

CPSC 410 – Operating Systems I

### Computer System Overview

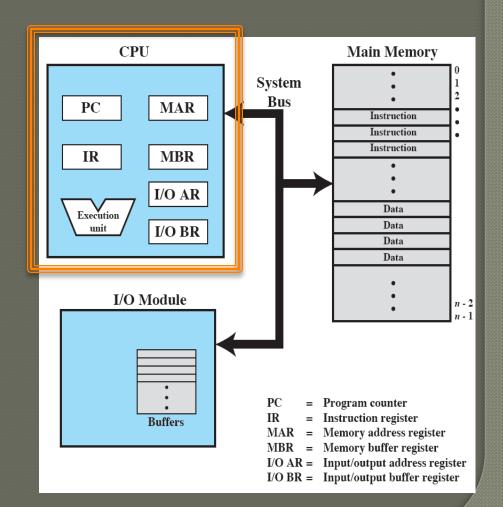
#### **Keith Perkins**

Original slides by Dr. Roberto A. Flores Additional content from https://onlinecourses.nptel.ac.in/noc17\_cs29/preview

### Topics

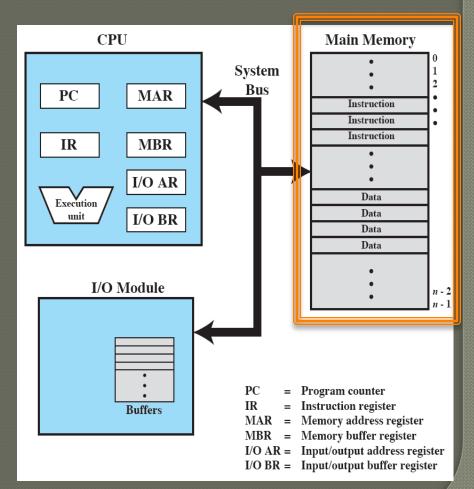
- Basic Elements
  - Processor, main memory, I/O modules, system bus
- Microprocessors
  - General purpose, graphics, digital signal, system on chip
- Instructions
  - Execution, fetch & execute (F&E), instruction register
- Interrupts
  - Types, flow of control, F&E&I, multiple interrupts
- Memory
  - Hierarchy, principle of locality, cache
- I/O Techniques
  - Programmed, interrupt-driven, direct memory access
- Symmetric multi-processors
  - Advantages, organization, multi-core

- Processor
  - aka CPU
    - Central Processing Unit
  - Controls execution of instructions
  - Performs data processing



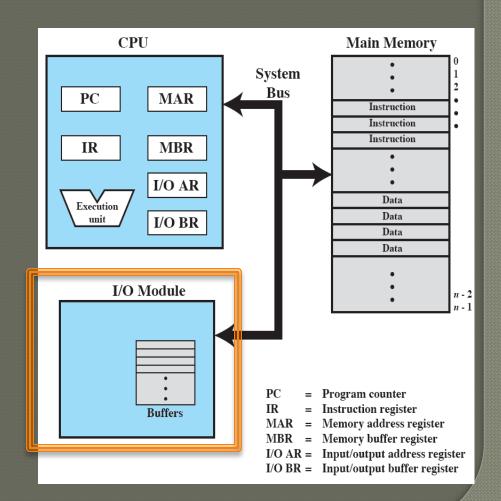
#### • Memory

- aka primary/main memory, RAM
  - Random Access Memory
- Stores instructions & data
- Volatile
  - Contents are lost when the computer is shut down



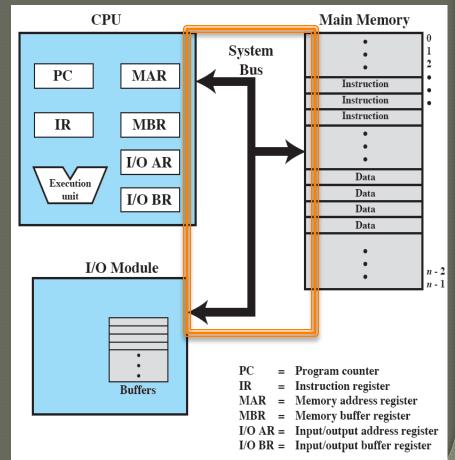
#### I/O Modules

- aka device drivers
- Move data between the computer and external devices:
  - storage (e.g. hard drive)
  - communications equipment
  - terminals
- Have buffers to push/pull data



#### System bus

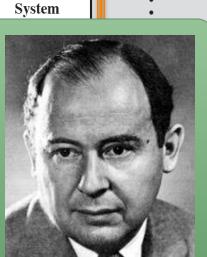
- Means of communication among processors, memory
   & I/O modules
- Its speed limits computer performance
  - Known as the....



