

CS 370: OPERATING SYSTEMS

[INTRODUCTION]

Computer Science
Colorado State University

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Spring 2026

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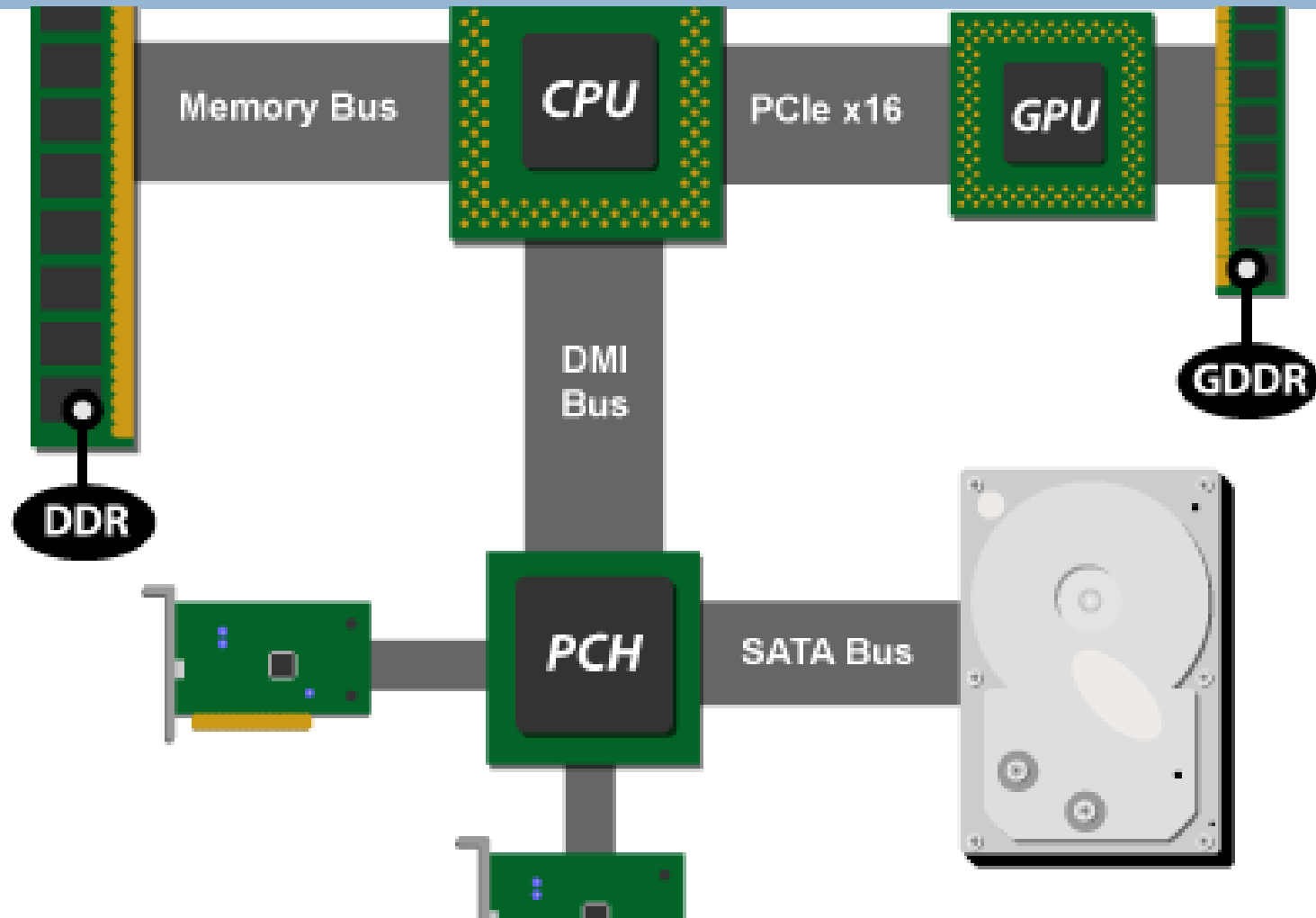
Course Overview

