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Hardware of Real-time Systems

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Interrupts

- An interrupt is an external hardware signal that initiates an event.
- Interrupts are used to signal that an I/O transfer was completed or needs to be initiated.
- It should be carefully planned which devices or sensors are given a right to interrupt and define its priority.
- The most time-critical events could be recognized with interrupts while others can be recognized with periodic polling (**CPU check sensors at a periodic interval**).
- Maskable interrupts commonly used for events that occur during regular operating conditions.
- Non-maskable interrupts are reserved for extremely critical events that require immediate action



Interrupts

- **Masking:** preventing the interrupt from disturbing the CPU, the processor will not accept the interrupt signal (interrupts with low priorities).
- **Maskable interrupts:** a hardware interrupt that may be ignored by changing a bit called mask-bit.
- **Non-maskable interrupts** can not be disabled or ignored by CPU.

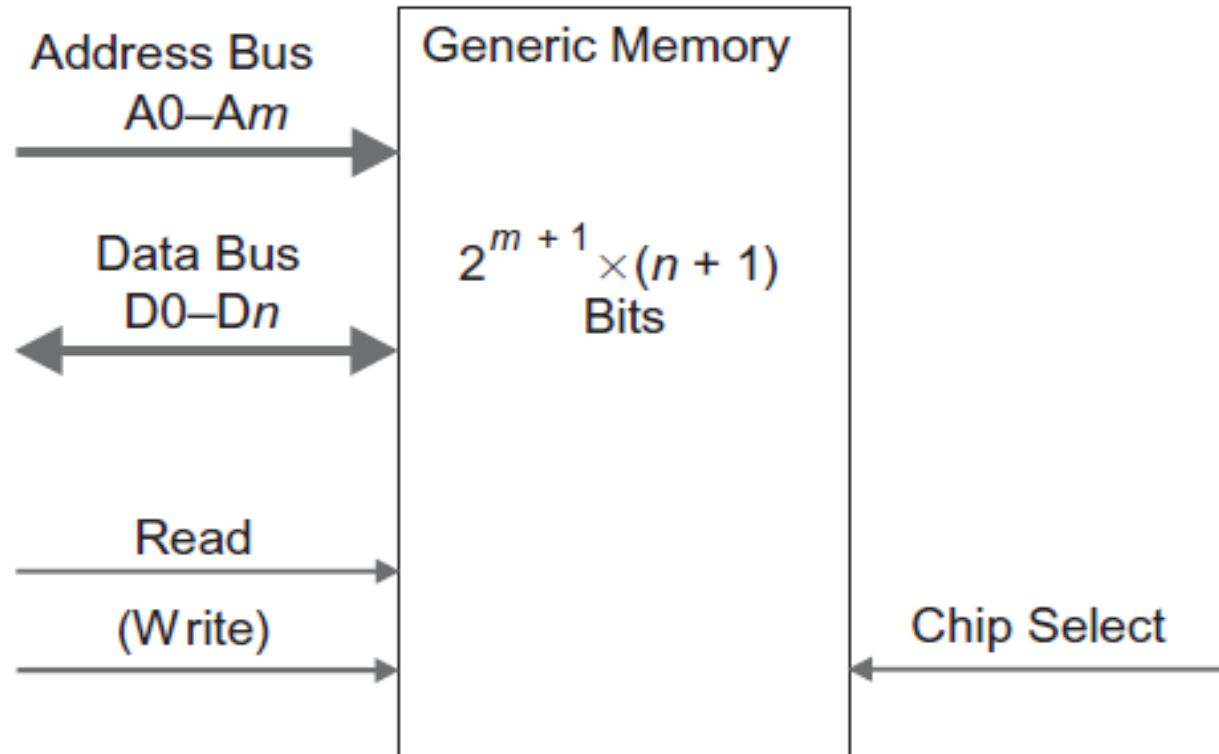


Interrupts

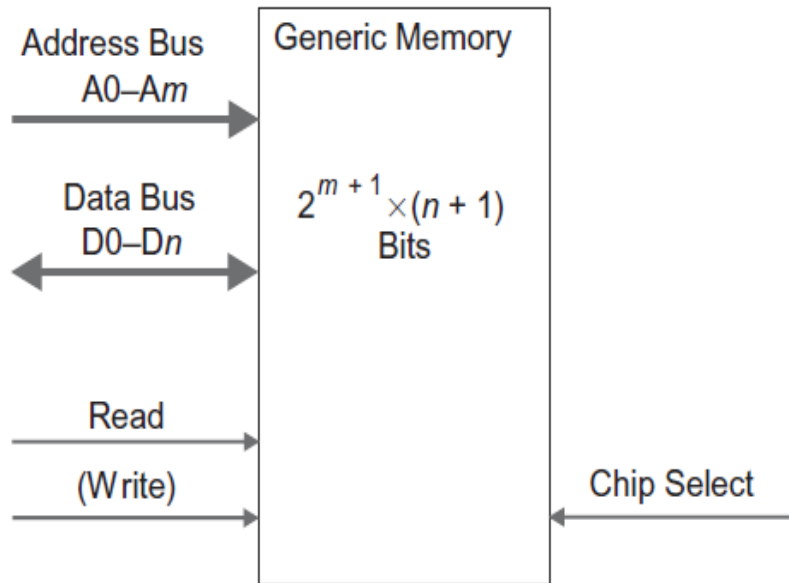
- A typical interrupt service process is as follows:
 - The interrupt - request line is activated.
 - The interrupt request is latched by the CPU hardware
 - The processing of the ongoing instruction is completed
 - The content of program counter register (PCR) is pushed to stack.
 - The content of status register (SR) is pushed to stack.
 - The PCR is loaded with the interrupt handler's address.
 - The interrupt handler is executed
 - The original content of SR is popped from stack.
 - The original content of PCR is popped from stack.



MEMORY TECHNOLOGIES



MEMORY TECHNOLOGIES



- **Memory Size:** $2^{m+1} \times (n+1)$ bits
The memory consists of 2^{m+1} addressable locations, each storing a word of $n+1$ bits.
- **Word Size:** Each word is $n+1$ bits wide, where the bit index n starts from zero.
- **Number of Words:** The total number of words (memory locations) is 2^{m+1} , where the address index m starts from zero.
