

# Systems and Networking I

Applied Computer Science and Artificial Intelligence  
2024-2025



**SAPIENZA**  
UNIVERSITÀ DI ROMA

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# Paging + Segmentation

- Paging (OS' view of memory)
  - Divide memory into fixed-size pages and map them to physical frames
- Segmentation (compiler's view of memory)
  - Divide process into logical segments (e.g., code, data, stack, heap)
- Combine paging with segmentation
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So far, the entire virtual address space of a process was assumed to fit and be all in memory

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**Virtual Memory** uses backing storage (i.e., disk) to store unused pages and give the illusion of "infinite" space



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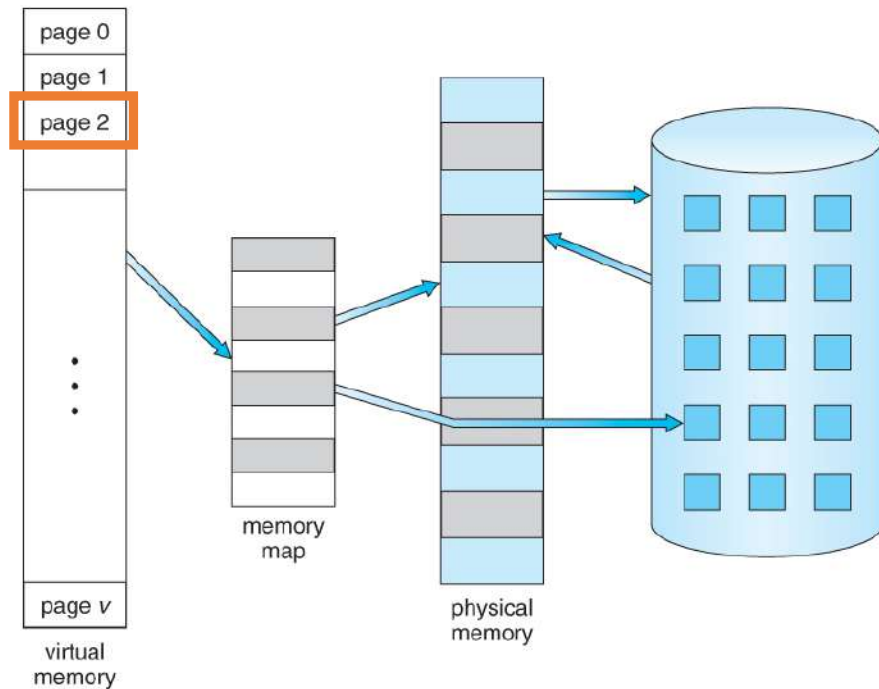
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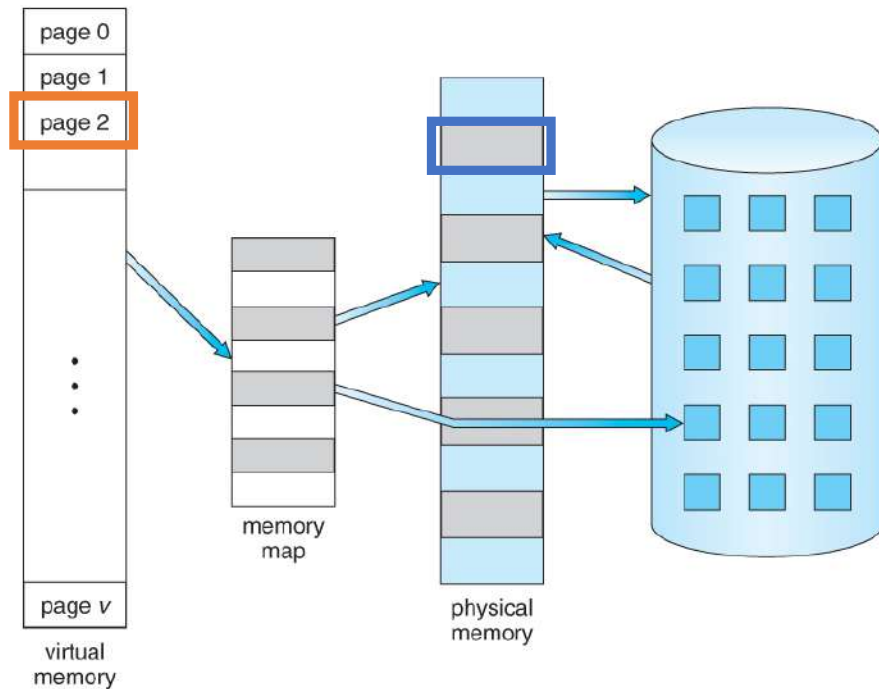
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  - Programs could be written for a much larger address space than physically exists on the computer
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  - Less I/O is needed for swapping processes in and out of memory, speeding things up