- All course materials will be accessible via the public-facing webpage <https://courses.cs.colostate.edu/cs370/>
 - Activities (Lecture slide sets for each lecture)
 - ▣ Assignments
 - ▣ Syllabus
 - ▣ Grading policy
- Grades will be posted on **Canvas**; assignment submissions will be via Canvas
- The course website is on, MS Teams Channel TBD, and Canvas is online
 - ▣ Well, the MS Teams channels will be finalized only later this week...! Ditto for links to assignments on the course page
- **Use compsci_cs370@colostate.edu for email communications: it reaches all TAs and Pouchet**

Topics covered in this lecture

- Secondary storage
- Relative speeds of the memory hierarchy
- Multiprogramming and time sharing
- Programs and processes
- Program constructs

Reminder: Computer Organization



Grabbed from arstechnica.com

Secondary storage is needed to hold large quantities of data permanently

- Programs use the disk as the source and destination of processing
- Seek time 7 ms
- SPIN: 7200 – 15000 RPM
- Transfer rate
 - ▣ Disk-to-buffer: 70 MB/sec (SATA)
 - ▣ Buffer-to-Computer: 300 MB/sec
- Mean time between failures
 - ▣ 600,000 hours
- 1 TB capacity for less than \$100

Improvements in hard disk capacity

- 1980 - 5 MB
- 1991 - 100 MB
- 1995 - 2 GB
- 1997 - 10 GB

Improvements in hard disk capacity

- 2002 - 128 GB addressing space barrier [28 bits]
 - ▣ Old IDE/ATA interface: 28-bit addressing
 - ▣ $2^{28} \times 512 = 2^{28} \times 2^9 = 2^{37} = 128 \text{ GB} = 137,438,953,472 \text{ bytes}$
- 2003 – Serial ATA introduced
- 2005 - 500 GB hard drives
- 2008 - 1 TB hard drives

Characteristics of peripheral devices & their speed relative to the CPU

Item	time	Scaled time in human terms (2 billion times slower)
Processor cycle	0.5 ns (2 GHz)	1 second
Cache access	1 ns (1 GHz)	2 seconds
Memory access	70 ns	140 seconds
Context switch	5,000 ns (5 μ s)	167 minutes
Disk access	7,000,000 ns (7 ms)	162 days
Quantum	100,000,000 ns (100 ms)	6.3 years

Mechanical nature of disks limits their performance

- Disk access times *have not* decreased exponentially.
 - ▣ Processor speeds are growing *exponentially*
- Disparity between processor and disk access times continues to grow.
 - ▣ 1:14,000,000

RELATIVE SPEEDS OF THE MEMORY HIERARCHY

Since caches have limited size, cache management is critical

Level	1	2	3	4
Name	registers	cache	Main memory	Disk Storage
Typical Size	< 1 KB	< 16 MB	< 64 GB	> 100 GB
Implementation Technology	Custom memory, CMOS	On/off chip CMOS SRAM	CMOS DRAM	Magnetic disk
Access times	0.25 ns	0.5-25 ns	80-250 ns	> 5 ms
Bandwidth (MB/sec)	20,000 – 100,000	5000-10,000	1000-5000	80-300
Managed by	compiler	hardware	OS	OS
Backed by	cache	Main memory	Disk	CD/Tape

DEVICE CONTROLLERS & I/O

A large portion of the OS code is dedicated for managing I/O

- A typical system comprises CPUs and multiple device controllers connected through a **bus**
- High end systems use **switch based** architecture
 - ▣ Components talk to each other concurrently
 - ▣ No competition for cycles on the bus

Device controllers and drivers

- A device controller is responsible for a **specific type** of device.
 - ▣ More than 1 device may be attached
- There is a **device driver** for each controller

Device controllers move data between its local buffer storage & peripheral devices

