In this example, three instruction cycles, each consisting of a fetch stage and an execute stage, are needed to add the contents of location 940 to the contents of 941. With a more complex set of instructions, fewer instruction cycles would be needed. Most modern processors include instructions that contain more than one address. Thus the execution stage for a particular instruction may involve more than one reference to memory. Also, instead of memory references, an instruction may specify an I/O operation.

I/O Function

Data can be exchanged directly between an I/O module (e. g., a disk controller) and the processor. Just as the processor can initiate a read or write with memory, specifying the address of a memory location, the processor can also read data from or write data to an I/O module. In this latter case, the processor identifies a specific device that is controlled by a particular I/O module. Thus, an instruction sequence similar in form to that of Figure 1.4 could occur, with I/O instructions rather than memory-referencing instructions.

In some cases, it is desirable to allow I/O exchanges to occur directly with main memory to relieve the processor of the I/O task. In such a case, the processor grants to an I/O module the authority to read from or write to memory, so that the I/O-memory transfer can occur without tying up the processor. During such a transfer, the I/O module issues read or write commands to memory, relieving the processor of responsibility for the exchange. This operation, known as direct memory access (DMA), is examined later in this chapter.

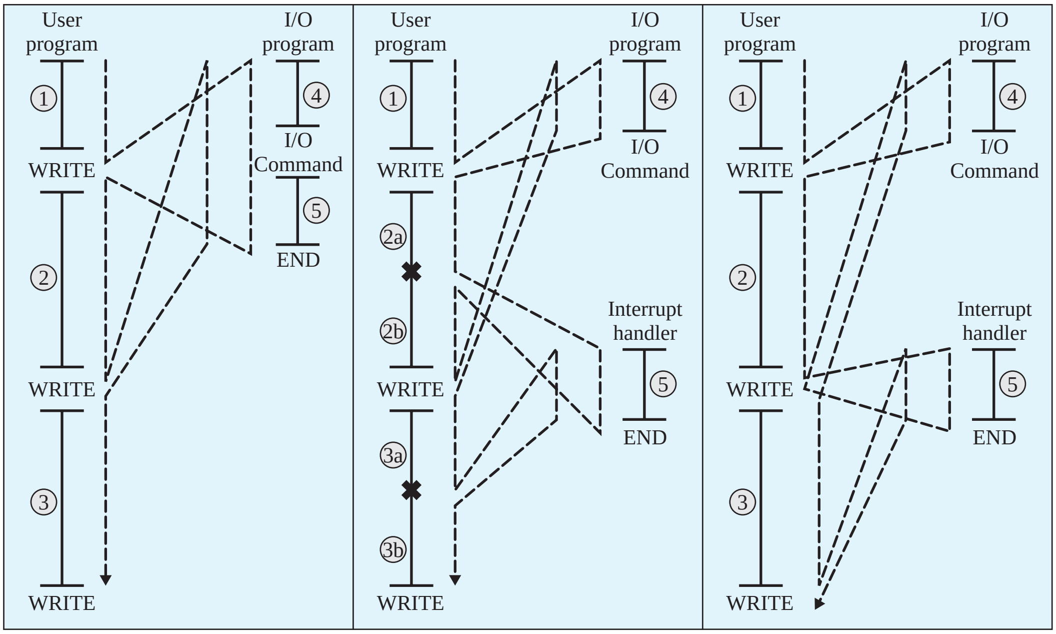
1.4 INTERRUPTS

Virtually all computers provide a mechanism by which other modules (I/O, memory) may interrupt the normal sequencing of the processor. Table 1.1 lists the most common classes of interrupts.

Interrupts are provided primarily as a way to improve processor utilization. For example, most I/O devices are much slower than the processor. Suppose that the processor is transferring data to a printer using the instruction cycle scheme of Figure 1.2. After each write operation, the processor must pause and remain idle

Table 1.1 Classes of Interrupts

Program	Generated by some condition that occurs as a result of an instruction execution, such as arithmetic overflow, division by zero, attempt to execute an illegal machine instruction, and reference outside a user's allowed memory space.
Timer	Generated by a timer within the processor. This allows the operating system to perform certain functions on a regular basis.
I/O	Generated by an I/O controller, to signal normal completion of an operation or to signal a variety of error conditions.
Hardware failure	Generated by a failure, such as power failure or memory parity error.



