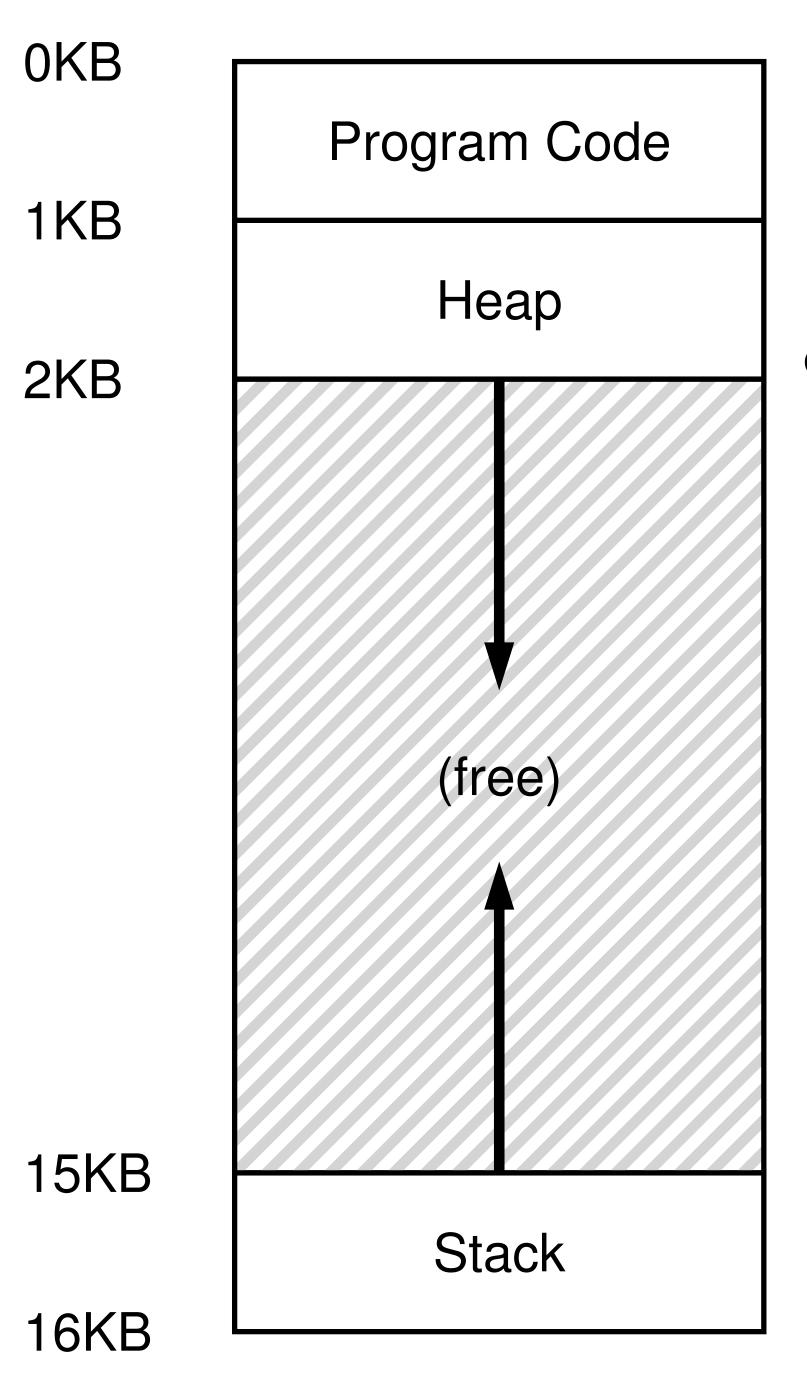
### Paging CSE 4001

- Virtual address space
- Basic paging mechanism
- Limitations
- Protection
- Shared pages

### Content

### Example address space

http://pages.cs.wisc.edu/~remzi/OSTEP/vm-intro.pdf

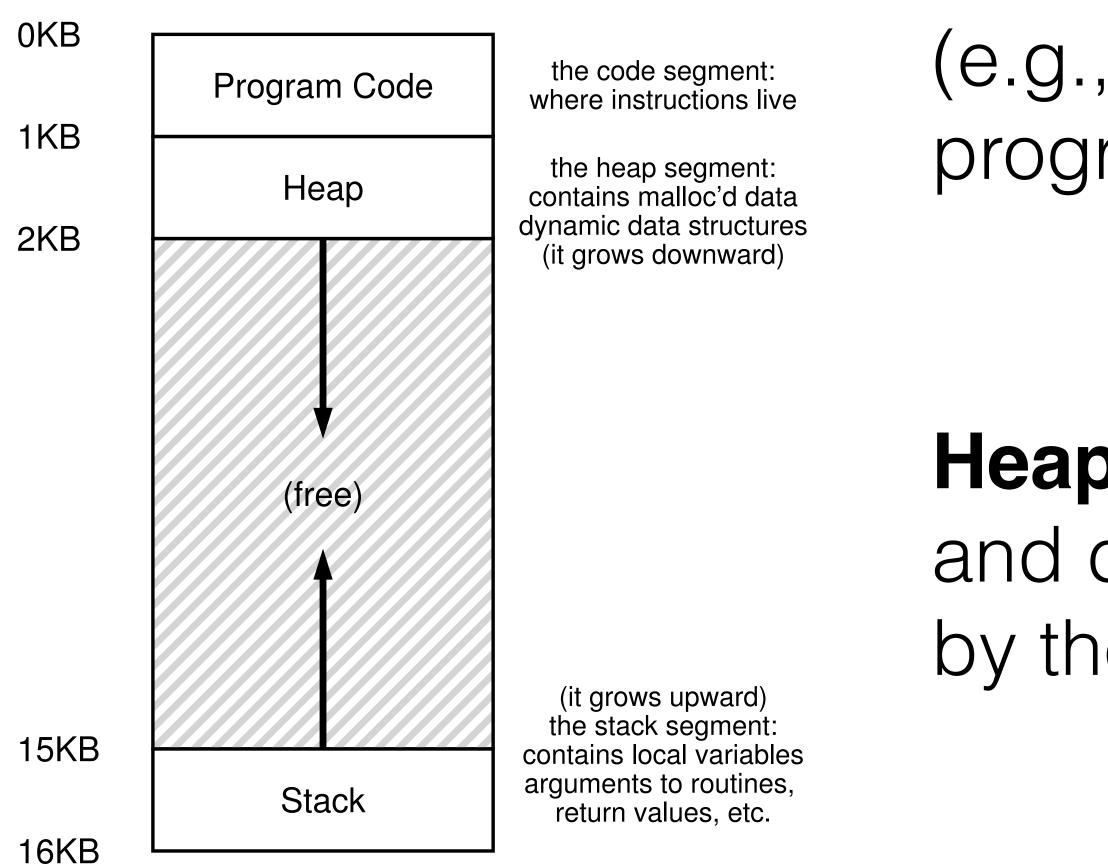


the code segment: the heap segment: (it grows downward) (it grows upward) the stack segment:

where instructions live contains malloc'd data dynamic data structures contains local variables

arguments to routines, return values, etc.

### Types of memory



**Stack:** Short-lived memory. Allocations and deallocations are managed implicitly (e.g., by the compiler), not by the programmer.

Heap: Long-lived memory. Allocations and deallocations are *explicitly* handled by the programmer.

