### CG2271

### Real-Time Operating Systems

Lecture 2

I/O Systems

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#### Learning Objectives

- To understand and know what input/output (I/O) systems are, and how to program them.
- WHY:
  - •Accessing I/O is fundamental to real-time systems.
    - **✓** Reading sensors to get information about the environment.
    - **✓**Writing to actuators to manipulate the environment.
  - •Much of microcontroller programming is about reading sensors, performing computations and writing the results to actuators.



#### Introduction

- In the last lecture we looked briefly at what is in a real-time system.
  - •Sensors on the input end.
  - •Controllers in the middle.
  - •Actuators on the output end.
- In this lecture we will look in more detail at these ideas:
  - •Input/Output Systems.
  - •Input/Output Programming Techniques.
  - Basic Concepts.



**I/O Systems** 

### **SOME PRELIMINARIES**



### Assembly Language

- It's easier to explain some concepts in assembly language, and assembly language is essential for some tasks.
  - •Assembly language: This is a very low-level processor dependent language that actually manipulates the hardware on the processor.

```
✓Example instructions include ADD, SUB, MUL, DIV, CMP, BLT, BGT, BEQ, JMP etc. E.g. to do "for(i=0; i<20; i++)", we have:

LI R0, 0

LI R1, 20
```

Loop: ADDI RO, RO, 1

*CMP R0, R2* 

**BLT** Loop



### Assembly Language

- **Registers:** A microprocessor has special locations called "registers" to store data to be operated on, and to store results. A typical CPU has between 4 and 32 registers, usually labeled R0, R1, .. R31. We have just seen an example on the previous page. ©
- Interrupts: Sometimes hardware needs to get the CPU's attention. It issues an "interrupt" causing the CPU to suspend whatever it's doing and attend to the hardware.



**I/O Systems** 

# COMMUNICATION WITH EXTERNAL SYSTEMS



#### Communicating with External Devices

- For a processor to do anything useful, it must be able to communicate with the outside world.
  - •Some examples of external devices include:

#### ✓Input devices:

Temperature sensors, light sensors, skid sensors, pitot tubes + static ports, etc etc

#### **✓Output devices:**

piezo-electric alarms, LCD/LED displays, actuators, servos, etc etc.



- I/O design in desktop and server class machines are different from microcontroller class machines.
  - Desktop and Servers (including Notebooks)
    - ✓ General purpose, meant to "interface" with a large and (at design time) unknown set of devices.
    - **✓** Design is much more open-ended, not much built into the processor.

Consists just of "address", "data" and "control" lines.

✓A "bridge" circuit is instead designed around the processor to provide I/O options.

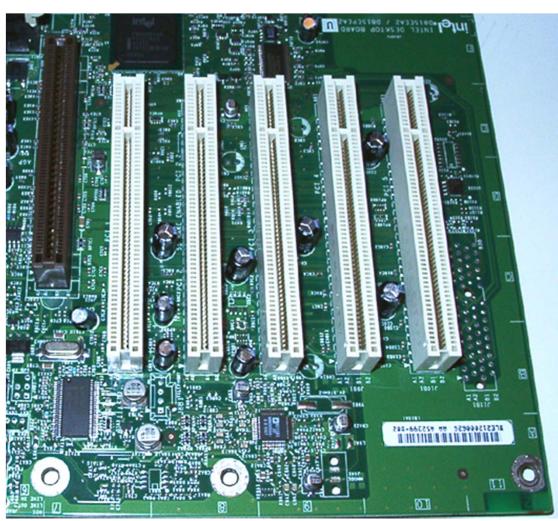
Generally limited to PCI, PCMCIA (notebooks), AGP/PCIe (specialized forms of PCI for video cards) and USB.

**✓** This open-endedness can lead to much more complicated designs in the devices to be attached.



Desktops and Servers:







- I/O design in desktop and server class machines are different from microcontroller class machines.
  - Microcontrollers

✓ Generally a larger, but more specialized set of input/output options.

See list on next slide.

- **✓**These are BUILT INTO the processor, rather than on a circuit surrounding the processor.
- ✓ This results in simpler interfaces with the external devices. ②





- ■Typical I/O "ports" in a microcontroller.
  - ✓I2C/SPI For communicating with other integrated circuits.

SPI is used for communicating with SD cards.

- ✓ CAN For communicating across many different devices in a vehicle.
- ✓ Analog-to-digital converters For converting between voltages and digital values.
- **✓ PWM ports For converting from digital to analog values.**
- ✓Ethernet ports For communicating across a local area network.
- **✓USB** ports For communicating with PCs.

