Memory 4: Demand Paging Policies

March 15\textsuperscript{th}, 2022
Prof. Anthony Joseph and John Kubiatowicz
http://cs162.eecs.Berkeley.edu
What TLB Organization Makes Sense?

- Needs to be really fast
  - Critical path of memory access
    » In simplest view: before the cache
    » Thus, this adds to access time (reducing cache speed)
  - Seems to argue for Direct Mapped or Low Associativity
- However, needs to have very few conflicts!
  - With TLB, the Miss Time extremely high! (PT traversal)
  - Cost of Conflict (Miss Time) is high
  - Hit Time – dictated by clock cycle
- Thrashing: continuous conflicts between accesses
  - What if use low order bits of virtual page number as index into TLB?
    » First page of code, data, stack may map to same entry
    » Need 3-way associativity at least?
  - What if use high order bits as index?
    » TLB mostly unused for small programs
TLB organization: include protection

• How big does TLB actually have to be?
  – Usually small: 128-512 entries (larger now)
  – Not very big, can support higher associativity

• Small TLBs usually organized as fully-associative cache
  – Lookup is by Virtual Address
  – Returns Physical Address + other info

• What happens when fully-associative is too slow?
  – Put a small (4-16 entry) direct-mapped cache in front
  – Called a “TLB Slice”

• Example for MIPS R3000:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Virtual Address</th>
<th>Physical Address</th>
<th>Dirty</th>
<th>Ref</th>
<th>Valid</th>
<th>Access</th>
<th>ASID</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0xFA00</td>
<td>0x0003</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>R/W</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x0040</td>
<td>0x0010</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0x0041</td>
<td>0x0011</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>R</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Example: R3000 pipeline includes TLB “stages”

MIPS R3000 Pipeline

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inst Fetch</th>
<th>Dcd/ Reg</th>
<th>ALU / E.A</th>
<th>Memory</th>
<th>Write Reg</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TLB</td>
<td>I-Cache</td>
<td>RF</td>
<td>Operation</td>
<td>WB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.A</td>
<td>TLB</td>
<td>D-Cache</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TLB
64 entry, on-chip, fully associative, software TLB fault handler

Virtual Address Space

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ASID</th>
<th>V. Page Number</th>
<th>Offset</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

0xx User segment (caching based on PT/TLB entry)
100 Kernel physical space, cached
101 Kernel physical space, uncached
11x Kernel virtual space

Allows context switching among
64 user processes without TLB flush
Reducing translation time for physically-indexed caches

- As described, TLB lookup is in serial with cache lookup
  - Consequently, speed of TLB can impact speed of access to cache

- Machines with TLBs go one step further: overlap TLB lookup with cache access
  - Works because offset available early
  - Offset in virtual address exactly covers the “cache index” and “byte select”
  - Thus can select the cached byte(s) in parallel to perform address translation
Overlapping TLB & Cache Access

• Here is how this might work with a 4K cache:

  - What if cache size is increased to 8KB?
    - Overlap not complete
    - Need to do something else. See CS152/252

• Another option: Virtual Caches would make this faster
  - Tags in cache are virtual addresses
  - Translation only happens on cache misses
Current Intel x86 (Skylake, Cascade Lake)
Current Example: Memory Hierarchy

- Caches (all 64 B line size)
  - L1 I-Cache: 32 KiB/core, 8-way set assoc.
  - L1 D Cache: 32 KiB/core, 8-way set assoc., 4-5 cycles load-to-use, Write-back policy
  - L2 Cache: 1 MiB/core, 16-way set assoc., Inclusive, Write-back policy, 14 cycles latency
  - L3 Cache: 1.375 MiB/core, 11-way set assoc., shared across cores, Non-inclusive victim cache, Write-back policy, 50-70 cycles latency

- TLB
  - L1 ITLB, 128 entries; 8-way set assoc. for 4 KB pages
    » 8 entries per thread; fully associative, for 2 MiB / 4 MiB page
  - L1 DTLB 64 entries; 4-way set associative for 4 KB pages
    » 32 entries; 4-way set associative, 2 MiB / 4 MiB page translations:
    » 4 entries; 4-way associative, 1GiB page translations:
  - L2 STLB: 1536 entries; 12-way set assoc. 4 KiB + 2 MiB pages
    » 16 entries; 4-way set associative, 1 GiB page translations:
What happens on a Context Switch?

