3rd Slide Set Operating Systems

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Learning Objectives of this Slide Set

- At the end of this slide set You know/understand...
 - the computer architecture Von Neumann architecture
 - the hardware components of a computers
 - CPU
 - Bus systems
 - the difference of character devices and block devices
 - how reading data from input/output devices works
 - what computer data storage exists
 - the architecture of the memory hierarchy
 - what primary/secondary/tertiary storage is
 - the functioning of the memory hierarchy
 - how the different write policies (write-through and write-back) work

Exercise sheet 3 repeats the contents of this slide set which are relevant for these learning objectives

Why do we Discuss these Topics?

• Why do we discuss the functioning of the CPU, memory, storage and the bus systems in the operating systems course?

Edsger W. Dijkstra

"Computer Science is no more about computers than astronomy is about telescopes."

- Operating systems assist users and their processes in using the hardware
- Without an understanding of the functioning of the CPU, memory, storage and bus systems, it is impossible to understand the functioning of operating systems

Von Neumann Architecture

Image Source: Wikipedia

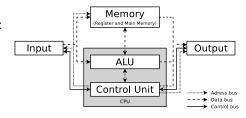
- Idea and structure of the general-purpose computer, which is not limited to a fixed program and has input and output devices
 - 1946: Developed by John von Neumann
 - Named after him is the Von Neumann architecture, or Von Neumann computer



- In the Von Neumann computer...
 - data and programs are binary coded
 - data and programs are stored in the same memory
- Essential concepts of the Von Neumann architecture were developed in 1936 by Konrad Zuse and implemented in 1937 in the Zuse Z1
- Von Neumann's merits:
 - He was a pioneer in the development and construction of computers in a scientific, mathematical way

The Central Processing Unit (CPU)

- Most of the components of a computer are passive and controlled by the CPU
- Programs are sequences of machine instructions, which are stored in successive memory addresses
- During program execution, the CPU executes the machine instructions step by step
- A CPU consists of 2 components:
 - Arithmetic Logic Unit
 - Control Unit
- Memory and input/output devices are required too



Components of the CPU

Control Unit

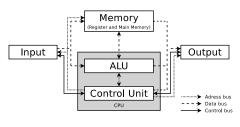
 Interprets instructions, coordinates the other CPU components, controls the input/output devices and the control bus

• Arithmetic Logic Unit (ALU)

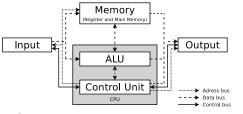
- Manipulates data and addresses
- Carries out the logical (NOT, AND, OR, XOR,...) and mathematical (ADD, SUB,...) operations

Memory

- Registers for short-term storage of operands and addresses
 - Operate with the same speed as the rest of the CPU
- · Cache and main memory
 - Memory for programs and data

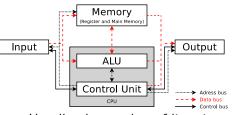


Instruction Cycle (Fetch-Decode-Execute Cycle)



- Repeated by the CPU from bootup to the moment when the computer is shut down
 - Each phase may take several clock cycles to complete
- **IFETCH**: Fetch command to be processed from the memory into the Instruction Register
- ② DECODE: Control Unit resolves the command into switching instructions for the ALU
- § FETCH OPERANDS: Fetch any available parameters (operands) for the command from the memory
- **EXECUTE**: ALU carries out the command (switching instructions).
- UPDATE PROGRAM COUNTER: The Program Counter register is set to the next command
- WRITE BACK: Result generated is stored in a register, main memory, or sent to an output device
- The Fetch-Decode-Execute cycle and the Von Neumann architecture still implemented by modern CPUs
- Only difference: A single Bus to connect input and output devices directly with the CPU, is impossible today

Data Bus



- Transmits data between CPU. main memory and I/O devices
- The number of lines specifies, how much data can be transmitted per clock cycle
- Usually, the number of lines is equal to the size of the registers of the Arithmetic Logic Unit
- Number of lines with modern CPUs: 64
 - Thus, the CPU can transfer 64 bits of data within a clock cycle to the main memory and away from it

Number of Data Bus lines of some CPUs CPU 4004, 4040

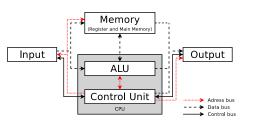
8008, 8080, 8085, 8088 8086 (XT), 80286 (AT), 80386SX 80386DX, 80486SX/DX/DX2/DX4