# Virtual Memory: The Big Picture



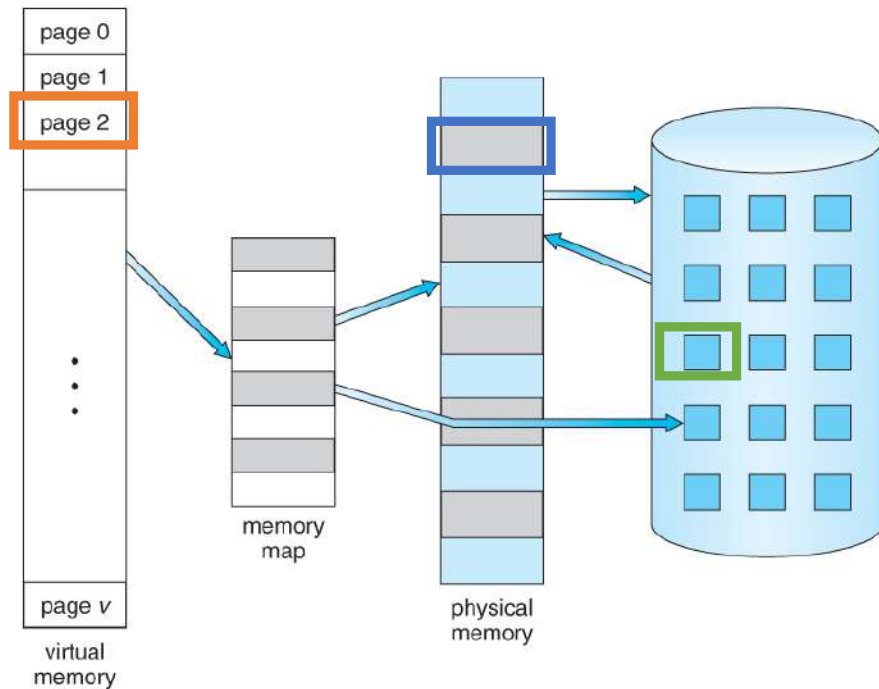
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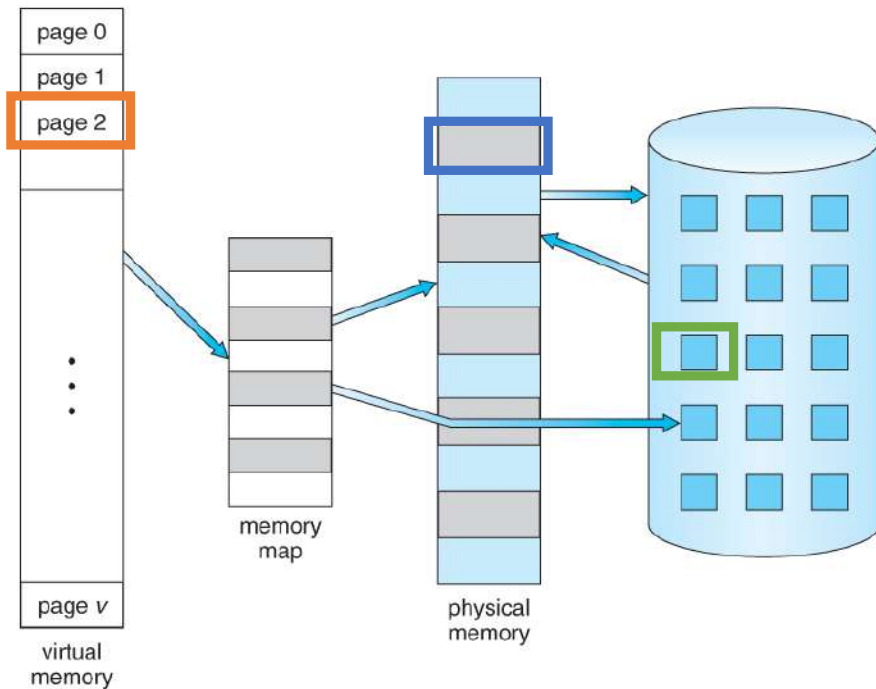
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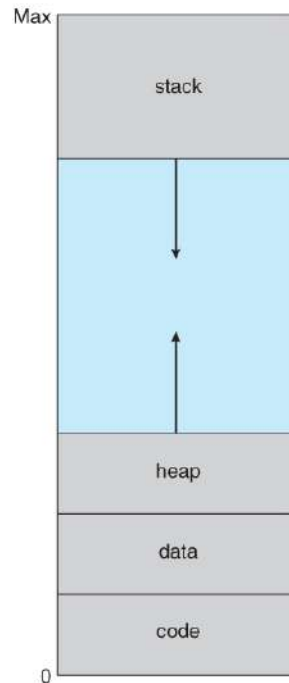
virtual memory can be much larger than physical memory



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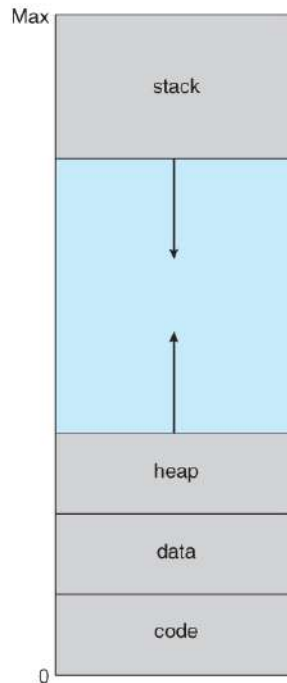


# The Sparseness of Virtual Address Space



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A lot of virtual memory addresses remain unreferenced

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- Therefore, memory accesses must reference pages that are in memory **with high probability**

