

CPSC 410 - Operating Systems I

Computer System Overview

Keith Perkins

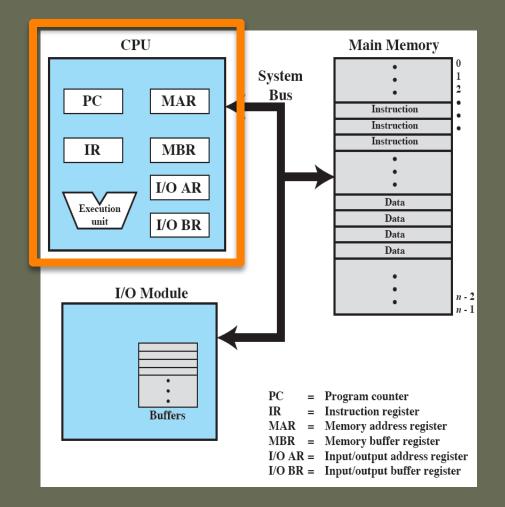
Original slides by Dr. Roberto A. Flores
Additional content from https://onlinecourses.nptel.ac.in/noc17_cs29/preview

Topics

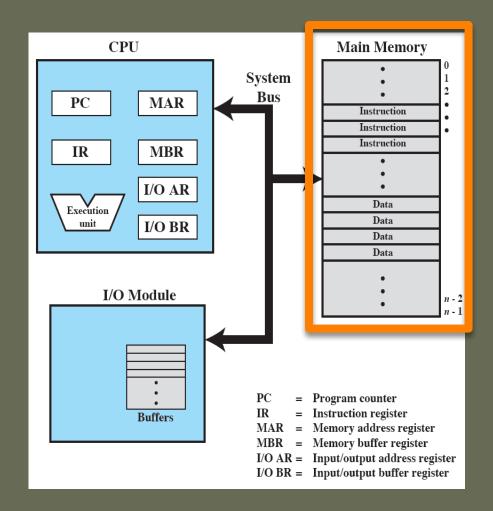
Basic Elements

- 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

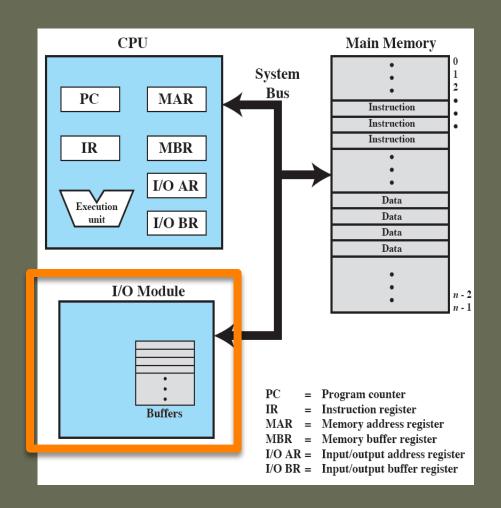


- aka primary/main memory,RAM
 - Random Access Memory
- Stores instructions & data
- Volatile
 - Contents are lost when the computer is shut down



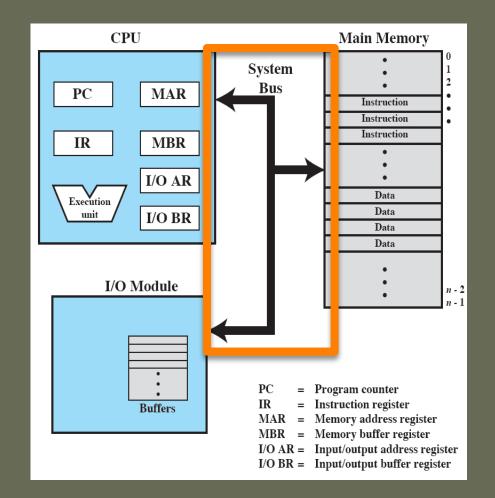
1/0 Modules

- 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

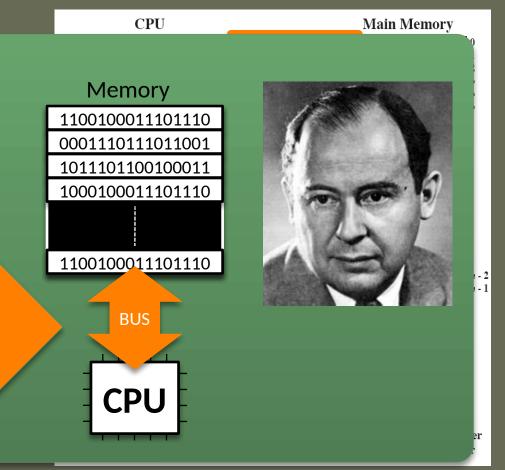


System bus

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



System bus



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

Topics

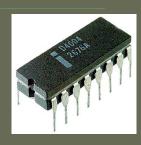
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Microprocessors