Pentium I/MMX/II/III/IV/D/M, Celeron, Core Solo/Duo, Core 2 Duo, Core 2 Extreme, Pentium Pro, Pentium Dual-Core, Core 2 Quad, Core i7, Itanium, AMD Phenom-II, Itanium 2, AMD64

Data hus 4 Rits 8 Bits 16 Rits 32 Rits

64 Bits

Address Bus

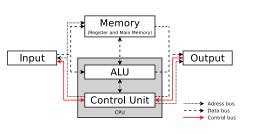


- Transmits memory addresses
- Memory addresses and I/O devices are accessed (addressed) via this bus
- The number of lines specifies the max. number of memory addresses

Number of Address Bus lines of some CPUs

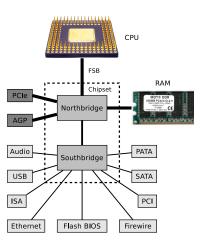
CPU	Address bus	max. addressable
4004, 4040	4 Bits	$2^4 = 16$ Bytes
8008, 8080	8 Bits	$2^8 = 256 \text{ Bytes}$
8085	16 Bits	$2^{16} = 65 \text{ kB}$
8088, 8086 (XT)	20 Bits	$2^{20} = 1 \text{ MB}$
80286 (AT)	24 Bits	$2^{24} = 16 \text{ MB}$
80386SX/DX, 80486SX/DX/DX2/DX4, Pentium I/MMX/II/III/IV/D/M, Celeron,	32 Bits	$2^{32} = 4 \text{ GB}$
Core Solo/Duo, Core 2 Duo/Extreme/Quad, Pentium Pro, Pentium Dual-Core, Core i7	36 Bits	$2^{36} = 64 \text{ GB}$
Itanium	44 Bits	$2^{44} = 16 \text{ TB}$
AMD Phenom-II, Itanium 2, AMD64	48 Bits	$2^{48} = 256 \text{ TB}$

Control Bus



- Transmits commands (e.g. read and write requests) from the CPU and returns status signals from the I/O devices
- Difference between address bus and control bus:
 - Components of the computer are addressed via the address bus and instructed via the control bus what to do
- \bullet Also contains lines which are used by I/O devices transmit interrupt requests to the CPU
- Typical number of lines: ≤ 10

Bus Systems in modern Computer Systems



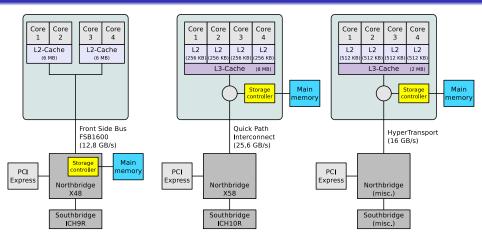
- The chipset connects the CPU with the rest of the computer system
- The chipset consists of...
 - Northbridge
 - Located close to the CPU for rapid data transfer
 - Used for the connection of main memory and graphics card(s) with the CPU
 - Southbridge
 - Used for "slow" connections
- The bus between CPU and chipset is called Front Side Bus (FSB)
 - It contains the address bus, data bus and control bus

Some Bus Systems

- For performance and financial reasons, more and more parts of the chipset are relocated into the CPU
 - In contrast to the Von Neumann architecture, I/O devices are not directly connected to the CPU
 - Computer systems today contain various serial and parallel bus systems, which are designed for the particular requirements
 - Point-to-point connections are used more and more often
 - Controllers for I/O devices operate between the devices and the CPU
- Some bus systems:
 - Parallel, internal computer buses: PATA (IDE), PCI, ISA, SCSI...
 - Serial, internal computer buses: SATA, PCI-Express. . .
 - Parallel, external computer buses: PCMCIA, SCSI...
 - Serial, external computer buses: Ethernet, FireWire, USB, eSATA...

Relocation of the Memory Controller into the CPU

Source: c't 25/2008



Intel Core 2 Extreme OX9770 Intel Core i7-965 Extreme Edition

AMD Phenom X4 9950

• Result: The Northbridge contains only the PCIe controller

Relocation of the Northbridge into the CPU

- In some modern computer systems, the Northbridge is relocated into the CPU
- Benefit: Reduced cost for the overall system

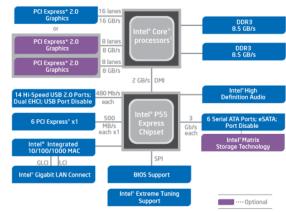


Image source: http://www.techspot.com/review/193-intel-core-i5-750/page3.html
The image shows an Intel Core i5-750 CPU with an Intel P55 chipset from 2009