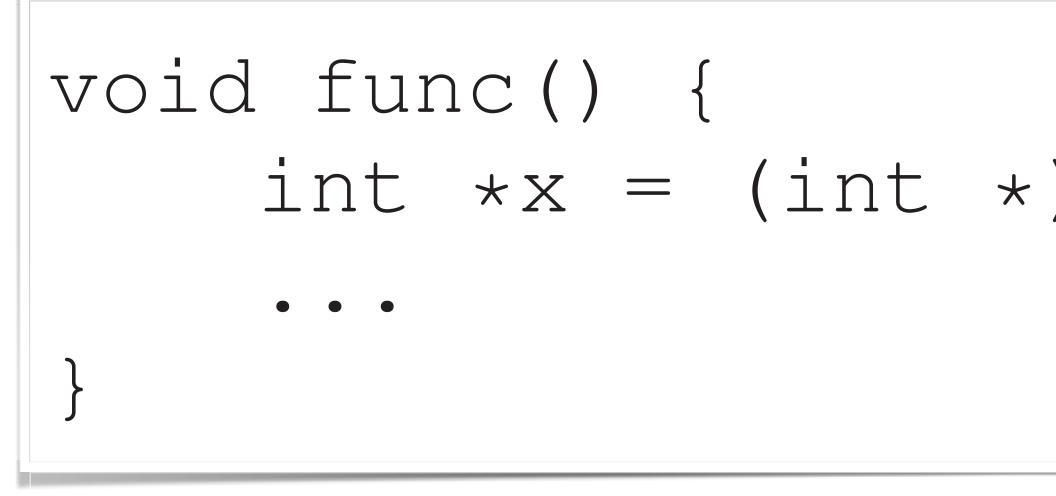




# void func() { int x; }







# int \*x = (int \*) malloc(sizeof(int));

### Every address you see is virtual

Here's a little program that prints out the locations of the main() routine (where code lives), the value of a heap-allocated value returned from malloc(), and the location of an integer on the stack:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
   printf("location of code : %p\n", (void *) main);
   printf("location of heap : %p\n", (void *) malloc(1));
   int x = 3;
   printf("location of stack : p\n", (void *) &x);
   return x;
```

location of code : 0x1095afe50 location of heap : 0x1096008c0 location of stack : 0x7fff691aea64

http://pages.cs.wisc.edu/~remzi/OSTEP/vm-intro.pdf

1

2 3

When run on a 64-bit Mac OS X machine, we get the following output:

### Basic problem with allocating contiguous blocks of memory for processes

**Paging**: physical address space is allowed to be non-contiguous

## Paging

Determining the size of memory blocks is difficult because different processes have different memory requirements.

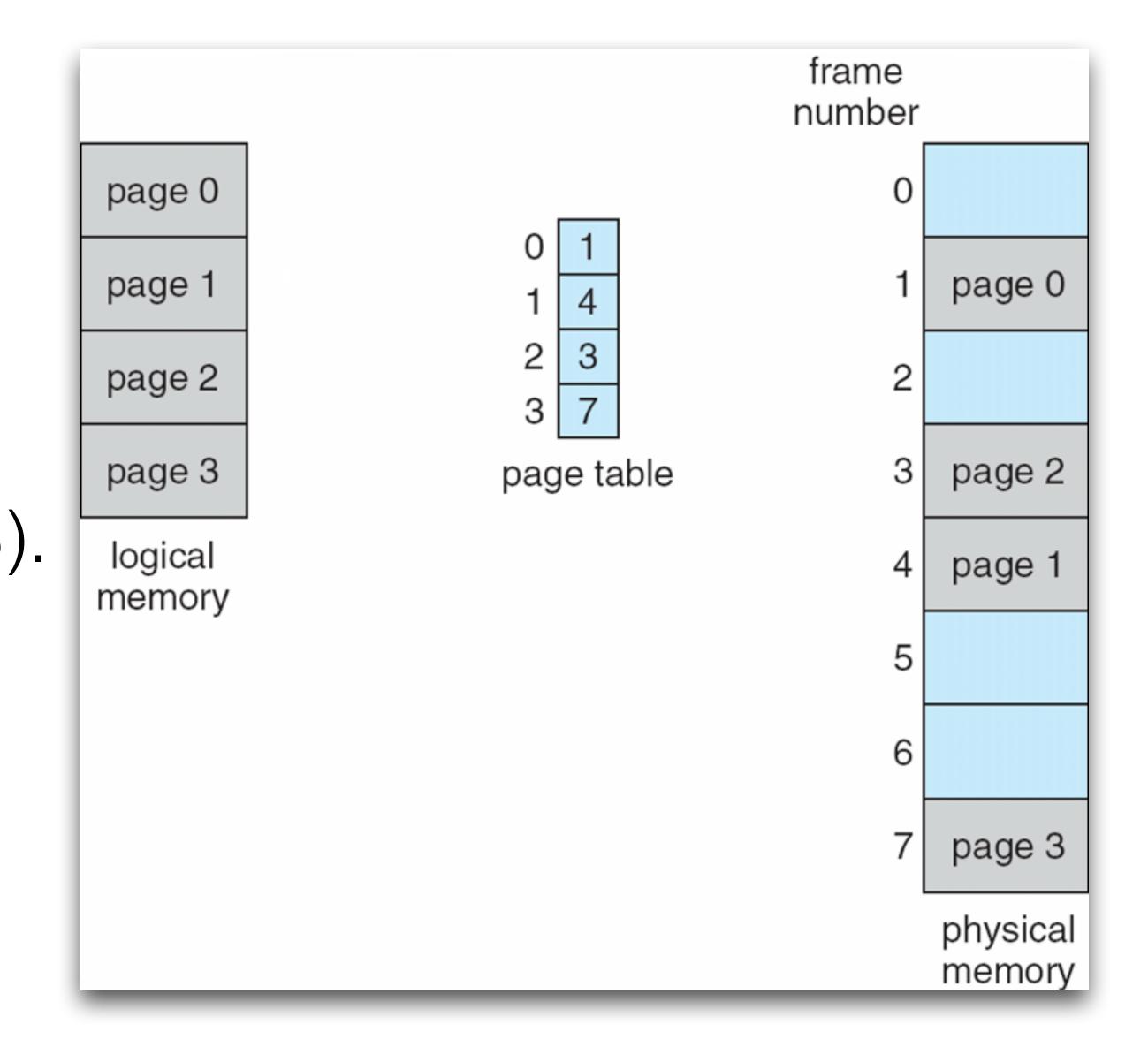


### **Basic paging method**

Divide physical memory into fixed-sized blocks called frames (size is power of 2, between 512 bytes and 16 MB).

Divide logical memory into blocks of same size called pages.

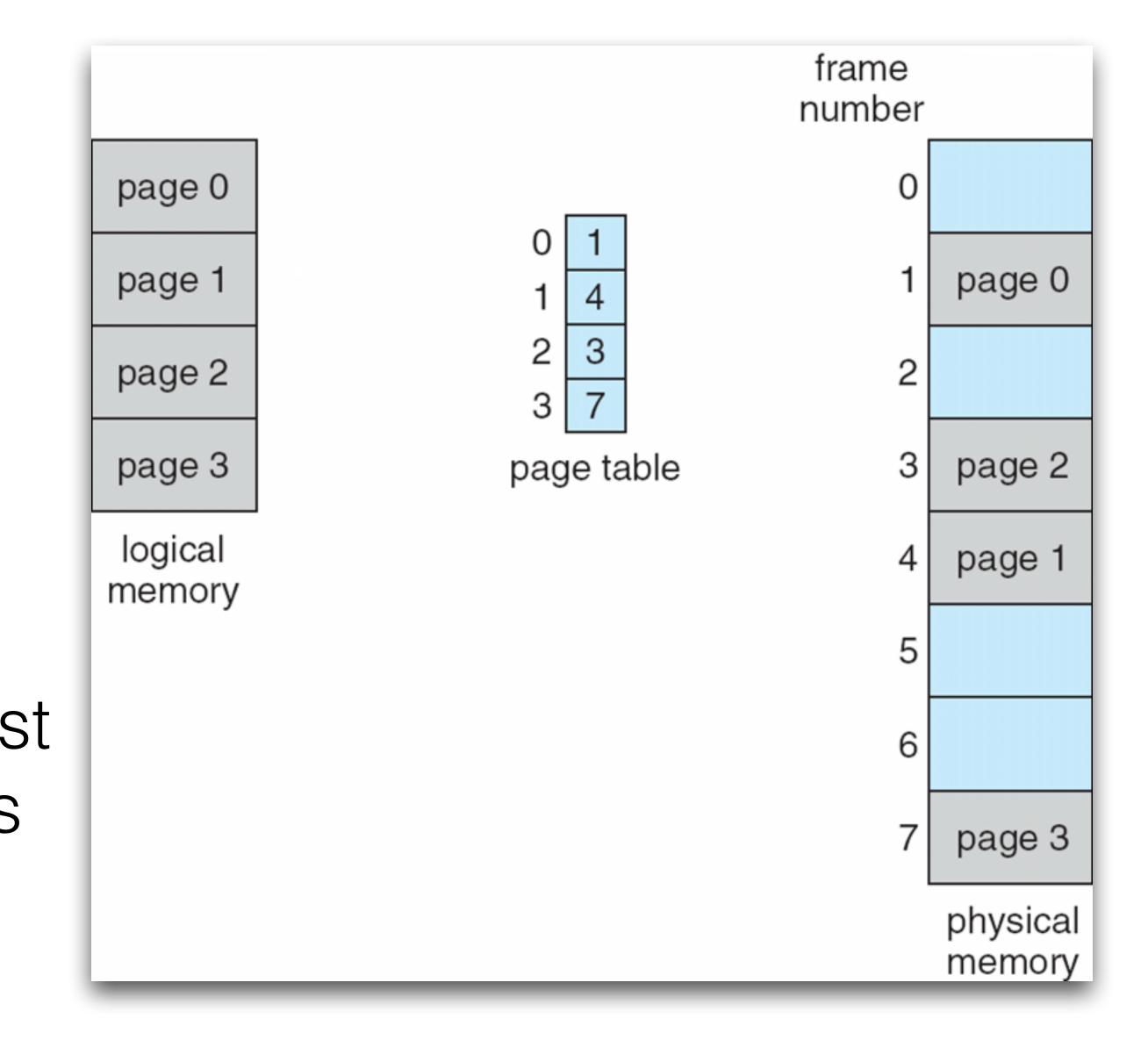
# Paging



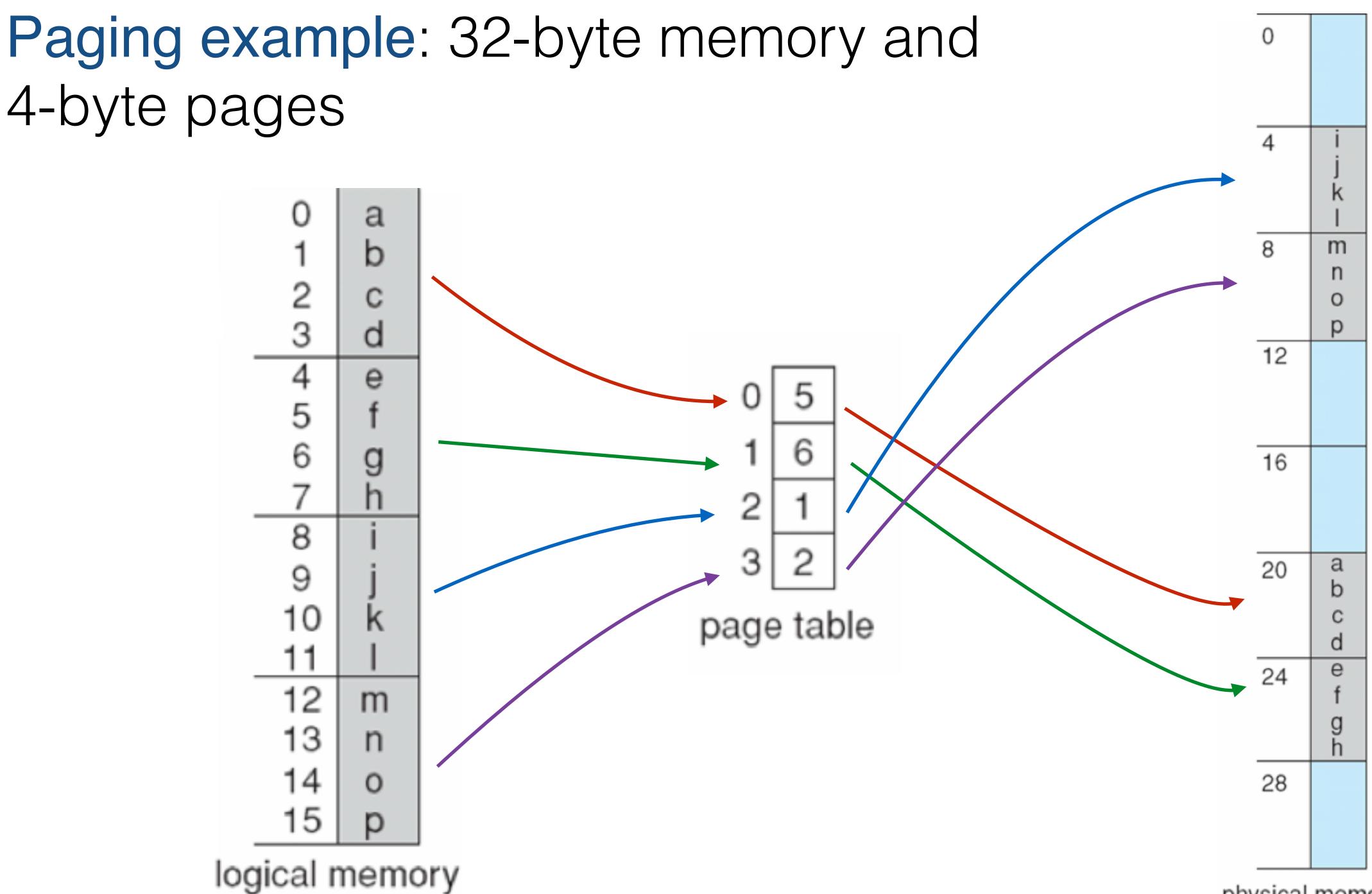
### **Basic paging method**

- Any page can be assigned to any free page frame
- External fragmentation is eliminated
- Internal fragmentation is at most a part of one page per process

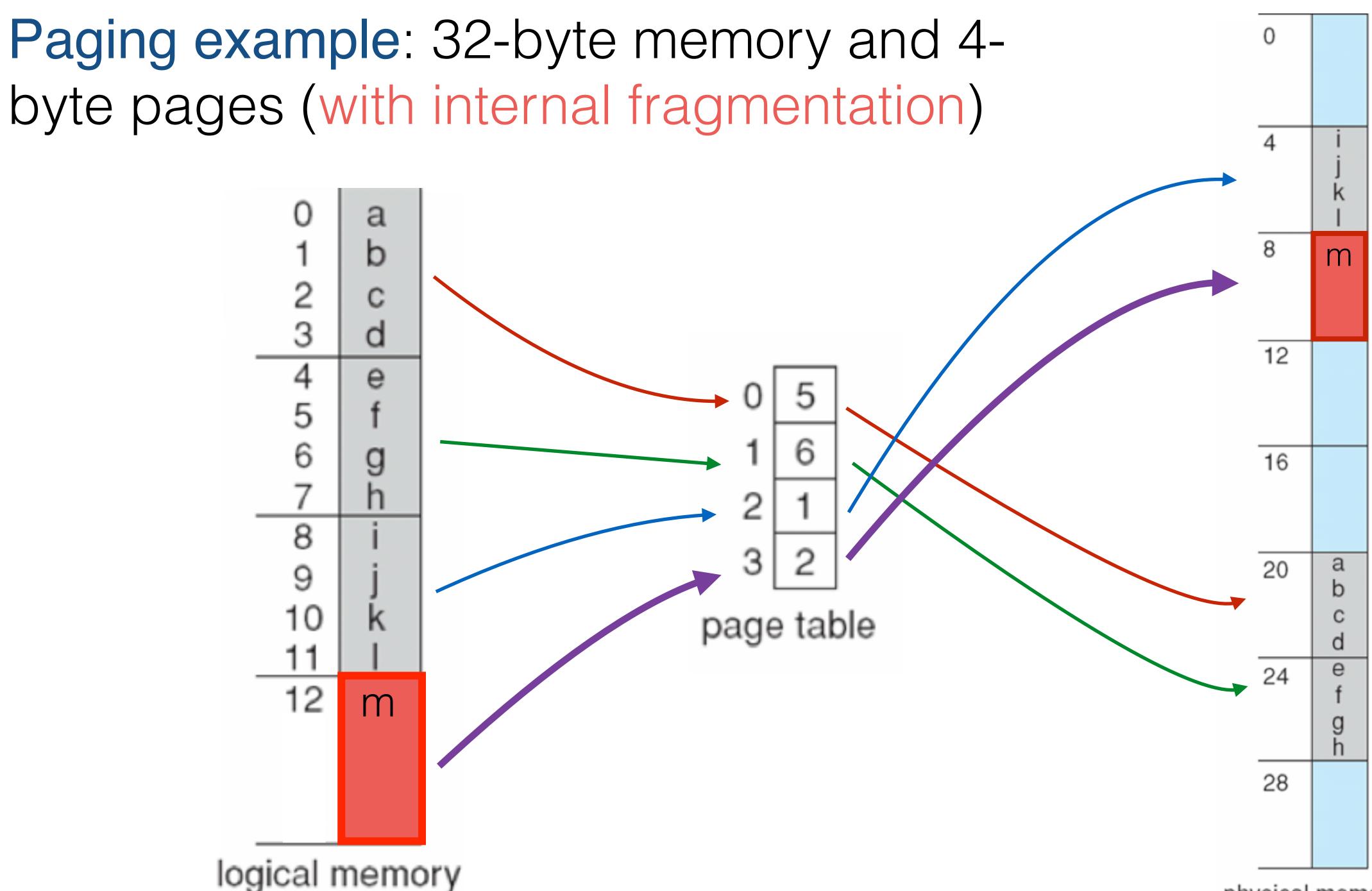
# Paging



# 4-byte pages

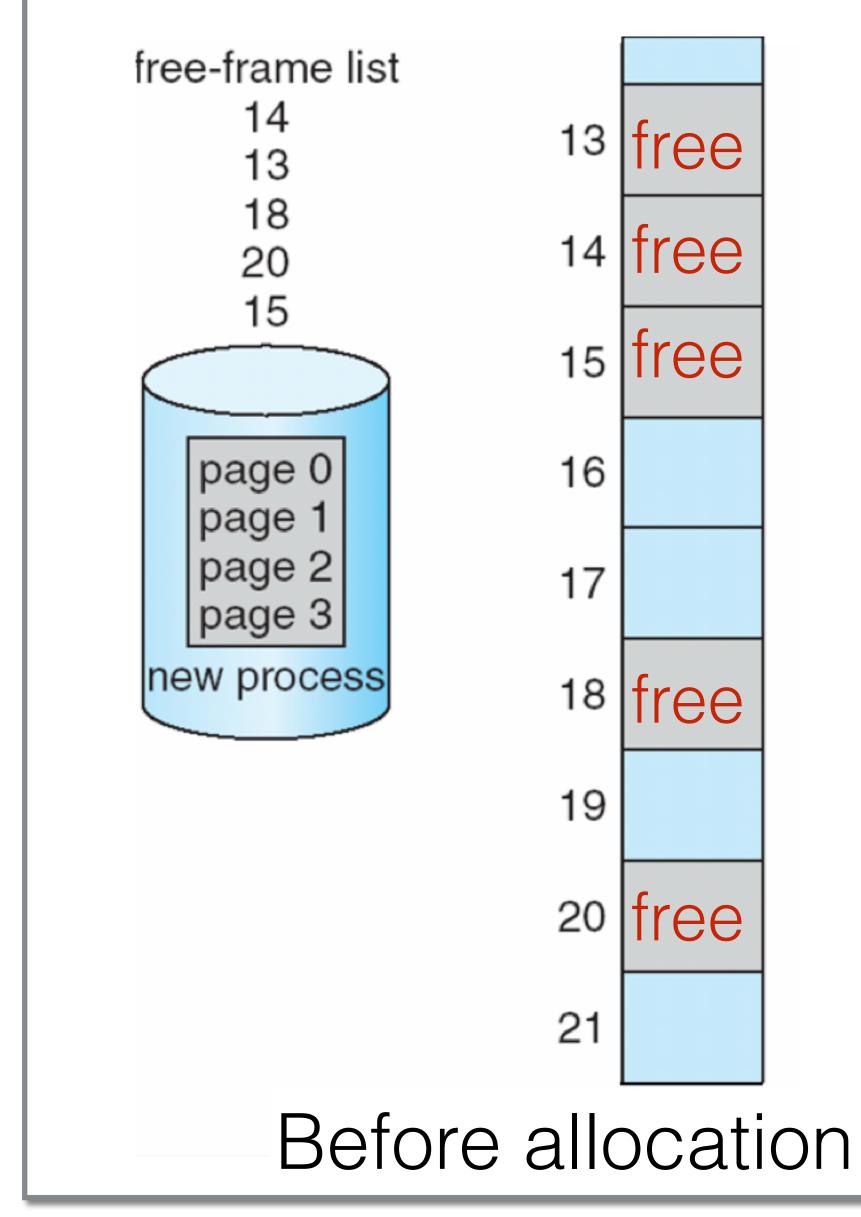