General Purpose

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



Intel 4004, wikipedia.org

- Graphical Processing Units (GPU)
 - 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



Topics

Basic Elements

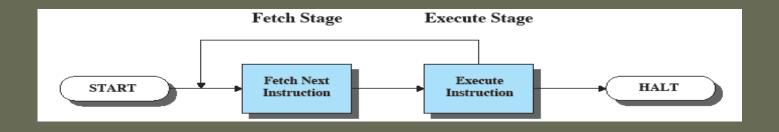
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Instructions

- 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 done

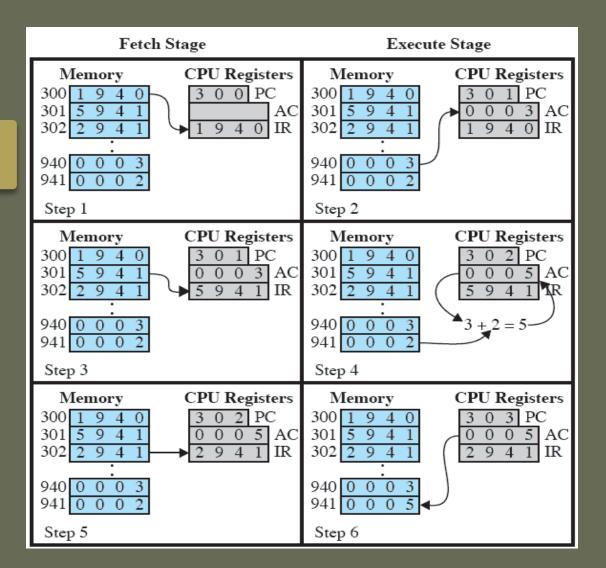


program counter (PC) has address of next instruction processor <u>fetches</u> instruction from memory instruction stored in instruction register (IR) program counter increments address processor <u>executes</u> instruction; repeat until forever

Instructions

Example

1 load AC from memory 2 store store AC to memory 5 add to AC from memory



Topics

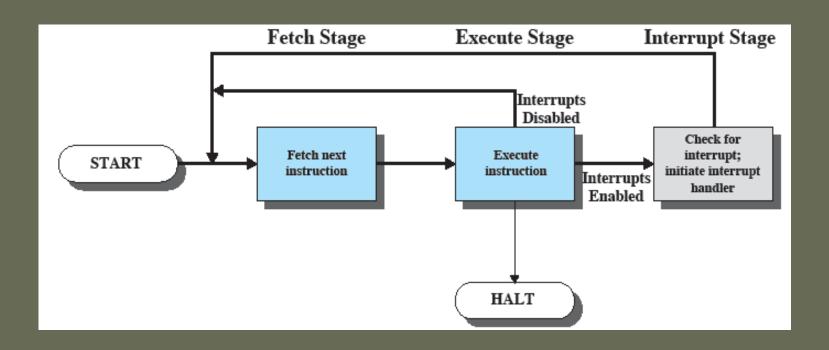
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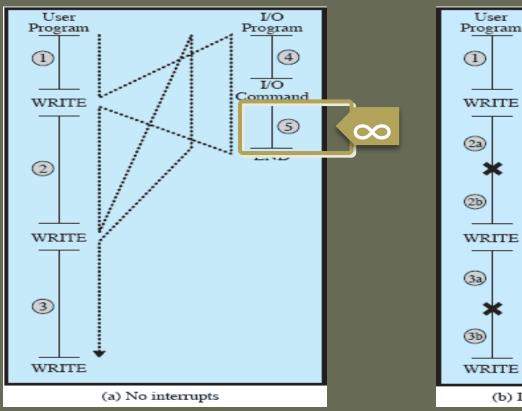
- Interrupts normal sequencing of the processor
- Provided to improve processor utilization
 - I/O devices are slower than CPU
 - Without interrupts, CPU must pause to wait for I/O device (wastes its time)
- Interrupts ensure timely process switches
- Interrupts provide safe user access to potentially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

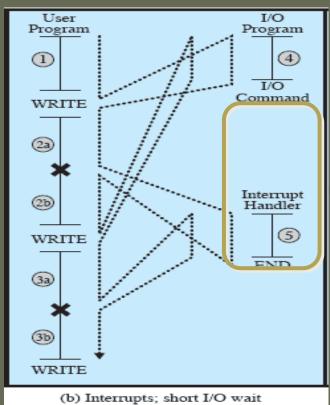
Interrupts- where in instruction cycle

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



Interrupts-Why



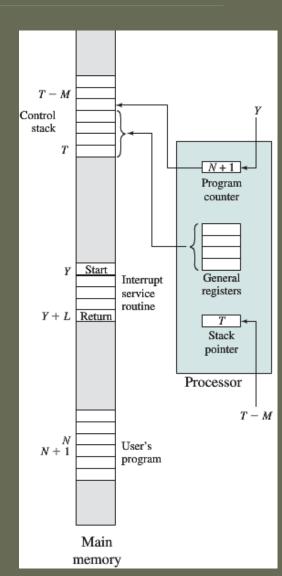


- Polling (left side) CPU periodically checks device to see if it needs attention. Almost always a huge waste of time.
- Instead, start operation, have CPU do other work until notified by interrupt that operation is finished