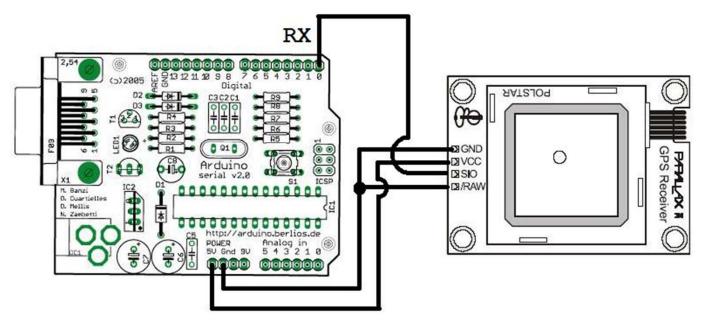
**√...** 





Microcontrollers:

```
(PCINT14/RESET) PC6 1
                                  28 PC5 (ADC5/SCL/PCINT13)
      (PCINT16/RXD) PD0 2
                                  27 PC4 (ADC4/S DA/PCINT12)
      (PCINT17/TXD) PD1 3
                                  26 PC3 (ADC3/PCINT11)
      (PCINT18/INTO) PD2 4
                                  25 PC2 (ADC2/PCINT10)
 (PCINT19/OC2B/INT1) PD3 5
                                  24 PC1 (ADC1/PCINT9)
    (PCINT20/XCK/T0) PD4 ☐ 6
                                  23 PC0 (ADC0/PCINT8)
                                  22 GND
                                  21 D AREF
                   GND 8
                                  20 D AVCC
(PCINT6/XTAL1/TOSC1) PB6 2 9
(PCINT7/XTAL2/TOSC2) PB7 10
                                   19 PB5 (SCK/PCINT5)
  (PCINT21/OC0B/T1) PD5 ☐ 11
                                   18 PB4 (MISO/PCINT4)
 (PCINT22/OC0A/AIN0) PD6 ☐ 12
                                   17 PB3 (MOS VOC2A/PCINT3)
      (PCINT23/AIN1) PD7 13
                                   16 PB2 ($$/OC1 B/PCINT2)
  (PCINTO/CLKO/ICP1) PB0 ☐ 14
                                   15 PB1 (OC1 A/PCINT1)
```





#### Communicating with External Devices

- To communicate with these devices, there must be:
  - A channel for communication
    - ✓ Typically the address, data and control buses.

Address bus: Electrical lines that contain the addresses of memory or devices to be accessed.

Data bus: Electrical lines that carry data to and from memory or other devices.

Control bus: Electrical lines that tell the memory or device to either READ the data on the bus or WRITE data to the bus.

- An agreed method for communication
  - ✓A "protocol" that specifies which signal lines are to be de/asserted, how many clock cycles should go by before data appears etc.
  - **✓**This is usually specified in a "timing diagram".



**I/O Systems** 

### TYPES OF I/O PORTS





### Types of I/O Ports

- Two main types of I/O ports in DESKTOP and SERVER class systems.
  - •More common in large desktop and server systems:
    - ✓ Memory mapped I/O
    - **✓ Direct mapped I/O**
- Micro-controllers are designed a little differently.
- We will look at DESKTOP and SERVER class systems first.



### Communicating with External Devices

- Typically every device connected to the CPU is given a unique identifier:
  - This serves as the "address" (memory mapped) or "I/O port" (direct mapped) of the device.
  - •A CPU will write to this address or I/O port to send data to the device, and read from it to get data from the device.

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✓ Similar in idea to reading/writing memory.



## Types of I/O Ports Desktops and Servers

- Two main types:
  - •Memory mapped I/O:

✓I/O identification numbers come from the normal memory addressing range of the CPU

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E.g. memory locations 8192, 8193, 8194 and 8195 are to identify devices that read from temperature sensors 0 and 1, activate an alarm and call the fire department respectively.

**✓**The CPU sees the devices as part of its memory



### Desktops and Servers Memory Mapped I/O

#### Memory Mapped I/O example:

•Read from temperature sensors 0 and 1 and write to memory locations 400 and 401

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```
LI R0, 8192; Address of sensor 0

