

Chapter 9: Virtual Memory





Background

- Code needs to be in memory to execute, but entire program rarely used
 - Error code, unusual routines, large data structures
- Entire program code not needed at same time
- Consider ability to execute partially-loaded program
 - Program no longer constrained by limits of physical memory
 - Each program takes less memory while running -> more programs run at the same time
 - ▶ Increased CPU utilization and throughput with no increase in response time or turnaround time
 - Less I/O needed to load or swap programs into memory -> each user program runs faster





Background (Cont.)

- ❑ **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
 - ❑ Allows address spaces to be shared by several processes
 - ❑ Allows for more efficient process creation
 - ❑ More programs running concurrently
 - ❑ Less I/O needed to load or swap processes

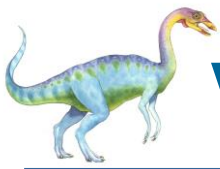




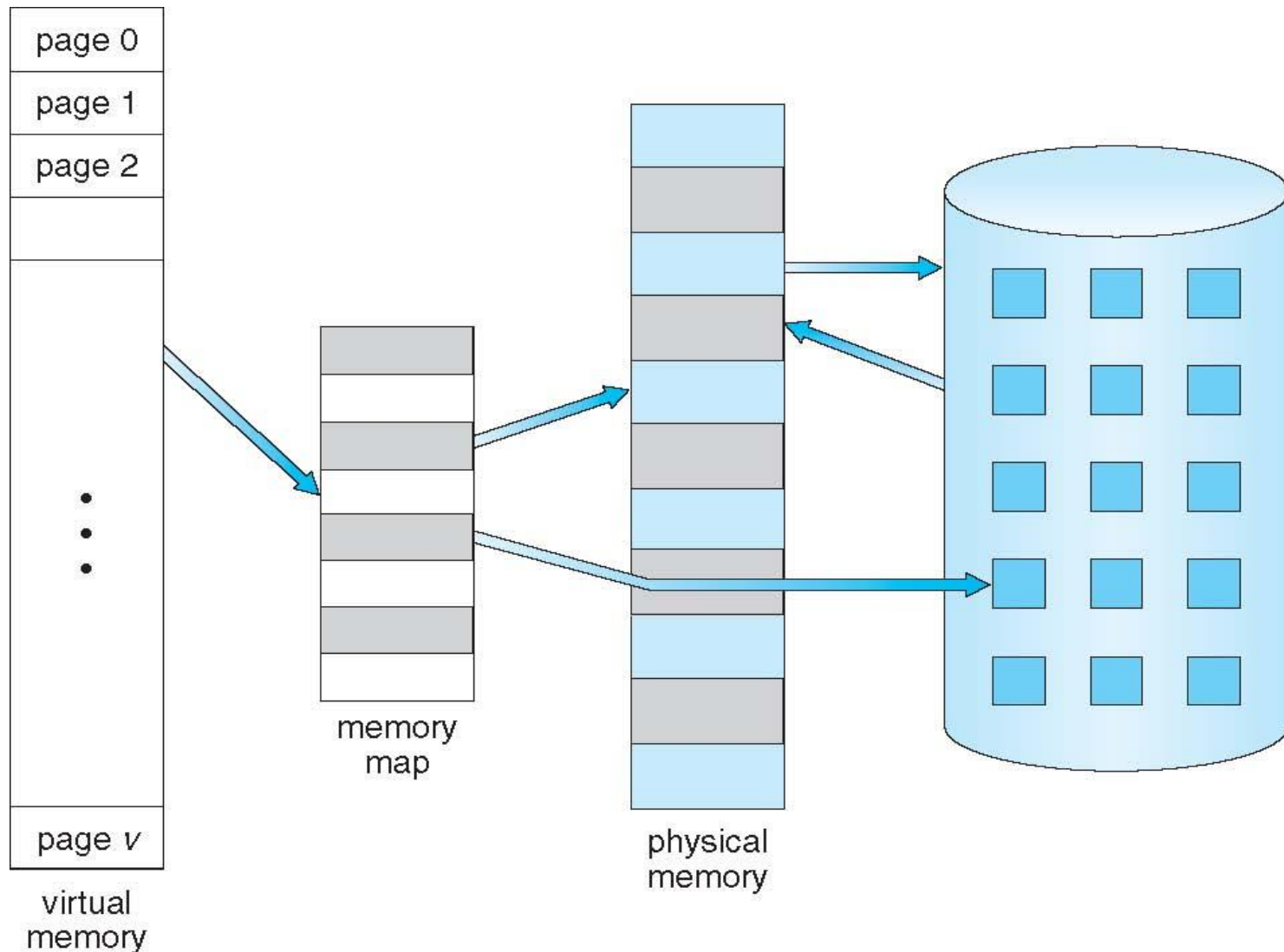
Background (Cont.)

