CS162
Operating Systems and Systems Programming
Lecture 16

Page Allocation and Replacement (con't)
I/O Systems

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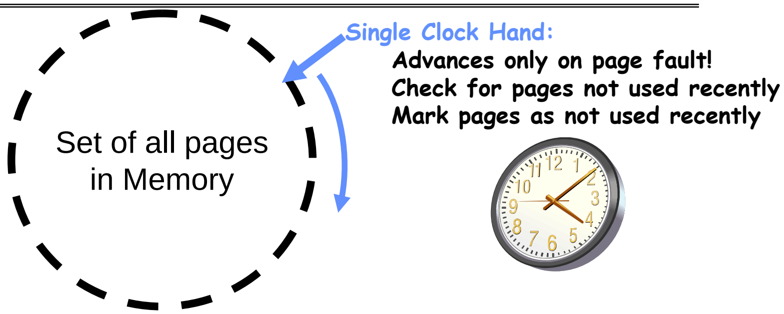
Review: Page Replacement Policies

- **FIFO (First In, First Out)**
  - Throw out oldest page. Be fair – let every page live in memory for same amount of time.
  - Bad, because throws out heavily used pages instead of infrequently used pages
- **MIN (Minimum):**
  - Replace page that won't be used for the longest time
  - Great, but can't really know future…
  - Makes good comparison case, however
- **RANDOM:**
  - Pick random page for every replacement
  - Typical solution for TLB's. Simple hardware
  - Pretty unpredictable – makes it hard to make real-time guarantees
- **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.

Review: Clock Algorithm: Not Recently Used



- **Clock Algorithm**: pages arranged in a ring
  - Hardware "use" bit per physical page:
    - » Hardware sets use bit on each reference
    - » If use bit isn't set, means not referenced in a long time
    - » Nachos hardware sets use bit in the TLB; you have to copy this back to page table 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

Review: N^{th} Chance version of Clock Algorithm

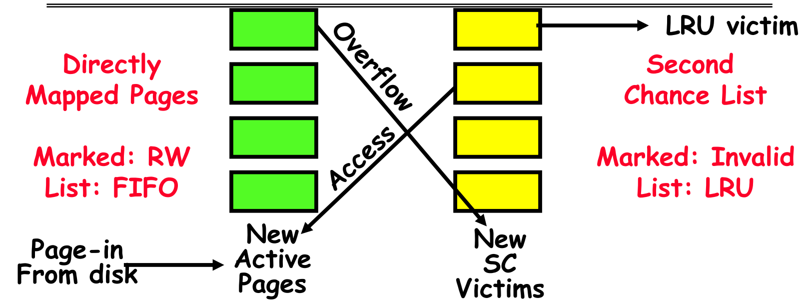
- **N^{th} chance algorithm:** Give page N chances
  - OS keeps counter per page: # sweeps
  - On page fault, OS checks use bit:
    - » 1⇒clear use and also clear counter (used in last sweep)
    - » 0⇒increment counter; if count=N, replace page
  - Means that clock hand has to sweep by N times without page being used before page is replaced
- How do we pick N?
  - Why pick large N? Better approx 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 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)

Goals for Today

- Finish Page Allocation Policies
- Working Set/Thrashing
- I/O Systems
  - Hardware Access
  - Device Drivers

Note: Some slides and/or pictures in the following are adapted from slides ©2005 Silberschatz, Galvin, and Gagne. Many slides generated from my lecture notes by Kubiatowicz.