- **Address Bus Size:** The address bus contains $m+1$ lines, allowing access to 2^{m+1} unique memory locations.
- **Data Bus Size:** The data bus width equals the word size, i.e., $n+1$ bits.
- **Control Signals:** The memory unit operates using two primary control signals: Read and Write, which determine the direction of data transfer between the processor and memory.



DIFFERENT CLASSES OF MEMORY

Memory Type	Category	Erase	Write Mechanism	Volatility
Random-access memory (RAM)	Read-write memory	Electrically, byte-level	Electrically	Volatile
Read-only memory (ROM)	Read-only memory	Not possible	Masks	Nonvolatile
Programmable ROM (PROM)			Electrically	
Erasable PROM (EPROM)	UV light, chip-level			
Electrically Erasable PROM (EEPROM)	Electrically, byte-level			
Flash memory	Electrically, block-level			



DIFFERENT CLASSES OF MEMORY

SRAM	DRAM
SRAM memory cell is a digital device that uses the same logic elements (flip – flop) used in the processor.	DRAM memory cell can be implemented with a single transistor and capacitor.
More expensive	Less expensive
Fast	Slow
SRAM memory cell is more space intensive	DRAM is more dense (smaller cells more cells per unit area)
Does not need a refreshment circuit.	DRAM must be refreshed regularly to avoid any loss of data
Cache Memory	Main Memory



Different Classes of Memory

- Fast page mode (FPM) DRAM
- Extended data output (EDO) DRAM
- Synchronous DRAM (SDRAM)
- Direct Rambus DRAM (DRDRAM)
- Double data rate 3 synchronous DRAM (DDR3 SDRAM)
 - DDR4, DDR5, LPDDR5X



Different Classes of Memory

Fast Page Mode (FPM) DRAM:

An early DRAM type that speeds up access within the same memory row by keeping the row open, reducing access time for sequential data.

Extended Data Output (EDO) DRAM:

Improved over FPM by allowing the next memory access to start while the previous data is still being output, increasing overall memory throughput.

Synchronous DRAM (SDRAM):

Operates in synchronization with the system clock, enabling faster and more predictable data access compared to asynchronous DRAM.

Direct Rambus DRAM (DRDRAM):

Uses a high-speed channel architecture to transfer data at very high rates, offering higher bandwidth but at higher cost and complexity.