• Need to do something, since TLBs map virtual addresses to physical addresses
  – Address Space just changed, so TLB entries no longer valid!

• Options?
  – Invalidate TLB: simple but might be expensive
    » What if switching frequently between processes?
  – Include ProcessID in TLB
    » This is an architectural solution: needs hardware

• What if translation tables change?
  – For example, to move page from memory to disk or vice versa…
  – Must invalidate TLB entry!
    » Otherwise, might think that page is still in memory!
  – Called “TLB Consistency”

• Aside: with Virtually-Indexed cache, need to flush cache!
  – Rember, everyone has their own version of the address “0”!
Putting Everything Together: Address Translation

Virtual Address:
- Virtual P1 index
- Virtual P2 index
- Offset

Page Table Pointer

Page Table (1st level)

Page Table (2nd level)

Physical Address:
- Physical Page #
- Offset

Physical Memory:
Putting Everything Together: TLB

Virtual Address:

Page Table (1st level)

Page Table (2nd level)

TLB:

Physical Address:

Physical Memory:
Putting Everything Together: Cache
Page Fault

• The Virtual-to-Physical Translation fails
  – PTE marked invalid, Priv. Level Violation, Access violation, or does not exist
  – Causes an Fault / Trap
    » Not an interrupt because synchronous to instruction execution
  – May occur on instruction fetch or data access
  – Protection violations typically terminate the instruction

• Other Page Faults engage operating system to fix the situation and retry the instruction
  – Allocate an additional stack page, or
  – Make the page accessible - Copy on Write,
  – Bring page in from secondary storage to memory – demand paging

• Fundamental inversion of the hardware / software boundary
Demand Paging

- Modern programs require a lot of physical memory
  - Memory per system growing faster than 25%-30%/year
- But they don’t use all their memory all of the time
  - 90-10 rule: programs spend 90% of their time in 10% of their code
  - Wasteful to require all of user’s code to be in memory
- Solution: use main memory as “cache” for disk
Page Fault → Demand Paging

Process

virtual address

instruction

exception

Page Fault Handler

MMU

page# → physical address

PT

frame# → offset

update PT entry

scheduler

load page from disk

retry

Operating System

Page Fault Handler

page fault

frame# → offset

load page from disk

Physical memory

virtual address

MMU

PT

frame#
Recall 61C: Average Memory Access Time

- Used to compute access time probabilistically:
  \[ AMAT = \text{Hit Rate}_{L1} \times \text{Hit Time}_{L1} + \text{Miss Rate}_{L1} \times \text{Miss Time}_{L1} \]
  \[ \text{Hit Rate}_{L1} + \text{Miss Rate}_{L1} = 1 \]
  \[ \text{Hit Time}_{L1} = \text{Time to get value from L1 cache.} \]
  \[ \text{Miss Time}_{L1} = \text{Hit Time}_{L1} + \text{Miss Penalty}_{L1} \]
  \[ \text{Miss Penalty}_{L1} = \text{AVG Time to get value from lower level (DRAM)} \]
  So, \[ AMAT = \text{Hit Time}_{L1} + \text{Miss Rate}_{L1} \times \text{Miss Penalty}_{L1} \]

- What about more levels of hierarchy?
  \[ AMAT = \text{Hit Time}_{L1} + \text{Miss Rate}_{L1} \times \text{Miss Penalty}_{L1} \]
  \[ \text{Miss Penalty}_{L1} = \text{AVG time to get value from lower level (L2)} \]
  \[ = \text{Hit Time}_{L2} + \text{Miss Rate}_{L2} \times \text{Miss Penalty}_{L2} \]
  \[ \text{Miss Penalty}_{L2} = \text{Average Time to fetch from below L2 (DRAM)} \]
  \[ AMAT = \text{Hit Time}_{L1} + \text{Miss Rate}_{L1} \times (\text{Hit Time}_{L2} + \text{Miss Rate}_{L2} \times \text{Miss Penalty}_{L2}) \]