LW R0, (R0); Read from temp sensor 0

LI R1, 400; Address to write to

SW R0, (R1); Write temperature

LI R0, 8193; Address of sensor 1

LW R0, (R0); Read from temp sensor 1

ADDI R1, R1, 1; Increment R1 to 401

SW R0, (R1); Write temperature to 401
```



### Desktops and Servers Memory Mapped I/O

#### • Important points:

•The port numbers for reading sensors 1 and 2 (addresses 8192 and 8193) are treated exactly the same way as memory addresses (e.g. 400 and 401).

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- •Obviously memory ranges reserved for I/O ports *cannot* be used as normal memory.
  - **✓** The CPU actually loses some memory addressing range.
- •It is however a simple and attractive scheme.



### Desktops and Servers Memory Mapped I/O

Single MEMW and MEMR line shared with Address Bus memory and I/O device CPU 16 bits Device Data Bus **MEMR MEMW** To Memory Devices



- Second type is Direct Mapped (or Isolated) I/O:
  - The addressing range of the I/O devices is completely separate from memory.

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- This means that the CPU does not lose any memory addressing range at all
- •AND I/O devices potentially get an equally large addressing range!



- BUT:
  - •CPUs supporting direct mapped I/O must provide:

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**✓ Two separate sets of READ/WRITE signals:** 

One set for memory

MEMW and MEMR

One set of I/O

IOW and IOR



#### **✓** New commands to read/write the I/O devices

Can no longer use LW/SW or similar commands.

These would cause you to read or write memory instead of I/O devices!

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#### **✓** Typically these instructions take the form of:

IN R0, portnum; Read the device at portnum and write to register R0

OUT R0, potrnum; Write R0 to the device at portnum



#### Direct Mapped I/O example:

- •Read from temperature sensors at port numbers 8192 and 8193
- Write to memory locations 8192 and 8193

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#### • Notice that:

It does not matter that the sensors were at port numbers 8192 and 8193:

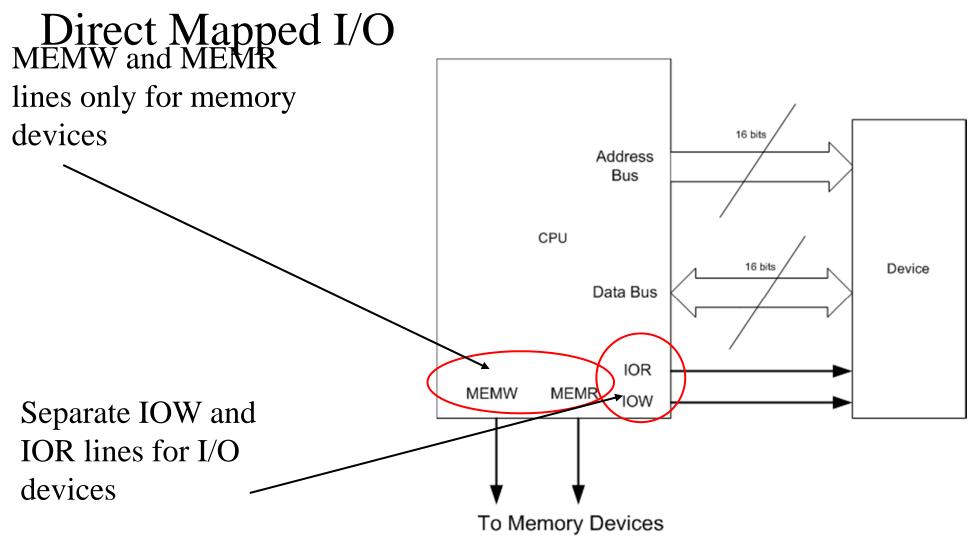
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✓ We can still read/write memory locations 8192 and 8193 because their addressing ranges are separate!

- We read/write memory using standard LW and SW instructions
- •We read/write I/O devices using special IN and OUT instructions.



### Desktops and Servers





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### Microcontrollers Register Mapped I/O

- Register-mapped I/O is a variation of memory-mapped I/O.
  - In memory mapped I/O, any location that is not used to store data can be used for I/O.
    - **✓** The corresponding device is activated when the "decoder" circuit matches the address on the address bus with the device's ID.
  - In register-mapped I/O, the memory locations that are used for I/O is fixed.
    - ✓ These fixed locations are typically called "registers", which is different from CPU registers that you are used to.