System bus

Means of communication

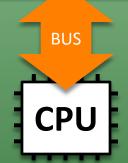
**CPU** 



Main Memory

#### von Neumman Bottleneck

- Data & Code must pass through the bus (the bottleneck)
- Physical & Intellectual barrier\*



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\* Backus (1978) "Can Programming Be Liberated from the von Neumann Style?" Communications of the ACM, Vol. 28, Num. 8

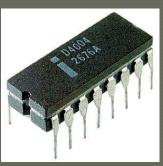
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### Microprocessors

#### General Purpose

- It brought about PC & handheld computing
- 1 processor or more (cores) on a single chip
- Graphical Processing Units (GPU)



Intel 4004, wikipedia.org

- Efficient computation on arrays of data, e.g., math & physics simulations (for games), large spreadsheets
- Digital Signal Processors (DSP)
  - Streaming audio or video signals; en/decoding (codecs)
- System on a Chip (SoC)
  - Embedded systems (handheld)
  - CPU, GPU, DSP, memory in one chip

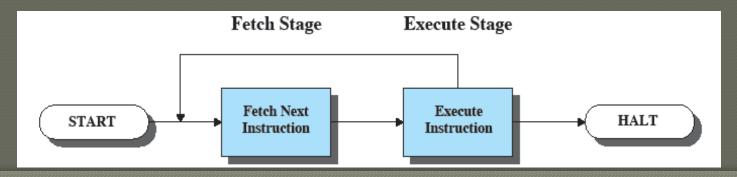


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#### Instructions

- A program is a set of instructions stored in memory
- CPU instruction cycle (fetch & execute)
  - program counter (PC) has address of next instruction
  - processor reads (fetches) an instruction from memory
  - instruction stored in instruction register (IR)
  - program counter increments address
  - processor executes instruction; repeat until forever

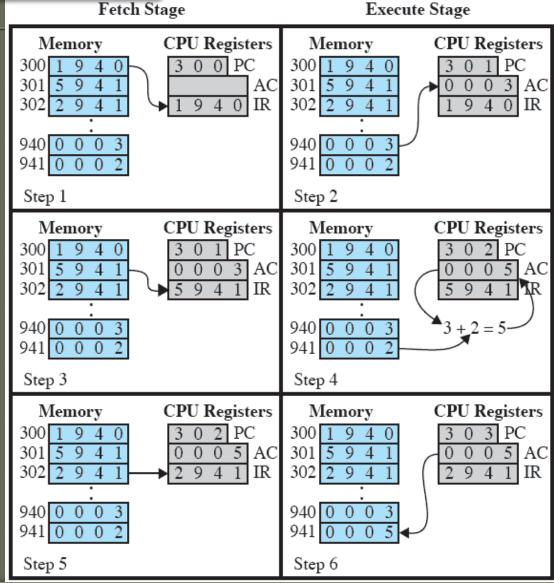


program counter (PC) has address of next instruction processor <u>fetches</u> instruction from memory instruction stored in instruction register (IR) program counter increments address processor executes instruction; repeat until forever