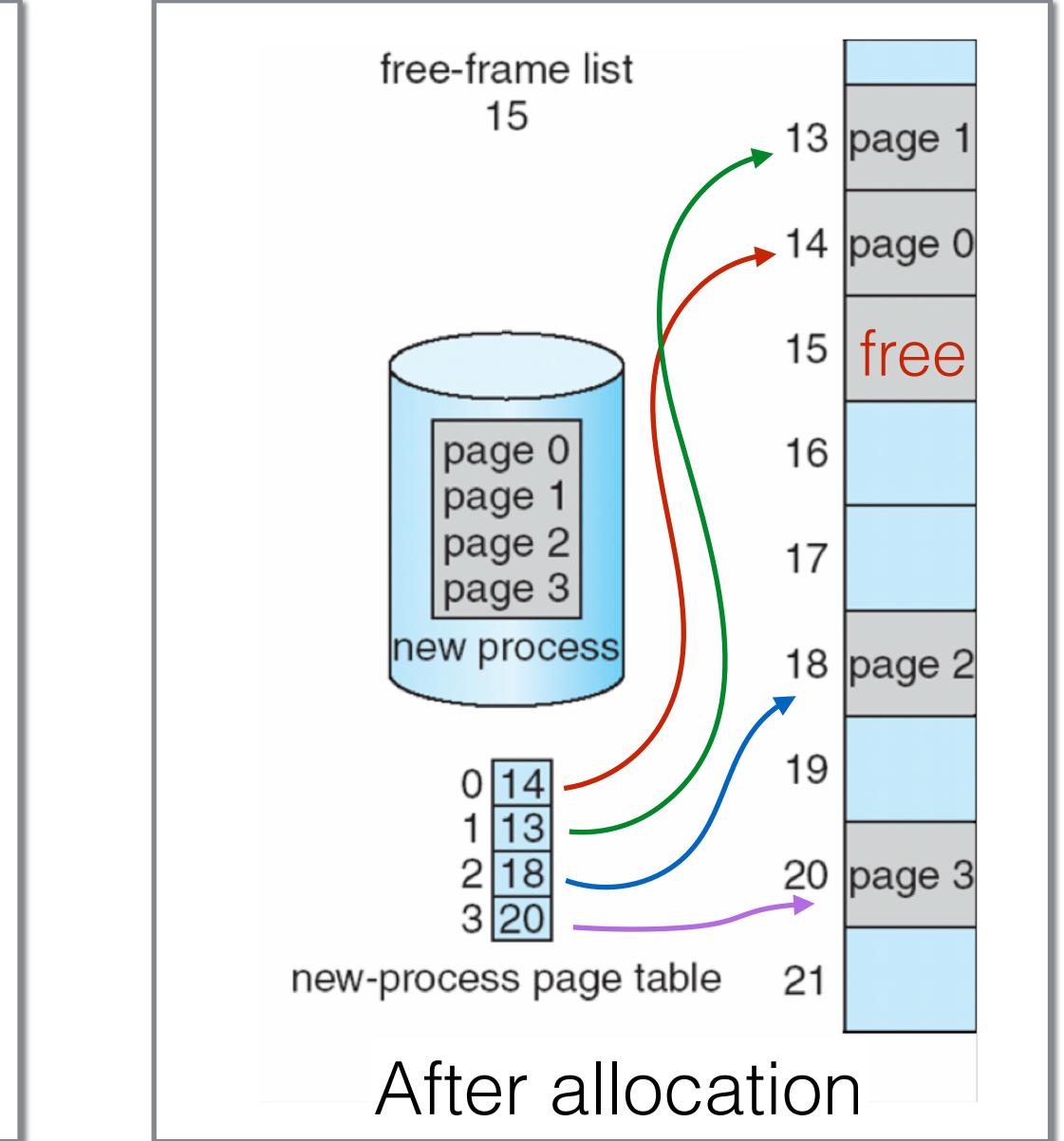
physical memory



physical memory

# New process is executed: free frames before and after allocation





# Paging Limitations - Space

- Page table might need a lot of space
- Registers can be used to store page tables but they are only feasible for small tables (e.g., 256 entries).
- Modern computers have page tables of 1 million entries.
- Such large page tables are kept in main memory and a page-table base register (PTBR) points to the table.

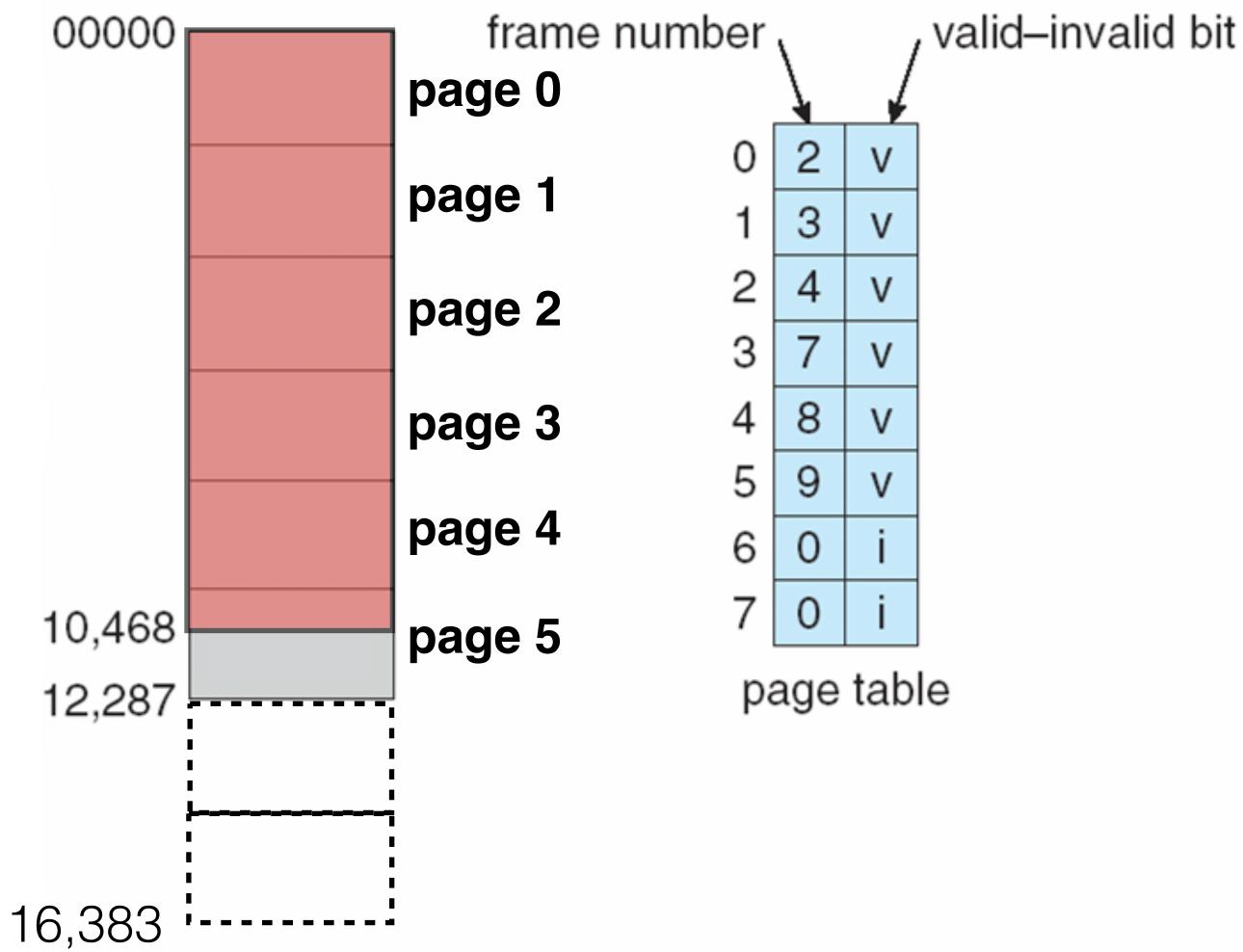




### Protection

- Memory protection: each frame has a protection bit.
- Valid-invalid bit for each entry in the page table:
- "valid" indicates that the associated page is in the process' logical address space, and is thus a legal page.
- "invalid" indicates that the page is not in the process' logical address space.

### Protection



0	
1	
2	page 0
3	page 1
4	page 2
5	
6	
7	page 3
8	page 4
9	page 5
	•
	page n

### A few more useful aspects of paging

- Shared pages
- Copy-on-write
- Memory-mapped files

# Shared Pages

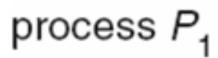
- code.
- (e.g., 40 users, each executing a text editor).
- OS can implement shared-memory (IPC) using shared pages.

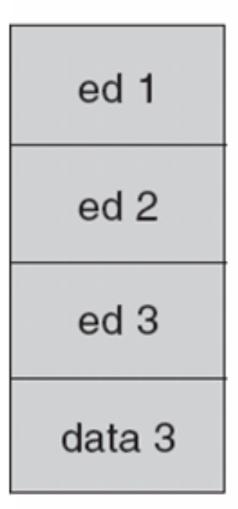
Paging allows for the possibility of sharing common

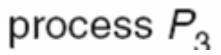
Sharing pages is useful in time-sharing environments

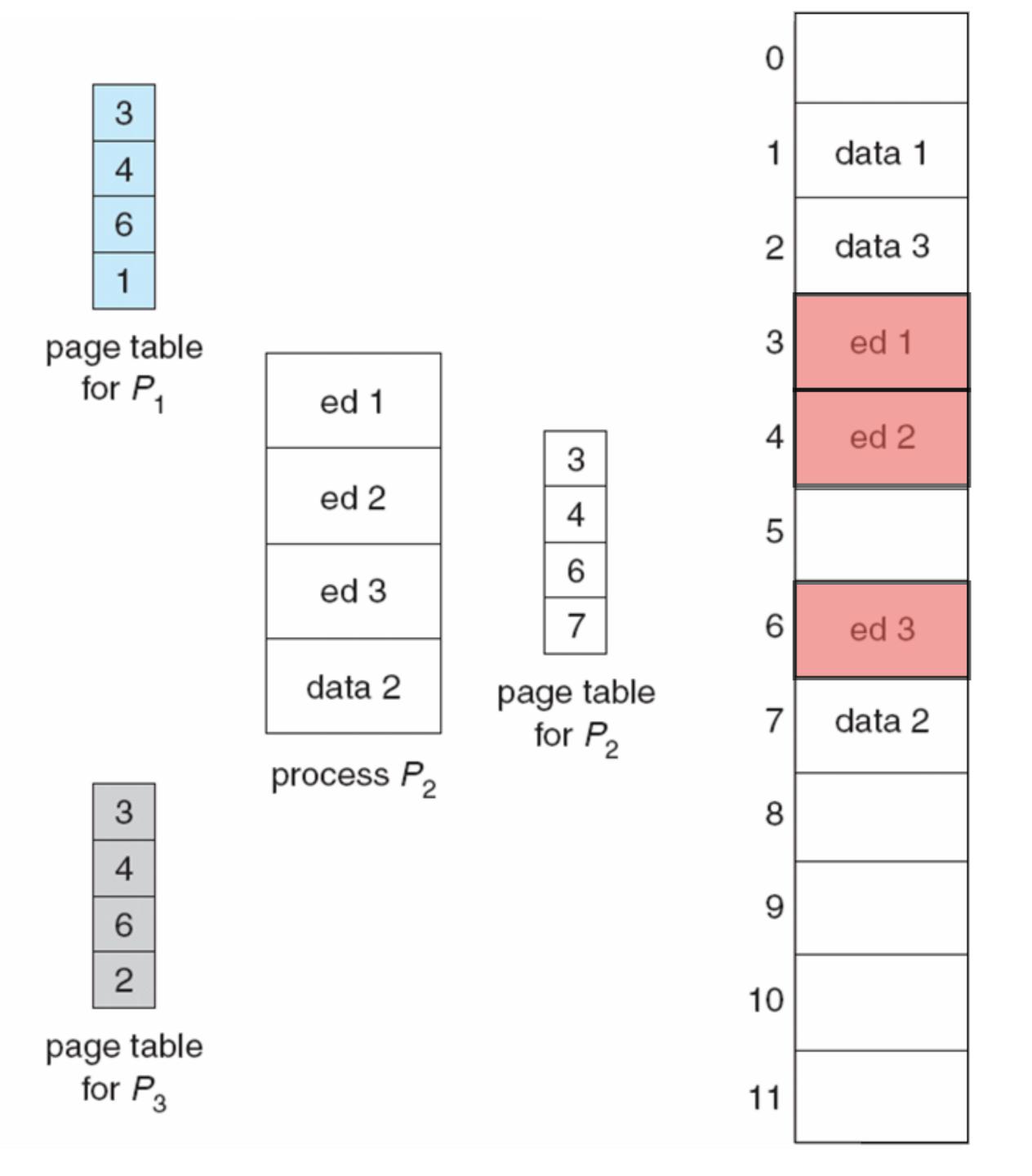
# Example of shared Pages

ed 1
ed 2
ed 3
data 1









### Copy-on-Write (COW), e.g. on fork( )

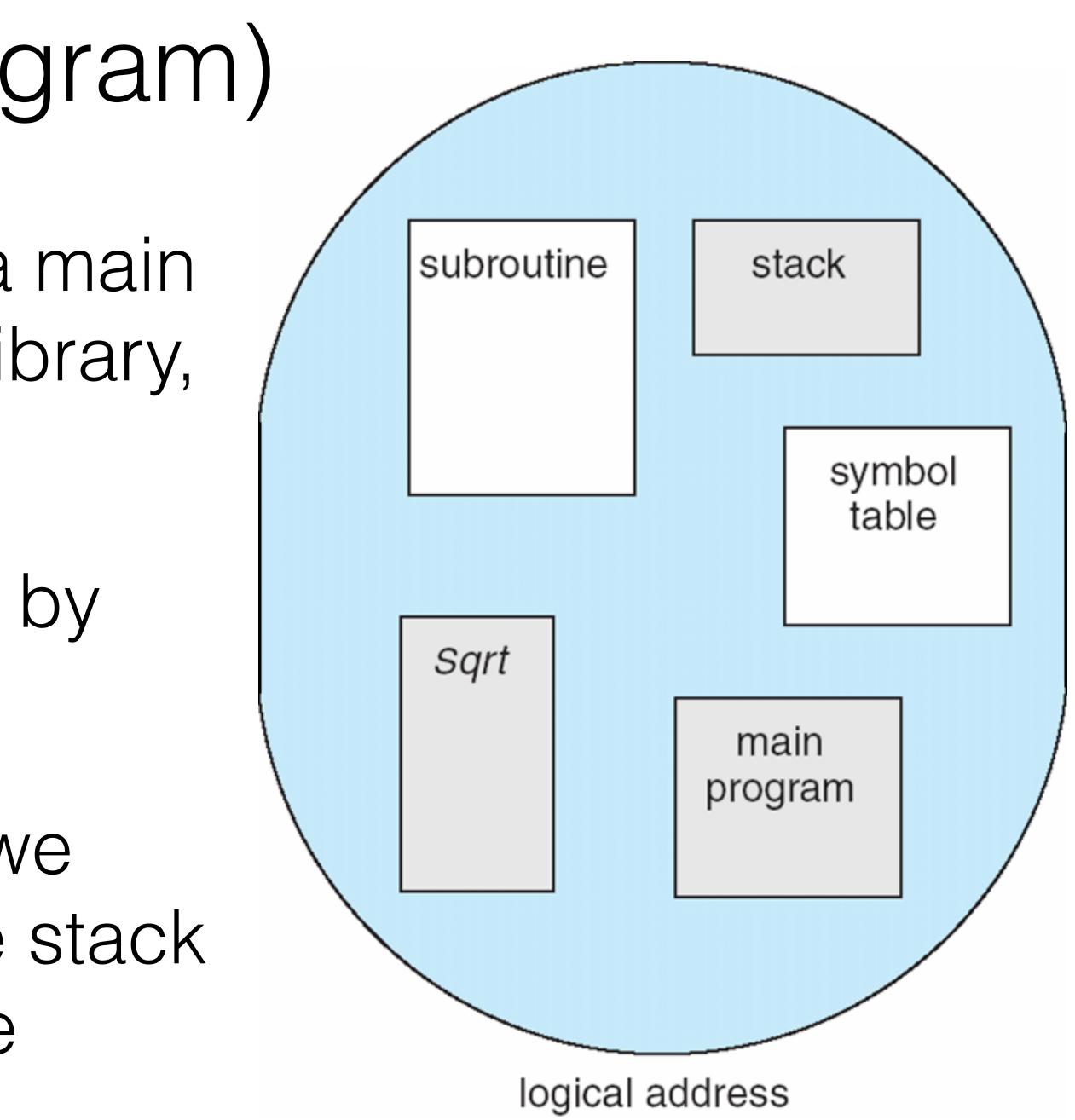
- opy-on-write (COW), e.g., on fork()
  - Instead of copying all pages, create shared mappings of parent pages in child address space