    - ✓ Suitable for microcontrollers as the set of peripherals is usually fixed.



### Timing Diagrams

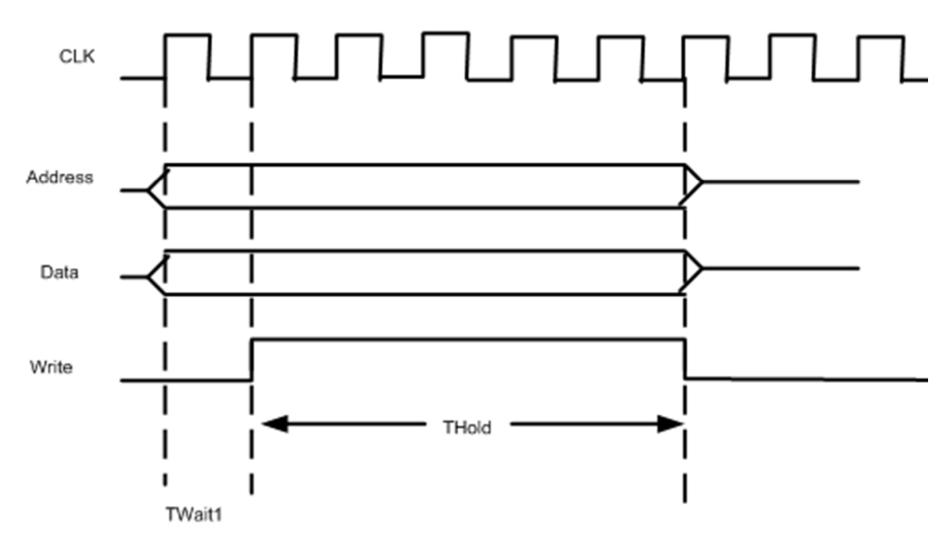
• Typically a timing diagram specifies (in seconds) how long an event is supposed to occur after the occurrence of another event.

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- •E.g. to write to a particular RAM device:
  - ✓ Place address and data onto address and data buses respectively.
  - ✓ After at least 25 ns, assert the WRITE signal  $(T_{WAIT1})$
  - **✓** Hold for at least 100 ns (T<sub>HOLD</sub>)
  - **✓ Deassert WRITE signal, remove all other signals**
  - ✓ Wait for at least 50 ns before accessing device again  $(T_{WAIT2})$



### Timing Diagrams





#### Timing Diagrams

Actual bus signals, as seen on a digital bus analyzer:







**I/O Systems** 

### I/O PROGRAMMING



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### I/O Programming

- The 3 types of I/O ports shown earlier correspond to how the hardware is designed.
- On the software side, there are 3 ways to access the I/O devices.
  - •These can work with any of the 3 types of I/O ports shown earlier.
  - ■The 3 ways to access I/O are:
    - **✓**Programmed I/O
    - ✓Interrupt-driven I/O
    - **✓ Direct Memory Access**



# I/O Programming Programmed I/O

- This is the simplest form of I/O programming The CPU does all the work.
- Consider a process that prints "ABCDEFGH" on the printer:
  - •User process acquires the printer by making a system call. This call returns an error or blocks if the printer is busy, until it is available.
  - The OS kernel then copies the string to be printed into its own buffer.



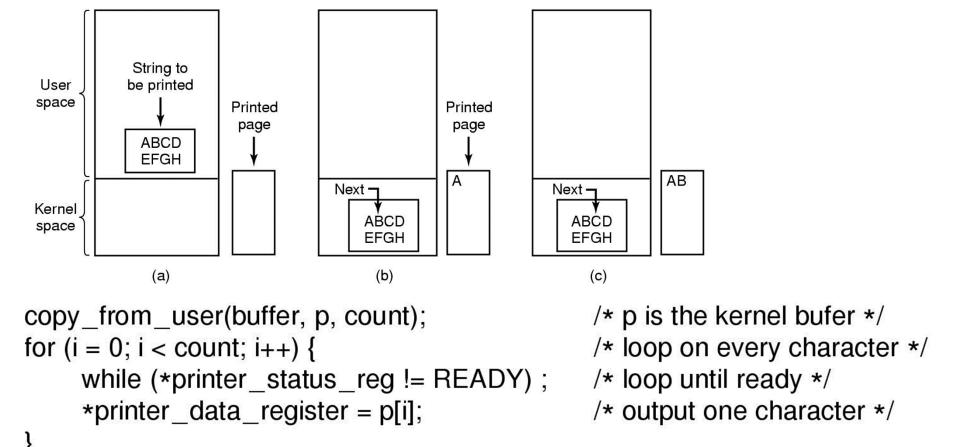
# I/O Programming Programmed I/O

- The OS then copies character by character onto the printer's latch, and the printer prints it out.
  - Copy the first character and advance the buffer's pointer.
  - Check that the printer is ready for the next character. If not, wait.
    - This is called "busy-waiting" or "polling".
  - Copy the next character. Repeat until buffer is empty.

return\_to\_user();



# I/O Programming Programmed I/O







## I/O Programming Programmed I/O

#### • Issue:

- •It takes perhaps 10ms to print a character.
- •During this time, the CPU will be busy-waiting until the printer is done printing.
- •On a 96MHz processor like the ARM STR912, this is equivalent to wasting 960,000 instruction cycles!
  - ✓ Assumption is that 1 instruction completes in 1 cycle. Realistic for a RISC processor.





- Since 960,000 instructions is a large number, why not let the CPU do other stuff while the printer is busy?
  - •After the string is copied to kernel space, the OS will send a character to the printer, then switch to a task.
  - •When the printer is done, it will interrupt the CPU by asserting one of the "interrupt request" (IRQ) lines on the CPU.
  - •This triggers a software routine called an "interrupt handler", "interrupt service routine" or "interrupt service procedure" which will then load the next character. We will use the term "ISR".