Second-Chance List Algorithm (VAX/VMS)

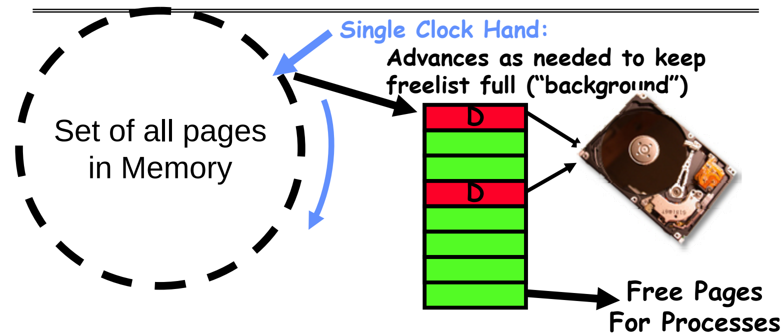


- Split memory in two: Active list (RW), SC list (Invalid)
- Access pages in Active list at full speed
- Otherwise, Page Fault
  - Always move overflow page from end of Active list to front of Second-chance list (SC) and mark invalid
  - Desired Page On SC List: move to front of Active list, mark RW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

Second-Chance List Algorithm (con't)

- 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
- Question: why didn't VAX include "use" bit?
  - 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

Free List



- Keep set of free pages ready for use in demand paging
  - Freelist filled in background by Clock algorithm or other technique ("Pageout demon")
  - Dirty pages start copying back to disk when enter list
- Like VAX second-chance list
  - If page needed before reused, just return to active set
- Advantage: Faster for page fault
  - Can always use page (or pages) immediately on fault

Demand Paging (more details)

- Does software-loaded TLB need use bit? Two Options:
  - Hardware sets use bit in TLB; when TLB entry is replaced, software copies use bit back to page table
  - Software manages TLB entries as FIFO list; everything not in TLB is Second-Chance list, managed as strict LRU
- Core Map
  - Page tables map virtual page → physical page
  - Do we need a reverse mapping (i.e. physical page → virtual page)?
    - » Yes. Clock algorithm runs through page frames. If sharing, then multiple virtual-pages per physical page
    - » Can't push page out to disk without invalidating all PTEs

Allocation of Page Frames (Memory Pages)

- How do we allocate memory among different processes?
  - Does every process get the same fraction of memory? Different fractions?
  - Should we completely swap some processes out of memory?
- Each process needs *minimum* number of pages
  - Want to make sure that all processes that are loaded into memory can make forward progress
  - 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*
- Possible Replacement Scopes:
  - Global replacement – process selects replacement frame from 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

Fixed/Priority Allocation

- Equal allocation (Fixed Scheme):
  - Every process gets same amount of memory
  - Example: 100 frames, 5 processes⇒process gets 20 frames
- Proportional allocation (Fixed Scheme)
  - Allocate according to the size of process
  - Computation proceeds as follows:

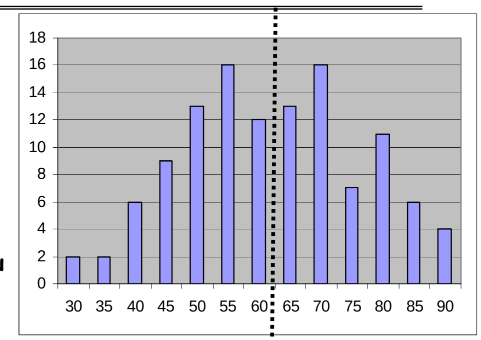
    s_i = size of process p_i and $S = \Sigma s_i$

    m = total number of frames

    a_i = allocation for $p_i = \frac{s_i}{S} \times m$
- Priority Allocation:
  - Proportional scheme using priorities rather than size
    - » Same type of computation as previous scheme
  - Possible behavior: If process p_i generates a page fault, select for replacement a frame from a process with lower priority number
- Perhaps we should use an adaptive scheme instead???
  - What if some application just needs more memory?

Administrivia

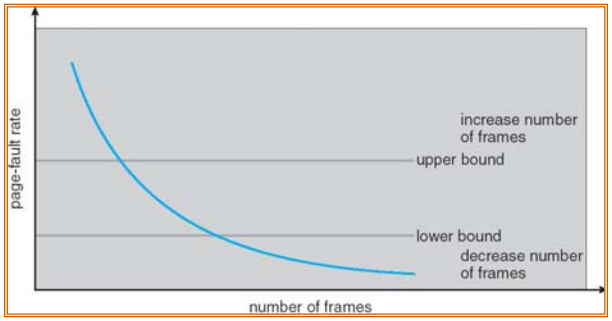
- Final Midterm I results:
  - Avg: 64.8, Std: 14.5
  - A little lower average than we typically like to see (it was too long)
- Solutions are up
  - Just go to handouts page
  - You should go through the solutions and make sure you understand them!