Double Data Rate 3 Synchronous DRAM (DDR3 SDRAM):

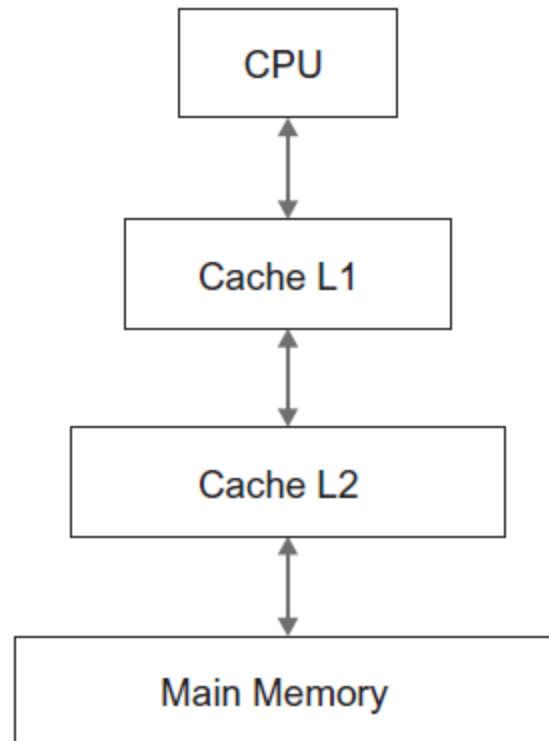
Transfers data on both rising and falling edges of the clock signal, offering higher speed and lower power consumption than DDR2.

DDR4, DDR5, LPDDR5X:

Successive generations of DDR memory—**DDR4** improves speed and efficiency, **DDR5** doubles bandwidth and enhances reliability, while **LPDDR5X** is a low-power version optimized for mobile and embedded