(a) No interrupts (b) Interrupts; short I/O wait (c) Interrupts; long I/O wait

Figure 1.5 Program Flow of Control without and with Interrupts

until the printer catches up. The length of this pause may be on the order of many thousands or even millions of instruction cycles. Clearly, this is a very wasteful use of the processor.

To give a specific example, consider a PC that operates at 1 GHz, which would allow roughly 10^9 instructions per second.[4] A typical hard disk has a rotational speed of 7200 revolutions per minute for a half-track rotation time of 4 ms, which is 4 million times slower than the processor.

Figure 1.5a illustrates this state of affairs. The user program performs a series of WRITE calls interleaved with processing. The solid vertical lines represent segments of code in a program. Code segments 1, 2, and 3 refer to sequences of instructions that do not involve I/O. The WRITE calls are to an I/O routine that is a system utility and that will perform the actual I/O operation. The I/O program consists of three sections:

- A sequence of instructions, labeled 4 in the figure, to prepare for the actual I/O operation. This may include copying the data to be output into a special buffer and preparing the parameters for a device command.
- The actual I/O command. Without the use of interrupts, once this command is issued, the program must wait for the I/O device to perform the requested

[4]A discussion of the uses of numerical prefixes, such as giga and tera, is contained in a supporting document at the Computer Science Student Resource Site at WilliamStallings. com/StudentSupport.html.

function (or periodically check the status, or poll, the I/O device). The program might wait by simply repeatedly performing a test operation to determine if the I/O operation is done.

- A sequence of instructions, labeled 5 in the figure, to complete the operation. This may include setting a flag indicating the success or failure of the operation.

The dashed line represents the path of execution followed by the processor; that is, this line shows the sequence in which instructions are executed. Thus, after the first WRITE instruction is encountered, the user program is interrupted and execution continues with the I/O program. After the I/O program execution is complete, execution resumes in the user program immediately following the WRITE instruction.

Because the I/O operation may take a relatively long time to complete, the I/O program is hung up waiting for the operation to complete; hence, the user program is stopped at the point of the WRITE call for some considerable period of time.

Interrupts and the Instruction Cycle

With interrupts, the processor can be engaged in executing other instructions while an I/O operation is in progress. Consider the flow of control in Figure 1.5b. As before, the user program reaches a point at which it makes a system call in the form of a WRITE call. The I/O program that is invoked in this case consists only of the preparation code and the actual I/O command. After these few instructions have been executed, control returns to the user program. Meanwhile, the external device is busy accepting data from computer memory and printing it. This I/O operation is conducted concurrently with the execution of instructions in the user program.

When the external device becomes ready to be serviced, that is, when it is ready to accept more data from the processor, the I/O module for that external device sends an *interrupt request* signal to the processor. The processor responds by suspending operation of the current program; branching off to a routine to service that particular I/O device, known as an interrupt handler; and resuming the original execution after the device is serviced. The points at which such interrupts occur are indicated by ✖ in Figure 1.5b. Note that an interrupt can occur at any point in the main program, not just at one specific instruction.

For the user program, an interrupt suspends the normal sequence of execution. When the interrupt processing is completed, execution resumes (Figure 1.6). Thus, the user program does not have to contain any special code to accommodate interrupts; the processor and the OS are responsible for suspending the user program and then resuming it at the same point.