1 load AC from memory2 store store AC to memory5 add to AC from memory

Instructions

• Example



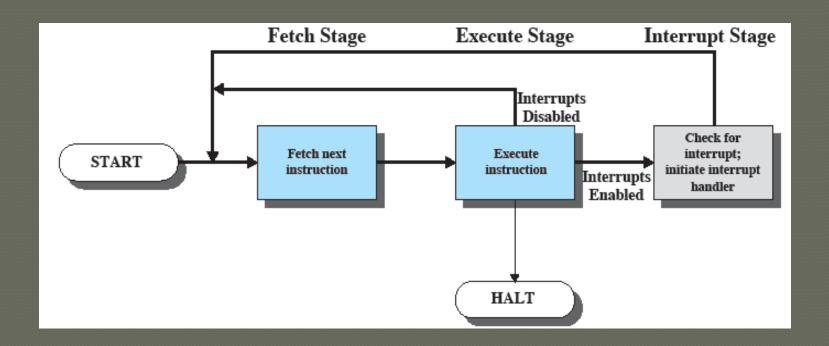
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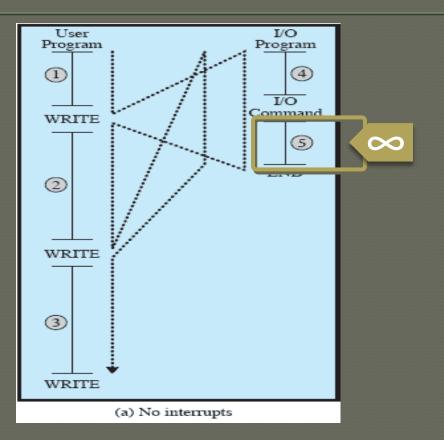
- Interrupts normal sequencing of the processor
- Provided to improve processor utilization
  - I/O devices are slower than CPU
  - Without interrupts, CPU must pause to wait for I/O device (wastes its time)
- Interrupts ensure timely process switches
- Interrupts provide safe user access to potentially dangerous instructions

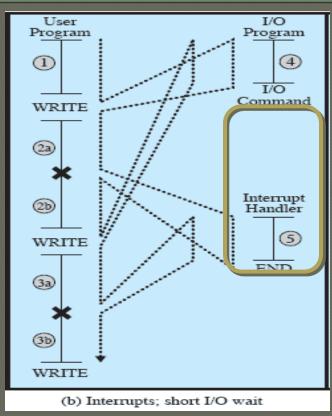
### Interrupts- where in instruction cycle

- Fetch & Execute & Interrupt
  - Same as before, plus an Interrupt Stage



### Interrupts-Why





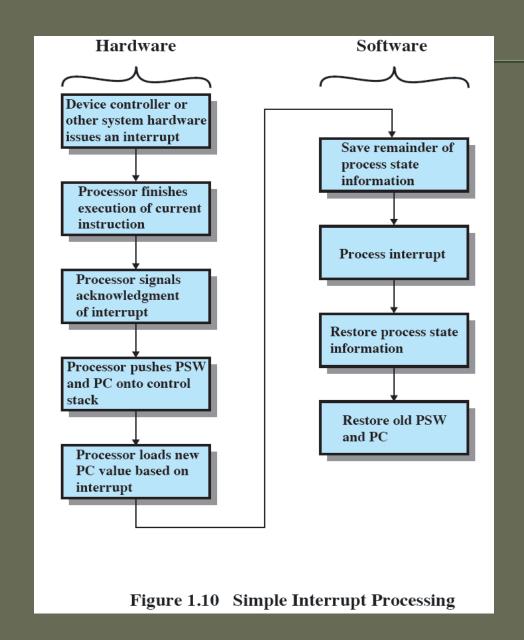
- Polling (left side) CPU periodically checks device to see if it needs attention. Huge waste of CPU time.
- Instead start operation, have CPU do other work until notified by interrupt that operation is finished

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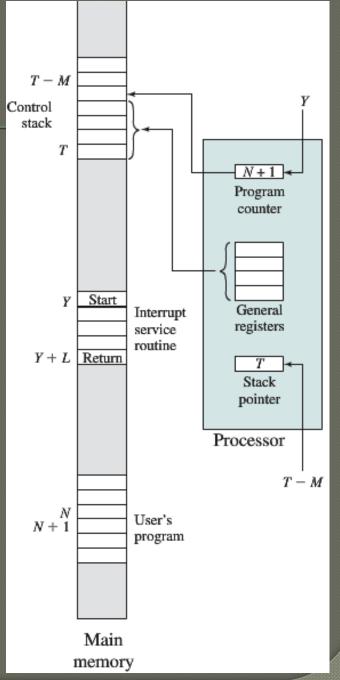
### Example - why we need interrupts

- CPU 4x10\*\*-10 secs per instruction
  - CPU clock 2.5 Ghz or
- Hard Drive 4 \*10\*\*-3 per access
- © CPU 10 million times faster than HD
- Or, if 1 CPU instruction took 1 second, 1 HD access would take 16.5 weeks
- Don't want CPU to wait on HD