- And so on ... (can do this recursively for more levels!)
Management & Access to the Memory Hierarchy

- **Managed in Hardware**
  - Processor
    - TLB
    - Registers
    - L1 Cache
    - L2 Cache
    - L3 Cache (shared)

- **Managed in Software - OS**
  - Main Memory (DRAM)
  - Secondary Storage (SSD)
  - Secondary Storage (Disk)

**Speed (ns):**
- TLB: 0.3
- Registers
- L1 Cache: 1
- L2 Cache: 3
- L3 Cache (shared): 10-30

**Size (bytes):**
- 100Bs
- 10kBs
- 100kBs
- MBs
- 100
- GBs
- 100,000 (0.1 ms)
- 100GBs
- 10,000,000 (10 ms)
- TBs
Page Fault $\Rightarrow$ Demand Paging

- Virtual address
- Physical address
- Page fault
- MMU
- PT
- scheduler
- Instruction
- Operating System
- Page Fault Handler
- Load page from disk
- Update PT entry
- Retry
- Exception
Demand Paging as Caching, ...

- What “block size”? - 1 page (e.g., 4 KB)
- What “organization” ie. direct-mapped, set-assoc., fully-associative?
  - Fully associative since arbitrary virtual → physical mapping
- How do we locate a page?
  - First check TLB, then page-table traversal
- What is page replacement policy? (i.e. LRU, Random…)
  - This requires more explanation… (kinda LRU)
- What happens on a miss?
  - Go to lower level to fill miss (i.e. disk)
- What happens on a write? (write-through, write back)
  - Definitely write-back – need dirty bit!
• Disk is larger than physical memory ⇒
  – In-use virtual memory can be bigger than physical memory
  – Combined memory of running processes much larger than physical memory
    » More programs fit into memory, allowing more concurrency
• Principle: Transparent Level of Indirection (page table)
  – Supports flexible placement of physical data
    » Data could be on disk or somewhere across network
  – Variable location of data transparent to user program
    » Performance issue, not correctness issue
Review: What is in a PTE?

What is in a Page Table Entry (or PTE)?
- Pointer to next-level page table or to actual page
- Permission bits: valid, read-only, read-write, write-only

Example: Intel x86 architecture PTE:
- 2-level page table (10, 10, 12-bit offset)
- Intermediate page tables called “Directories”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Page Frame Number (Physical Page Number)</th>
<th>Free (OS)</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>31-12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

P: Present (same as “valid” bit in other architectures)
W: Writeable
U: User accessible
PWT: Page write transparent: external cache write-through
PCD: Page cache disabled (page cannot be cached)
A: Accessed: page has been accessed recently
D: Dirty (PTE only): page has been modified recently
PS: Page Size: PS=1 ⇒ 4MB page (directory only).
    Bottom 22 bits of virtual address serve as offset
Demand Paging Mechanisms

• PTE makes demand paging implementatable
  – Valid ⇒ Page in memory, PTE points at physical page
  – Not Valid ⇒ Page not in memory; use info in PTE to find it on disk when necessary

• Suppose user references page with invalid PTE?
  – Memory Management Unit (MMU) traps to OS
    » Resulting trap is a “Page Fault”
    » What does OS do on a Page Fault?:
      » Choose an old page to replace
      » If old page modified (“D=1”), write contents back to disk
      » Change its PTE and any cached TLB to be invalid
      » Load new page into memory from disk
      » Update page table entry, invalidate TLB for new entry
      » Continue thread from original faulting location
  – TLB for new page will be loaded when thread continued!
  – While pulling pages off disk for one process, OS runs another process from ready queue
    » Suspended process sits on wait queue
Many Uses of Virtual Memory and “Demand Paging” ...