Character Devices and Block Devices

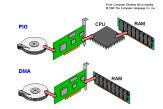
 Devices for computer systems are distinguished via their minimum transfer unit:

Character devices

- On arrival/request of each single character, communication with the CPU always takes place
- Examples: Mouse, keyboard, printer, terminal and magnetic tape

Block devices

- Data transfer takes place only when an entire block (z.B. 1-4kB) is present
- Examples: HDD, SSD, CD/DVD drive and floppy drive
- Most block devices support Direct Memory Access (DMA) to transfer data without CPU involvement



Reading Data

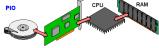
- Example: If a record of a HDD must be read, these steps are carried out:
 - The CPU receives from a process the request to read a record from a HDD
 - 2 The CPU sends via the driver an I/O command to the controller
 - The controller locates the record on the HDD
 - The process receives the requested record
- 3 concepts exist of how processes can read data into a computer:
 - Busy Waiting
 - Interrupt-driven
 - Direct Memory Access (DMA)

Busy Waiting

- The driver sends the request to the device and waits in an infinite loop until the controller indicates that the data is available
 - If the data is available, it is written into the memory and the execution of the process continues
- Example: Programmed Input/Output (PIO)
 - The CPU accesses via read and write commands the memory areas of the devices and can copy this way data between the devices and the main memory
- Benefit:
 - No additional hardware required
- Drawback:
 - Causes CPU workload
 - Slows down simultaneous execution of multiple processes
 - Reason: The CPU must check periodically whether the data is ready



From Computer Desistop Encyclopedi



Examples: PATA HDDs in PIO mode, legacy serial ports, legacy parallel ports, PS/2 keyboard and mouse ports

Interrupt-driven

- Precondition: An interrupt controller and a line of the control bus exist for the transmission of the interrupts
- The driver initializes the I/O operation and waits for an interrupt from the controller ⇒ the driver sleeps
 - The CPU is not blocked while waiting for the interrupt and the operating system can assign the CPU to other processes
 - ullet If an interrupt occurs, the driver is $woken \Longrightarrow {\sf gets}$ the CPU assigned
 - Next, the CPU fetches the data from the controller and stores it inside the memory
 - Then, the interrupted process gets the CPU assigned and its execution continues

Benefits:

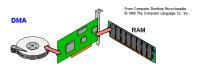
- The CPU is not blocked
- Allows the simultaneous execution of multiple processes

• Drawbacks:

Additional hardware (interrupt controller) is required

Direct Memory Access

- Precondition: DMA controller
 - Can transfer data directly between main memory and the I/O device
 - Examples: HDD/SSD, sound card, network adapter, TV/DVB tuner card
 - Triggers an interrupt after the data is transfered



• Example: **Ultra-DMA** (UDMA)

- Successor protocol of the PIO mode
- Specifies how data is transferred between the DMA controller and the main memory

Benefits:

- Reading data causes no CPU workload
- Simultaneous execution of multiple processes is not slowed down

Drawbacks:

- Additional hardware (DMA controller) is required
 - Integrated in the chipset since the late 1980s



Computer Data Storage

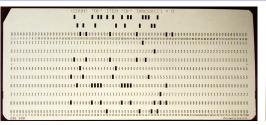
- Stores the data and the executables
- Different computer storage is connected via different bus systems
 ⇒ memory hierarchy (see slide 26)
- Reason for existence the memory hierarchy: price-performance ratio
 The better the performance of a computer data storage is, the higher is the acquisition cost and the smaller is the capacity

Digital Data Storage

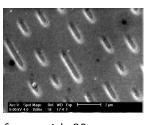
Storage	Write operation	Read operation	Access method	Movable parts	Persistent
Punched tape	mechanic		sequential	yes	yes
Punch card	mechanic		sequential	yes	yes
Magnetic tape	magnetic		sequential	yes	yes
Magnetic stripe card	magne	sequential	yes	yes	
Drum memory	magne	random	yes	yes	
Magnetic-core memory	magne	random	no	yes	
Bubble memory	magne	random	no	yes	
Main memory (DRAM)	elect	random	no	no	
Compact cassette (Datasette)	magne	sequential	yes	yes	
Floppy disk	magnetic		random	yes	yes
Hard disk drive	magne	random	yes	yes	
Magneto optical disc (MO-Disk)	magneto-optical	optical	random	yes	yes
CD-ROM/DVD-ROM	mechanic	optical	random	yes	yes
CD-R/CD-RW/DVD-R/DVD-RW	optical		random	yes	yes
MiniDisc	magneto-optical	optical	random	yes	yes
Flash memory (USB drive, SSD, CF/SD card)	electric		random	no	yes