    - A. Make shared mappings read-only in child space
    - B. When child does a write, a protection fault occurs, OS takes over and can then copy the page and resume child.

### Segmentation

- Memory-management scheme that supports the user's view of memory.
- View memory as a collection of variable-sized segments, with no necessary ordering among segments.

# Segmentation (a program)

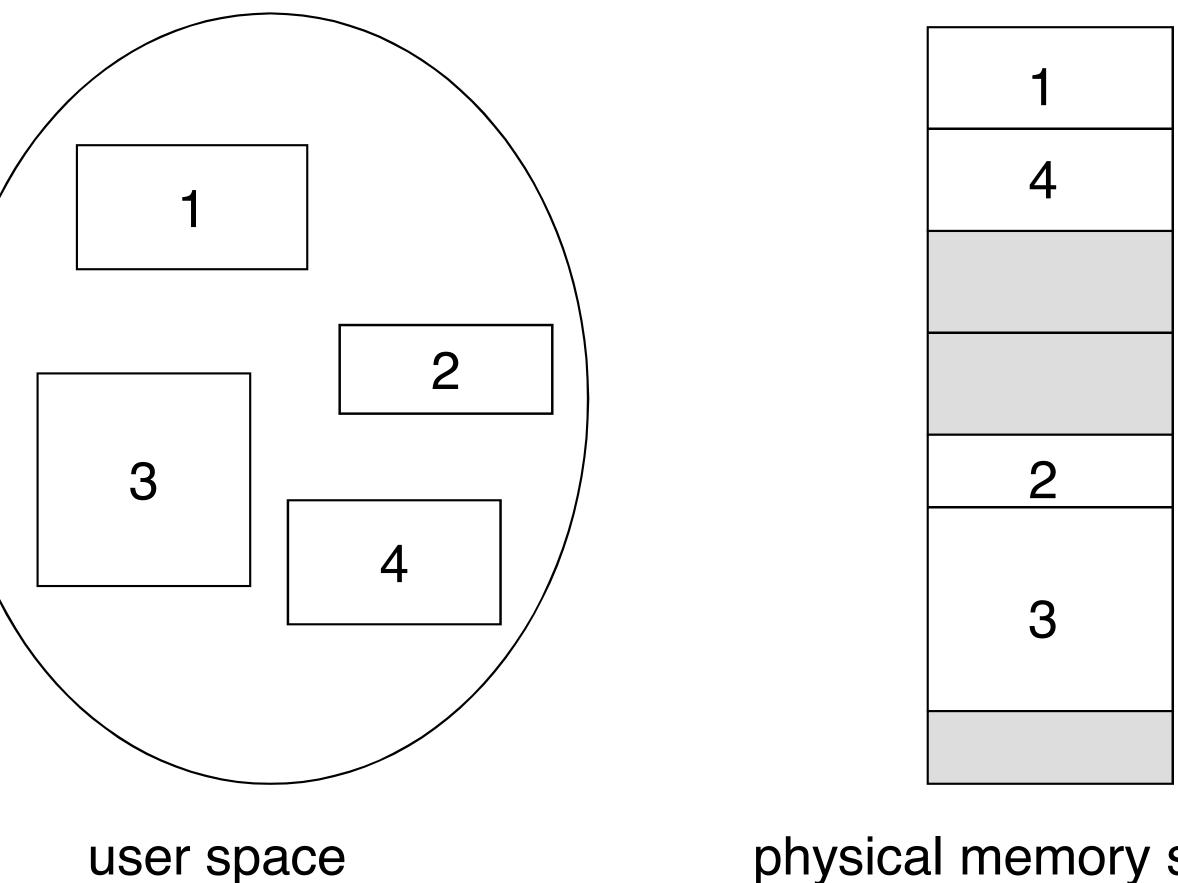
- We think of a program as a main program, a stack, a math library, etc.
- Each module is referred to by name
- In this view of a program, we might not care whether the stack is stored before or after the sqrt() function.



### • For simplicity of implementation, each segment is addressed by a segment number and an offset:

<segment-number, offset>

### Logical view of segmentation



physical memory space



# Segmentation Hardware

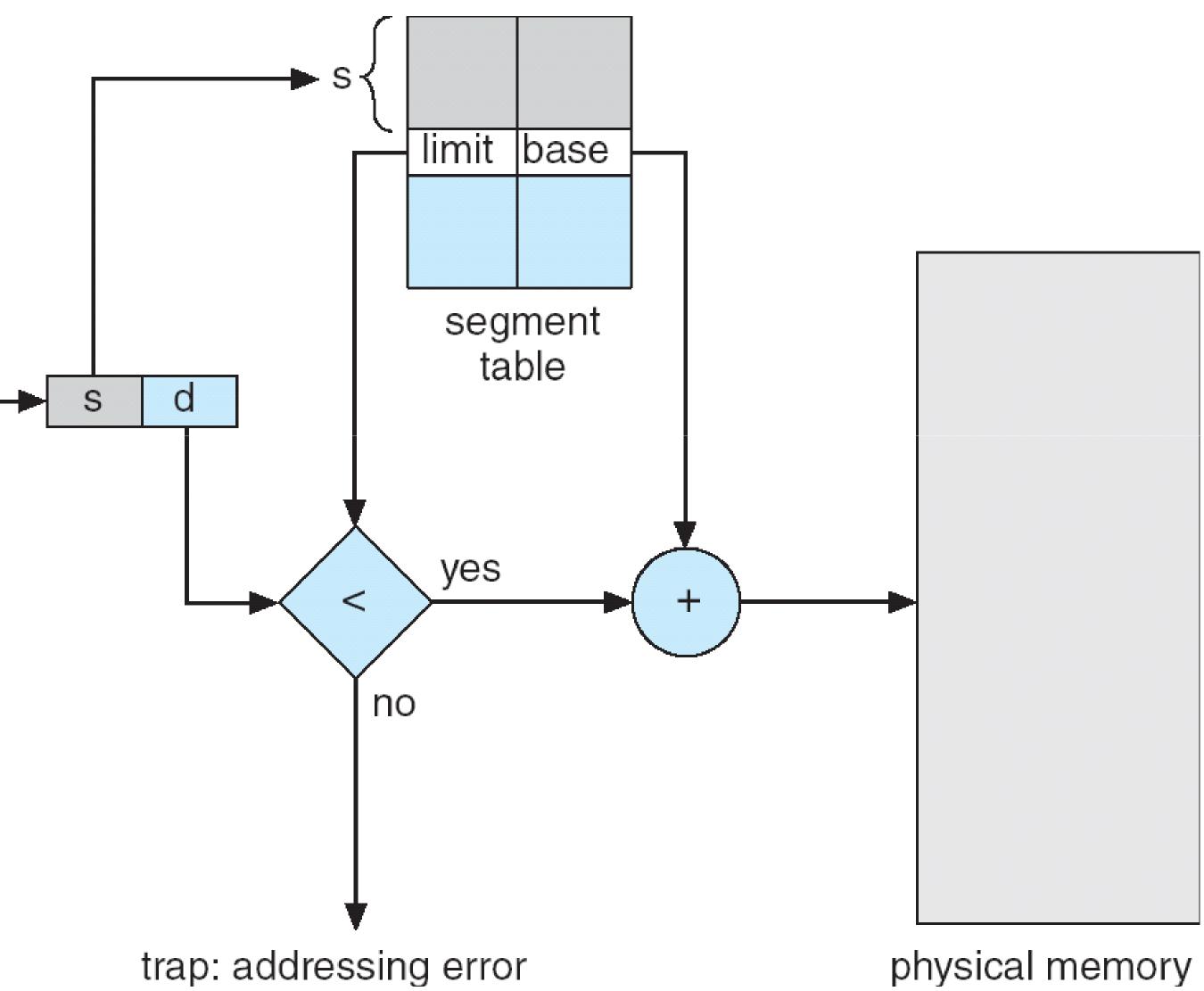
### Segment tables:

- **Base**: starting address of the segment in physical memory.
- **Limit**: length of the segment.

Additional metadata includes protection bits.

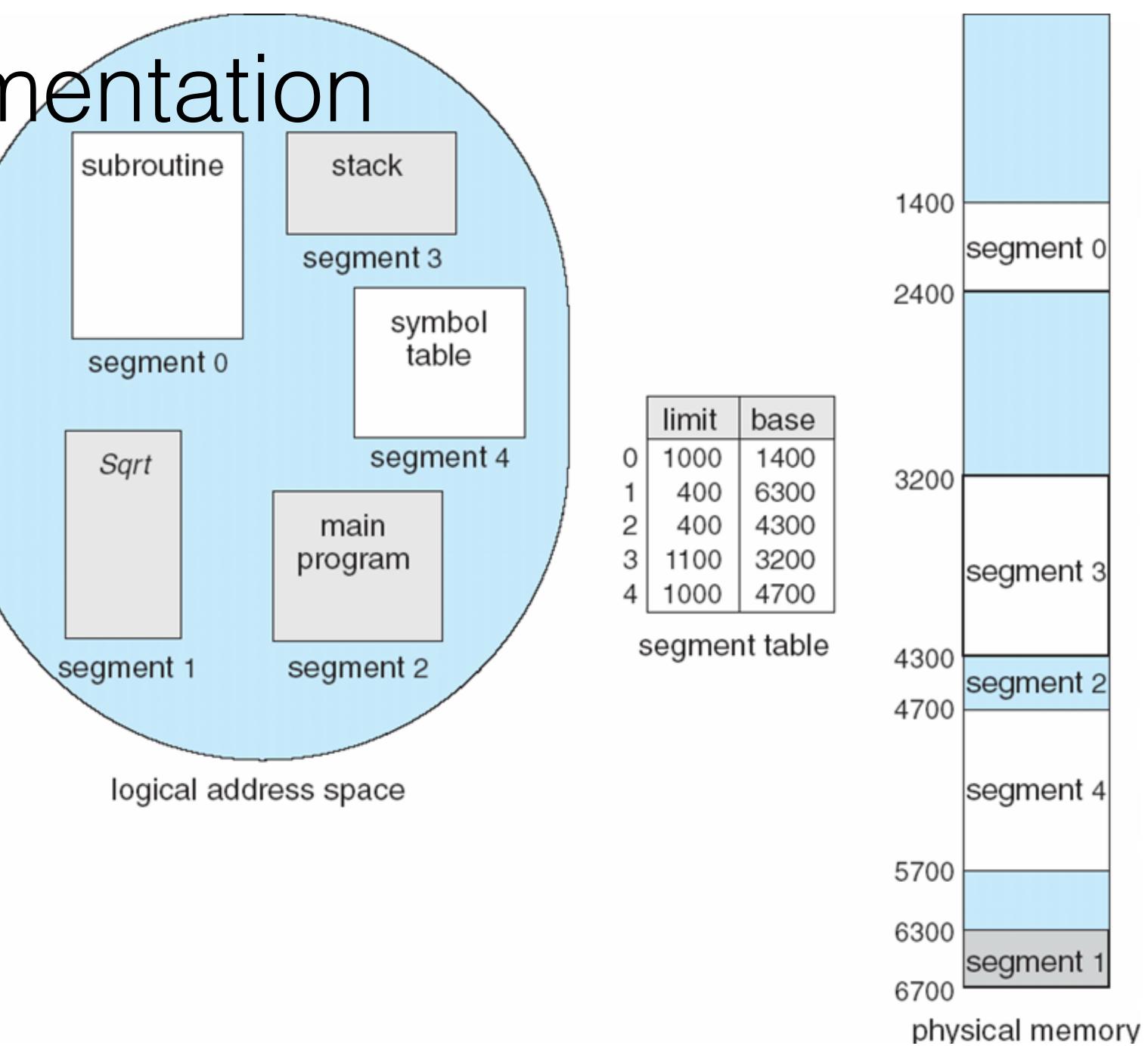
<segment-number, offset>

CPU	



# Example of segmentation

- Logical memory divided into 5 segments.
- Segment 2 is 400
   bytes long and begins at location 4,300.
- Question: What happens if there is a reference to byte 1,222 of segment 0?



### Some questions

### How do paging and segmentation compare with respect to the following issues?

- External fragmentation
- Internal fragmentation
- Ability to share code across processes

### Some questions

# Assuming a 1-KB page size, what are the page numbers and offset for the following address:

- A. 2375