Example - why we need interrupts (or why polling is often bad)

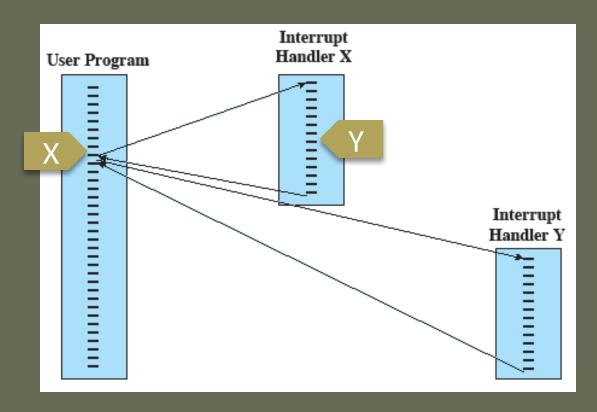
- CPU clock 2.5 Ghz or 4x10**-10 seconds per instruction
- Hard Drive 4 *10**-3 seconds per access
- CPU is 10 million times faster than HD
- Or, if 1 CPU instruction took 1 second, 1 HD access would take 16.5 weeks
- Don't want CPU to wait on HD

- 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

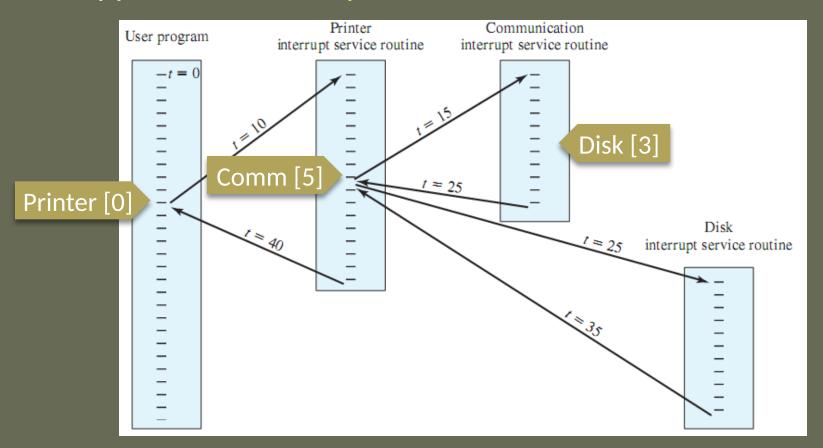


- Multiple overlapping interrupts
 - An interrupt happens when another is being handled
 - 1. Disable interrupts (when handling an interrupt)
 - 2nd interrupt waits until 1st interrupt is handled
 - Strictly sequential
 - 2. Use a priority scheme
 - Interrupts can interrupt interrupt-handling...
 - ...but 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



Topics

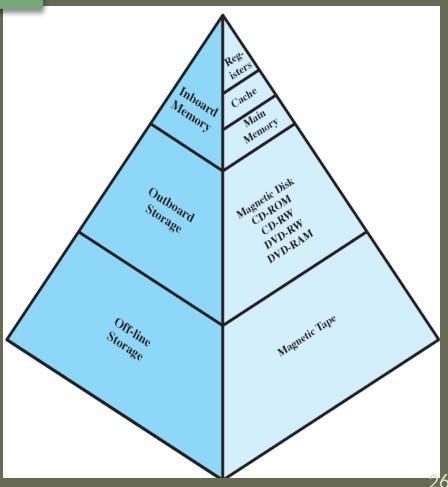
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- Major (conflicting) constraints
 - speed (access time), amount, cost
 - Memory must keep up with CPU (speed)
 - Faster access time = greater cost
 - Memory must satisfy data volumes (amount)
 - Greater capacity = smaller cost = slower access speed