Hierarchical Memory Organization

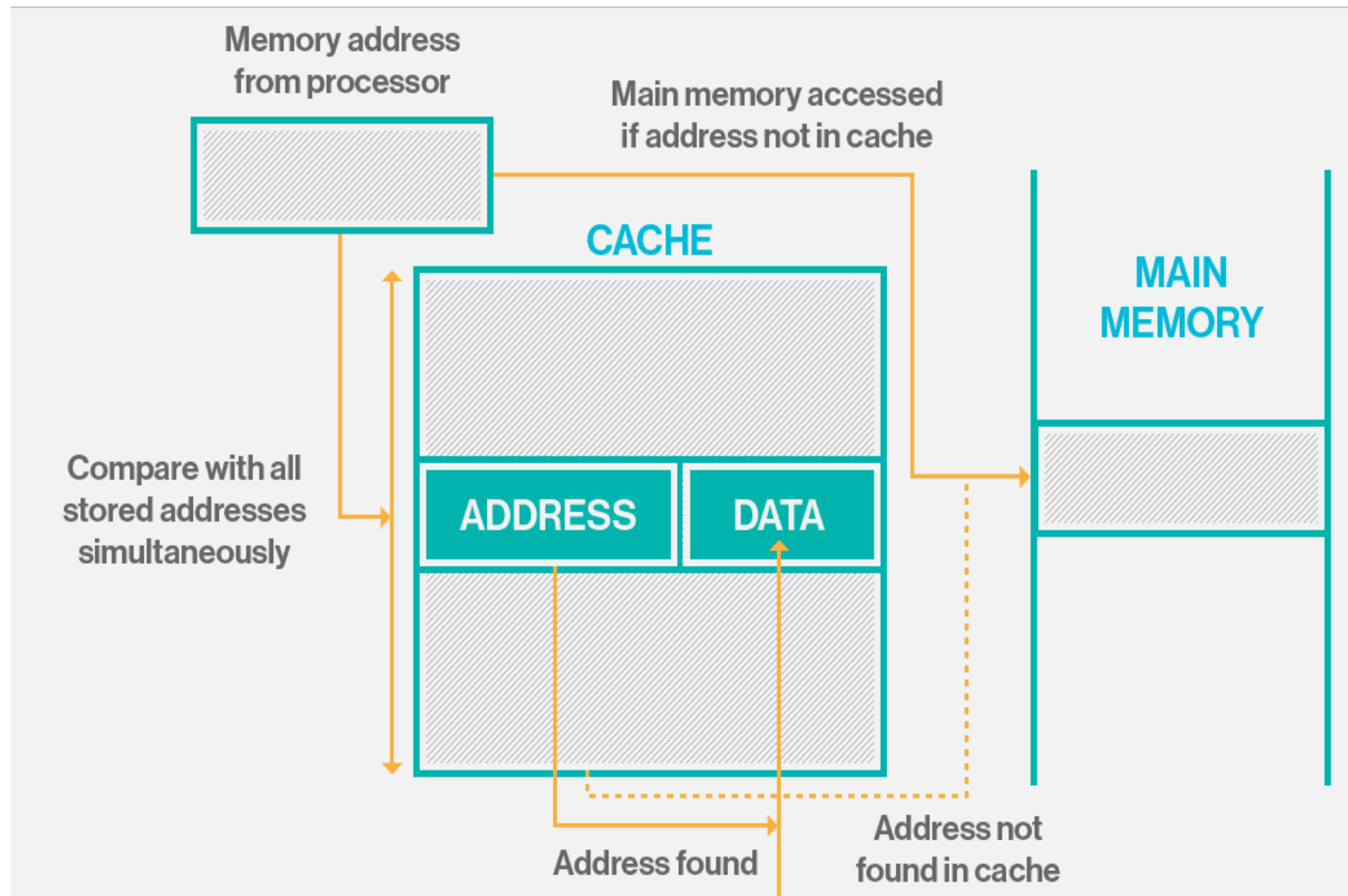


Hierarchical Memory Organization

- **A cache is a relatively small storage of fast memory where frequently used instructions and data are kept.**
- **The cache also contains a list of memory blocks (address tags) that are currently in the cache.**
- **Performance measure is a function of the cache hit ratio.**



Cache Memory



Hierarchical Memory Organization

- Cache design considerations include:
 - ✓ **access time:** The time required to retrieve data from the cache, affecting overall system performance and speed.
 - ✓ **cache size:** The total storage capacity of the cache, determining how much data or instructions can be stored for quick access.
 - ✓ **block size:** The amount of data transferred between main memory and cache in one operation, influencing hit rate and transfer efficiency.
 - ✓ **mapping function:** The method used to determine where each memory block is placed in the cache, such as direct, associative, or set-associative mapping.
 - ✓ **Block replacement algorithm:** Determines which cache block should be replaced when new data is loaded, using strategies like **FIFO**, **LRU (Least Recently Used)**, or **Random replacement** to maintain efficiency.
 - ✓ **Write policy:** Defines how data modifications in the cache are handled, typically using **Write-Through** (update both cache and memory immediately) or **Write-Back** (update memory only when the cache block is replaced).
 - ✓ **number of caches** (e.g., there can be separate data and instruction caches, or an instruction cache only), and **number of cache levels** (typically 1 – 3).



Cache Memory

↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓		↓	↓	↓	↓	
7	0	1	2	0	3	0	4	2	3	0	3

7	7	7	2	2	2	4	4	4	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3
		1	1	1	3	3	2	2	2



Q

- **Consider a two-level memory hierarchy with a single 8 K cache built inside the CPU. Assume a non-cached memory reference costs 100 ns, whereas an access from the cache takes only 20 ns. Now assume that the cache hit ratio is 73%. What would be the average access time for this hierarchy of a system memory.**



A.

- Each access is either a hit or a miss, so average memory access time (AMAT) is:
AMAT = time spent in hits + time spent in misses
= hit rate * hit time + miss rate * miss time



Q

- **Consider a three - level memory hierarchy with an 8 K upper level cache built inside the CPU and an external 128 K lower level cache. Assume the access times of 20 and 60 ns, respectively, and the cost of non-cached memory reference is 100 ns. The upper level hit rate is again 73%, and the lower level hit rate is 89%. What would be the average access time for this hierarchy of a system memory.**



A.

- **Each access is either a hit or a miss, so average memory access time (AMAT) is:**

AMAT =

$\text{rel hit rate L1} * \text{hit time L1} + \text{rel miss rate L1} * (\text{rel hit rate L2} * \text{hit time L2} + \text{rel miss rate L2} * (\text{hit time RAM}))$