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- We call this area as the **working set** of the process
- Since the working set is fairly small compared to the whole virtual address space, it will likely fit in memory

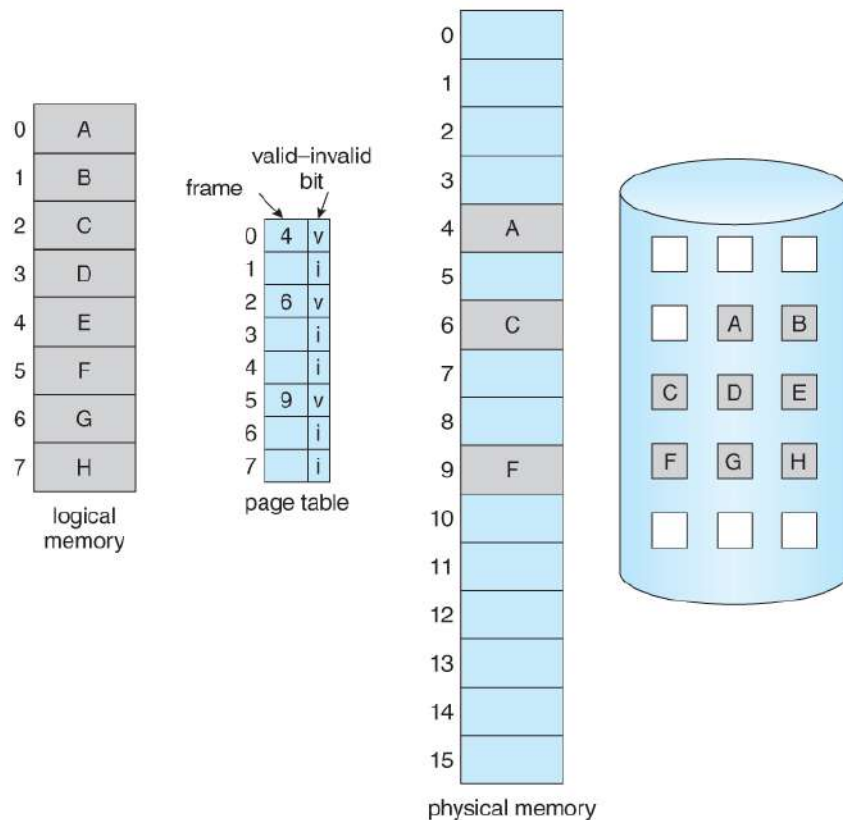
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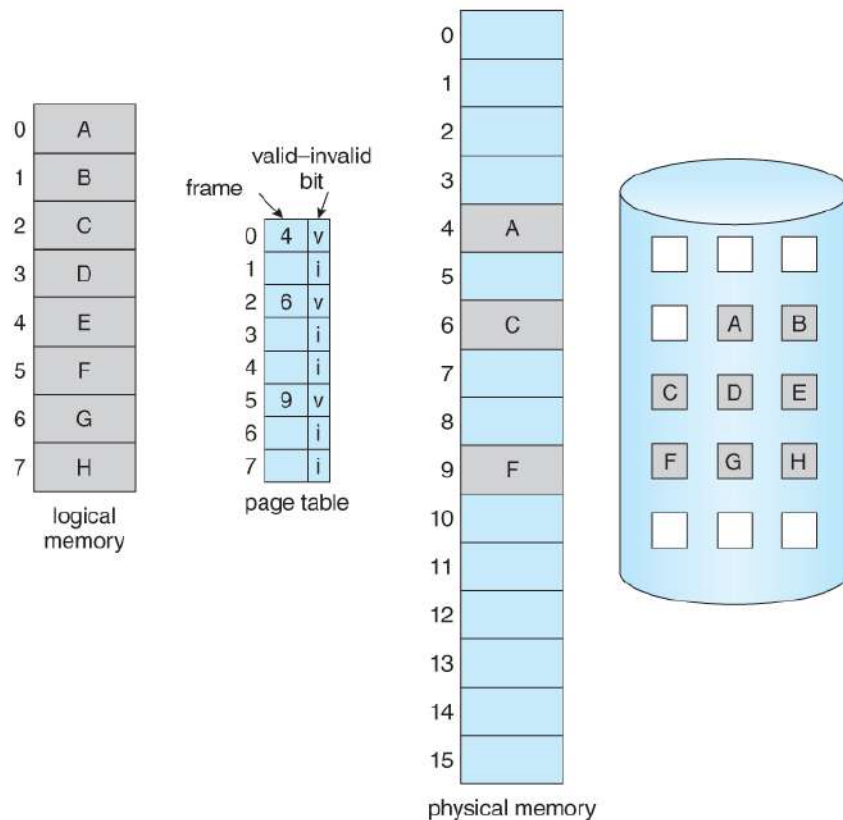
- Of course, during the lifetime of a process its working set may change (i.e., a process may eventually refer *all* of its virtual address space)
- But in a reasonably small time frame, the working set stays "the same"