- Would you like an extra 5% for your course grade?
  - Attend lectures and sections! 5% of grade is participation
  - Midterm 1 was only 15%
- We have an anonymous feedback link on the course homepage
  - Please use to give feedback on course
  - Soon: We will have a survey to fill out
- Should be working on Project 3 now.
  - Autograder is intentionally running intermittently!
  - You must rely on your tests, not the autograder

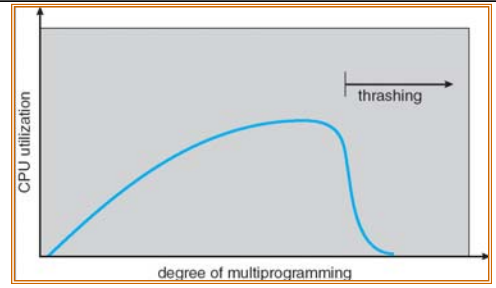
Page-Fault Frequency Allocation

- Can we reduce Capacity misses by dynamically changing the number of pages/application?



- Establish "acceptable" page-fault rate
  - If actual rate too low, process loses frame
  - If actual rate too high, process gains frame
- Question: What if we just don't have enough memory?

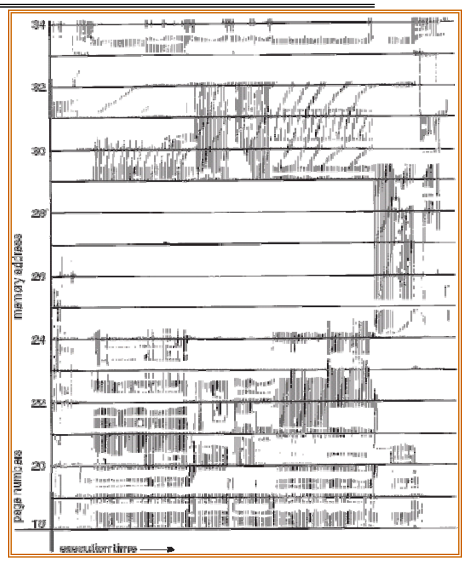
Thrashing



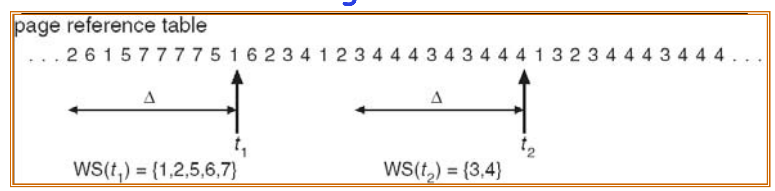
- If a process does not have "enough" pages, the page-fault rate is very high. This leads to:
  - low CPU utilization
  - operating system spends most of its time swapping to disk
- Thrashing ≡ a process is busy swapping pages in and out
- Questions:
  - How do we detect Thrashing?
  - What is best response to Thrashing?

Locality In A Memory-Reference Pattern

- Program Memory Access Patterns have temporal and spatial locality
  - Group of Pages accessed along a given time slice called the "Working Set"
  - Working Set defines minimum number of pages needed for process to behave well
- Not enough memory for Working Set⇒Thrashing
  - Better to swap out process?



Working-Set Model



- Δ ≡ working-set window ≡ fixed number of page references
  - Example: 10,000 instructions
- WS_i (working set of Process P_i) = total set of pages referenced in the most recent Δ (varies in time)
  - if Δ too small will not encompass entire locality
  - if Δ too large will encompass several localities
  - if Δ = ∞ ⇒ will encompass entire program
- $D = \Sigma|WS_i|$ ≡ total demand frames
- if $D > m$ ⇒ Thrashing
  - Policy: if $D > m$, then suspend/swap out processes
  - This can improve overall system behavior by a lot!