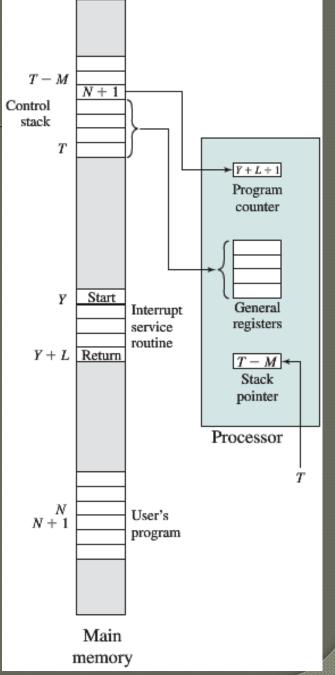
# Simple Interrupt Processing



- What happens when CPU is disrupted by an interrupt?
  - Finish executing instruction N
  - { interrupt }
  - store registers, PC (size M) in control stack @ T
  - update stack pointer to T-M
  - execute interrupt instruction
     @ Y until finishing @ Y+L
  - load back top of control stack
  - continue executing @ N+1

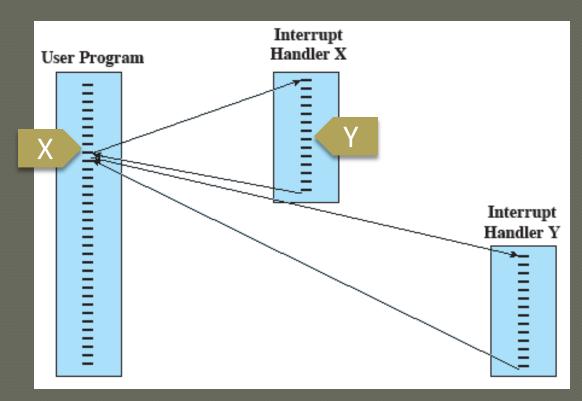


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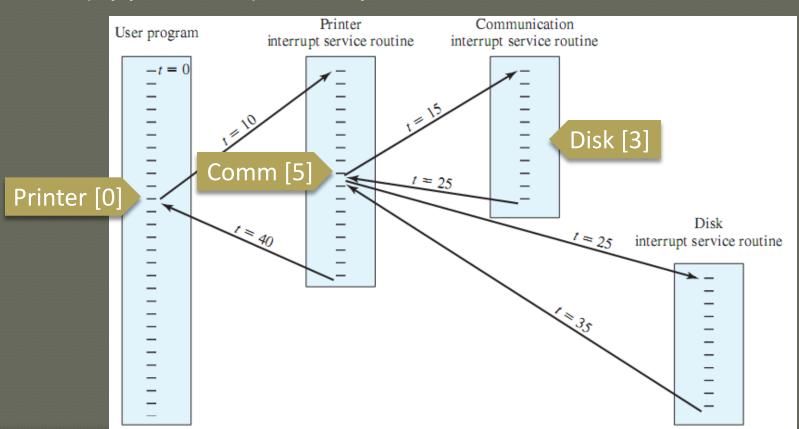


- Multiple overlapping interrupts
  - An interrupt happens when another is being handled
  - 1. Disable interrupts (when handling an interrupt)
    - 2<sup>nd</sup> interrupt waits until 1<sup>st</sup> interrupt is handled
    - Strictly sequential
  - 2. Use a priority scheme
    - Interrupts can interrupt interrupt-handling...
    - ...but only if they have a higher priority; otherwise they wait
    - Hierarchical (by priority)

- Multiple overlapping interrupts
  - (approach 1) Interrupts disabled



- Multiple overlapping interrupts
  - (approach 2) Priority Scheme



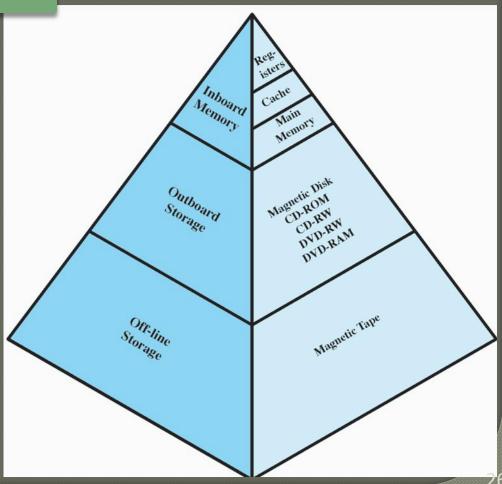
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- Major (conflicting) constraints
  - speed (access time), amount, cost
  - Memory must keep up with CPU (speed)
    - Faster access time = greater cost
  - Memory must satisfy data volumes (amount)
    - Greater capacity = smaller cost = slower access speed

Hierarchy going down

- cost decreases
- capacity increases
- access time increases
- frequency of access by CPU decreases
  - really? how does it happen?