# Virtual Memory: Basic Concepts



At each logical memory reference, a page table lookup is performed as usual

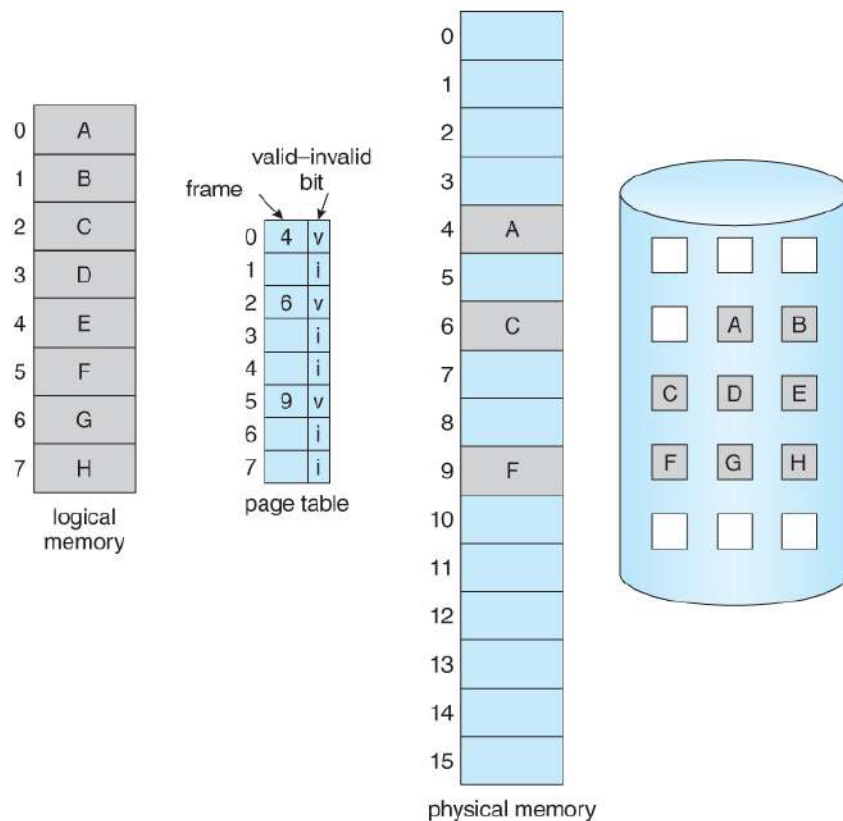
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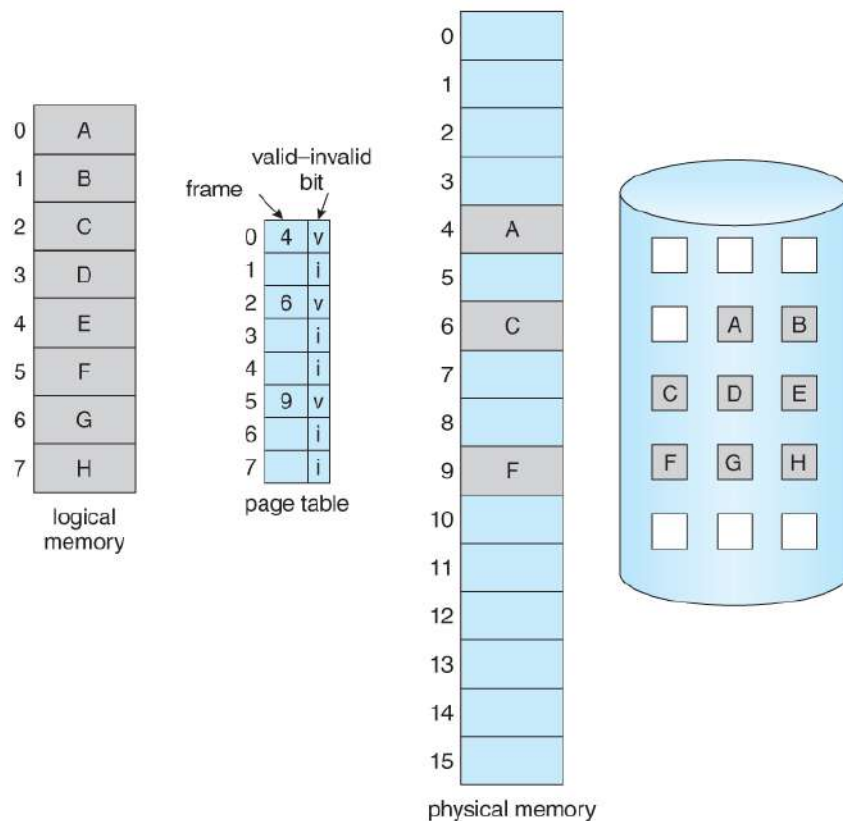