What about Compulsory Misses?

- Recall that compulsory misses are misses that occur the first time that a page is seen
  - Pages that are touched for the first time
  - Pages that are touched after process is swapped out/swapped back in
- Clustering:
  - On a page-fault, bring in multiple pages "around" the faulting page
  - Since efficiency of disk reads increases with sequential reads, makes sense to read several sequential pages
- Working Set Tracking:
  - Use algorithm to try to track working set of application
  - When swapping process back in, swap in working set

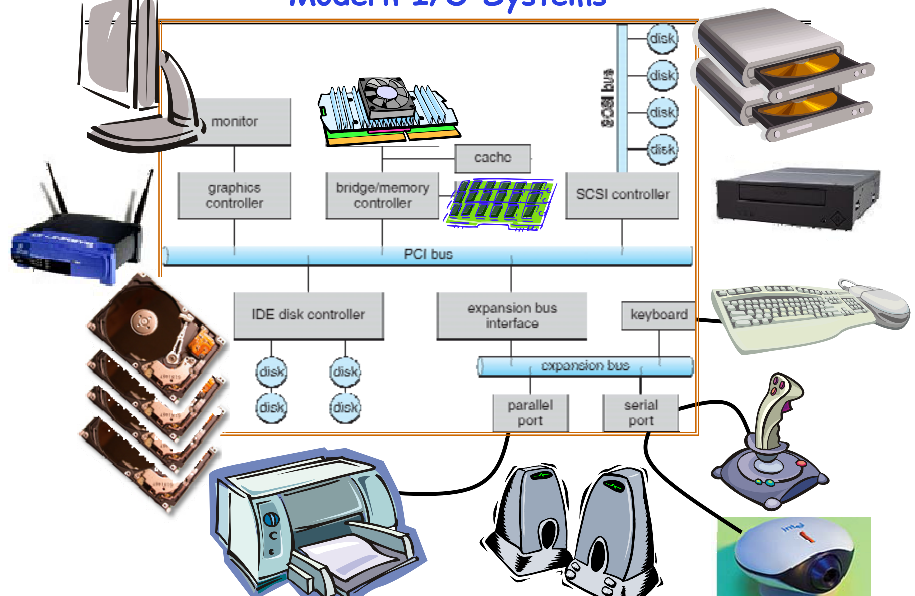
Demand Paging Summary

- 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
- N^{th}-chance clock algorithm: Another approx LRU
  - Give pages multiple passes of clock hand before replacing
- Second-Chance List algorithm: Yet another approx 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

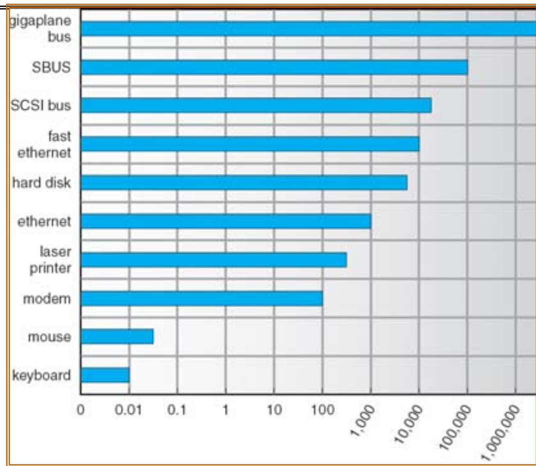
The Requirements of I/O

- So far in this course:
  - We have learned how to manage CPU, memory
- What about I/O?
  - Without I/O, computers are useless (disembodied brains?)
  - But… thousands of devices, each slightly different
    - » How can we standardize the interfaces to these devices?
  - Devices unreliable: media failures and transmission errors
    - » How can we make them reliable???
  - Devices unpredictable and/or slow
    - » How can we manage them if we don't know what they will do or how they will perform?
- Some operational parameters:
  - Byte/Block
    - » Some devices provide single byte at a time (*e.g.* keyboard)
    - » Others provide whole blocks (*e.g.* disks, networks, etc)
  - Sequential/Random
    - » Some devices must be accessed sequentially (*e.g.* tape)
    - » Others can be accessed randomly (*e.g.* disk, cd, etc.)
  - Polling/Interrupts
    - » Some devices require continual monitoring
    - » Others generate interrupts when they need service