• Extend the stack
  – Allocate a page and zero it

• Extend the heap (sbrk of old, today mmap)

• Process Fork
  – Create a copy of the page table
  – Entries refer to parent pages – NO-WRITE
  – Shared read-only pages remain shared
  – Copy page on write

• Exec
  – Only bring in parts of the binary in active use
  – Do this on demand

• MMAP to explicitly share region (or to access a file as RAM)
Classic: Loading an executable into memory

- .exe
  - lives on disk in the file system
  - contains contents of code & data segments, relocation entries and symbols
  - OS loads it into memory, initializes registers (and initial stack pointer)
  - program sets up stack and heap upon initialization:
    - `crt0` (C runtime init)
Create Virtual Address Space of the Process

- Utilized pages in the VAS are backed by a page block on disk
  - Called the backing store or swap file
  - Typically in an optimized block store, but can think of it like a file
Create Virtual Address Space of the Process

- User Page table maps entire VAS
- All the utilized regions are backed on disk
  - swapped into and out of memory as needed
- For every process
**Create Virtual Address Space of the Process**

- **User Page table maps entire VAS**
  - Resident pages to the frame in memory they occupy
  - The portion of it that the HW needs to access must be resident in memory
Provide Backing Store for VAS

- User Page table maps entire VAS
- Resident pages mapped to memory frames
- For all other pages, OS must record where to find them on disk
What Data Structure Maps Non-Resident Pages to Disk?

- **FindBlock**(*PID, page#*) → disk_block
  - Some OSs utilize spare space in PTE for paged blocks
  - Like the PT, but purely software

- Where to store it?
  - In memory – can be compact representation if swap storage is contiguous on disk
  - Could use hash table (like Inverted PT)

- Usually want backing store for resident pages too

- May map code segment directly to on-disk image
  - Saves a copy of code to swap file

- May share code segment with multiple instances of the program
Provide Backing Store for VAS

disk (huge, TB)

- stack
- heap
- data
- code

memory

- user
- page frames
- user pageable
- kernel
- code & data

VAS 1

- kernel
- stack
- heap
- data

VAS 2

- kernel
- stack
- heap
- data

PT 1

- code
- data
- heap
- stack

PT 2

- code
- data
- heap
- stack
On page Fault ...

- disk (huge, TB)
- memory
- kernel code & data
- user pages
- frames
- pageable
- kernel code & data
- active process & PT
On page Fault ... find & start load
On page Fault ... schedule other P or T

disk (huge, TB)

stack

heap

data

code

memory

kernel
data

code

user page frames

user pageable

kernel code & data

active process & PT
On page Fault ... update PTE
Eventually reschedule faulting thread

- disk (huge, TB)
- memory
- kernel code & data
- user page frames
- user pageable
- kernel code & data
- active process & PT
Summary: Steps in Handling a Page Fault

1. Trap
2. Page is on backing store
3. Restart instruction
4. Bring in missing page
5. Reset page table
6. Load M
Some questions we need to answer!

• During a page fault, where does the OS get a free frame?
  – Keeps a free list
  – Unix runs a “reaper” if memory gets too full
    » Schedule dirty pages to be written back on disk
    » Zero (clean) pages which haven’t been accessed in a while
  – As a last resort, evict a dirty page first

• How can we organize these mechanisms?
  – Work on the replacement policy

• How many page frames/process?
  – Like thread scheduling, need to “schedule” memory resources:
    » Utilization? fairness? priority?
  – Allocation of disk paging bandwidth
Working Set Model

- As a program executes it transitions through a sequence of "working sets" consisting of varying sized subsets of the address space.
Cache Behavior under WS model

- Amortized by fraction of time the Working Set is active
- Transitions from one WS to the next
- Capacity, Conflict, Compulsory misses
- Applicable to memory caches and pages. Others?
Another model of Locality: Zipf

- Likelihood of accessing item of rank $r$ is $\alpha \frac{1}{r^a}$
- Although rare to access items below the top few, there are so many that it yields a “heavy tailed” distribution
- Substantial value from even a tiny cache
- Substantial misses from even a very large cache
Demand Paging Cost Model