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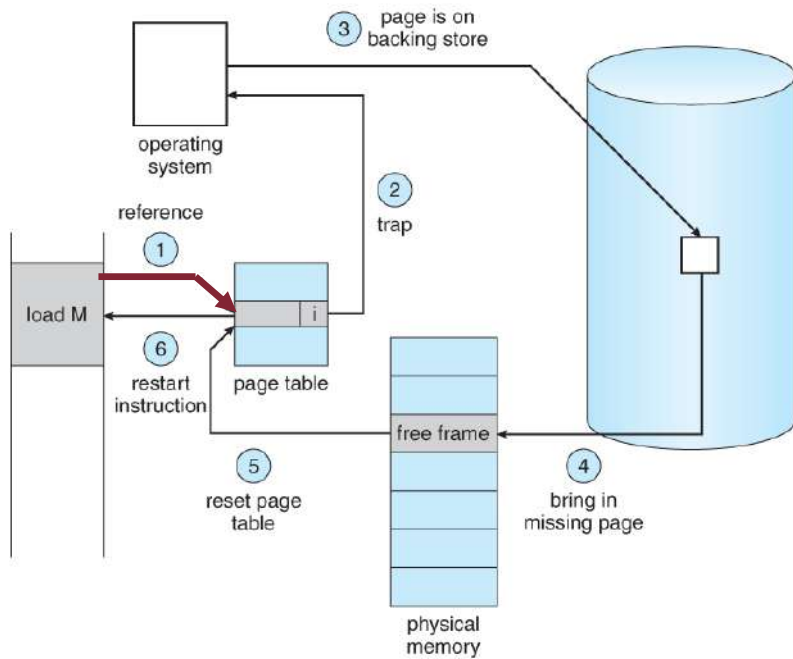
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Otherwise, a **page fault trap** occurs, and the page has to be loaded (i.e., fetched) from disk



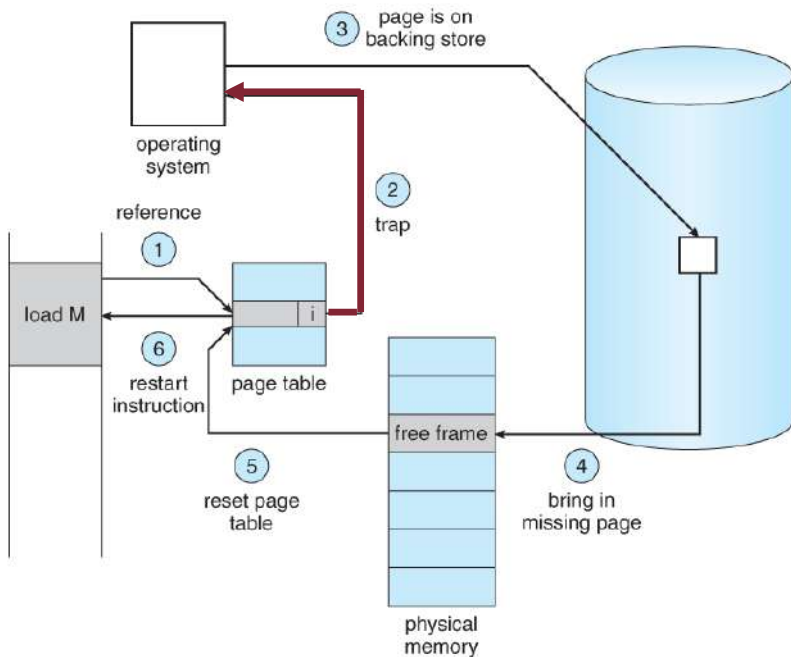
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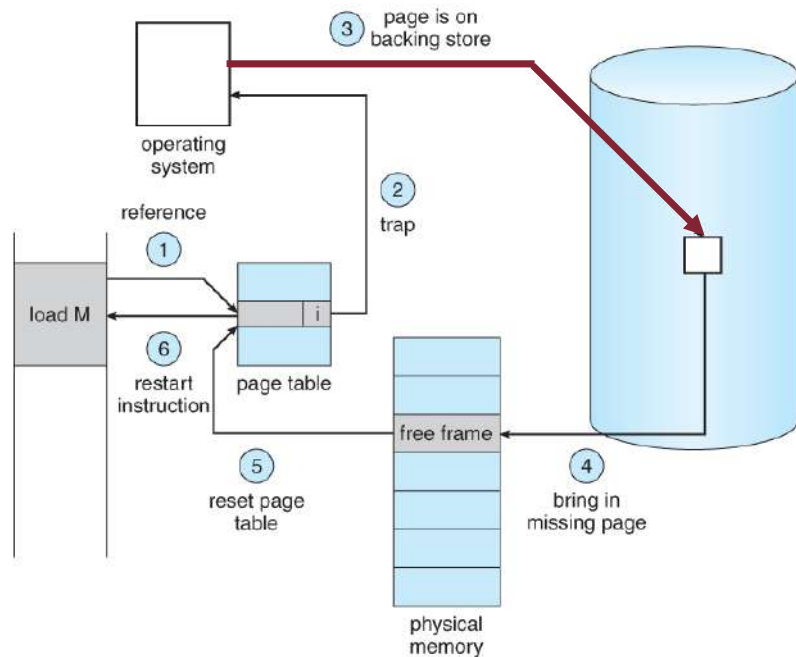