- B. 256

### Some questions

### Segment

What are the physical addresses for the following logical addresses?

a. 0,430 b. 2,500



## Virtual Memory CSE 4001

### Demand paging

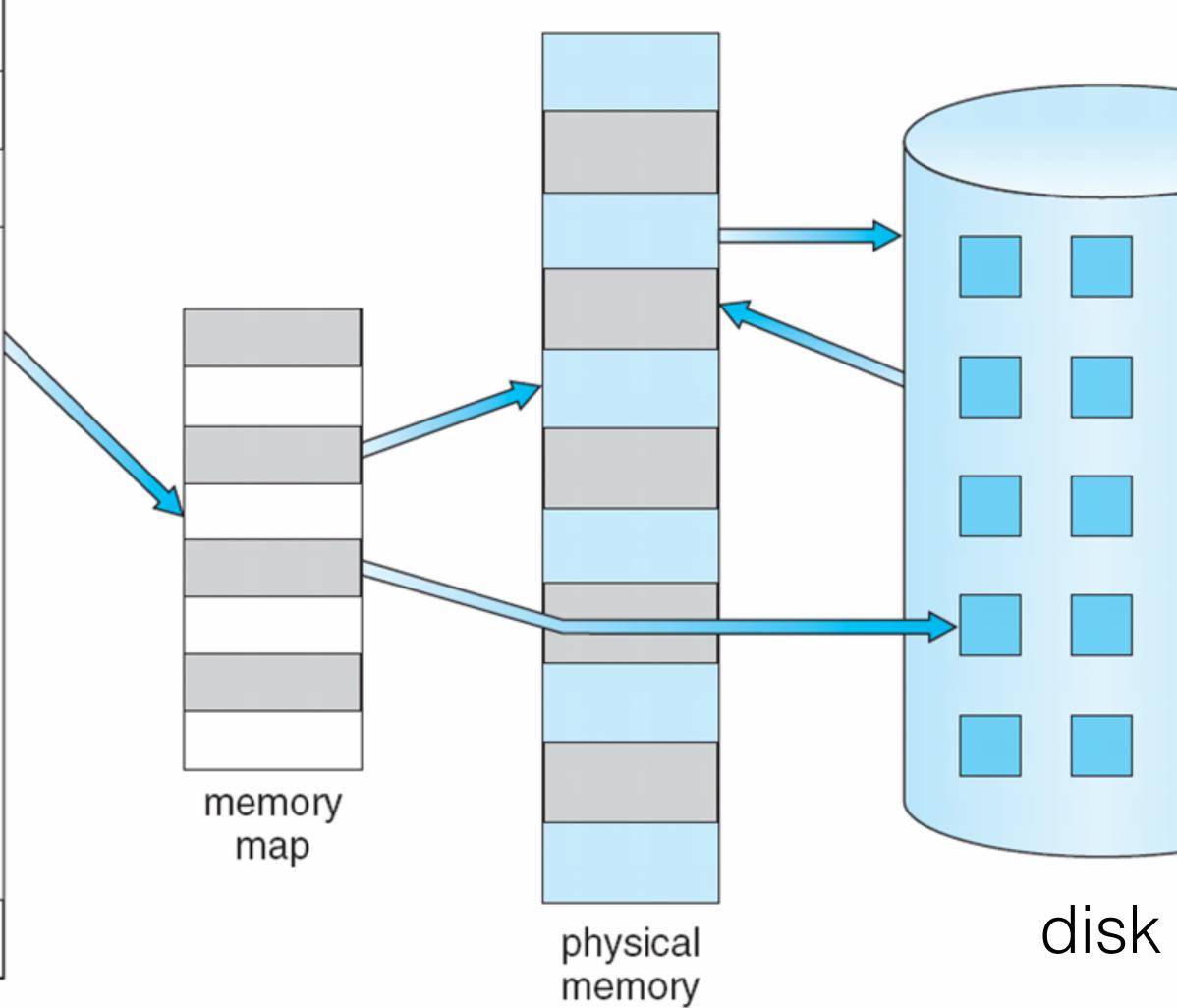
### Content

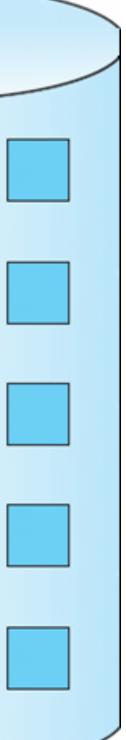
## Virtual Memory

- Separation of user logical memory from physical memory.
- Programs can be partially in memory for execution
- Logical address
   space can be much
   larger than physical
   address space

page 0 page 1 page 2 ٠ page v

> virtual memory





### Implementation

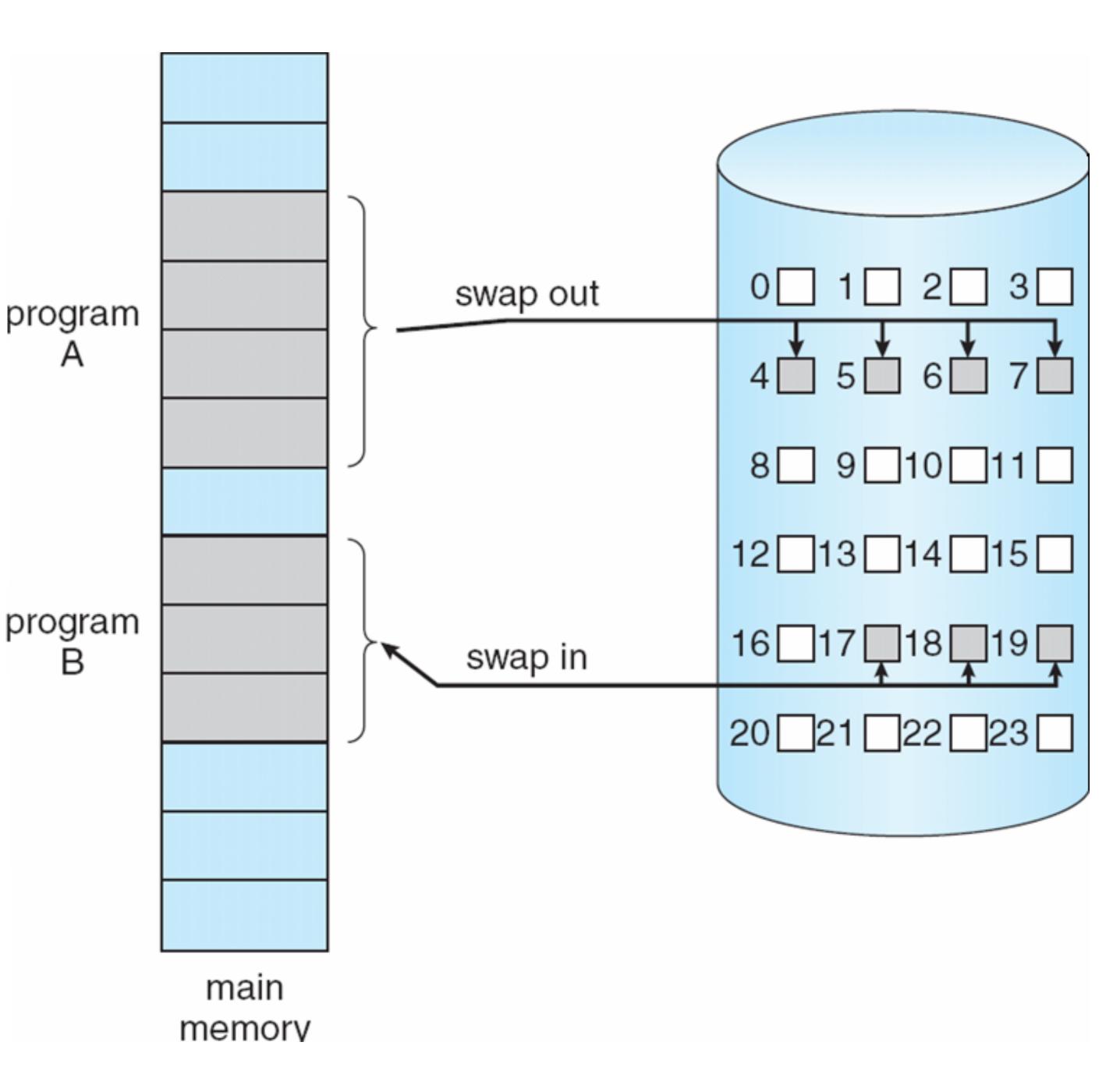
### Virtual memory can be implemented via:

- Demand paging
- Demand segmentation

### Demand paging

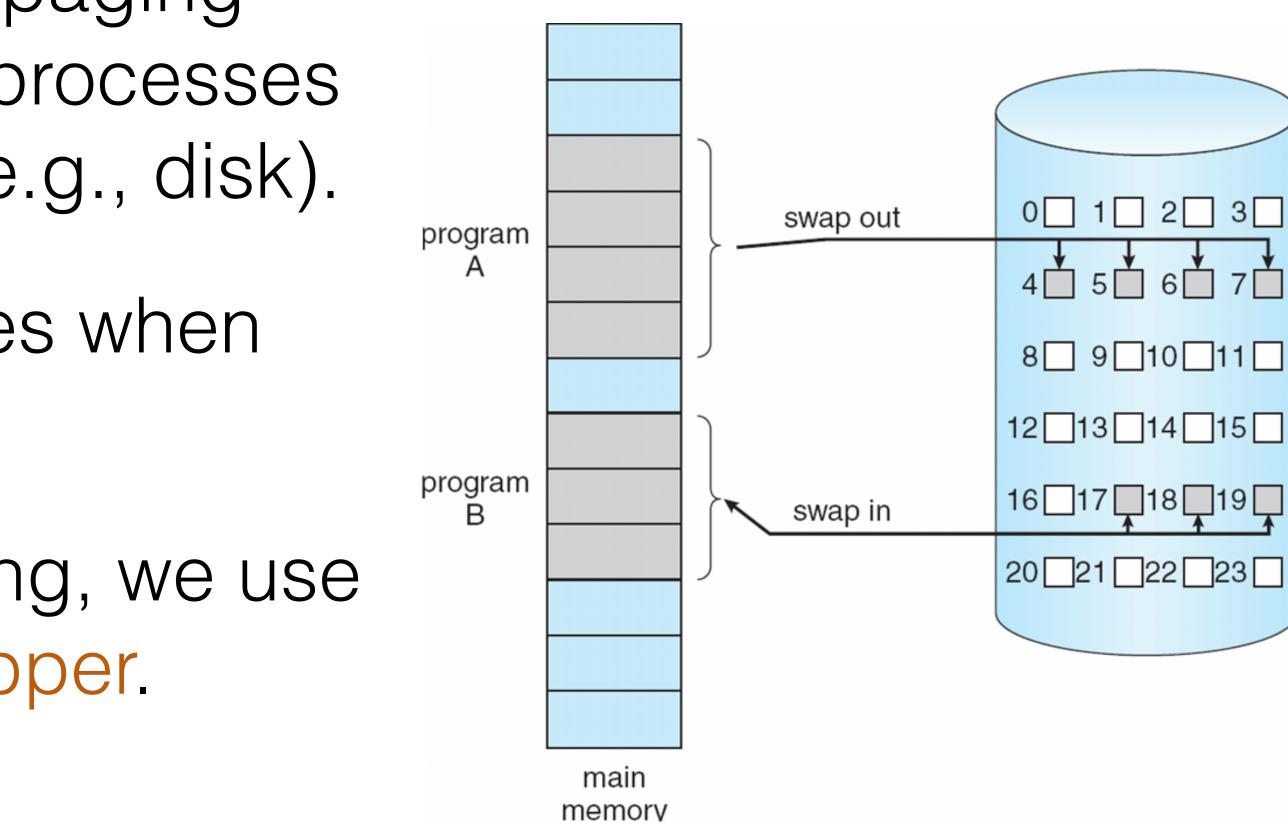
Bring a page into memory only when it is needed:

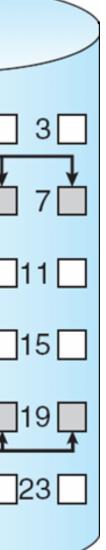
- Less I/O needed
- Less memory needs
- Faster response
- More users



# Demand paging

- Demand paging is similar to a paging system with swapping, where processes reside in secondary memory (e.g., disk).
- Lazy swapper: only bring pages when they are needed.
- In the context of demand paging, we use the term pager instead of swapper.





### Valid-Invalid Bit

- Hardware support is needed to distinguish between the
- the page table.
  - Bit = valid then page is in memory (and is valid).
  - bring it to main memory).

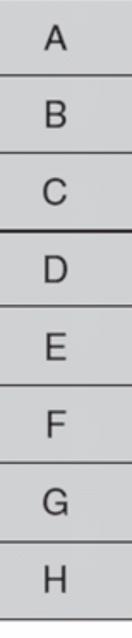
pages that are in memory and the ones that are on the disk. We can re-use the support provided by the valid-invalid bit in

 Bit == invalid then page is either not a valid one for that process or is valid but is currently in disk (pager needs to