• Since Demand Paging like caching, can compute average access time! ("Effective Access Time")
  – EAT = Hit Rate x Hit Time + Miss Rate x Miss Time
  – EAT = Hit Time + Miss Rate x Miss Penalty

• Example:
  – Memory access time = 200 nanoseconds
  – Average page-fault service time = 8 milliseconds
  – Suppose p = Probability of miss, 1-p = Probability of hit
  – Then, we can compute EAT as follows:
    \[ EAT = 200\text{ns} + p \times 8\text{ ms} = 200\text{ns} + p \times 8,000,000\text{ns} \]

• If one access out of 1,000 causes a page fault, then EAT = 8.2 μs:
  – This is a slowdown by a factor of 40!

• What if want slowdown by less than 10%?
  – EAT < 200ns x 1.1 \(\Rightarrow\) p < 2.5 x 10^{-6}
  – This is about 1 page fault in 400,000!
What Factors Lead to Misses in Page Cache?

• **Compulsory Misses:**
  – Pages that have never been paged into memory before
  – How might we remove these misses?
    » Prefetching: loading them into memory before needed
    » Need to predict future somehow! More later

• **Capacity Misses:**
  – Not enough memory. Must somehow increase available memory size.
  – Can we do this?
    » One option: Increase amount of DRAM (not quick fix!)
    » Another option: If multiple processes in memory: adjust percentage of memory allocated to each one!

• **Conflict Misses:**
  – Technically, conflict misses don’t exist in virtual memory, since it is a “fully-associative” cache

• **Policy Misses:**
  – Caused when pages were in memory, but kicked out prematurely because of the replacement policy
  – How to fix? Better replacement policy
Page Replacement Policies

• Why do we care about Replacement Policy?
  – Replacement is an issue with any cache
  – Particularly important with pages
    » The cost of being wrong is high: must go to disk
    » Must keep important pages in memory, not toss them out

• FIFO (First In, First Out)
  – Throw out oldest page. Be fair – let every page live in memory for same amount of time.
  – Bad – throws out heavily used pages instead of infrequently used

• RANDOM:
  – Pick random page for every replacement
  – Typical solution for TLB’s. Simple hardware
  – Pretty unpredictable – makes it hard to make real-time guarantees

• MIN (Minimum):
  – Replace page that won’t be used for the longest time
  – Great (provably optimal), but can’t really know future…
  – But past is a good predictor of the future …
Replacement Policies (Con’t)

- **LRU (Least Recently Used):**
  - Replace page that hasn’t been used for the longest time
  - Programs have locality, so if something not used for a while, unlikely to be used in the near future.
  - Seems like LRU should be a good approximation to MIN.

- **How to implement LRU? Use a list:**

  ![Diagram of LRU list]

  - On each use, remove page from list and place at head
  - LRU page is at tail

- **Problems with this scheme for paging?**
  - Need to know immediately when page used so that can change position in list...
  - Many instructions for each hardware access

- **In practice, people approximate LRU (more later)**
Example: FIFO (strawman)

- Suppose we have 3 page frames, 4 virtual pages, and following reference stream:
  - A B C A B D A D B C B
- Consider FIFO Page replacement:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ref: Page:</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>D</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>C</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>C</td>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- FIFO: 7 faults
- When referencing D, replacing A is bad choice, since need A again right away
• Suppose we have the same reference stream:
  – A B C A B D A D B C B
• Consider MIN Page replacement:
  
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ref: Page:</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>C</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>C</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>D</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

• MIN: 5 faults
  – Where will D be brought in? Look for page not referenced farthest in future
• What will LRU do?
  – Same decisions as MIN here, but won’t always be true!
Is LRU guaranteed to perform well?

- Consider the following: A B C D A B C D A B C D
- LRU Performs as follows (same as FIFO here):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ref: Page</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>A</td>
<td></td>
<td>D</td>
<td></td>
<td>C</td>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>A</td>
<td></td>
<td>D</td>
<td>C</td>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>B</td>
<td></td>
<td>D</td>
<td>A</td>
<td></td>
<td>C</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Every reference is a page fault!
- Fairly contrived example of working set of N+1 on N frames
When will LRU perform badly?