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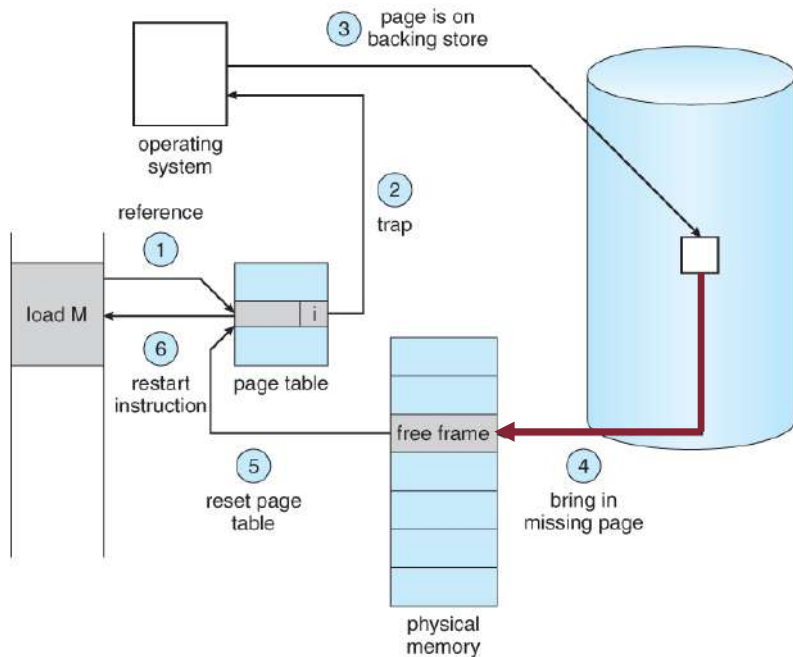


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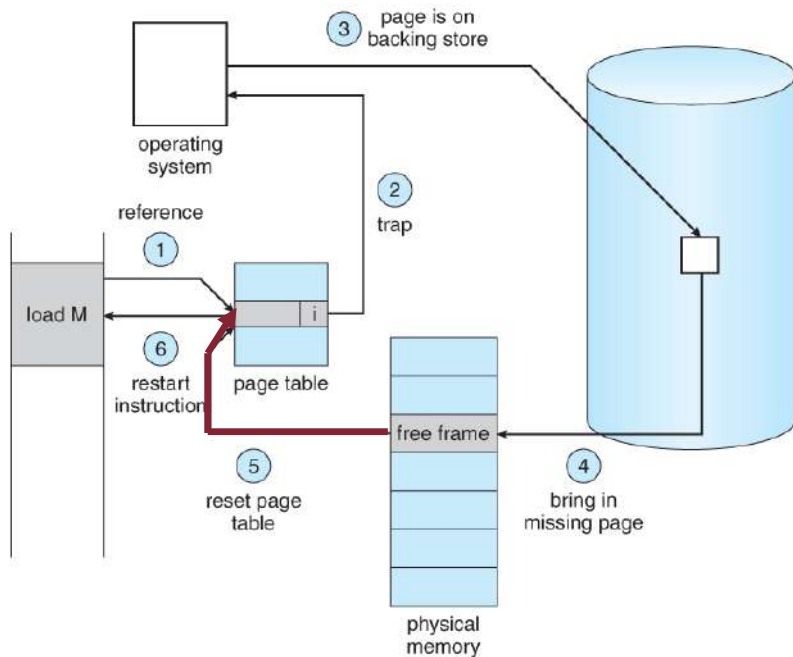
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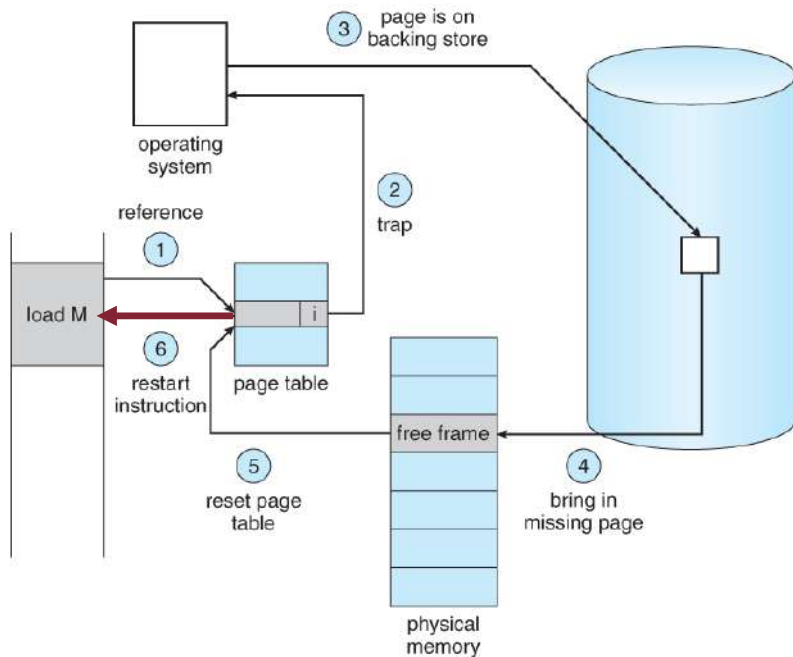
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5. When the I/O operation is complete, the process's page table is updated with the new frame number, and the bit is set to valid
6. The current process gets interrupted and the instruction that caused the page fault must be restarted from the beginning

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- TLB hit means the requested page entry is in the cache **and** the referenced frame is also in memory

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- If the requested page is not in the cache (TLB miss) **and it is not even in memory** (i.e., it is on disk):
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    - invalidates the TLB entry
    - performs page fault trap operations
    - updates the TLB entry
    - restarts the faulting instruction

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- Architecture-dependent:
  - x86: hardware saves the virtual address that caused the fault (CR2 register)
  - On some platforms, OS gets only address of faulting instruction, must simulate the instruction and try every address to find the one that generated the fault