Modern I/O Systems



Example Device-Transfer Rates (Sun Enterprise 6000)



- Device Rates vary over many orders of magnitude
  - System better be able to handle this wide range
  - Better not have high overhead/byte for fast devices!
  - Better not waste time waiting for slow devices

The Goal of the I/O Subsystem

- Provide Uniform Interfaces, Despite Wide Range of Different Devices
  - This code works on many different devices:

```
FILE fd = fopen("/dev/something","rw");
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
  fprintf(fd,"Count %d\n",i);
}
close(fd);
```

  - Why? Because code that controls devices ("device driver") implements standard interface.
- We will try to get a flavor for what is involved in actually controlling devices in rest of lecture
  - *Can only scratch surface!*

Want Standard Interfaces to Devices

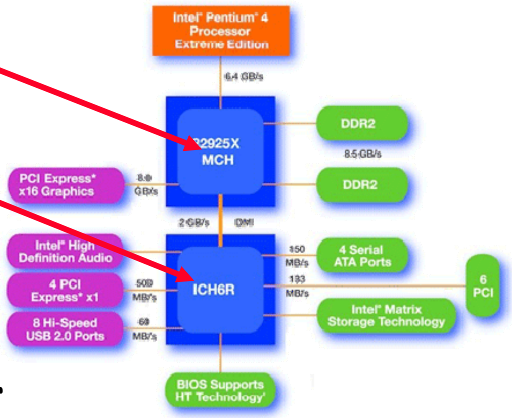
- Block Devices: *e.g.* disk drives, tape drives, DVD-ROM
  - Access blocks of data
  - Commands include `open()`, `read()`, `write()`, `seek()`
  - Raw I/O or file-system access
  - Memory-mapped file access possible
- Character Devices: *e.g.* keyboards, mice, serial ports, some USB devices
  - Single characters at a time
  - Commands include `get()`, `put()`
  - Libraries layered on top allow line editing
- Network Devices: *e.g.* Ethernet, Wireless, Bluetooth
  - Different enough from block/character to have own interface
  - Unix and Windows include socket interface
    - » Separates network protocol from network operation
    - » Includes `select()` functionality
  - Usage: pipes, FIFOs, streams, queues, mailboxes

How Does User Deal with Timing?

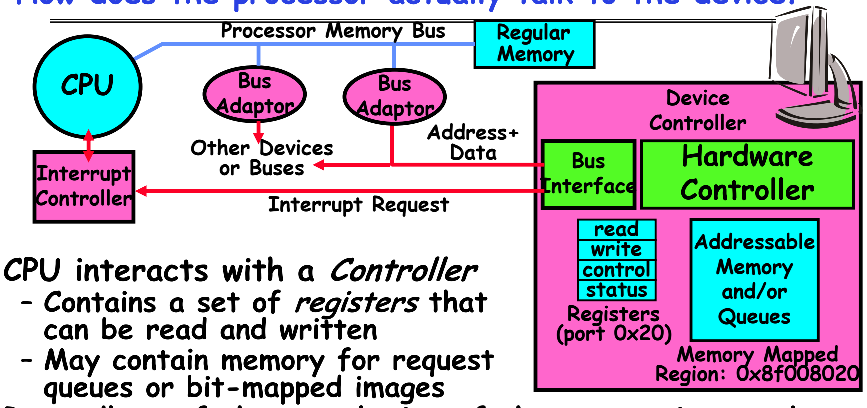
- Blocking Interface: "Wait"
  - When request data (e.g. `read()` system call), put process to sleep until data is ready
  - When write data (e.g. `write()` system call), put process to sleep until device is ready for data
- Non-blocking Interface: "Don't Wait"
  - Returns quickly from read or write request with count of bytes successfully transferred
  - Read may return nothing, write may write nothing
- Asynchronous Interface: "Tell Me Later"
  - When request data, take pointer to user's buffer, return immediately; later kernel fills buffer and notifies user
  - When send data, take pointer to user's buffer, return immediately; later kernel takes data and notifies user