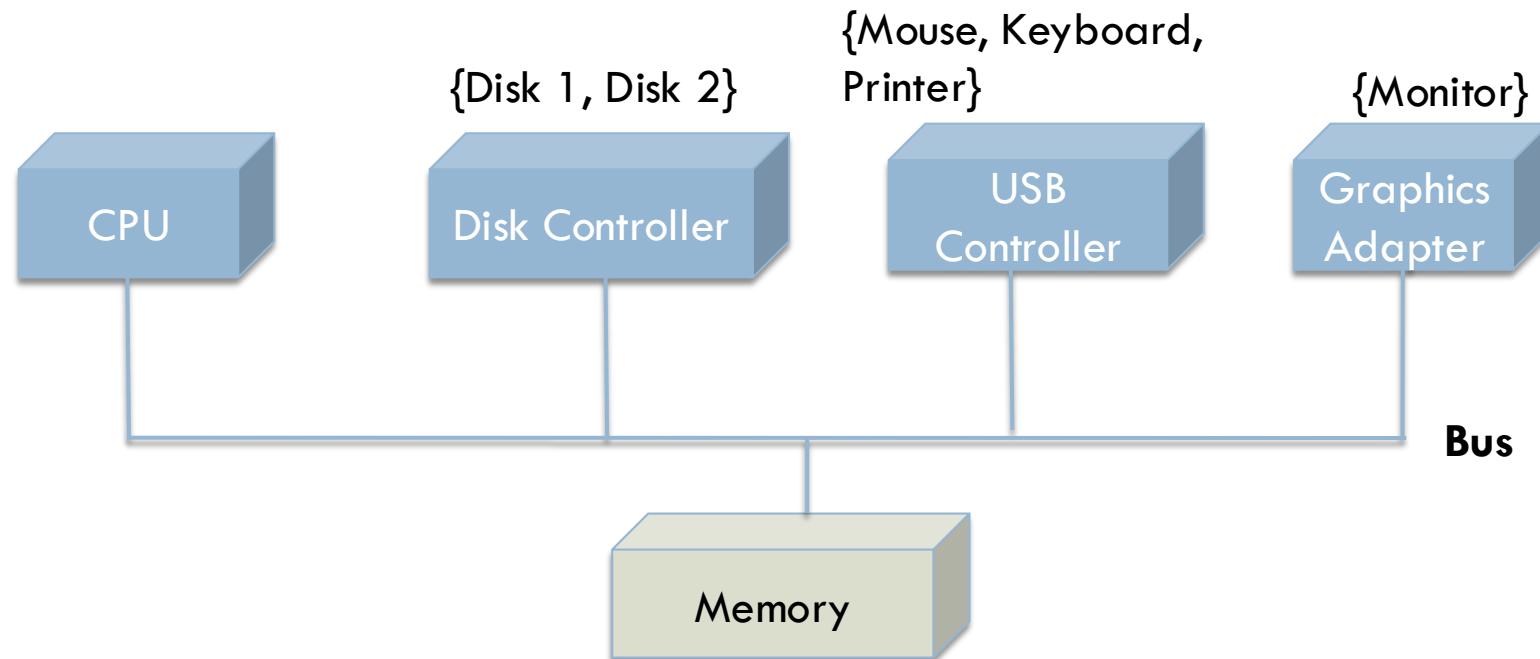
- Device driver loads appropriate registers in the controller
- Controller examines contents to determine action to take
- Controller transfers data from device to its local buffer
- Once transfer is complete, controller informs driver via an **interrupt**
- Device driver then returns control to the OS

Direct memory access is much faster than interrupt driven I/O

- Controller sets up buffers, pointers, and counters for IO device
- **Transfer entire block** of data directly to (or from) its own buffer storage to main memory
 - ▣ **No** CPU intervention needed
- Only *one* interrupt per block
 - ▣ As opposed to interrupts-per-byte for low speed devices