- Random access means that the medium does not need to be searched sequentially from the beginning – such as with magnetic tapes – to locate a specific record (file)
 - The heads of magnetic disks or a laser can jump to every point of the medium within a known maximum period

Mechanical Data Storage





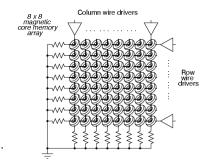


- Each punch card usually represents a single line of text with 80 characters or a corresponding number of binary data
- The punched tape in the image has 8 holes for data and narrower holes to feed the tape
 - 1 bytes per row can be stored
- Data is represented on CDs/DVDs by pits and lands, which are applied to a plastic material
 - The mass-production of CDs/DVDs is called pressing and is carried out by injection molding with a negative (stamper)

Magnetic Data Storage

Source: http://sub.allaboutcircuits.com/images/04212.png

- Data is stored on a magnetizable material
- Via read-and-write heads, the magnetization of the material is detected and modified
 - Exception: Magnetic-core memory
- The read-and-write heads may be movable (e.g. with HDDs) or fixed (e.g. with magnetic tapes)



Rotating data storage:

- Hard Disk Drive
 ⇒ slide set 4
- Drum memory
- Floppy disk

Non-rotating data storage:

- Magnetic-core memory
- Magnetic tape
- Magnetic stripe card
- Datasette
- Bubble Memory

Magneto-optical Data Storage

- Rotating storage medium
- Write operations are carried out magnetically
- Before the magnetization can be modified, the medium must be heated until the *Curie point* is reached
 - Advantage: Insensitive to magnetic fields
 - The heating takes place via laser beam
- Read operations are carried out optically
 - Differently magnetized areas reflect light differently



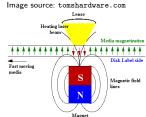


Image source: Joshua Kugler

Electric Data Storage

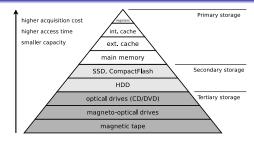
- Volatile memory Random-Access Memory (RAM)
 - Static Random-Access Memory (SRAM)
 - Information is stored as a change of state of flip-flop circuits
 - Information can be stored as long as the operating voltage is available
 - Dynamic Random-Access Memory (DRAM)
 - Information is stored in capacitors
 - Requires periodic refreshing of the information
 - Stored information gets lost if the operating voltage is permanently missing or if the refresh was carried out too late because of leakage currents

Non-volatile memory

- Read-Only Memory (ROM)
 - Ultra-Violet Erasable Programmable ROM (UV-EPROM)
 - Electrically Erasable Programmable ROM (EEPROM)
 - ...
- Flash memory ⇒ slide set 4

Memory Hierarchy

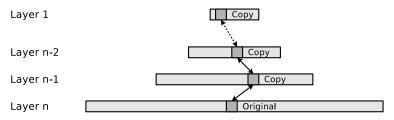
- Primary storage and secondary storage are permanently connected to the computer
 - Advantage: Stored data can be accessed quickly



- Primary storage: The CPU has direct access to this storage
- Secondary storage: Storage, which is accessed via a controller
- Tertiary storage: Not permanently connected to the computer. Main purpose is archiving
- Tertiary storage can be:
 - Near-line storage: Is automatically and without human intervention connected to the system (e.g. tape library)
 - Off-line storage: Media are stored in cabinets or storage rooms and must be connected manually to the system
 - Removable HDDs are in a strict sense also off-line storage

Functioning of the Memory Hierarchy

 When a record is accessed for the first time, a copy is created and this copy travels along the memory hierarchy to the top layer



- If the record is modified, the modification must be passed down (written back) at some point in time
 - During write back, the copies of the record must be updated at all layers in order to avoid inconsistencies
 - Modifications cannot be passed directly to the lowest layer (to the original)!