### Valid-Invalid Bit

- Marking a page invalid has no effect if the process never attempts to access that page.
- Pages that are in memory are called memory resident.



0

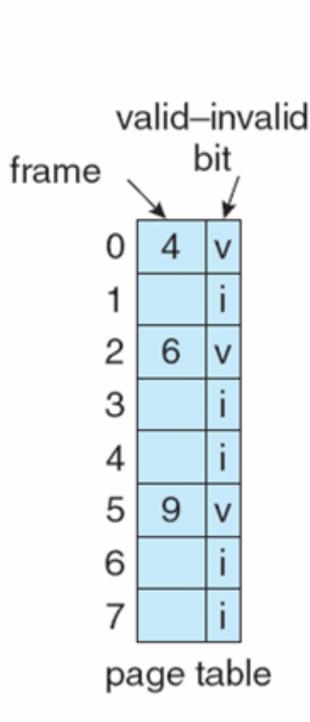
2

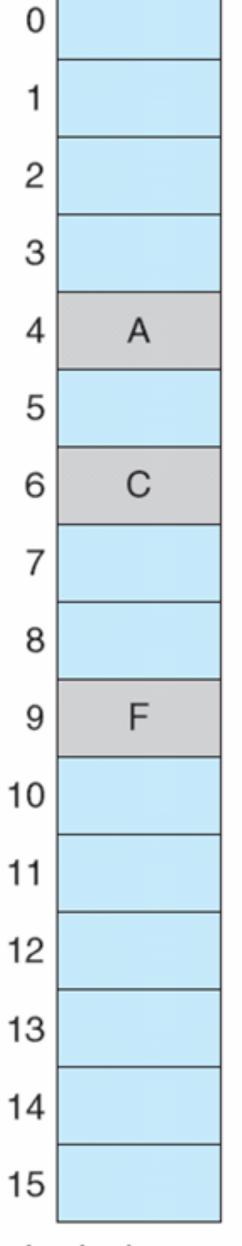
3

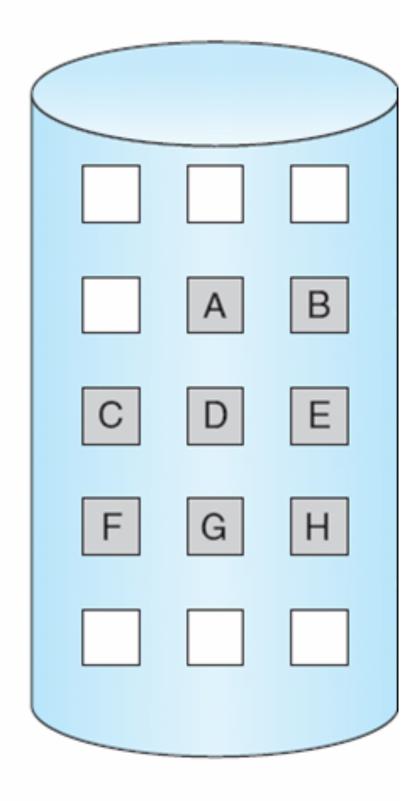
4

5

6







logical memory

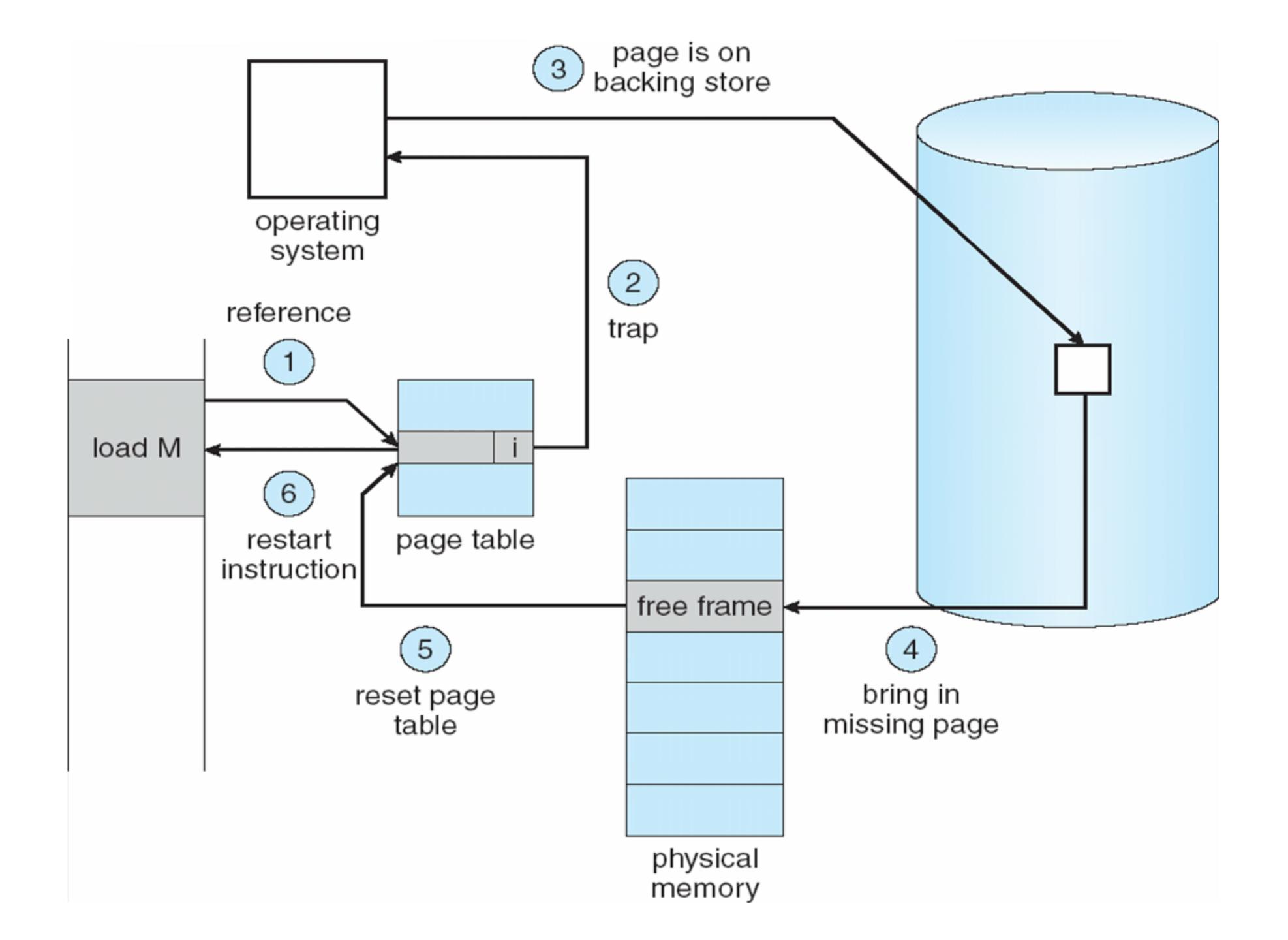
physical memory

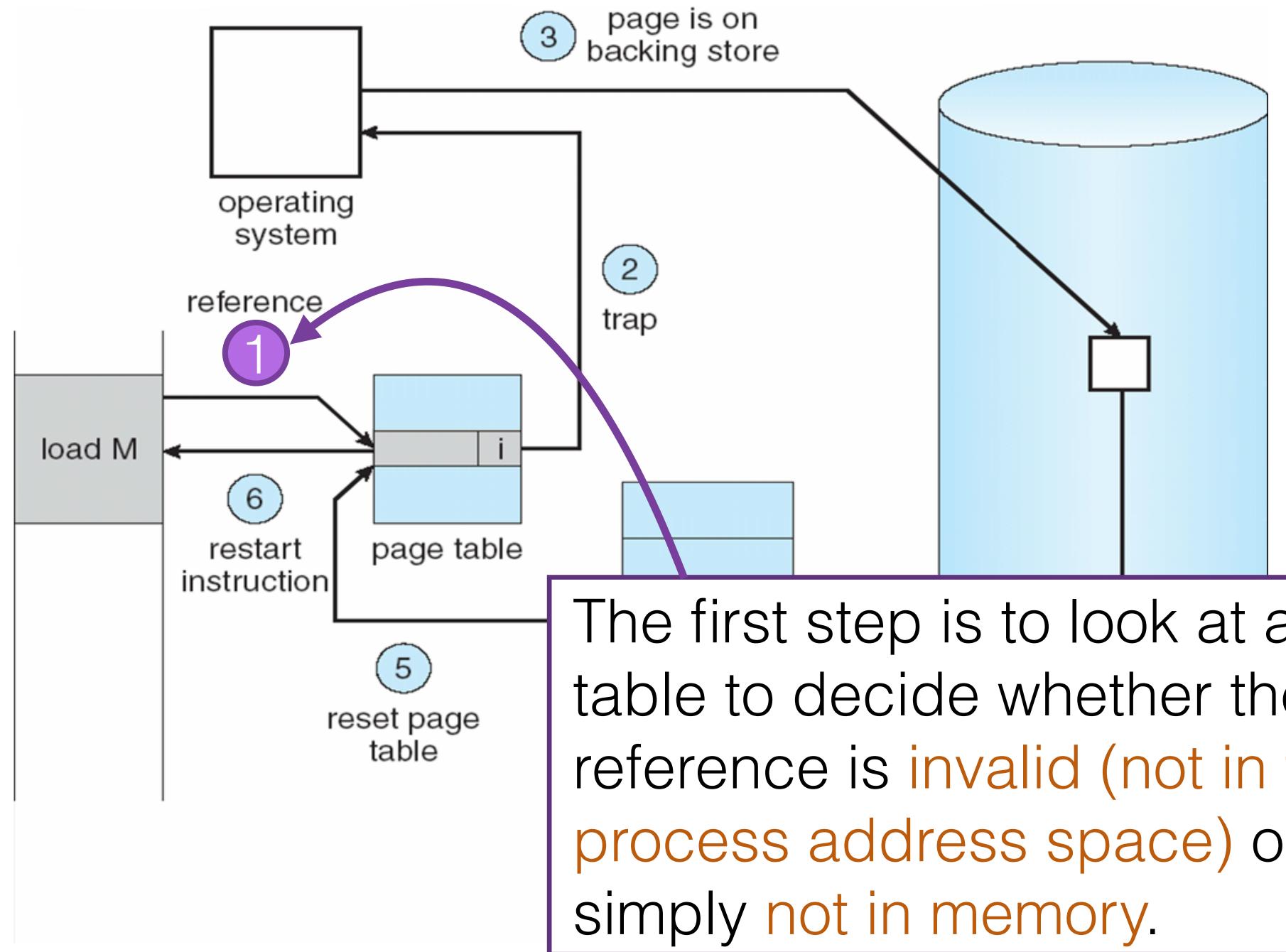
### Page Faults

- pages?
  - bring the desired page into memory.

### What happens when a process tries to access non-resident

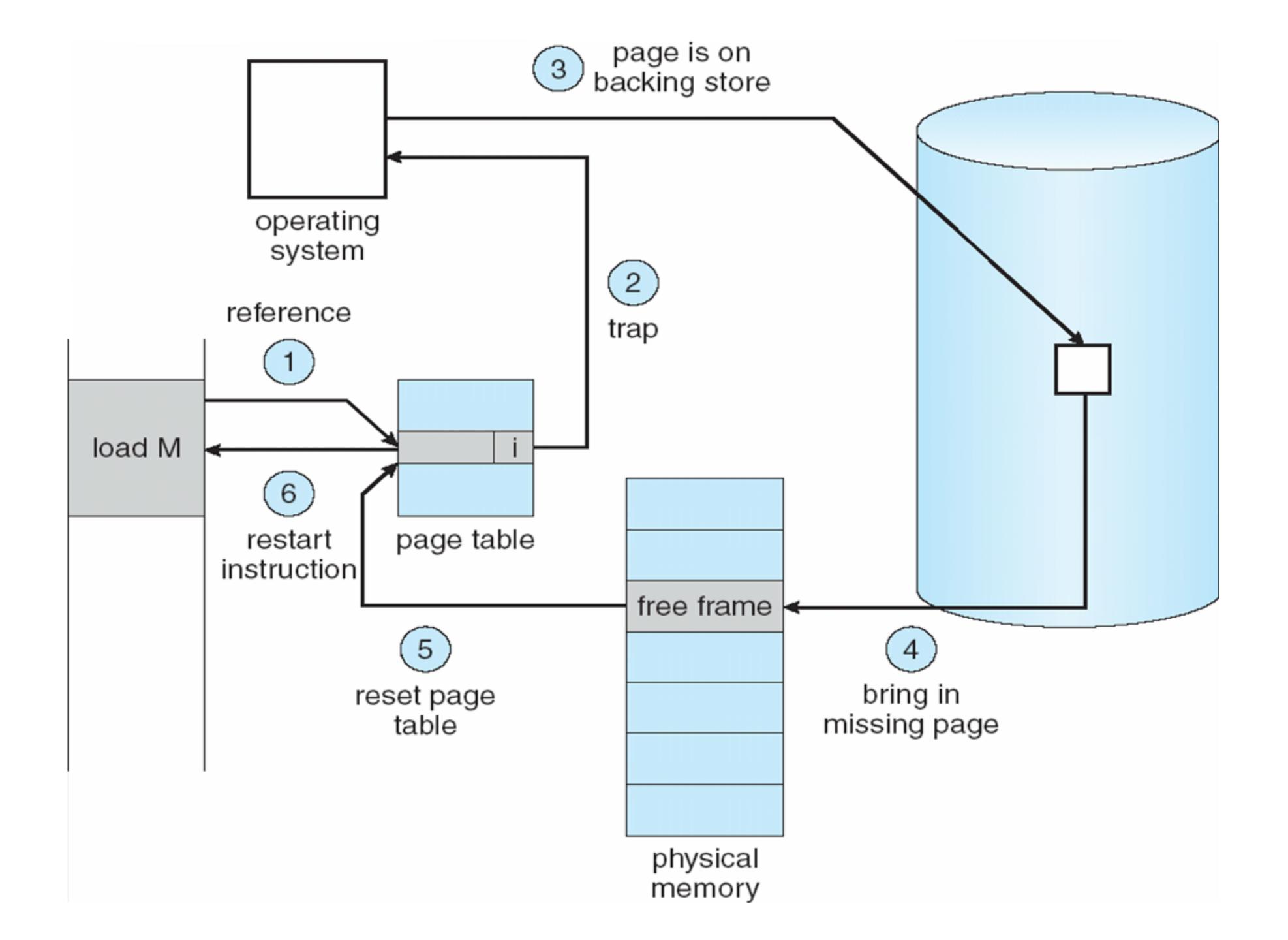
• Page Fault: A trap that results because the OS's failed to

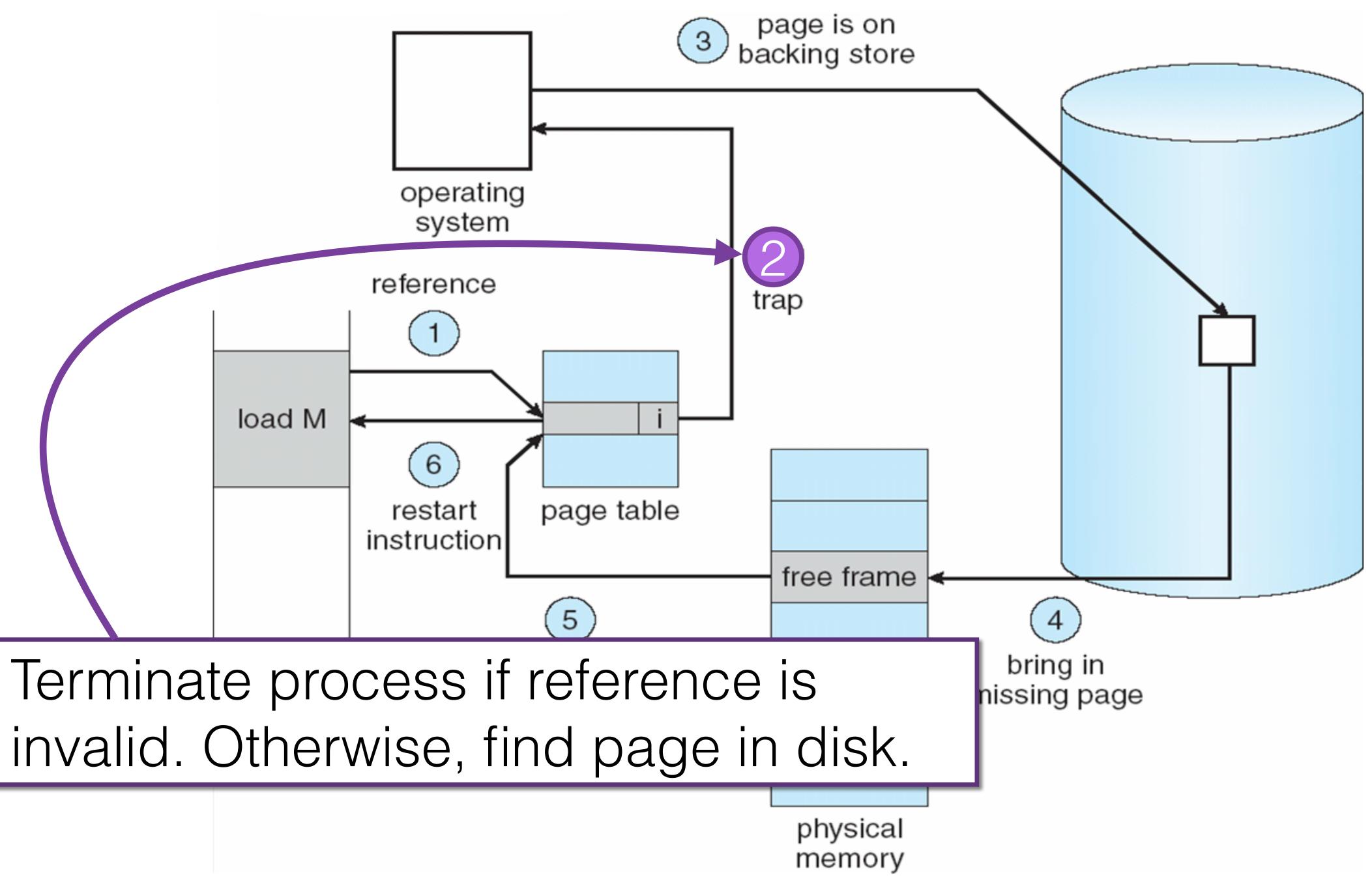


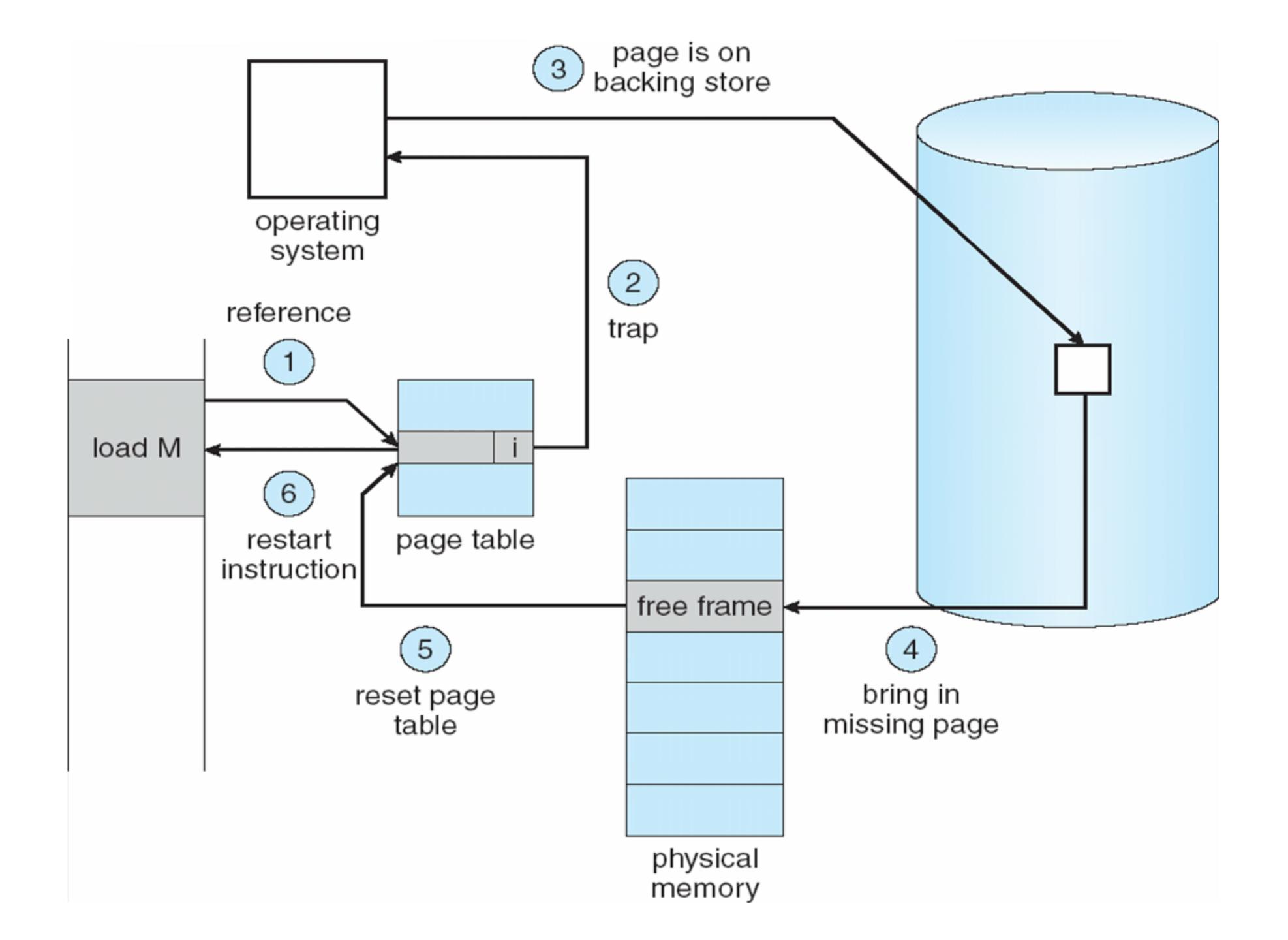


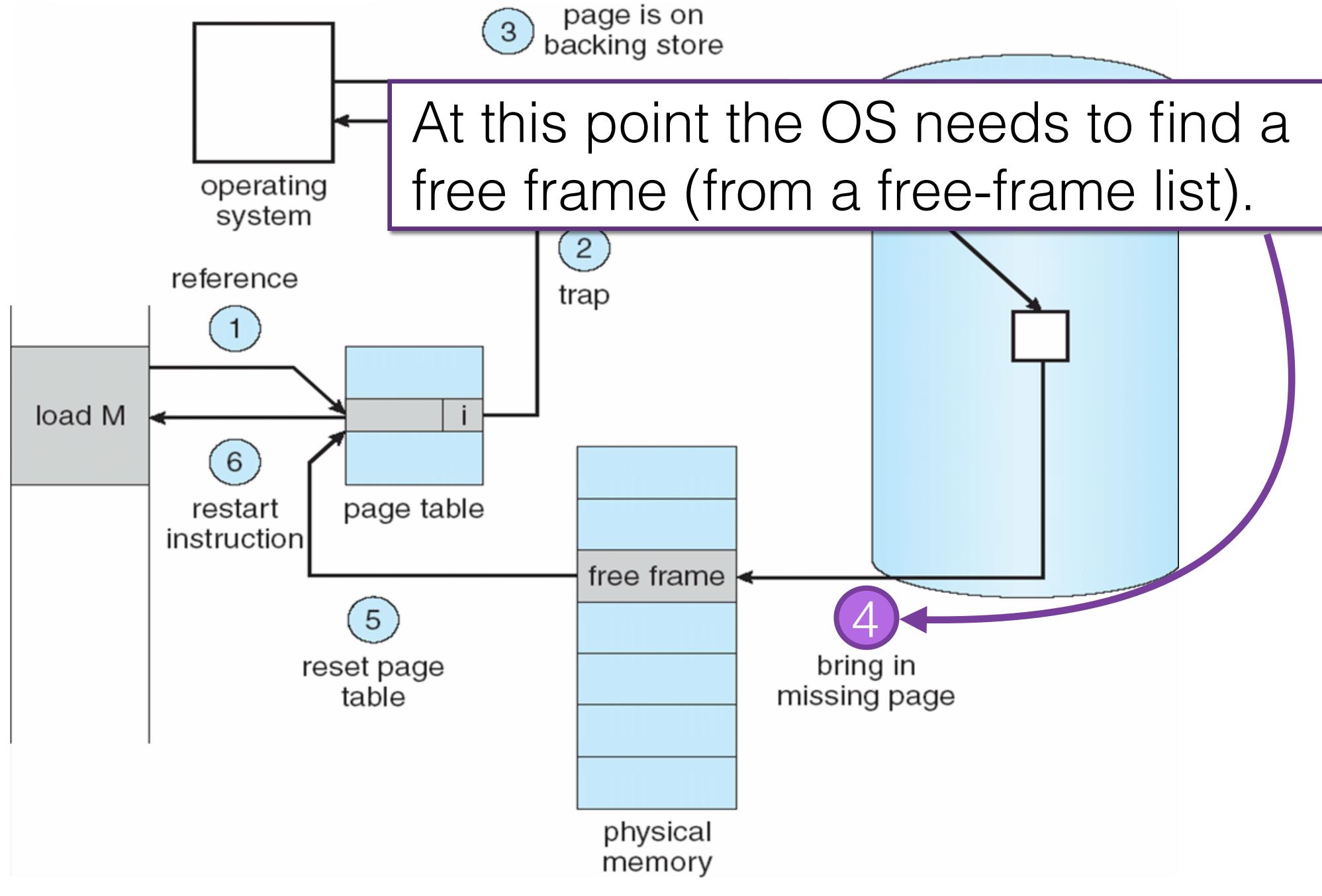
The first step is to look at another table to decide whether the actual reference is invalid (not in the process address space) or is



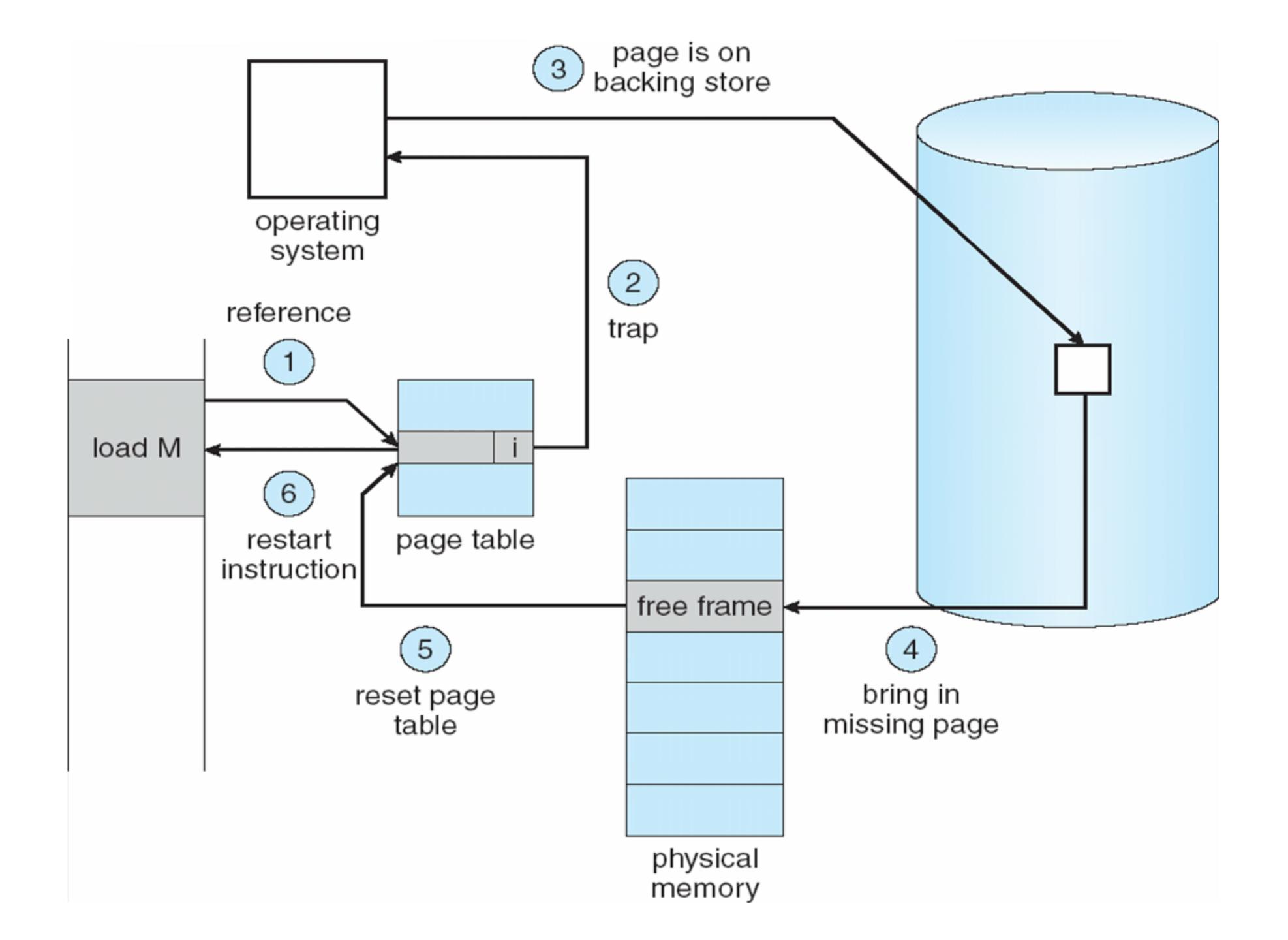






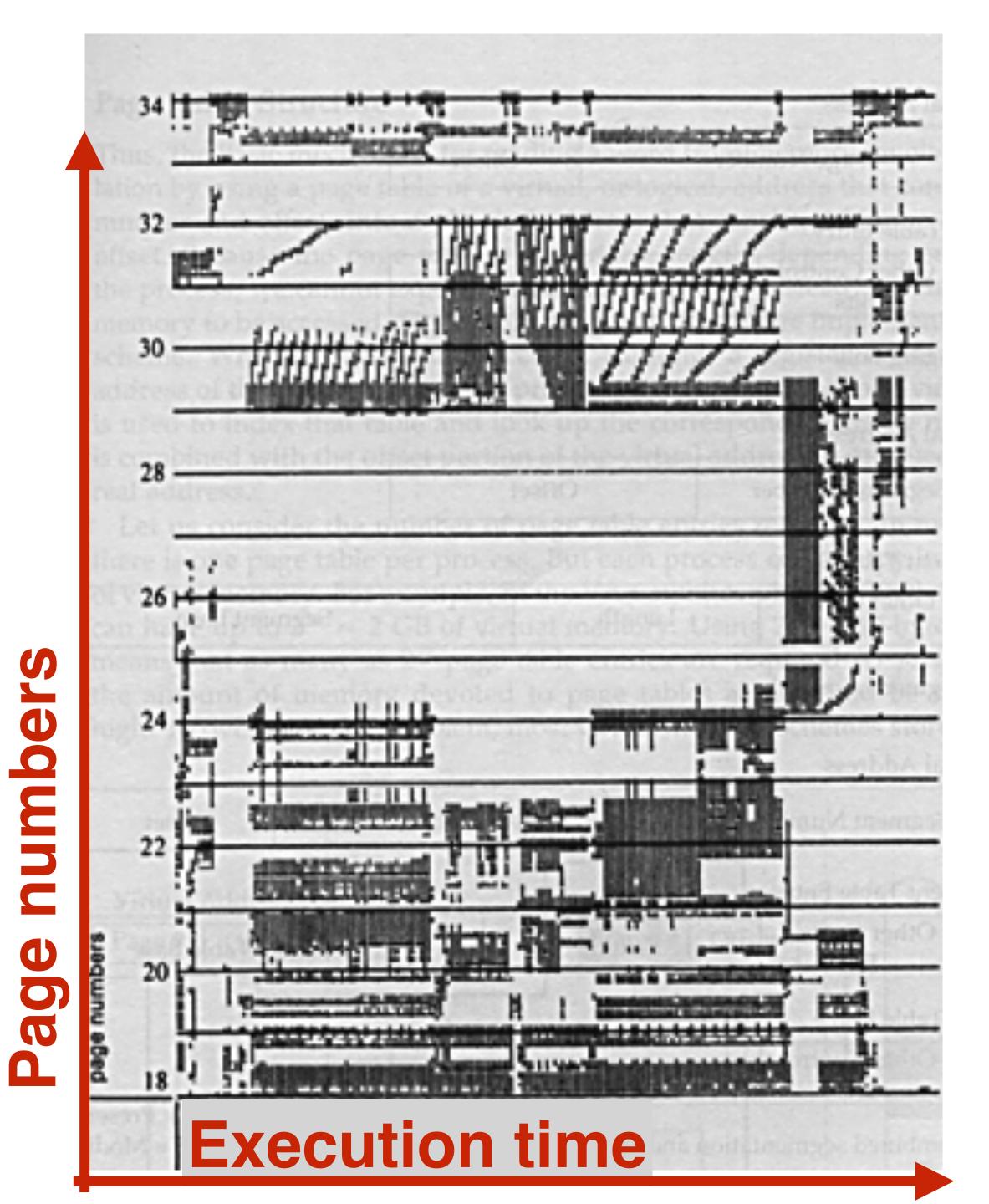






Locality in memory-reference pattern

- Theoretically, some programs could access several new pages with a single instruction.
- In this case, system performance could be seriously degraded.
- Luckily, this behavior is unlikely.



### Writing code with demand-paging in mind...

- Program structure
  - Int[128,128] data;
  - Each row is stored in one page

Program 1

for (j = 0; j <128; j++) for (i = 0; i < 128; i++) data[i,j] = 0;

 $128 \times 128 = 16,384$  page faults

Program 2 for (i = 0;for (j da

128 page faults

# Thrashing

- multiprogramming by adding new processes to the system.
- executing.

 The process does not have "enough" pages, the pagefault rate is very high and CPU becomes sub-utilized.