BUSES

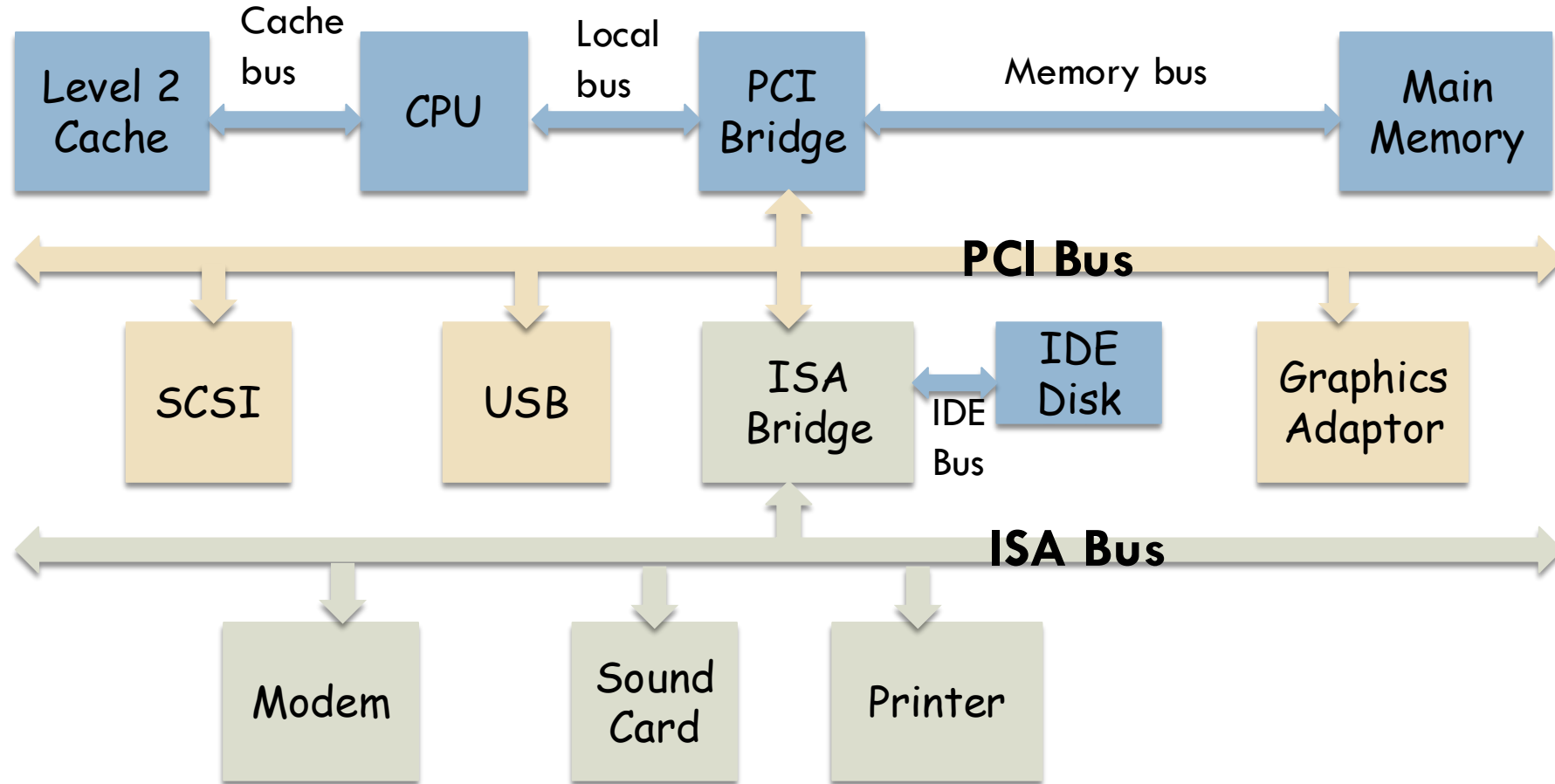
A simple bus-based structure



Limitations of the bus structure from the earlier slide

- As processors and memories got faster
 - ▣ Ability of a single bus to handle *all traffic* strained considerably
- Result?
 - ▣ Additional buses were added
 - ▣ For faster I/O devices and CPU-memory traffic