To accommodate interrupts, an *interrupt stage* is added to the instruction cycle, as shown in Figure 1.7 (compare Figure 1.2). In the interrupt stage, the processor checks to see if any interrupts have occurred, indicated by the presence of an interrupt signal. If no interrupts are pending, the processor proceeds to the fetch stage and fetches the next instruction of the current program. If an interrupt is pending, the processor suspends execution of the current program and executes an *interrupt-handler* routine. The interrupt-handler routine is generally part of the OS. Typically, this routine determines the nature of the interrupt and performs

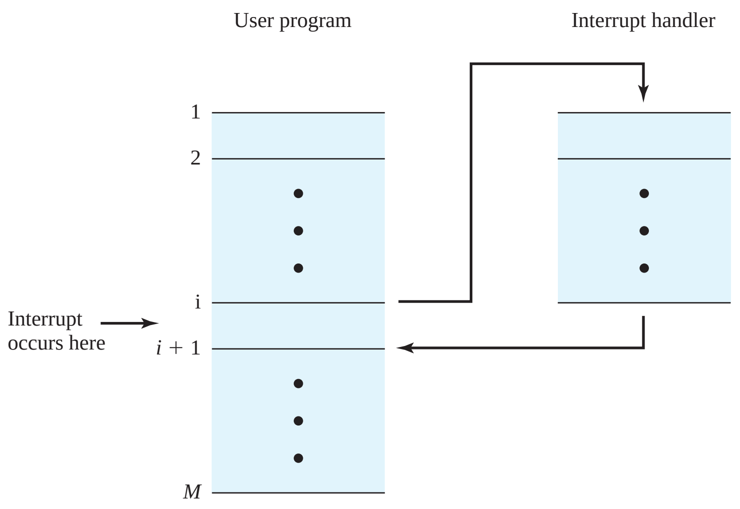


Figure 1.6 Transfer of Control via Interrupts

whatever actions are needed. In the example we have been using, the handler determines which I/O module generated the interrupt and may branch to a program that will write more data out to that I/O module. When the interrupt-handler routine is completed, the processor can resume execution of the user program at the point of interruption.

It is clear that there is some overhead involved in this process. Extra instructions must be executed (in the interrupt handler) to determine the nature of the interrupt and to decide on the appropriate action. Nevertheless, because of the relatively large amount of time that would be wasted by simply waiting on an I/O operation, the processor can be employed much more efficiently with the use of interrupts.