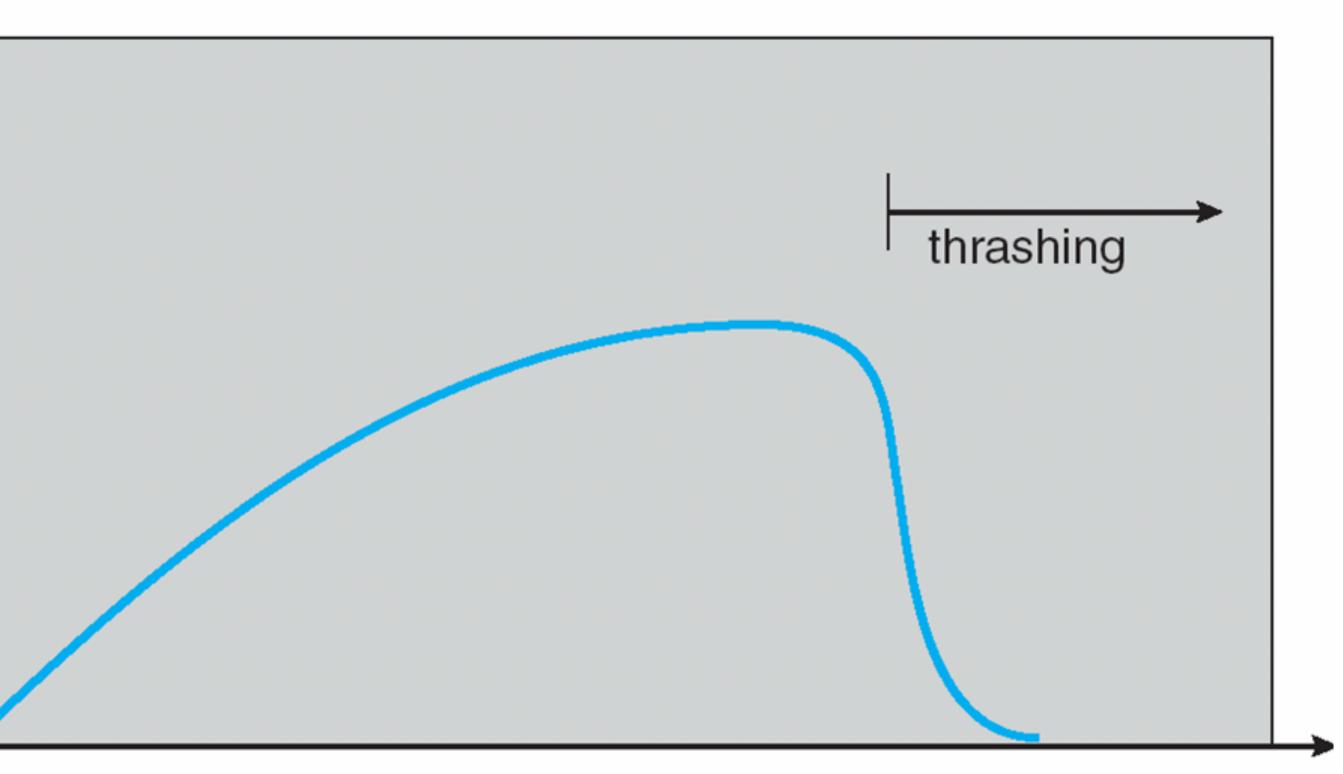
• The OS wants to maximize CPU utilization. As a result, it decides that it is a good idea to increase the degree of

Thrashing: A process is spending more time paging that

### Thrashing

• The OS wants to maximize CPU utilization. As a result, it decides that it is a good idea to increase the degree of multiprogramming by adding new processes to the system.

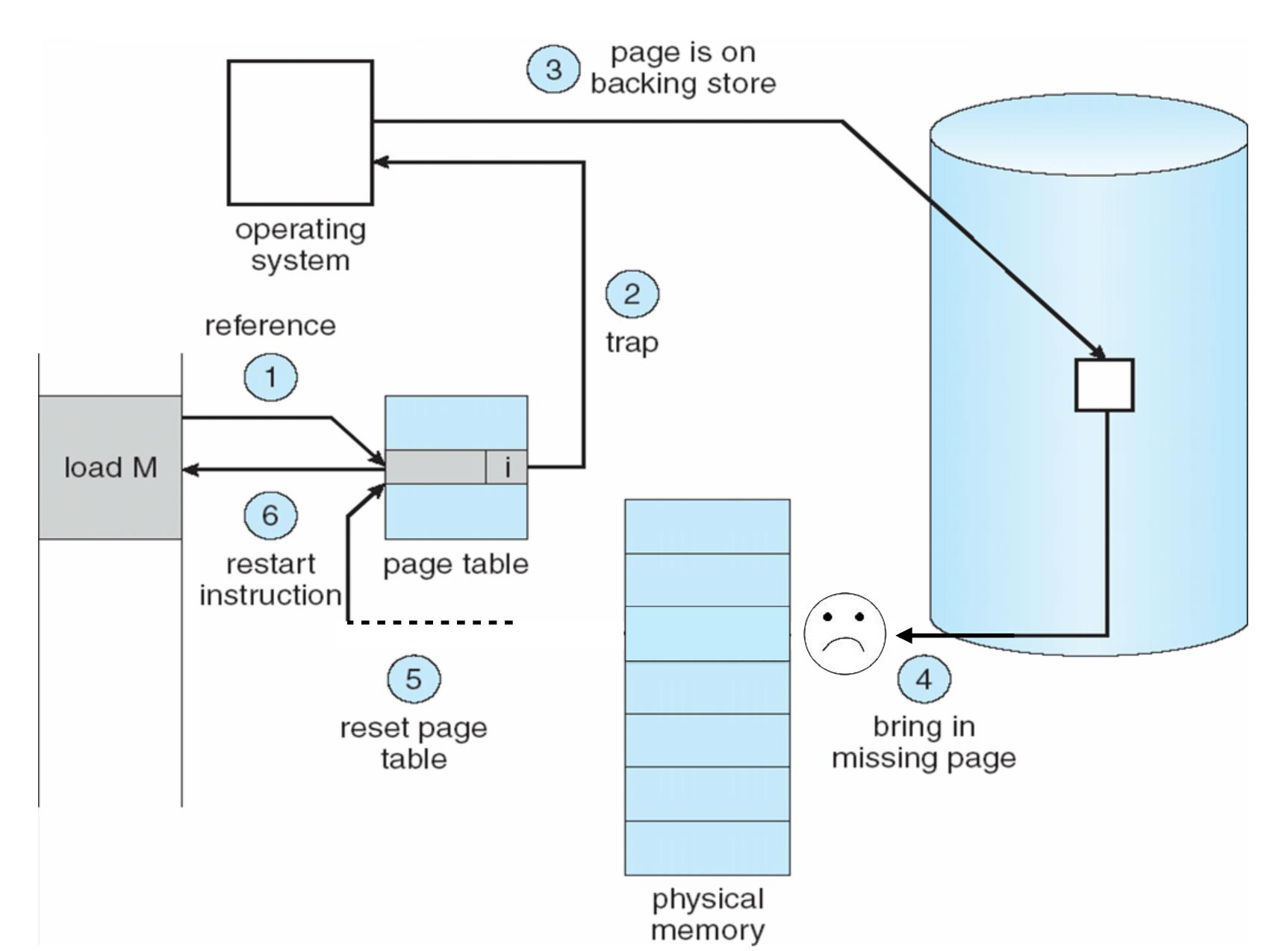
**CPU** utilization



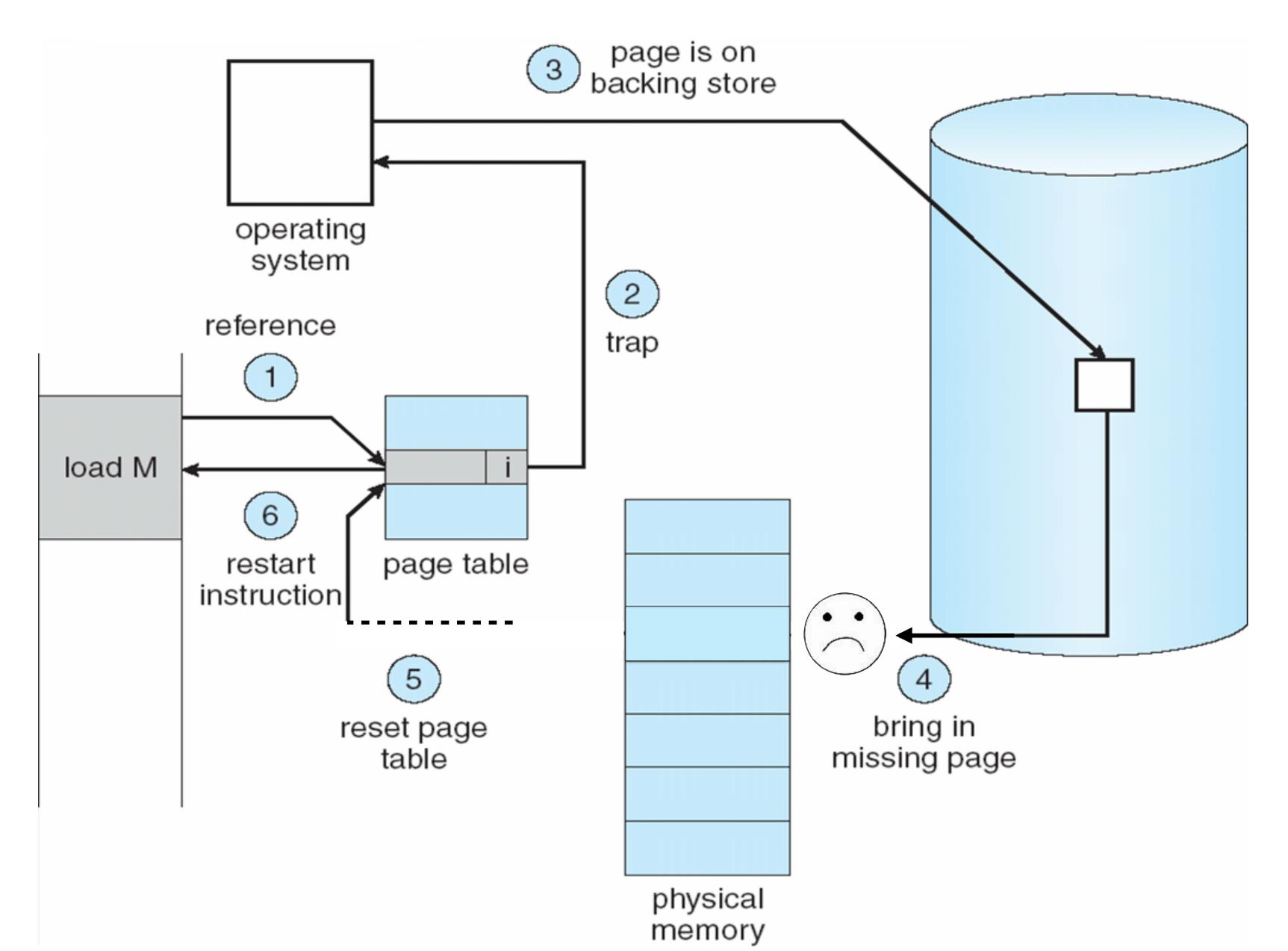
degree of multiprogramming

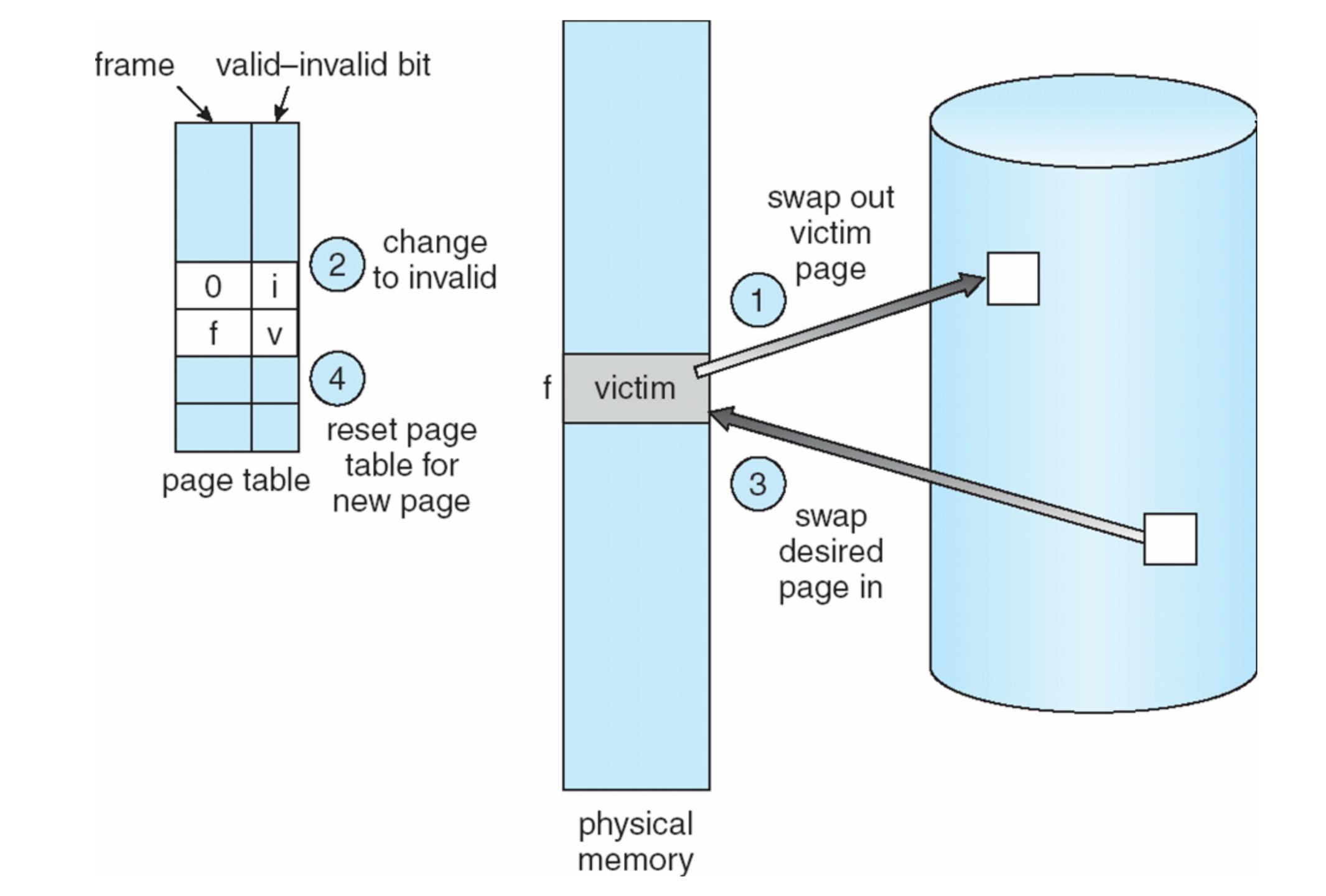


### What happens is there is no free frame?



### What happens is there is no free frame?





## Page-Replacement Algorithms

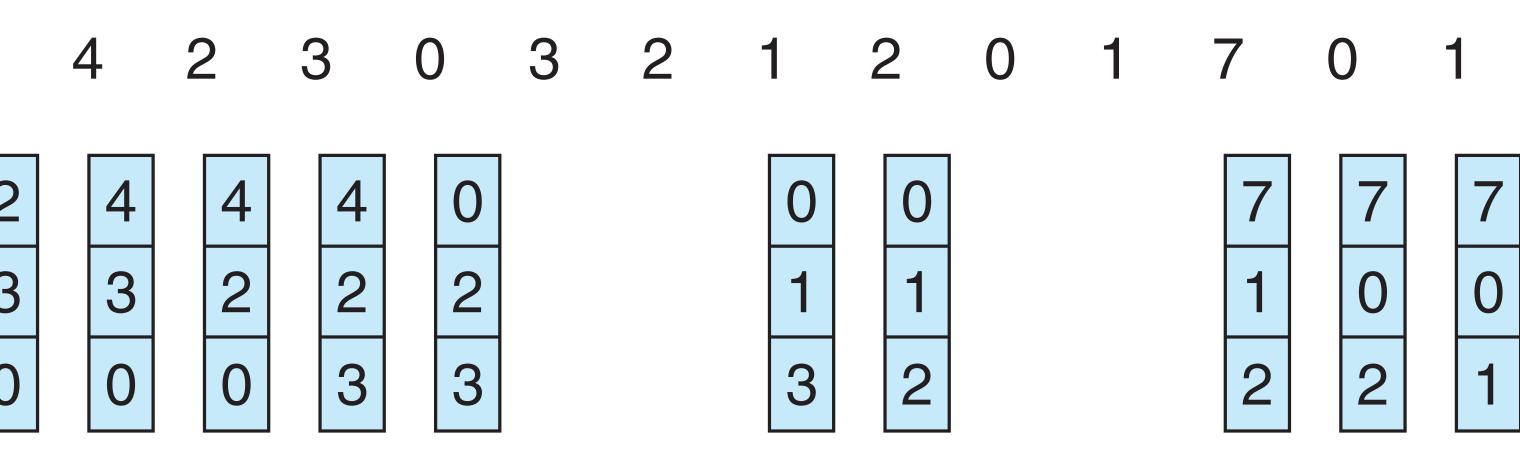
- FIFO algorithm
- Optimal page-replacement algorithm
- Least-recently used (LRU) algorithm
- Second-chance algorithm (clock)

ement algorithm (LRU) algorithm rithm (clock)

# FIFO Algorithms

### reference string 1 2 3 0

page frames



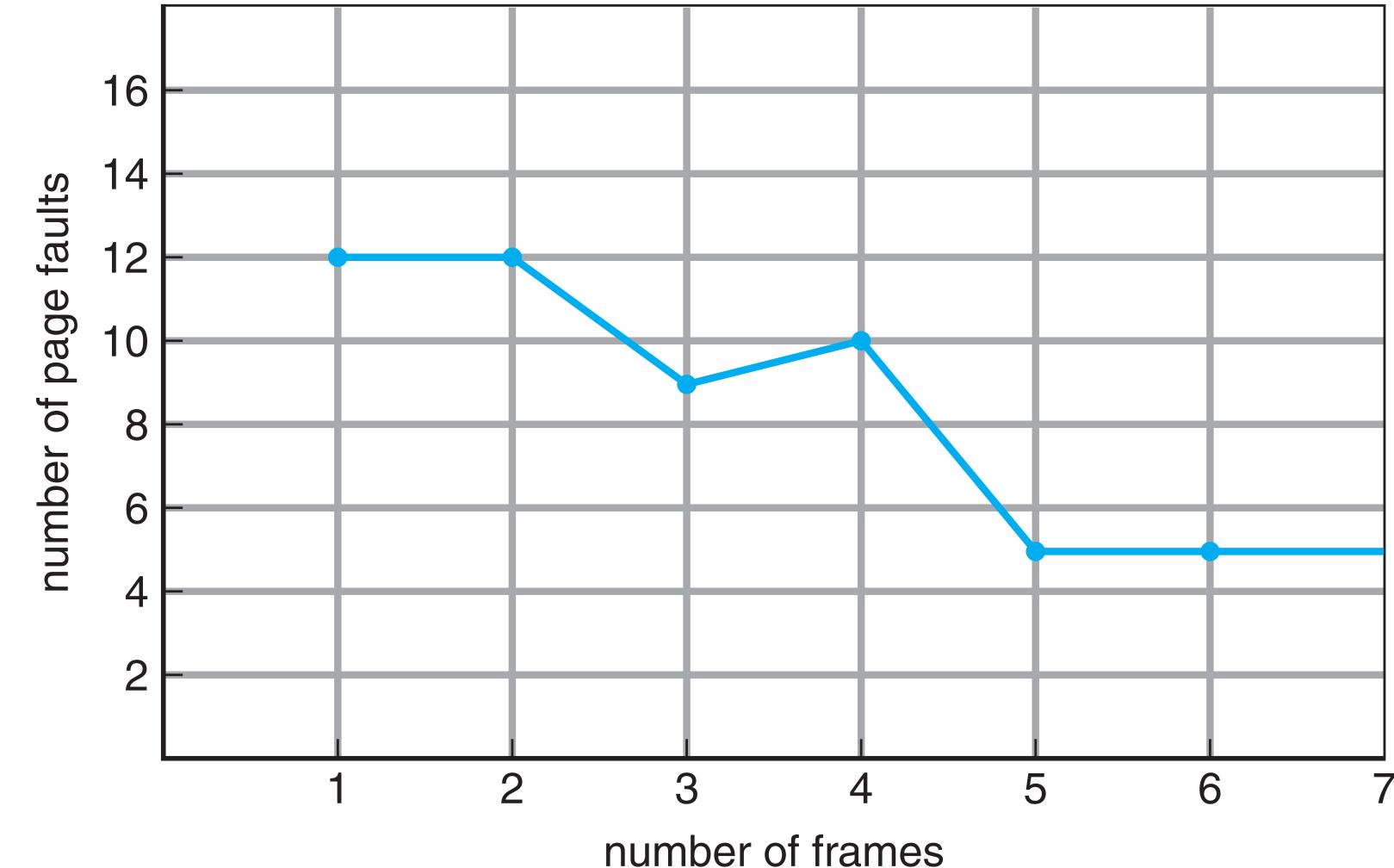


# FIFO Algorithms

1				
	Access	Hit/Miss?	Evict	Resul Cache
	0	Miss		$First-in \rightarrow$
	1	Miss		$First-in \rightarrow$
	2	Miss		$First-in \rightarrow$
	0	Hit		$First-in \rightarrow$
	1	Hit		$First-in \rightarrow$
	3	Miss	0	$First-in \rightarrow$
	0	Miss	1	$First-in \rightarrow$
	3	Hit		$First-in \rightarrow$
	1	Miss	2	$First-in \rightarrow$
	2	Miss	3	$First-in \rightarrow$
	1	Hit		First-in→

vict	Resulting Cache State			
	$First-in \rightarrow$	0		
	$First-in \rightarrow$	0, 1		
	$First-in \rightarrow$	0, 1, 2		
	$First-in \rightarrow$	0, 1, 2		
	$First-in \rightarrow$	0, 1, 2		
0	$First-in \rightarrow$	1, 2, 3		
1	$First-in \rightarrow$	2, 3, 0		
	$First-in \rightarrow$	2, 3, 0		