What a modern bus architecture looks like



There are two main BUS standards

- Original IBM PC ISA (Industry Standard Architecture)
- PCI (Peripheral Component Interconnect)
 - ▣ From Intel

The IBM PC ISA bus

- Runs at 8.33 MHz
- Transfers 2 bytes at once
- Maximum speed = 16.67 MB/sec
- Included for backward compatibility
 - ▣ Older and slower I/O cards

The PCI bus

- Can run at 66 MHz
- Transfer 8 bytes at once
- Data transfer rate: 528 MB/sec
- Most high-speed I/O devices use PCI
- Newer computers have an updated version of PCI
 - ▣ **PCI Express**

Other specialized buses:

IDE (Integrated Drive Electronics) bus

- For attaching peripheral devices
 - ▣ CD-ROMs and Disks
- Grew out of the disk controller interface

Other specialized buses:

USB (Universal Serial Bus)

- Attach **slow** I/O devices to the computer
 - ▣ Keyboard, mouse etc
- Uses a small **4-wire** connector
 - ▣ **Two** supply electrical power to the USB devices
- Centralized bus
 - ▣ Root device polls I/O devices every 1 millisecond
 - Check if they have any traffic

Some more information about USB

- All USB devices share a **single** USB device driver
 - ▣ *No need to install* a driver for each device
 - ▣ Can be added to computer *without need to reboot*
- USB 1.0 has a transfer rate of 1.5 MB/sec
- USB 2.0 goes up to 60 MB/sec
- USB 3.0
 - ▣ Specification ready on 17 November 2008
 - ▣ Theoretical signaling rate: 600 MB/sec (4.8 Gbps)
 - ▣ USB 3.1: Jan 2013 will go to 10 Gbps
 - On par with Thunderbolt (developed by Apple and Intel in 2011)

USB: Evolution

- <https://www.pshinecable.com/article/usb-c-cable-wiring-diagram.html>

Other buses

- SCSI (Small Computer System Interface)
 - ▣ High performance bus
 - ▣ For devices that need high bandwidth
 - Fast disks, scanners
 - ▣ Up to 320 MB/sec

- IEEE 1394
 - ▣ Sometimes called FireWire (used by Apple)
 - ▣ Transfer speeds of up to 100 MB/sec
 - Camcorders and similar multimedia devices
 - ▣ No need for a central controller (unlike USB)

In this setting the OS must know which devices are connected & how to configure them

- Led Intel and Microsoft to design **plug-and-play**
 - ▣ Similar concept had been implemented in the Mac

How things were before plug-and-play

- Each I/O card had a **fixed interrupt level**
 - ▣ Fixed addresses for its I/O registers

Device	Interrupt/I/O addresses
Keyboards	Interrupt 1, I/O addresses: 0x60-0x64
Floppy disk controller	Interrupt 6, I/O addresses: 0x3F0-0x3F7
Printer	Interrupt 7, I/O addresses: 0x378-0x37A

How things were before plug-and-play

- What if someone bought a sound card and a modem which happened to use interrupt 4?
 - ▣ Conflict
 - ▣ Would not work together
- Solution:
 - ▣ Use DIP (dual in-line package) switches or jumpers on every I/O card
 - ▣ Ask user to select interrupt level and I/O device addresses for the device
 - ▣ Tedious!

How does Plug-and-play work?