- Consider the following: A B C D A B C D A B C D
- LRU Performs as follows (same as FIFO here):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ref: Page</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>A</td>
<td></td>
<td>D</td>
<td></td>
<td>C</td>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>B</td>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td></td>
<td>D</td>
<td></td>
<td>C</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>C</td>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td></td>
<td>D</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Every reference is a page fault!

- MIN Does much better:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ref: Page</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>B</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>C</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>D</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
• One desirable property: When you add memory the miss rate drops (stack property)
  – Does this always happen?
  – Seems like it should, right?
• No: Bélády’s anomaly
  – Certain replacement algorithms (FIFO) don’t have this obvious property!
Adding Memory Doesn’t Always Help Fault Rate

- Does adding memory reduce number of page faults?
  - Yes for LRU and MIN
  - Not necessarily for FIFO! (Called Bélády’s anomaly)

After adding memory:
  - With FIFO, contents can be completely different
  - In contrast, with LRU or MIN, contents of memory with X pages are a subset of contents with X+1 page.
**Approximating LRU: Clock Algorithm**

- **Clock Algorithm**: Arrange physical pages in circle with single clock hand
  - Approximate LRU (approximation to approximation to MIN)
  - Replace an old page, not the oldest page
- **Details**:
  - Hardware “use” bit per physical page (called “accessed” in Intel architecture):
    - Hardware sets use bit on each reference
    - If use bit isn’t set, means not referenced in a long time
    - Some hardware sets use bit in the TLB; must be copied back to PTE when TLB entry gets replaced
  - On page fault:
    - Advance clock hand (not real time)
    - Check use bit: 1 → used recently; clear and leave alone
    - 0 → selected candidate for replacement
Clock Algorithm: More details

- Will always find a page or loop forever?
  - Even if all use bits set, will eventually loop all the way around ⇒ FIFO
- What if hand moving slowly?
  - Good sign or bad sign?
    » Not many page faults
    » or find page quickly
- What if hand is moving quickly?
  - Lots of page faults and/or lots of reference bits set
- One way to view clock algorithm:
  - Crude partitioning of pages into two groups: young and old
  - Why not partition into more than 2 groups?
N\textsuperscript{th} Chance version of Clock Algorithm

- **N\textsuperscript{th} chance algorithm**: Give page N chances
  - OS keeps counter per page: # sweeps
  - On page fault, OS checks use bit:
    - 1 → clear use and also clear counter (used in last sweep)
    - 0 → increment counter; if count=N, replace page
  - Means that clock hand has to sweep by N times without page being used before page is replaced

- **How do we pick N?**
  - Why pick large N? Better approximation to LRU
    - If N ~ 1K, really good approximation
  - Why pick small N? More efficient
    - Otherwise might have to look a long way to find free page

- **What about “modified” (or “dirty”) pages?**
  - Takes extra overhead to replace a dirty page, so give dirty pages an extra chance before replacing?
  - Common approach:
    - Clean pages, use N=1
    - Dirty pages, use N=2 (and write back to disk when N=1)
Recall: Meaning of PTE bits

- Which bits of a PTE entry are useful to us for the Clock Algorithm? Remember Intel PTE:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PTE:</th>
<th>Page Frame Number (Physical Page Number)</th>
<th>Free (OS)</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- The “Present” bit (called “Valid” elsewhere):
  » P==0: Page is invalid and a reference will cause page fault
  » P==1: Page frame number is valid and MMU is allowed to proceed with translation

- The “Writable” bit (could have opposite sense and be called “Read-only”):
  » W==0: Page is read-only and cannot be written.
  » W==1: Page can be written

- The “Accessed” bit (called “Use” elsewhere):
  » A==0: Page has not been accessed (or used) since last time software set A→0
  » A==1: Page has been accessed (or used) since last time software set A→0

- The “Dirty” bit (called “Modified” elsewhere):
  » D==0: Page has not been modified (written) since PTE was loaded
  » D==1: Page has changed since PTE was loaded
Clock Algorithms Variations