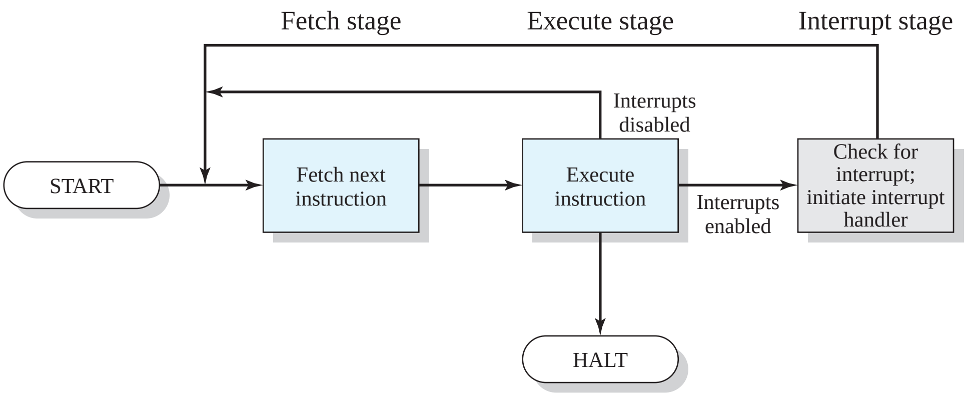


Figure 1.7 Instruction Cycle with Interrupts

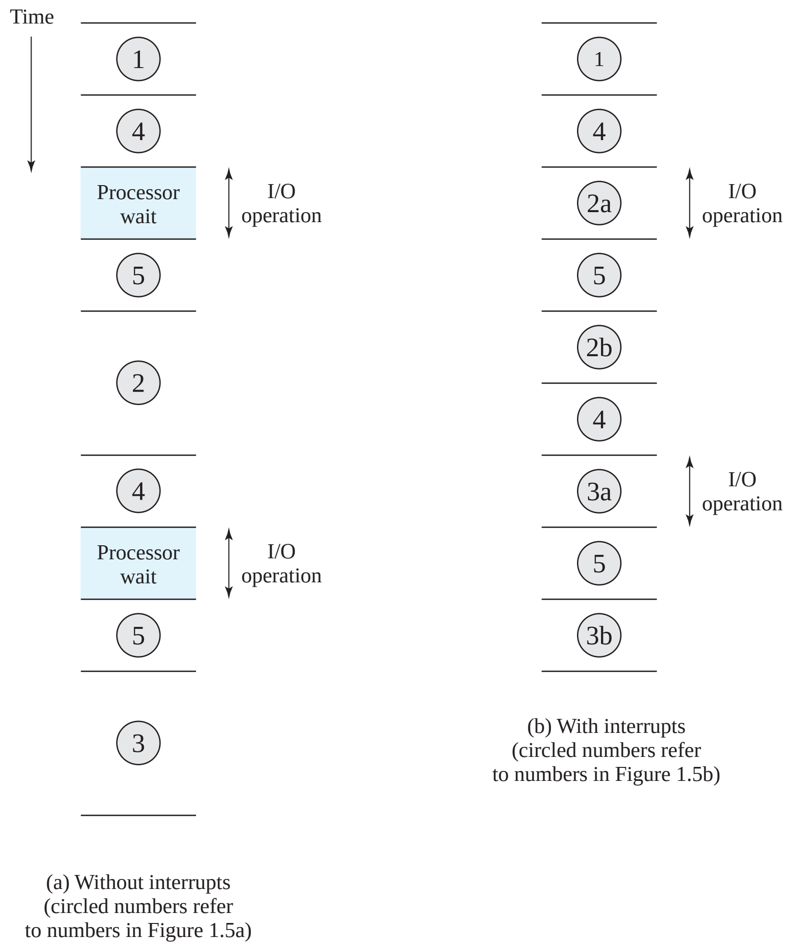

Time
1
4
Processor wait
I/O operation
5
2
4
Processor wait
I/O operation
5
3
(a) Without interrupts (circled numbers refer to numbers in Figure 1.5a)
1
4
2a
I/O operation
5
2b
4
3a
I/O operation
5
3b
(b) With interrupts (circled numbers refer to numbers in Figure 1.5b)

Figure 1.8 Program Timing: Short I/O Wait

To appreciate the gain in efficiency, consider Figure 1.8, which is a timing diagram based on the flow of control in Figures 1.5 a and 1.5b. Figures 1.5b and 1.8 assume that the time required for the I/O operation is relatively short: less than the time to complete the execution of instructions between write operations in the user program. The more typical case, especially for a slow device such as a printer, is that the I/O operation will take much more time than executing a sequence of user instructions. Figure 1.5 c indicates this state of affairs. In this case, the user program reaches the second WRITE call before the I/O operation spawned by the first call is complete. The result is that the user program is hung up at that point. When the preceding I/O operation is completed, this new WRITE call may be processed, and a new I/O operation may be started. Figure 1.9 shows the timing for this situation with and without the use of interrupts. We can see that there is still a gain in efficiency because part of the time during which the I/O operation is underway overlaps with the execution of user instructions.