- ① Automatically **collect** information about devices
- ② Centrally **assign** interrupt levels + I/O addresses
- ③ **Tell** each card what its numbers are

PERFORMANCE

Single processor systems have 1 CPU that can execute *general-purpose* instructions

- The system may have **special purpose processors**
 - ▣ Incapable of running user processes
 - ▣ Limited instruction set
- Disk controller micro-processor
 - ▣ Implements disk queue and scheduling algorithms
- Keyboard microprocessors
 - ▣ Convert keystrokes into CPU-bound codes

There are two approaches to improving performance

- Determine component **bottlenecks**
 - Replicate
 - Improve

To replicate or improve?

“If one ox could not do the job, they [pioneers] did not grow a bigger ox, but used two oxen.”

-- Admiral Grace Murray Hopper
Computer Software pioneer

“If you were plowing a field, which would you rather use? Two strong oxen or 1024 chickens?”

-- Seymour Cray
Computer Hardware pioneer

Multiprocessor systems have 2-or-more processors in close communications

- The processors **share** the bus, and *may* share clock, memory and peripheral devices
- Advantages:
 - ▣ Increased throughput
 - ▣ Reliability

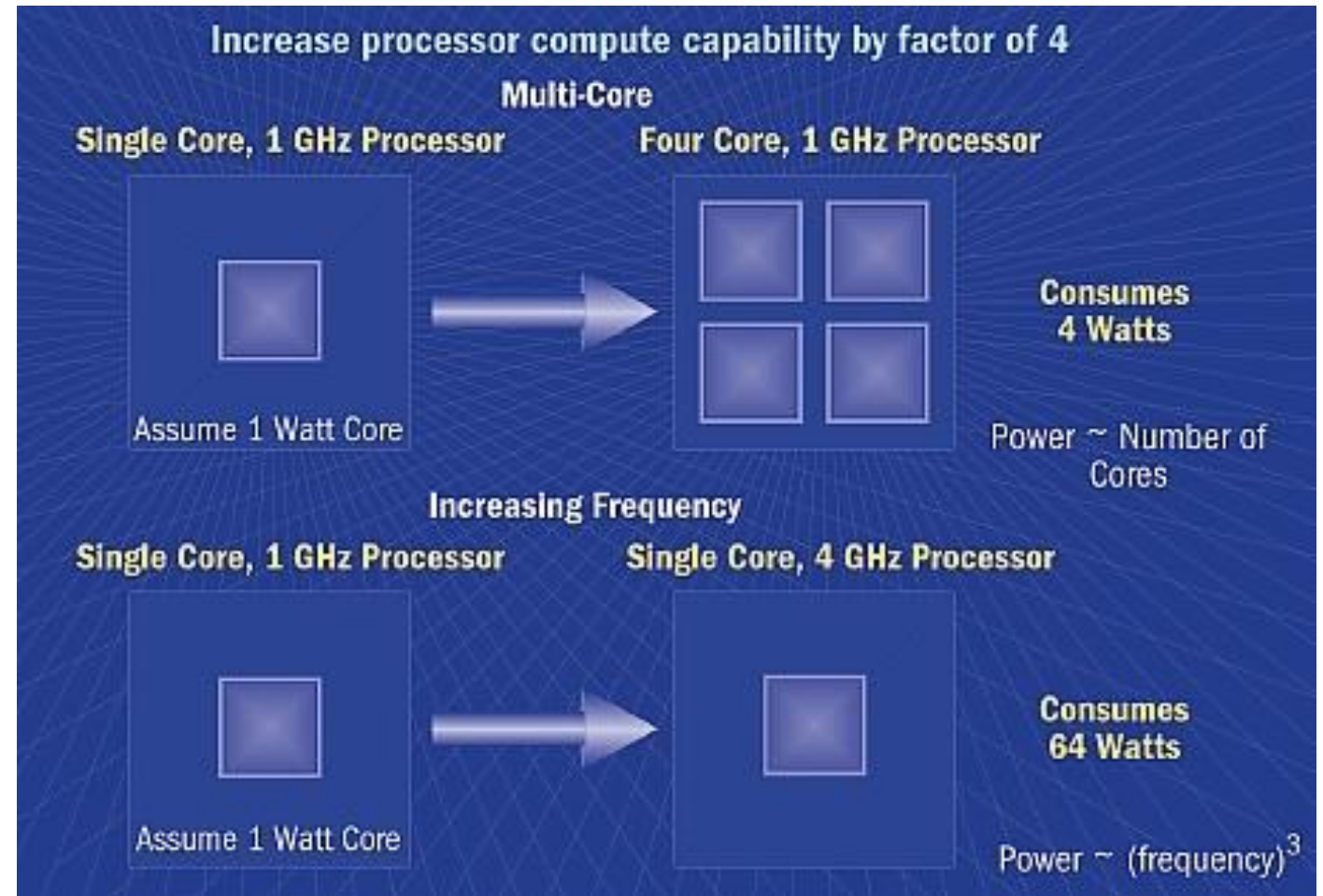
Multiprocessor systems fall in two categories based on control