• Do we really need hardware-supported “modified” bit?
  – No. Can emulate it using read-only bit
    » Need software DB of which pages are allowed to be written (needed this anyway)
    » We will tell MMU that pages have more restricted permissions than the actually do to force page faults (and allow us notice when page is written)
  – Algorithm (Clock-Emulated-M):
    » Initially, mark all pages as read-only (W→0), even writable data pages. Further, clear all software versions of the “modified” bit → 0 (page not dirty)
    » Writes will cause a page fault. Assuming write is allowed, OS sets software “modified” bit → 1, and marks page as writable (W→1).
    » Whenever page written back to disk, clear “modified” bit → 0, mark read-only
Clock Algorithms Variations (continued)

• Do we really need a hardware-supported “use” bit?
  - No. Can emulate it similar to above (e.g. for read operation)
    » Kernel keeps a “use” bit and “modified” bit for each page
  - Algorithm (Clock-Emulated-Use-and-M):
    » Mark all pages as invalid, even if in memory.
      Clear emulated “use” bits $\rightarrow 0$ and “modified” bits $\rightarrow 0$ for all pages (not used, not dirty)
    » Read or write to invalid page traps to OS to tell use page has been used
    » OS sets “use” bit $\rightarrow 1$ in software to indicate that page has been “used”.
      Further:
      1) If read, mark page as read-only, $W \rightarrow 0$ (will catch future writes)
      2) If write (and write allowed), set “modified” bit $\rightarrow 1$, mark page as writable ($W \rightarrow 1$)
    » When clock hand passes, reset emulated “use” bit $\rightarrow 0$ and mark page as invalid again
    » Note that “modified” bit left alone until page written back to disk
• Remember, however, clock is just an approximation of LRU!
  - Can we do a better approximation, given that we have to take page faults on some reads and writes to collect use information?
  - Need to identify an old page, not oldest page!
    - Answer: second chance list
Second-Chance List Algorithm (VAX/VMS)

- Split memory in two: Active list (RW), SC list (Invalid)
- Access pages in Active list at full speed
- Otherwise, Page Fault
  - Always move overflow page from end of Active list to front of Second-chance list (SC) and mark invalid
  - Desired Page On SC List: move to front of Active list, mark RW
  - Not on SC list: page in to front of Active list, mark RW; page out LRU victim at end of SC list

Directly Mapped Pages
Marked: RW
List: FIFO

Page-in From disk
New Active Pages

Overflow

Second Chance List
Marked: Invalid
List: LRU

LRU victim

New SC Victims
Second-Chance List Algorithm (continued)

• How many pages for second chance list?
  – If 0 ⇒ FIFO
  – If all ⇒ LRU, but page fault on every page reference

• Pick intermediate value. Result is:
  – Pro: Few disk accesses (page only goes to disk if unused for a long time)
  – Con: Increased overhead trapping to OS (software / hardware tradeoff)

• With page translation, we can adapt to any kind of access the program makes
  – Later, we will show how to use page translation / protection to share memory between threads on widely separated machines

• History: The VAX architecture did not include a “use” bit. Why did that omission happen???
  – Strecker (architect) asked OS people, they said they didn’t need it, so didn’t implement it
  – He later got blamed, but VAX did OK anyway
Summary

- **Replacement policies**
  - FIFO: Place pages on queue, replace page at end
  - MIN: Replace page that will be used farthest in future
  - LRU: Replace page used farthest in past
- **Clock Algorithm: Approximation to LRU**
  - Arrange all pages in circular list
  - Sweep through them, marking as not “in use”
  - If page not “in use” for one pass, than can replace
- **Nth-chance clock algorithm: Another approximate LRU**
  - Give pages multiple passes of clock hand before replacing
- **Second-Chance List algorithm: Yet another approximate LRU**
  - Divide pages into two groups, one of which is truly LRU and managed on page faults.
- **Working Set:**
  - Set of pages touched by a process recently
- **Thrashing:** a process is busy swapping pages in and out
  - Process will thrash if working set doesn’t fit in memory
  - Need to swap out a process