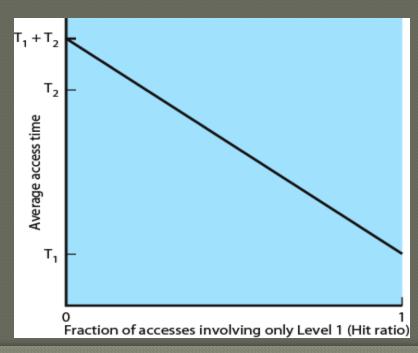


#### Principle of Locality

- Why does frequency of access by CPU decrease?
  - Memory references (i.e., data) needed by CPU (i.e., the current set of instructions in a program) tend to cluster
    - e.g. array "a" being read in a loop
  - Data gets naturally clustered so that the percentage of accesses to each successively lower level is substantially less than that of the level above
- Eventually a set of data is replaced by another, but it's less frequent proportionally to the use within a set, which makes overhead bearable.

#### Performance Example

- 2 levels of memory (L1,L2)
  - T1 @ 0.1μs (1kb total) faster but scarce
  - T2 @ 1μs (100kb total ) slower but plenty



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  - 95% of data in L1 and 5% in L2?

#### Performance Example

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- What's the average access time if...
  - 95% of data in L1 and 5% in L2?
    - $0.95 * 0.1 \mu s + 0.05 * (0.1 \mu s + 1 \mu s) = 0.15 \mu s$
  - 5% of data in L1 and 95% in L2?

Looks in L1 first then L2

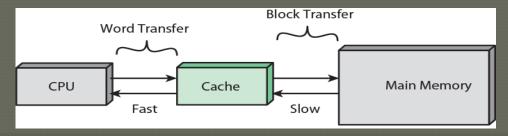
#### Performance Example

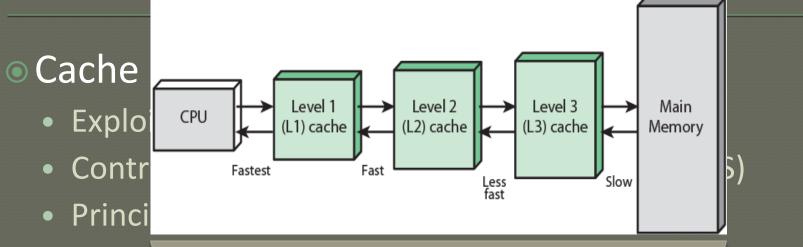
- 2 levels of memory (L1,L2) What if you have 3 levels?
  - T1 @ 0.1μs (1kb) faster but scarce
  - T2 @ 1μs (100kb) slower but plenty
- What's the average access time if...
  - 95% of data in L1 and 5% in L2?
    - $0.95 * 0.1 \mu s + 0.05 * (0.1 \mu s + 1 \mu s) = 0.15 \mu s$
  - 5% of data in L1 and 95% in L2?
    - $0.05 * 0.1 \mu s + 0.95 * (0.1 \mu s + 1 \mu s) = 1.05 \mu s$
  - It's to our advantage to have frequently accessed data in faster memory locations

reason why caches exist

#### Cache

- Exploits the Principle of Locality
- Controlled by hardware (i.e., it is invisible to OS)
- Principles
  - Contains a copy of a portion of main memory
  - CPU checks cache for data
    - if found: use data
    - if not found: reads block of data from memory (where data is) and copies it into cache





- Conta
- CPU cl
  - if four
  - if not for copies i

In practice: several levels are common

Word Transfer

CPU

Cache

Slow

Main Memory

data is) and

#### Cache Design

- Cache size
  - Even small caches decrease access times
- Cache block
  - Unit of data exchanged between cache and memory
    - Too small: less data than needed (overhead: constant exchanges).
    - Too large: more data than needed (overhead: storing unused data).
- Mapping function
  - Finds location in cache of a newly read block
  - If space needed, an existing block is replaced

#### Cache Design (2)

- Replacement algorithm
  - Least Recently Used (LRU) Algorithm
- Write policy
  - Indicates when a block is written back to memory
  - A) each time it is updated (with a new value)
    - Adds unnecessary writing overhead
  - B) each time it is replaced (with another block)
    - Minimizes write operations
    - Leaves memory in an obsolete state
      - ...which interferes with multi-processor operations accessing memory e.g., another program, buffered I/O, DMA

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\* When the processor encounters an instruction relating to I/O, it executes that instruction by issuing a command to the appropriate I/O module

Three techniques are possible for I/O operations:

Programme d I/O Interrupt-Driven I/O Direct Memory Access (DMA)

What does the CPU do when finding an I/O (read/write) instruction?