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- Transparently restarting process execution after a page fault is tricky, since the fault may have occurred in the middle of an instruction
- To restart (from scratch) a faulty instruction the OS needs hardware support for saving:
  - The faulting instruction
  - The CPU state

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- **idempotent** vs. **non-idempotent** instructions
- **idempotent** → just restart the faulting instruction  
(hardware saves instruction address during page fault)
- **non-idempotent** → much more difficult to restart
  - `MOV [%R1], +(%R2)` → increment the value of R2 and store it to memory address in R1
  - What if memory address [%R1] causes the page fault?
  - Cannot naively redo the instruction from scratch, otherwise R2 gets incremented twice

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- Even harder when using instructions that are not easily undoable
  - E.g., instructions that are used to move a block of memory at once
  - The block may span multiple pages: some of them can be in memory while some others not
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How to unwind those complicated side-effects?

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Ensure all the addresses within the block to be moved are in memory before executing the instruction

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  - **temporal** → if a process accesses an item in memory, it will tend to reference the same item again soon
  - **spatial** → if a process accesses an item in memory, it will tend to reference a close item again soon

# Virtual Memory: Performance

$t_{MA}$  = physical memory access time

$t_{FAULT}$  = time to handle a page fault

$p \in [0, 1]$  = probability of page fault

$t_{ACCESS}$  = effective time for each memory reference

$$t_{ACCESS} = (1 - p) * t_{MA} + p * t_{FAULT}$$

Let's assume:  $t_{MA} = 100$  nsec and  $t_{FAULT} = 20$  msec = 20,000,000 nsec

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This heavily depends on  $p$ !

# Virtual Memory: Performance Example

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The access time increases from just 100 nsec up to ~20.1 microsec

200 times slowdown factor

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$$1.1 * 100 = 100 - 100p + 20,000,000p =$$
$$19,999,900p = 110 - 100 =$$

To achieve that goal, we can tolerate at most 1 page fault every about 2 million accesses!

$$p = \frac{10}{19,999,900} = \frac{1}{1,999,990} \approx 0,0000005 = 5 * 10^{-7}$$

# Virtual Memory: Performance Example

More generally, given  $t_{MA}$ ,  $t_{FAULT}$ , and a threshold  $\epsilon > 0$  if we want to find  $p$  s.t.:

$$t_{ACCESS} = (1 + \epsilon) * t_{MA}$$

We substitute  $t_{ACCESS}$  and solve for  $p$  the resulting equation:

$$\begin{aligned}(1 - p) * t_{MA} + p * t_{FAULT} &= (1 + \epsilon) * t_{MA} = \\ t_{MA} - p * t_{MA} + p * t_{FAULT} &= t_{MA} + \epsilon * t_{MA} \\ p(t_{FAULT} - t_{MA}) &= \epsilon * t_{MA} =\end{aligned}$$

$$p = \frac{\epsilon * t_{MA}}{t_{FAULT} - t_{MA}}$$

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- So far, we have described how the OS (with the support of HW) manages page faults
- Still, the OS has to answer 2 fundamental questions:
  - When to load process' pages into main memory (**page fetching**)
  - Which page to remove from memory if this gets filled (**page replacement**)

# Page Fetching Goals

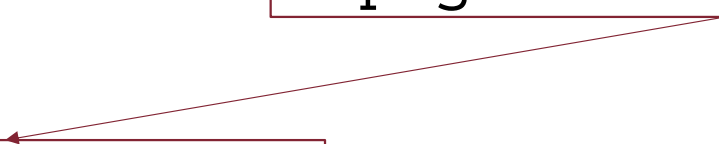
- The overall goal is still to make physical memory look larger than it is
- Exploiting the locality reference of programs
- Keep in memory only those pages that is being used
- Keep on disk those pages that are unused
- Ideally, producing a memory system with the performance of main memory and the cost/capacity of disk!

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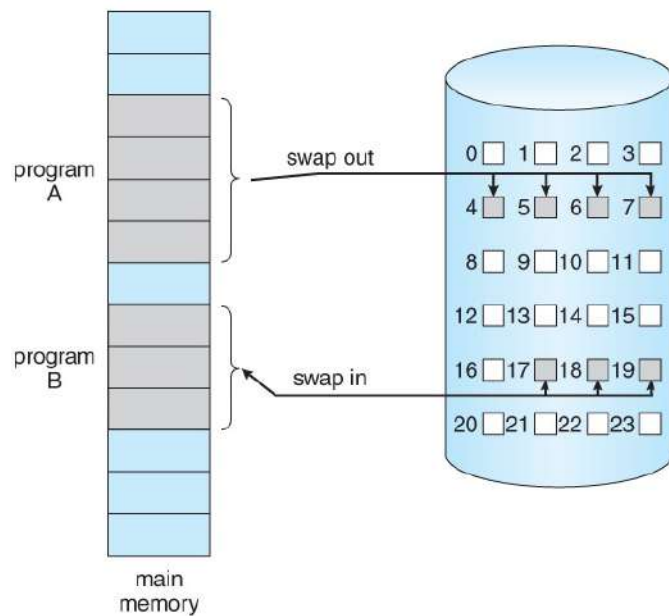
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Most modern OSs use demand fetching