Hierarchy

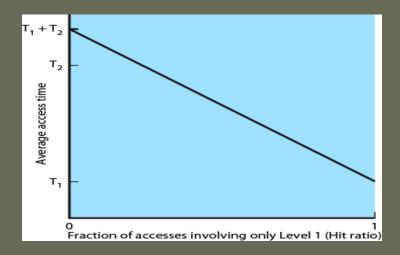
going down

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



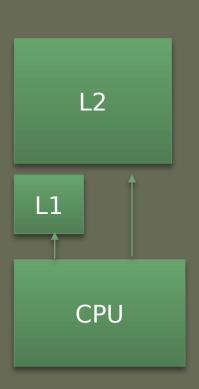
- Principle of Locality
- Memory references (i.e., data) needed by CPU tend to cluster
- Temporal locality -- near in time, we need the same data soon. For example often go back and execute the same function
- Spatial locality -- near in space/distance, our next access is often very close to our last. For example an array "a" being read in a loop
 - 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
 - CPU checks L1 first then L2





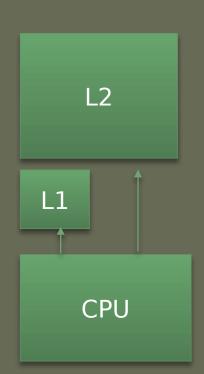
- Performance Example
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 - What's the average access time if...
 - 95% of data in L1 and 5% in L2?



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

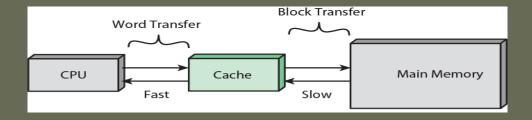
2 levels of memory (L1,L2)

- 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?
 - $^{\circ}$ 0.95 * 0.1µs + 0.05 * (0.1µs + 1µs) = 0.15µs
 - 5% of data in L1 and 95% in L2?
 - 0.05 * 0.1μs + 0.95 * (0.1μs + 1μs) = 1.05μs
 - It's to our advantage to have frequently accessed data in faster memory locations

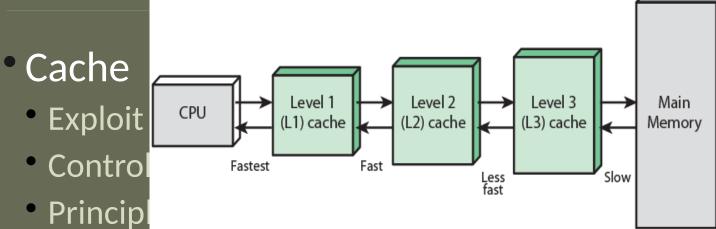
reason why caches exist

Cache

- Exploits the Principle of Locality
- Controlled by hardware (i.e., it is invisible to OS)
- How it's used
 - 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



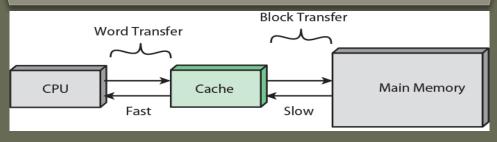
<u>Me</u>mory



- Contail
- CPU che
 - In practice:

 if found several levels are common
 - if not fol copies it

data is) and



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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:

Programmed I/O

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

What does the CPU do during 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 write data is placed in buffer for IO device.
 - 2. CPU waits until I/O module completes command.
 - 3. CPU resumes execution. If read it gets data from buffer.
- Extreme Inefficiency!

Remember the 1 sec verses 16 weeks example?

What does the CPU do during 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 write data is placed in buffer for IO device.
 - 2. CPU resumes execution.
 - 3. I/O module triggers an interrupt when command is done.
 - 4. CPU resumes execution. If read it gets data from buffer.
 - 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 during 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)

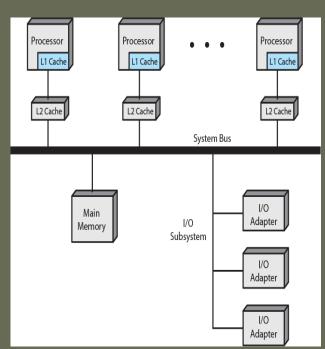
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Symmetric Multi-Processors

- 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

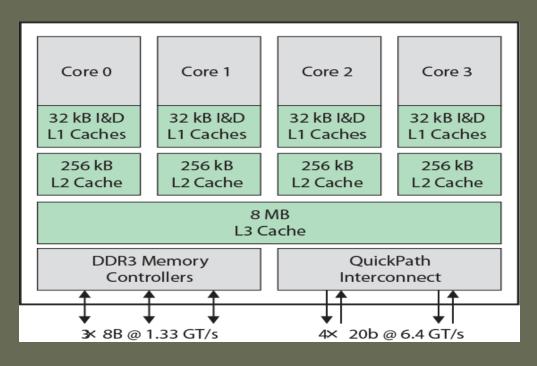
- Performance
 - can yield greater performance (if OS can handle work in parallel)
- Availability
 - failure of one processor does not halt the machine
- Scaling
 - additional processors result in a range of products of different price and performance

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





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