```
copy_from_user(buffer, p, count);
enable_interrupts();
while (*printer_status_reg != READY);
*printer_data_register = p[0];
scheduler();

(a)

if (count == 0) {
    unblock_user();
    } else {
        *printer_data_register = p[i];
        count = count - 1;
        i = i + 1;
    }
    acknowledge_interrupt();
    return_from_interrupt();
```



- Issue:
  - •The printer interrupts the CPU every time it prints a character!
  - Each interrupt has overheads:
    - ✓ CPU must stop what it is doing, look up a vector table for the address of the appropriate ISR, then hand control to the ISR.
    - ✓ISR must save the registers, process the interrupt, and restore the registers.
    - **✓ CPU** then hands control back to the interrupted process.



- There are typically several hundred thousand to several million characters in a document!
  - •This means triggering millions of interrupts to print each document.
  - ■The overheads can be sizeable.
- Would be ideal if we could just dump the document on the printer and worry only when it has finished printing everything!
  - This is where Direct Memory Access comes in.



#### • In Direct Memory Access (DMA):

•A separate processor called a DMA Controller (DMAC) is used to transfer data between a device and memory.

#### In a DMA READ:

The user process initiates the READ by making an OS system call, providing:

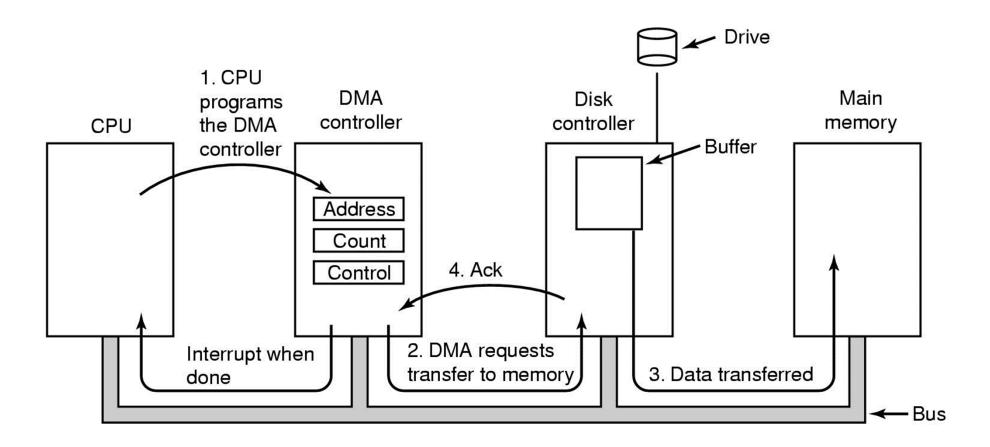
✓Information on which device to read. In the case of a disk drive, the user process will provide information of which part of the disk (side number, track number, starting block number) to read.

✓ Information on how many bytes (or blocks of bytes) to read.



- ✓ Starting address of the buffer to write to.
- **✓** The process is blocked until the transfer is done.
- ■The OS then (using appropriate I/O ports) passes this information to the DMAC, and tells the DMAC to start transferring.
- ■The OS then switches to another process, while the DMAC transfers the data independently of the CPU.
- •When the DMAC is done, it interrupts the CPU.
  - **✓**The ISR for the DMAC then calls routines in the OS to move the blocked process to the READY queue.







#### • In our printer example:

- •The user process makes an OS call with a pointer to the text buffer, and the number of characters to print.
- The OS copies the text into its own buffers, then sets up the DMA transfer and blocks the calling process.
- •The OS initiates a DMA transfer, then hands control to another process.
- •When the DMAC is done, it interrupts the OS. The OS moves the calling process into the READY state.



```
copy_from_user(buffer, p, count); acknowledge_interrupt(); set_up_DMA_controller(); unblock_user(); scheduler(); return_from_interrupt(); (b)
```



### Summary

- In this lecture we looked as some basic ideas:
  - •What is assembly language?
  - ■I/O Ports
  - Designing programs to access I/O
    - **✓Programmed I/O**
    - ✓Interrupt I/O
    - **✓ Direct Memory Access I/O**