- 1) Programmed I/O
  - CPU waits for completion of command and periodically checks the status of the I/O module until it determines the instruction is complete
    - 1. CPU sends I/O command to I/O module
    - If writing, CPU transfers data.
    - 2. CPU waits until I/O module completes command.
    - If reading, CPU transfers data
    - 3. CPU resumes execution
  - Extreme Inefficiency!

Remember the 1 sec verses 16 weeks example?

What does the CPU do when finding an I/O (read/write) instruction?

- 2) Interrupt-driven I/O
  - CPU keeps executing while I/O command is completed
    - 1. CPU sends I/O command to I/O module
    - If writing, CPU transfers data.
    - 2. CPU resumes execution.
    - 3. I/O module triggers an interrupt when command is done
    - If reading, CPU transfers data
    - 4. CPU resumes execution
  - No wait, but CPU still heavily involved in data transfer

- 2) Interrupt-driven I/O Drawbacks
  - Transfer rate is limited by the speed with which the processor can service a device
  - The processor is tied up in managing an I/O transfer since a number of instructions must be executed for each I/O transfer

What does the CPU do when finding an I/O (read/write) instruction?

- 3) Direct Memory Address (DMA)
  - Performed by a separate module on the system bus (DMA)
  - CPU keeps executing while I/O command is completed by DMA module
    - 1. CPU sends I/O command, memory address (where data is read or written), data size and I/O module to DMA
    - 2. CPU resumes execution.
    - 3. I/O module triggers an interrupt when command is done (including data transfer)
    - 4. CPU resumes execution
  - No wait & CPU doesn't transfer data (may have bus contention though)

#### 3) Direct Memory Address (DMA)

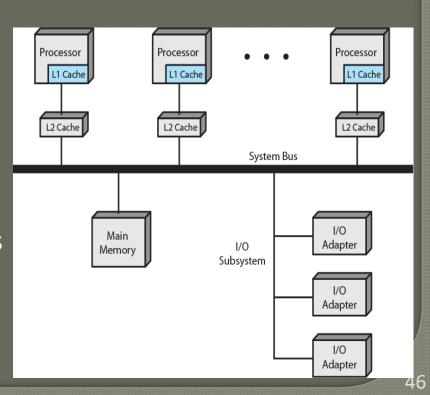
- Transfers the entire block of data directly to and from memory without going through the processor
  - processor is involved only at the beginning and end of the transfer
  - processor executes more slowly during a transfer when processor access to the bus is required
- More efficient than interrupt-driven or programmed I/O
- But DMA module uses bus, so CPU might have to wait

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# Symmetric Multi-Processors

- A stand-alone computer system with:
  - 2+ similar processors:
    - capable of performing the same functions
  - which (physically):
    - are interconnected by a bus
    - share memory & I/O devices
  - are controlled by an OS that
    - provides interaction between processors and their programs (at the job, task, file, and data levels)



### Symmetric Multi-Processors

#### Advantages

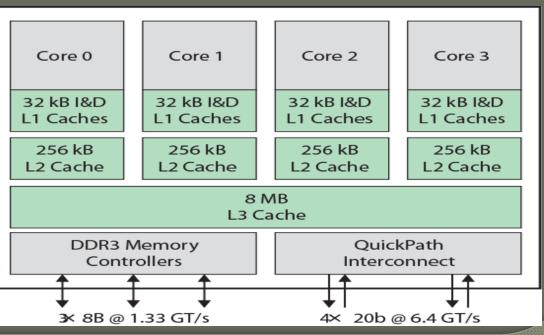
- Performance
  - can yield greater performance (if OS can handle work in parallel)
- Availability
  - failure of one processor does not halt the machine
- Scaling
  - additional processors result in a range of products of different price and performance

### Symmetric Multi-Processors

#### Multi-Core

- 2+ processors (cores) in 1 micro-chip
  - each core has all components of an independent processor (including 2 or 3 cache levels)
- Intel Core i7
  - 4-8 cores
  - 8 Mb L3 cache
  - Intel Iris Pro GPI





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