2	$First-in \rightarrow$	3, 0, 1		
3	$First-in \rightarrow$	0, 1, 2		
	$First-in \rightarrow$	0, 1, 2		



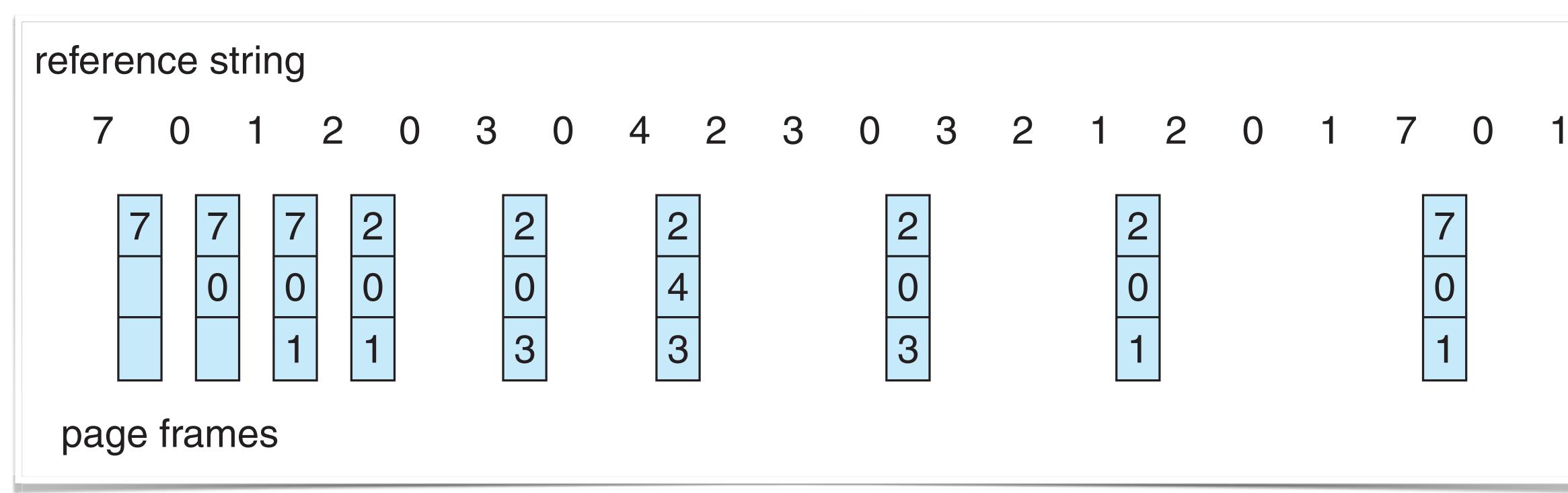


**Paper:** L. A. Belady, R. A. Nelson, G. S. Shedler, An anomaly in space-time char- acteristics of certain programs running in paging machine, Comm. ACM, 12, 1 (1969) 349-353.

### Belady's anomaly

# **Optimal Algorithm**

# **Policy**: Replace the page that will not be used for the longest period of time.





and the second second

Optimal Algorithm								
Access	Hit/Miss?	Evict	Resulting Cache State					
0	Miss		0					
1	Miss		0, 1					
2	Miss		0, 1, 2					
0	Hit		0, 1, 2					
1	Hit		0, 1, 2					
3	Miss	2	0, 1, 3					
0	Hit		0, 1, 3					
3	Hit		0, 1, 3					
1	Hit		0, 1, 3					
2	Miss	3	0, 1, 2					
1	Hit		0, 1, 2					

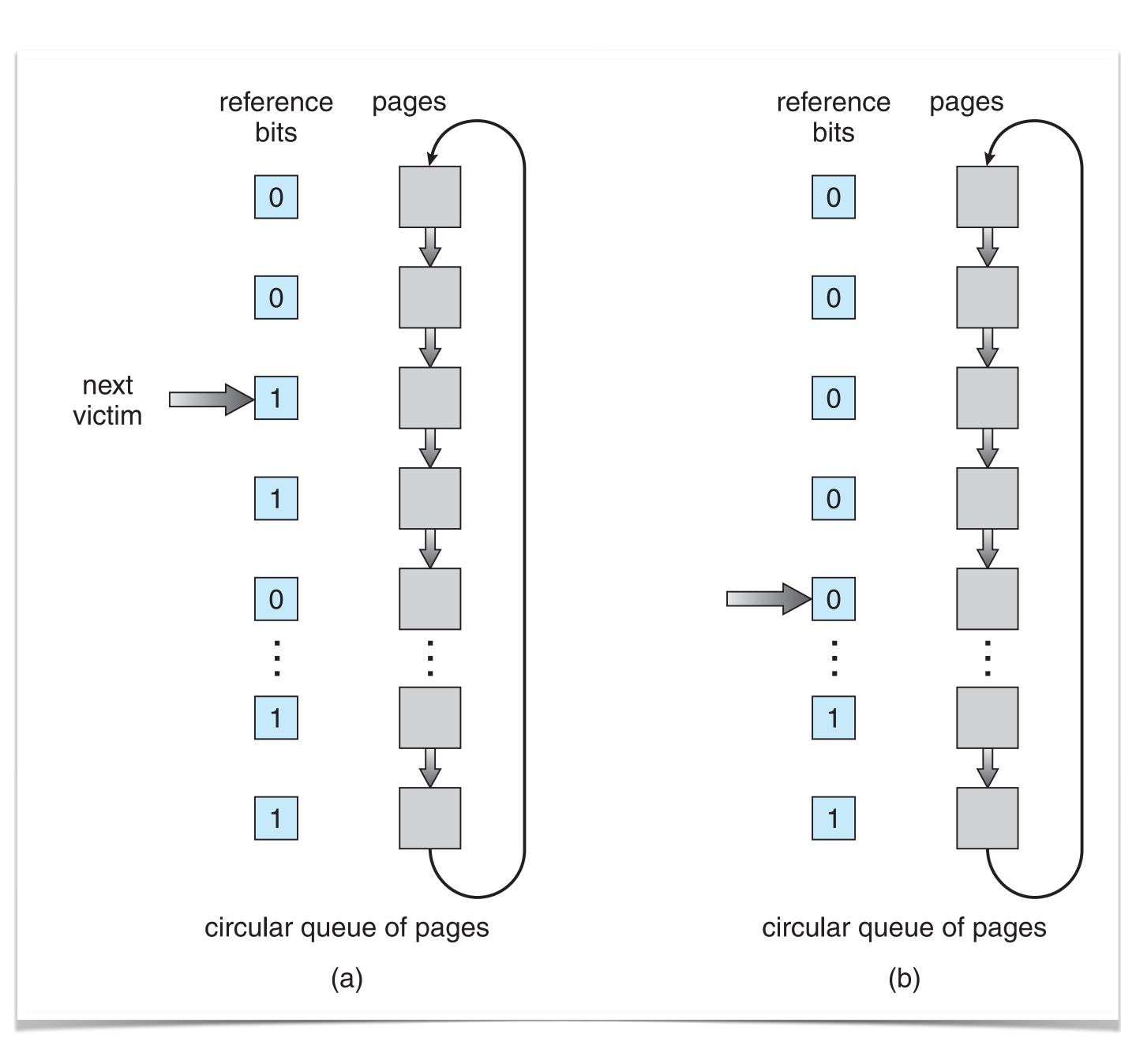
# LRU Algorithm

			Resulting	
Access	Hit/Miss?	Evict	Cache State	
0	Miss		$LRU \rightarrow$	0
1	Miss		$LRU \rightarrow$	0, 1
2	Miss		$LRU \rightarrow$	0, 1, 2
0	Hit		$LRU \rightarrow$	1, 2, 0
1	Hit		$LRU \rightarrow$	2, 0, 1
3	Miss	2	$LRU \rightarrow$	0, 1, 3
0	Hit		$LRU \rightarrow$	1, 3, 0
3	Hit		$LRU \rightarrow$	1, 0, 3
1	Hit		$LRU \rightarrow$	0, 3, 1
2	Miss	0	$LRU \rightarrow$	3, 1, 2
1	Hit		$LRU \rightarrow$	3, 2, 1

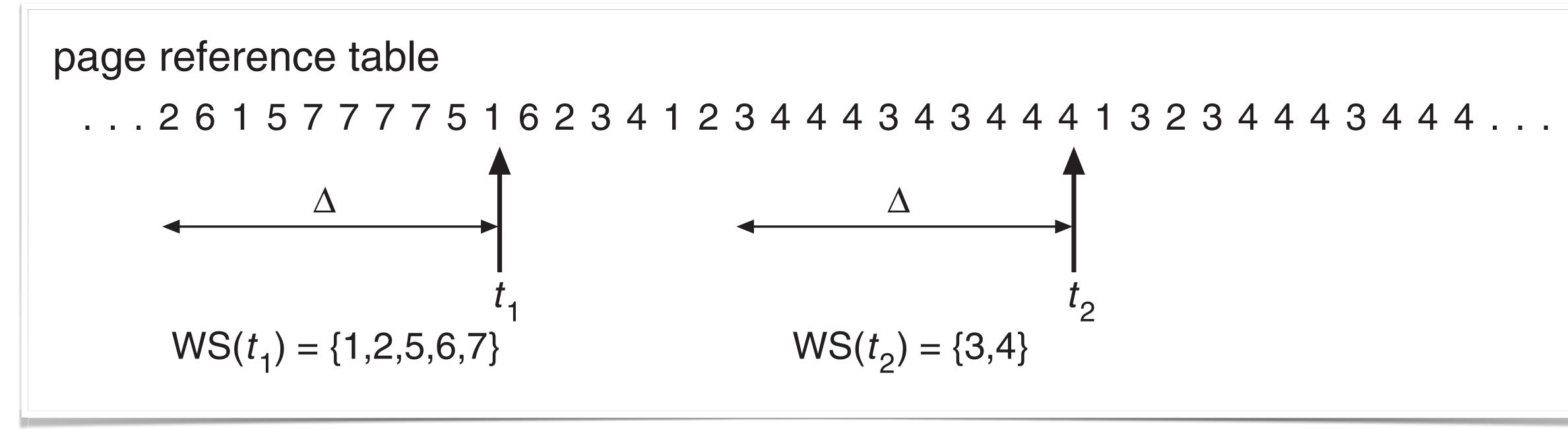
### Second-chance Algorithm

- Whenever a page is referenced, the hardware sets the reference bit to 1.
- The O.S. sets the reference bit to 0 according to some policy.
- Evicting is free if page is not *dirty*.

- Clock prioritize scan for pages that are both unused and clean.

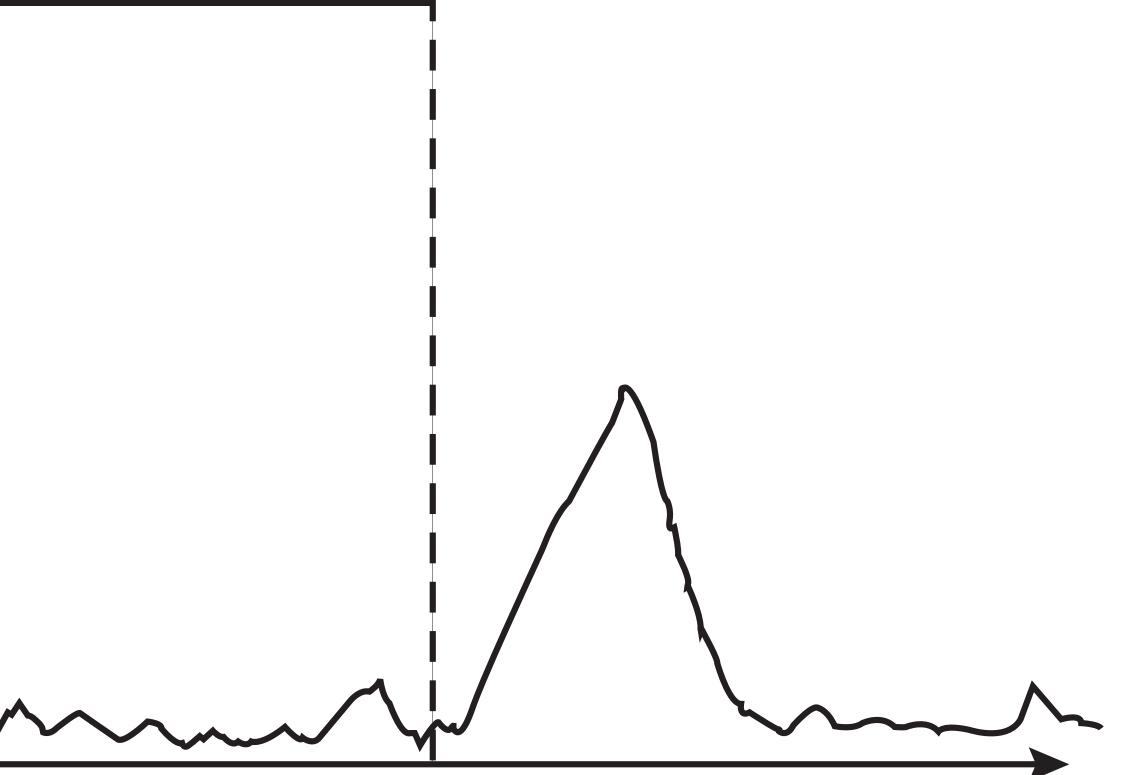


## Working-set Model





# Working Sets and Page-fault frequency working set page fault rate



time