- Asymmetric multiprocessing:
 - ▣ Controller processor manages the system
 - ▣ Workers **rely on controller** for instructions
- Symmetric multiprocessing
 - ▣ Processors are **peers** and perform all OS tasks
 - ▣ Have own set of registers and local cache
 - Share physical memory
 - ▣ **Supported by virtually all modern OS**

Trend: going multi-core for CPUs

- Driven by power / physics
- Problem: parallelism in the application?
- We merely see 16-core CPUs as HEDT in 2024

Grabbed from DoE Scidac



MULTIPROGRAMMING

Multiprogramming organizes jobs so that the CPU always has one to execute

- A single program (generally) cannot keep CPU & I/O devices busy at all times
- A user frequently runs multiple programs
- When a job needs to **wait**, the CPU **switches** to another job.
- Utilizes resources (cpu, memory, peripheral devices) effectively.

Time sharing is a logical *extension* of the multiprogramming model

- CPU switches between jobs **frequently**, users can interact with programs
- Time shared OS allows many users to use computer simultaneously
- Each action in a time shared OS tends to be **short**
 - ▣ CPU time needed for each user is small

Grocery checkout : Several checkout counters (processes) & 1 checker (CPU)

- Multiprogramming
 - ▣ Checker checks one item (instruction) at a time
 - ▣ Continue checking till price check
 - ▣ During price check move to another counter
- Time sharing
 - ▣ Checker starts a 10-second **timer**
 - ▣ Process items for maximum of 10 seconds
 - Move to another customer even if there is NO price check

Multiprogramming requires several jobs to be held simultaneously in memory

- Job scheduling: Decision about which of the *ready* jobs need to be brought into **memory**
- CPU scheduling: Deciding which job needs to be run
- **Swapping**: The shuffling of processes in and out of memory to the disk

PROGRAMS AND PROCESSES

Programs and processes: Process is a program in execution.

- Programs are *passive*; processes are **active**
- Processes **need resources** to accomplish task
- Single-threaded processes have one program counter pointing to next instruction to execute
- Multithreaded processes have multiple program counters
 - ▣ One for each thread

Some terms related to processes

- **Context switch** time: Time to switch from executing one process to another
- **Quantum**: Amount of CPU time allocated to a process before another process can run

OS process management activities

- Schedule processes and threads on CPUs
- Create and delete processes
- Suspend and resume
- Mechanisms for process synchronization
- Mechanisms for process communications

SYSTEM CALLS

System Calls

- Request to the OS for service
- Causes normal CPU processing to be interrupted
- Control to be given to the OS

System calls provide an interface to OS services

- **Runtime support** for most languages provide a system call interface.
- API hides details of the OS interface
- Runtime library manages the invocation
- Passing parameters to the OS
 - ▣ Registers
 - ▣ Block, or table, in memory
 - ▣ Etc.

