# CS202 (003): Operating Systems Scheduling (cont.), Virtual Memory

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Most of the materials covered in this slide come from the lecture notes of Mike Walfish's CS202



### Last Time

### Another way of optimization: fair-share scheduler

Try to guarantee that each job obtain a certain percentage of CPU time

Tickets: the share of a resource that a process should receive The percent of tickles that a process has represents its share of the system resources

Hold a lottery to determine which process should get to run next, every now and then

Let  $p_i$  has  $t_i$  tickets

Let *T* be total # of tickets,  $T = \sum t_i$ 

Chance of winning the next quantum  $=\frac{1}{2}$ 

### Lottery scheduling



Control long-term average proportion of CPU for each process!





- Flexible by using ticket as a currency

### Disadvantages

- Latency is unpredictable -
- Expected error somewhat high

### Lottery scheduling

Hold a lottery to determine which process should get to run next, every now and then

- Deals with starvation (if you have ticket, you will make progress) - Don't worry that adding one high priority job will starve all others - Adding/deleting jobs affects all jobs proportionally - Can transfer tickets between processes

Follow-up work to reduce randomness -> Stride Scheduling (see textbook for details)

### What Linux does: completely fair scheduler (CFS)

See the textbook for more details

- It aims to distribute CPU time fairly among all runnable processes using a virtual runtime metric.
- CFS organizes processes in a red-black tree and selects the one with the lowest virtual runtime to run next. This approach balances fairness, efficiency, and interactivity.

Many schedulers in the system that interact: mutex, interrupt, disk, network, ...

### Scheduling, lesson learned

Write down your goals (policy) before picking the scheduling algorithm (mechanism)

Start from/Compare with the optimal solution, even though it cannot be built



Process

What is a process?

How does process communicate with low-level resources?

How can one process do multiple tasks concurrently?

How does the operating system manage memory for multiple processes efficiently?

### Let's take a step back...



### Virtual Memory

"Each process has its own view of memory"



Does the address space of this program actually at the physical addresses 0 through 16KB?

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### Goals/Benefits of Virtual memory

### Programmability

Protection

### Efficient use of resources

- Program thinks it has a lot of memory, and has its own physical memory - Compiler and linker don't have to worry about physical addresses - multiple instances of the programs can be loaded and not collide

- Program cannot read/write each other's memory - Therefore delivers isolation (prevent bug in one process corrupt with another)

- Programmers don't have to worry that the sum of the memory consumed by all active processes is larger than physical memory

### Mapping virtual memory to physical memory



(per-process)

In the traditional x86 (and in our labs), the page size will be 4096 B = 4 KB =  $2^{12}$ 

 $2^{10}$ : kilo 2<sup>20</sup>: mega 2<sup>30</sup>: giga  $2^{40}$ : tera

How many pages are there on a 32-bit architecture?

$$\frac{2^{32} \text{ bytes}}{2^{12} \text{ bytes/page}} =$$

## Paging



What about if there are 48 bits used to address memory?

 $\cdot 2^{20}$  pages

 $\frac{2^{48} \text{ bytes}}{2^{12} \text{ bytes/page}} = 2^{36} \text{ pages} = 64 \text{ billion pages}$ 



Each process has a separate mapping

Each page is separately mapped

OS take control on certain (invalid) operations: If a process tries to write to a page marked as read-only, it triggers a trap If a process tries to access a page marked as invalid, it triggers a trap

> After handling a trap, the OS can modify the memory mapping as needed (load a page from disk, change permissions, ....)

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## Paging





### Page Number

D: 
$$[0,4095]$$
  
1:  $[4096, 8191]$   
2:  $[8192, 12277]$   
3:  $[12777, 16384]$   
 $2^{20}$ -1:  $[..., 2^{32}$ -1]

What's the size of space for 32 bits virtual address?

Size of space =  $2^{32}$  bits = 4 GB

**VPN** (virtual page number) **PPN** (physical page number)



### Another way to look at it



virtual address

physical address

20-bit PPN

if OS wants a program to be able to use address 0x00402000 to refer to physical address 0x00003000, then the OS conceptually adds an entry: table[0x00402] = 0x00003(table[1026] = 3 in decimal)

(assuming 48-bit addresses and 4KB pages)



### Create the mapping is hard

36-bit VPN => 2^36 translation from VPN to PPN

Assuming each translation is 8 byte  $=> 2^{36} * 8 = 512$ GB

Recall that we are maintaining these mapping per process, 100 process => 51200GB of memory to store address translation!

Most programs only use a small fraction of the available address space, so it does seem to be a good use of resources

Page table can get terribly large!



### Multi-level page table

Represent a linear page table as a hierarchy of smaller page tables

Each level uses a portion of the virtual address to index into its table

- a) The system starts with the root page table.
- b) It uses the first part of the address to find an entry in this table. c) This entry points to a second-level table.
- d) The next part of the address is used to index into this second table.
- e) This process continues through all levels.
- f) The final level provides the actual physical page number.

This tree is space: only fill in parts that are actually in-use!

A virtual address is divided into several parts:

- Multiple segments (often 9 bits each) for indexing each level of tables
- A final segment (often 12 bits) for the offset within the physical page



## Multi-level page table

Map 2MB of physical memory at virtual memory 0, ..., 2 ^ 21 -1 Let's say we have 48 bits, and we divide the VPN into 4 9 bits segments First of all, assuming each physical page is 4 KB, then we have 512 physical pages

**The Virtual Address Range**: We're mapping addresses from 0 to 2^21 - 1 (2MB). 48-bit Address Structure: (It's divided as) 9 bits | 9 bits | 9 bits | 9 bits | 12 bits For the range 0 to 2^21 - 1, **the binary representation** looks like this (X is either 0 or 1): (Level 1) (Level 2) (Level 3) (Level 4) (Page Offset)

Level 1 (Root):	The first 9 bits So, we only need one entry in
Level 2:	The next 9 bits are Again, we only need
Level 3:	The next 9 bits start v However, we only need one er This sing
Level 4:	The next 9 bits (XXXXXXXXX) ca This gives us That's why

are always 00000000 for our entire range.

the root table, pointing to the single Level 2 table we'll use.

e also always 000000000 for our entire range.

one entry, pointing to the single Level 3 table.

with five 0s, but the last 4 can vary (00000XXXX). ntry here because these variations are handled in Level 4. gle entry points to the Level 4 table.

an represent any value from 00000000000000 to 111111111.  $s 2^9 = 512$  different combinations.

we need 512 entries in this level.

### Alternatives and tradeoffs



Many level of mapping: Less space spent on page structures when address space is space, but more costly for hardware to walk the page table

### Many/few level of mapping

- Large page size: waste actual memory
- **Small page size:** lots of page table entries

Few level of mapping: Need to allocate larger pages, which cost more space, but the hardware has fewer levels of mapping