# (Pure) Demand Paging

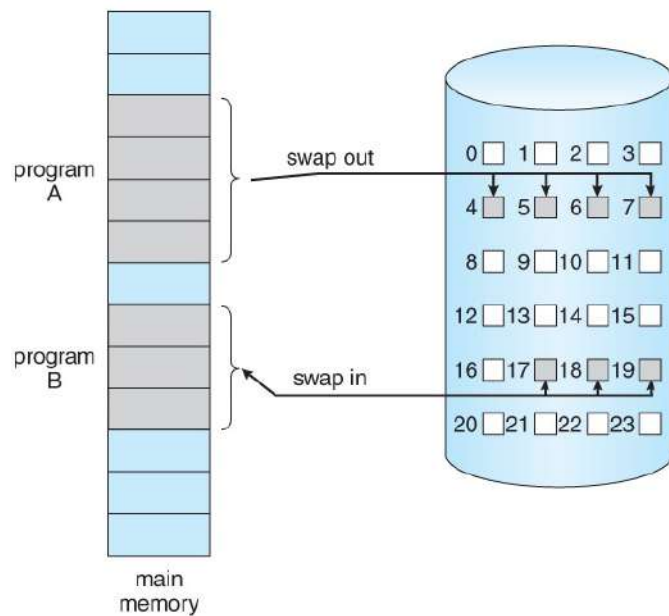
- When a process starts up, **none** of its pages are loaded
- Rather, a page is swapped in only when the process references it (upon a page fault)
- This is termed a **lazy swapper** or **pager**
- Opposite of loading all the pages at process startup!

# Prefetching



The pager guesses when pages will be needed and load them ahead of time

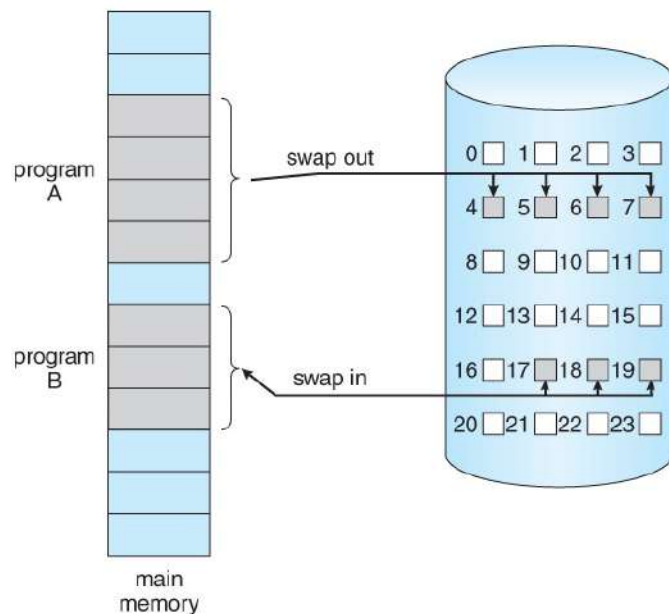
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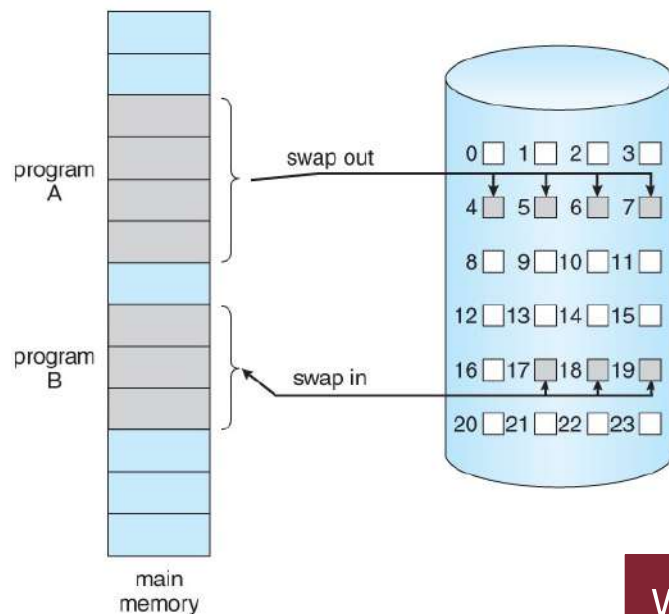


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Possible approach: upon page fault, load many pages instead of only the faulty one

works if program accesses memory sequentially



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- On Linux there exists a dedicated **contiguous swap partition** (on disk)
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- On Mac, instead, swap space is part of the file system (**swap files**) yet subject to fragmentation

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  - **Data** (initialized/uninitialized)
- Depending on which kind of page is removed, different optimizations may apply upon page swap-out

# Swap Out Optimizations

- **Code** page (read-only):
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  - Code content does not change!
  - Just remove and load it back from executable file stored on disk
- **Data** page:
  - Data content does actually change!
  - Save it to the swap area/swap file, so that no changes are lost when it will be loaded in the future

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- Combined to paging, uses secondary storage (i.e., disks) as backup for unallocated frames
- Whenever a process requests a page, this could either be in main memory or on disk (**page fault**)
- Ideally, the OS should keep in main memory each process' **working set** to lower the chance of a page fault