Main components of Intel Chipset: Pentium 4

- Northbridge:
  - Handles memory
  - Graphics
- Southbridge: I/O
  - PCI bus
  - Disk controllers
  - USB controllers
  - Audio
  - Serial I/O
  - Interrupt controller
  - Timers



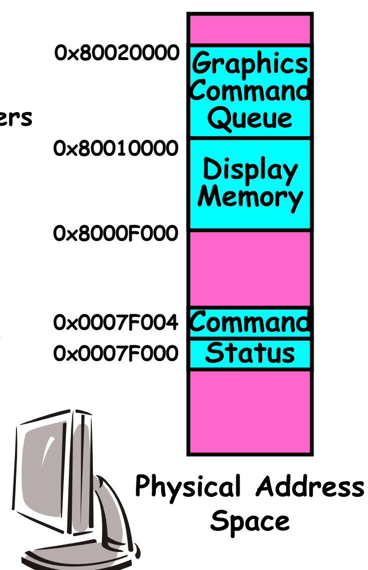
How does the processor actually talk to the device?



- CPU interacts with a *Controller*
  - Contains a set of *registers* that can be read and written
  - May contain memory for request queues or bit-mapped images
- Regardless of the complexity of the connections and buses, processor accesses registers in two ways:
  - I/O instructions: in/out instructions
    - » Example from the Intel architecture: `out 0x21,AL`
  - Memory mapped I/O: load/store instructions
    - » Registers/memory appear in physical address space
    - » I/O accomplished with load and store instructions

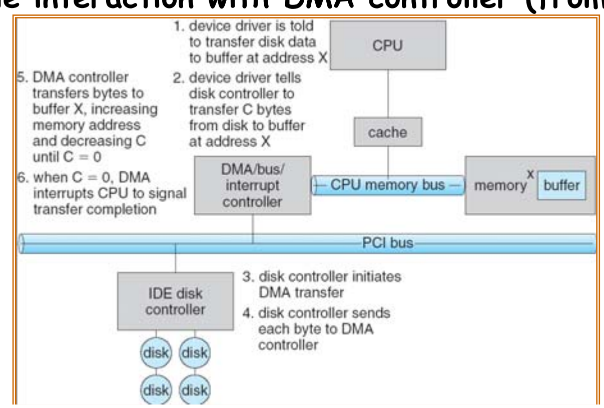
Example: Memory-Mapped Display Controller

- Memory-Mapped:
  - Hardware maps control registers and display memory into physical address space
    - » Addresses set by hardware jumpers or programming at boot time
  - Simply writing to display memory (also called the "frame buffer") changes image on screen
    - » Addr: 0x8000F000—0x8000FFFF
  - Writing graphics description to command-queue area
    - » Say enter a set of triangles that describe some scene
    - » Addr: 0x80010000—0x8001FFFF
  - Writing to the command register may cause on-board graphics hardware to do something
    - » Say render the above scene
    - » Addr: 0x0007F004
- Can protect with page tables