Cache Write Policies

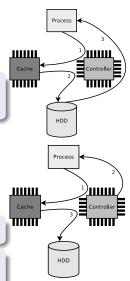
- Write-through: Modifications are immediately propagated to lower storage layers
 - Advantage: Consistency is ensured
 - Drawback: Lower performance

Figure: A process wants to carry out a write operation. It writes (1) the data into the cache and sends the write operation to the controller. The controller commands (2) the writing of the data into the storage. If the data was written successfully, the controller reports (3) the successful writing of the data to the process

- Write-back: Modifications are propagated when the corresponding page is removed from the cache
 - Advantage: Better performance
 - Drawback: Modifications get lost in case of a system failure

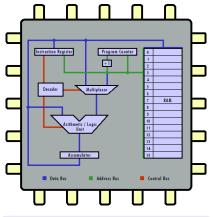
For every page in the cache a **dirty bit** is stored inside the cache, which indicates whether the page has been modified or not

Figure: A process wants to carry out a write operation. It writes (1) the data into the cache and sends the write instruction to the controller. The controller reports (2) **immediately** the successful writing of the data to the process. The writing (3) of the data into the storage is carried out asynchronous to the write instruction in the process



Registers, Cache and Main Memory (1/4)

- Data inside **registers** can be accessed by the CPU immediately
- Registers operate with the same clock speed as the CPU itself



- Data registers (= accumulators) store operands for the ALU and their results
 - $\bullet \ \ \text{e.g. EAX, ECX, EDX, EBX} \Longrightarrow \text{slide set 7}$
- Address registers for memory addresses of operands and instructions
 - e.g. base register (= segment register) and index register (for the offset)
 ⇒ slide set 5
- Program counter (= instruction pointer) contains the memory address of the next instruction
- Instruction register stores the instruction, which
 is currently executed
- Stack pointer stores the memory address at the current end of the stack ⇒ slide set 7

Image source: http://courses.cs.vt.edu/~csonline/
MachineArchitecture/Lessons/CPU/cpu_circuit.gif

Registers, Cache and Main Memory (2/4)

• Cache (buffer memory) stores copies of parts of the main memory to accelerate access to these data



- First Level Cache (L1 cache)
 - Is integrated into the CPU
- **Second Level Cache** (L2 cache)
 - Is slower and bigger in size
 - originally external to the CPU



Image source: Konstantin Lanzet
The image shows an Intel Mobile Pentium II
"Tongae" 233 MHz CPU with external 512 KB L2
cache. The L2 cache runs at half the clock frequency

Image source: http://www.vogons.org/viewtopic.php?t=31916
The image shows an Elitegroup SI5PI AIO with a Pentium 60.
The mainboard has 16 memory module sockets for L2 cache

Registers, Cache and Main Memory (3/4)

- Since 1999/2000 the CPU vendors increasingly integrating the L2 cache into the CPUs
 - For this reason, a Third Level Cache (L3 cache) as CPU-external cache was established
- In modern CPUs (e.g. Intel Core i-series and AMD Phenom II) the L3 cache is integrated into the CPU too
 - In multi-core CPUs with integrated L3 cache, the cores share the L3 cache, while each core has its own L1 cache and L2 cache

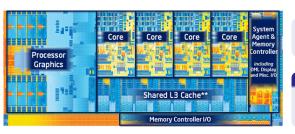


Image source: Intel

128 MB

The image shows an Intel Core i7-3770K "Ivy Bridge" CPU with 4 cores

Some CPU architectures have a L4 cache

- Intel Itanium 2 (2003): 64 MB
- Some Intel Haswell CPUs (2013):

Registers, Cache and Main Memory (4/4)

Typical cache level capacities:

L1 cache: 4 kB to 256 kB

L2 cache: 256 kB to 4 MB

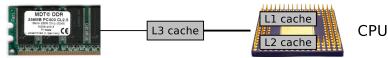
L3 cache: 1 MB to 16 MB



Main memory = Random Access Memory (RAM)

- Capacity: A few hundred MB up to several GB
- All requests from the CPU, which can not be answered by the cache are forwarded to the main memory

Main memory (RAM)



RAM und ROM

In contrast to the volatile main memory RAM is ROM (Read Only Memory) a non-volatile read-only memory

Fundamentals of Computer Data Storage and Memory Management

Recap

- Until now we clarified regarding computer data storage:
 - It stores the data and the executables
 - A memory hierarchy exists
 - Reason: Price-performance ratio
 - The faster a storage is, the more expensive and smaller is it
 - If a record is accessed for the first time, a copy is created and this copy travels along the memory hierarchy to the top layer
 - Since the uppermost storage levels practically always lack free capacity, records must be replaced
 - Modifications must be passed down (written back)
- It has to be clarified:
 - Memory management ⇒ slide set 5
 - Addressing of computer data storage ⇒ slide set 5