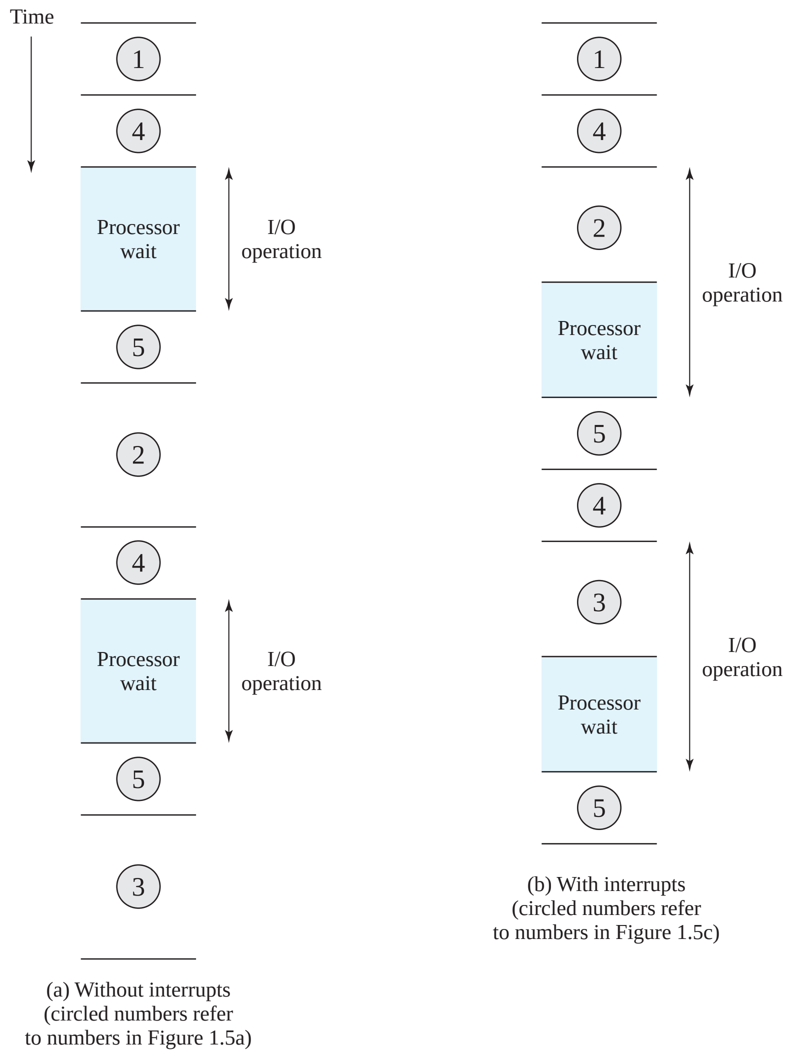

Time
1
4
Processor wait
I/O operation
5
2
4
Processor wait
I/O operation
5
3
(a) Without interrupts (circled numbers refer to numbers in Figure 1.5a)
1
4
2
I/O operation
Processor wait
5
4
3
I/O operation
Processor wait
5
(b) With interrupts (circled numbers refer to numbers in Figure 1.5c)

Figure 1.9 Program Timing: Long I/O Wait

Interrupt Processing

An interrupt triggers a number of events, both in the processor hardware and in software. Figure 1.10 shows a typical sequence. When an I/O device completes an I/O operation, the following sequence of hardware events occurs:

1. The device issues an interrupt signal to the processor.
2. The processor finishes execution of the current instruction before responding to the interrupt, as indicated in Figure 1.7.
3. The processor tests for a pending interrupt request, determines that there is one, and sends an acknowledgment signal to the device that issued the interrupt. The acknowledgment allows the device to remove its interrupt signal.