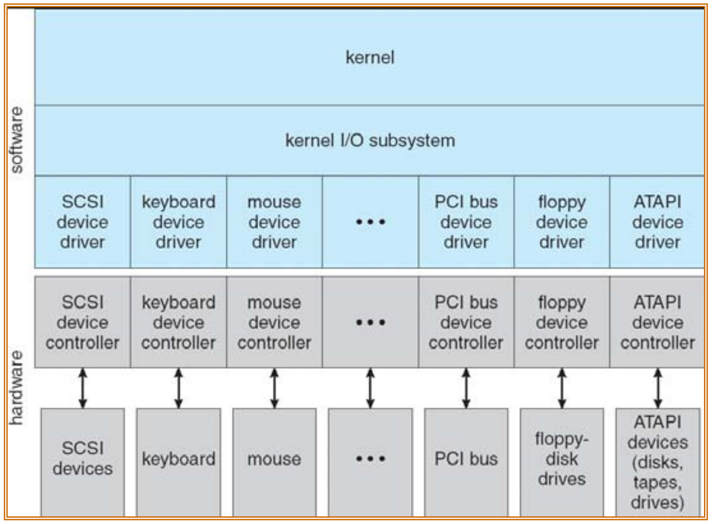


Transfering Data To/From Controller

- Programmed I/O:
  - Each byte transferred via processor in/out or load/store
  - Pro: Simple hardware, easy to program
  - Con: Consumes processor cycles proportional to data size
- Direct Memory Access:
  - Give controller access to memory bus
  - Ask it to transfer data to/from memory directly
- Sample interaction with DMA controller (from book):



A Kernel I/O Structure



Device Drivers

- **Device Driver:** Device-specific code in the kernel that interacts directly with the device hardware
  - Supports a standard, internal interface
  - Same kernel I/O system can interact easily with different device drivers
  - Special device-specific configuration supported with the `ioctl()` system call
- Device Drivers typically divided into two pieces:
  - Top half: accessed in call path from system calls
    - » Implements a set of **standard, cross-device calls** like `open()`, `close()`, `read()`, `write()`, `ioctl()`, `strategy()`
    - » This is the kernel's interface to the device driver
    - » Top half will *start* I/O to device, may put thread to sleep until finished
  - Bottom half: run as interrupt routine
    - » Gets input or transfers next block of output
    - » May wake sleeping threads if I/O now complete

Life Cycle of An I/O Request

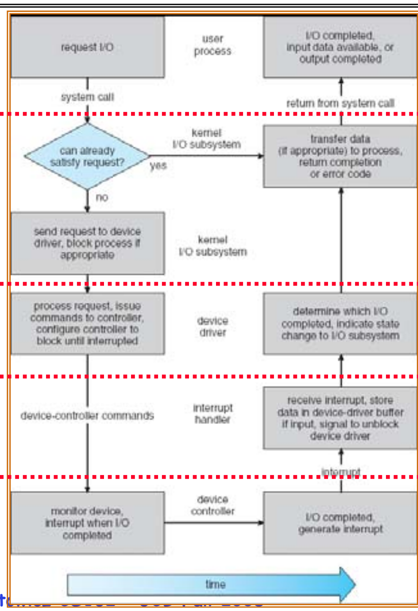
User Program

Kernel I/O Subsystem

Device Driver Top Half

Device Driver Bottom Half

Device Hardware



I/O Device Notifying the OS

- The OS needs to know when:
  - The I/O device has completed an operation
  - The I/O operation has encountered an error
- **I/O Interrupt:**
  - Device generates an interrupt whenever it needs service
  - Handled in bottom half of device driver
    - » Often run on special kernel-level stack
  - Pro: handles unpredictable events well
  - Con: interrupts relatively high overhead
- **Polling:**
  - OS periodically checks a device-specific status register
    - » I/O device puts completion information in status register
    - » Could use timer to invoke lower half of drivers occasionally
  - Pro: low overhead
  - Con: may waste many cycles on polling if infrequent or unpredictable I/O operations
- Actual devices combine both polling and interrupts
  - For instance: High-bandwidth network device:
    - » Interrupt for first incoming packet
    - » Poll for following packets until hardware empty

Summary

- 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
- I/O Devices Types:
  - Many different speeds (0.1 bytes/sec to GBytes/sec)
  - Different Access Patterns:
    - » Block Devices, Character Devices, Network Devices
  - Different Access Timing:
    - » Blocking, Non-blocking, Asynchronous
- I/O Controllers: Hardware that controls actual device
  - Processor Accesses through I/O instructions, load/store to special physical memory
  - Report their results through either interrupts or a status register that processor looks at occasionally (polling)
- Device Driver: Device-specific code in kernel