- ❑ **Virtual address space** – logical view of how process is stored in memory
 - ❑ Usually start at address 0, contiguous addresses until end of space
 - ❑ Meanwhile, physical memory organized in page frames
 - ❑ MMU must map logical to physical
- ❑ Virtual memory can be implemented via:
 - ❑ Demand paging
 - ❑ Demand segmentation





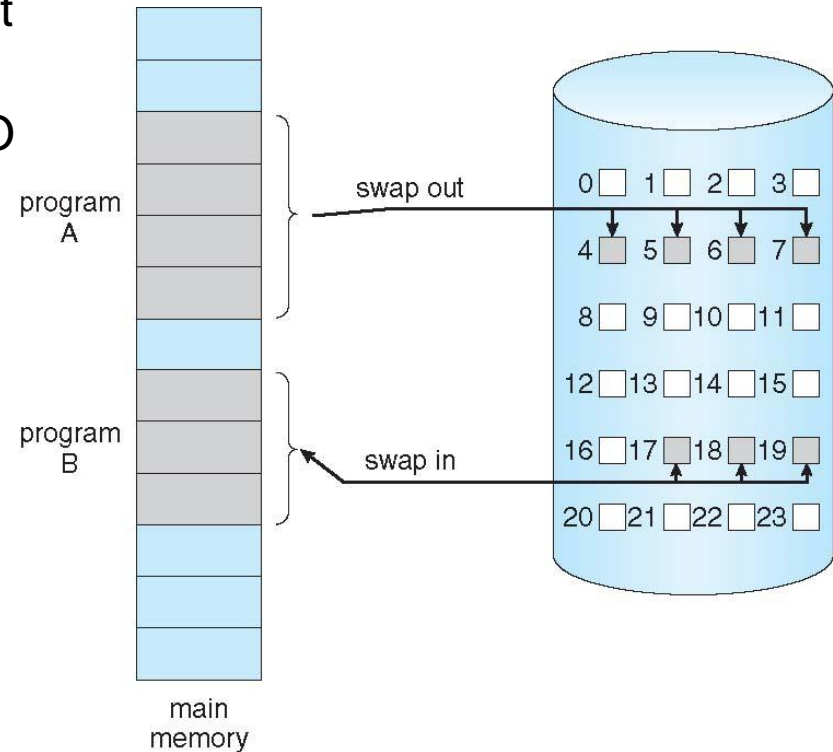
Virtual Memory That is Larger Than Physical Memory





Demand Paging

- ❑ Could bring entire process into memory at load time
- ❑ Or bring a page into memory only when it is needed
 - ❑ Less I/O needed, no unnecessary I/O
 - ❑ Less memory needed
 - ❑ Faster response
 - ❑ More users
- ❑ Similar to paging system with swapping (diagram on right)
- ❑ Page is needed \Rightarrow reference to it
 - ❑ invalid reference \Rightarrow abort
 - ❑ not-in-memory \Rightarrow bring to memory
- ❑ **Lazy swapper** – never swaps a page into memory unless page will be needed
 - ❑ Swapper that deals with pages is a **pager**





Basic Concepts

- ❑ With swapping, pager guesses which pages will be used before swapping out again
- ❑ Instead, pager brings in only those pages into memory
- ❑ How to determine that set of pages?
 - ❑ Need new MMU functionality to implement demand paging
- ❑ If pages needed are already **memory resident**
 - ❑ No difference from non demand-paging
- ❑ If page needed and not memory resident
 - ❑ Need to detect and load the page into memory from storage
 - ▶ Without changing program behavior
 - ▶ Without programmer needing to change code