Types of system calls

- Process control
- File manipulation
- Device manipulation
- Information maintenance
- Communications
- Protection

Mode bit allows us to distinguish between task executed on behalf of OS/user

- **Mode bit:** kernel (**0**) and user (**1**)
- Designate (potentially harmful) machine instructions as **privileged** instructions.
 - ▣ Hardware enforces kernel mode executions

Mode bit

- MS-DOS/Intel 8088 had no mode bit
 - ▣ No dual-mode
 - ▣ A program can wipe out OS by writing over it
- Most modern OS take advantage of **dual mode** and provide greater protection for OS.

VIRTUAL MEMORY

Main memory is generally the only large storage device the CPU deals with

- To execute a program, it must be **mapped** to absolute addresses and loaded into memory
- Execution involves accesses to instructions and data from memory
 - ▣ By generating absolute addresses
- When program terminates, memory space is **reclaimed**

**WHAT DO WE DO IF THERE ARE MORE PROCESSES
THAN MEMORY TO ACCOMMODATE ALL OF THEM?**

Virtual memory allows processes not completely memory resident to execute

- Enables us to run programs that are **larger** than the actual physical memory
- Separates **logical memory** as viewed by user from *physical memory*
- Frees programmers from memory storage limitations

PROGRAM CONSTRUCTS

Important Program Constructs

- Communication, Concurrency & Asynchronous operation
- Challenges & Implications
 - ▣ Improper handling can lead to failures for no apparent reason
 - ▣ Run for weeks or *months*
 - ▣ **Avoid resource leaks**
 - ▣ Cope with *outrageously malicious* input
 - ▣ Recover from errors

Program Construct:

Asynchronous operation

- Events happen at unpredictable **times** AND in unpredictable **order**.
 - ▣ Interrupts from peripheral devices
 - ▣ For e.g. keystrokes and printer data
- To be **correct**, a program must work with **all** possible timings
- Timing errors are very hard to repeat

Program Construct: Concurrency

- Sharing resources in the same ***time frame***
- Interleaved execution
- Major task of modern OS is **concurrency control**
- Bugs are hard to reproduce, and produce unexpected side effects

Concurrency occurs at the hardware level because devices operate at the same time

- Interrupt: **Electrical signal** generated by a peripheral device to set hardware flag on CPU
- Interrupt detection is part of instruction cycle
- If interrupt detected
 - ▣ **Save current** value of program counter
 - ▣ **Load new** value that is address of interrupt service routine or interrupt handler: device drivers
 - Drivers use signals (software) to notify processes

Signal is the software notification of an event

- Often a *response* of the OS to an interrupt
 - ▣ OS uses signals to notify processes of completed I/O operations or errors
- Signal generated when event that causes signal occurs
 - ▣ For example: keystroke and Ctrl-C
- A process catches a signal by executing handlers for the signal

Concurrency constructs: I/O operations

- Coordinate resources so that CPU is not idle
- Blocking I/O blocks the progress of a process
- Asynchronous I/O (dedicated) threads circumvent this problem
- Ex: Application monitors 2 network channels
 - ▣ If application is blocked waiting for input from one source, it *cannot respond* to input on 2nd channel

Concurrency constructs: Processes & threads

- User can create multiple processes; `fork()` in UNIX
- Inter process communications
 - ▣ Common ancestor: pipes
 - ▣ No common ancestor: signals, semaphores, shared address spaces, or messages
- Multiple threads within process = concurrency

The contents of this slide-set are based on the following references

- *Andrew S Tanenbaum. Modern Operating Systems. 4th Edition, 2014. Prentice Hall. ISBN: 013359162X/ 978-0133591620. [Chapter 1]*
- *Avi Silberschatz, Peter Galvin, Greg Gagne. Operating Systems Concepts, 9th edition. John Wiley & Sons, Inc. ISBN-13: 978-1118063330. [Chapter 1, 2]*
- *Kay Robbins & Steve Robbins. Unix Systems Programming, 2nd edition, Prentice Hall ISBN-13: 978-0-13-042411-2. [Chapter 1]*