Valid-Invalid Bit

- With each page table entry a valid–invalid bit is associated (**v** \Rightarrow in-memory – **memory resident**, **i** \Rightarrow not-in-memory)
- Initially valid–invalid bit is set to **i** on all entries
- Example of a page table snapshot:

Frame #	valid-invalid bit
	v
	v
	v
	i
...	
	i
	i

page table

- During MMU address translation, if valid–invalid bit in page table entry is **i** \Rightarrow page fault





Page Table When Some Pages Are Not in Main Memory

0	A
1	B
2	C
3	D
4	E
5	F
6	G
7	H

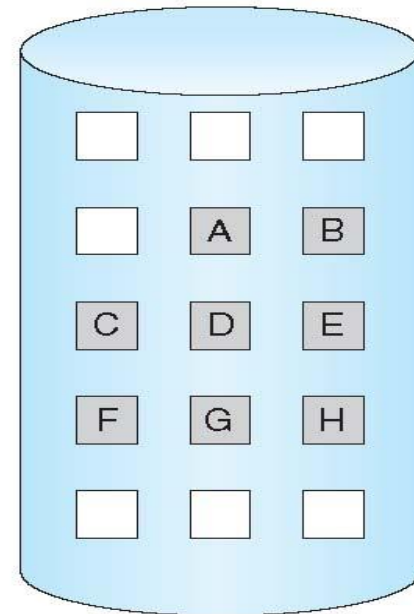
logical
memory

valid-invalid frame bit		
frame		bit
0	4	v
1		i
2	6	v
3		i
4		i
5	9	v
6		i
7		i

page table

0	
1	
2	
3	
4	A
5	
6	C
7	
8	
9	F
10	
11	
12	
13	
14	
15	

physical memory





Page Fault

- If there is a reference to a page, first reference to that page will trap to operating system:

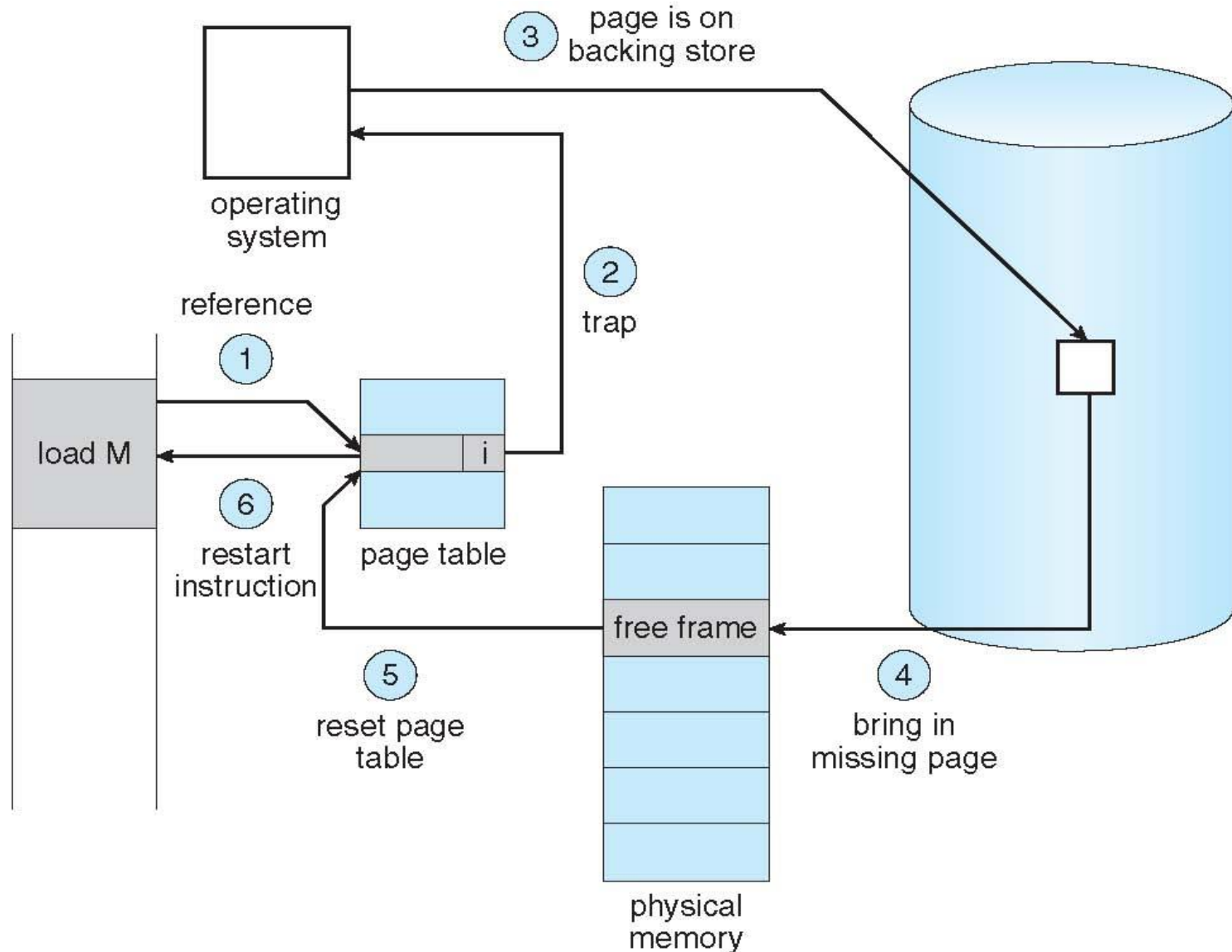
page fault

1. Operating system looks at another table to decide:
 - Invalid reference \Rightarrow abort
 - Just not in memory
2. Find free frame
3. Swap page into frame via scheduled disk operation
4. Reset tables to indicate page now in memory
Set validation bit = **v**
5. Restart the instruction that caused the page fault





Steps in Handling a Page Fault





Aspects of Demand Paging

- ❑ Extreme case – start process with *no* pages in memory
 - ❑ OS sets instruction pointer to first instruction of process, non-memory-resident -> page fault
 - ❑ And for every other process pages on first access
 - ❑ **Pure demand paging**
- ❑ Actually, a given instruction could access multiple pages -> multiple page faults
 - ❑ Consider fetch and decode of instruction which adds 2 numbers from memory and stores result back to memory
 - ❑ Pain decreased because of **locality of reference**
- ❑ Hardware support needed for demand paging
 - ❑ Page table with valid / invalid bit
 - ❑ Secondary memory (swap device with **swap space**)
 - ❑ Instruction restart





Performance of Demand Paging

- Stages in Demand Paging (worse case)
 1. Trap to the operating system
 2. Save the user registers and process state
 3. Determine that the interrupt was a page fault
 4. Check that the page reference was legal and determine the location of the page on the disk
 5. Issue a read from the disk to a free frame:
 1. Wait in a queue for this device until the read request is serviced
 2. Wait for the device seek and/or latency time
 3. Begin the transfer of the page to a free frame
 6. While waiting, allocate the CPU to some other user
 7. Receive an interrupt from the disk I/O subsystem (I/O completed)
 8. Save the registers and process state for the other user
 9. Determine that the interrupt was from the disk
 10. Correct the page table and other tables to show page is now in memory
 11. Wait for the CPU to be allocated to this process again
 12. Restore the user registers, process state, and new page table, and then resume the interrupted instruction





Performance of Demand Paging (Cont.)

- Three major activities
 - Service the interrupt – careful coding means just several hundred instructions needed
 - Read the page – lots of time
 - Restart the process – again just a small amount of time
- Page Fault Rate $0 \leq p \leq 1$
 - if $p = 0$ no page faults
 - if $p = 1$, every reference is a fault
- Effective Access Time (EAT)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{EAT} = & (1 - p) \times \text{memory access} \\ & + p (\text{page fault overhead} \\ & \quad + \text{swap page out} \\ & \quad + \text{swap page in}) \end{aligned}$$





Demand Paging Example

- Memory access time = 200 nanoseconds
- Average page-fault service time = 8 milliseconds
- $EAT = (1 - p) \times 200 + p (8 \text{ milliseconds})$
 $= (1 - p) \times 200 + p \times 8,000,000$
 $= 200 + p \times 7,999,800$
- If one access out of 1,000 causes a page fault, then
EAT = 8.2 microseconds.

This is a slowdown by a **factor of 40!!**

- If want performance degradation < 10 percent
 - $220 > 200 + 7,999,800 \times p$
 $20 > 7,999,800 \times p$
 - $p < .0000025$
 - < one page fault in every 400,000 memory accesses