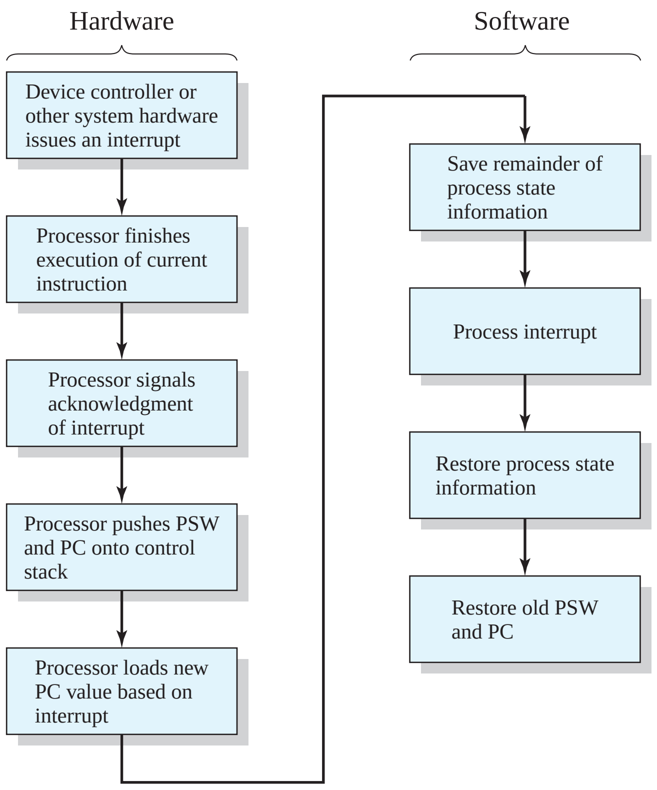

Hardware
Software
Device controller or other system hardware issues an interrupt
Processor finishes execution of current instruction
Processor signals acknowledgment of interrupt
Processor pushes PSW and PC onto control stack
Processor loads new PC value based on interrupt
Save remainder of process state information
Process interrupt
Restore process state information
Restore old PSW and PC

Figure 1.10 **Simple Interrupt Processing**

4. The processor next needs to prepare to transfer control to the interrupt routine. To begin, it saves information needed to resume the current program at the point of interrupt. The minimum information required is the program status word (PSW) and the location of the next instruction to be executed, which is contained in the program counter. These can be pushed onto a control stack (see Appendix 1B).
5. The processor then loads the program counter with the entry location of the interrupt-handling routine that will respond to this interrupt. Depending on the computer architecture and OS design, there may be a single program, one for each type of interrupt, or one for each device and each type of interrupt. If there is more than one interrupt-handling routine, the processor must determine which one to invoke. This information may have been included in the original interrupt signal, or the processor may have to issue a request to the device that issued the interrupt to get a response that contains the needed information.

Once the program counter has been loaded, the processor proceeds to the next instruction cycle, which begins with an instruction fetch. Because the instruction fetch is determined by the contents of the program counter, control is transferred to the interrupt-handler program. The execution of this program results in the following operations:

6. At this point, the program counter and PSW relating to the interrupted program have been saved on the control stack. However, there is other information that is considered part of the state of the executing program. In particular, the contents of the processor registers need to be saved, because these registers may be used by the interrupt handler. So all of these values, plus any other state information, need to be saved. Typically, the interrupt handler will begin by saving the contents of all registers on the stack. Other state information that must be saved is discussed in Chapter 3. Figure 1.11 a shows a simple example. In this case, a user program is interrupted after the instruction at location N. The contents of all of the registers plus the address of the next instruction ($N + 1$), a total of M words, are pushed onto the control stack. The stack pointer is updated to point to the new top of stack, and the program counter is updated to point to the beginning of the interrupt service routine.
7. The interrupt handler may now proceed to process the interrupt. This includes an examination of status information relating to the I/O operation or other event that caused an interrupt. It may also involve sending additional commands or acknowledgments to the I/O device.
8. When interrupt processing is complete, the saved register values are retrieved from the stack and restored to the registers (e. g., see Figure 1.11b).
9. The final act is to restore the PSW and program counter values from the stack. As a result, the next instruction to be executed will be from the previously interrupted program.

It is important to save all of the state information about the interrupted program for later resumption. This is because the interrupt is not a routine called from the program. Rather, the interrupt can occur at any time and therefore at any point in the execution of a user program. Its occurrence is unpredictable.

Multiple Interrupts

So far, we have discussed the occurrence of a single interrupt. Suppose, however, that one or more interrupts can occur while an interrupt is being processed. For example, a program may be receiving data from a communications line and printing results at the same time. The printer will generate an interrupt every time that it completes a print operation. The communication line controller will generate an interrupt every time a unit of data arrives. The unit could either be a single character or a block, depending on the nature of the communications discipline. In any case, it is possible for a communications interrupt to occur while a printer interrupt is being processed.

Two approaches can be taken to dealing with multiple interrupts. The first is to disable interrupts while an interrupt is being processed. A *disabled interrupt* simply means that the processor ignores any new interrupt request signal. If an interrupt occurs during this time, it generally remains pending and will be checked by the processor after the processor has reenabled interrupts. Thus, when a user program is executing and an interrupt occurs, interrupts are disabled immediately. After the

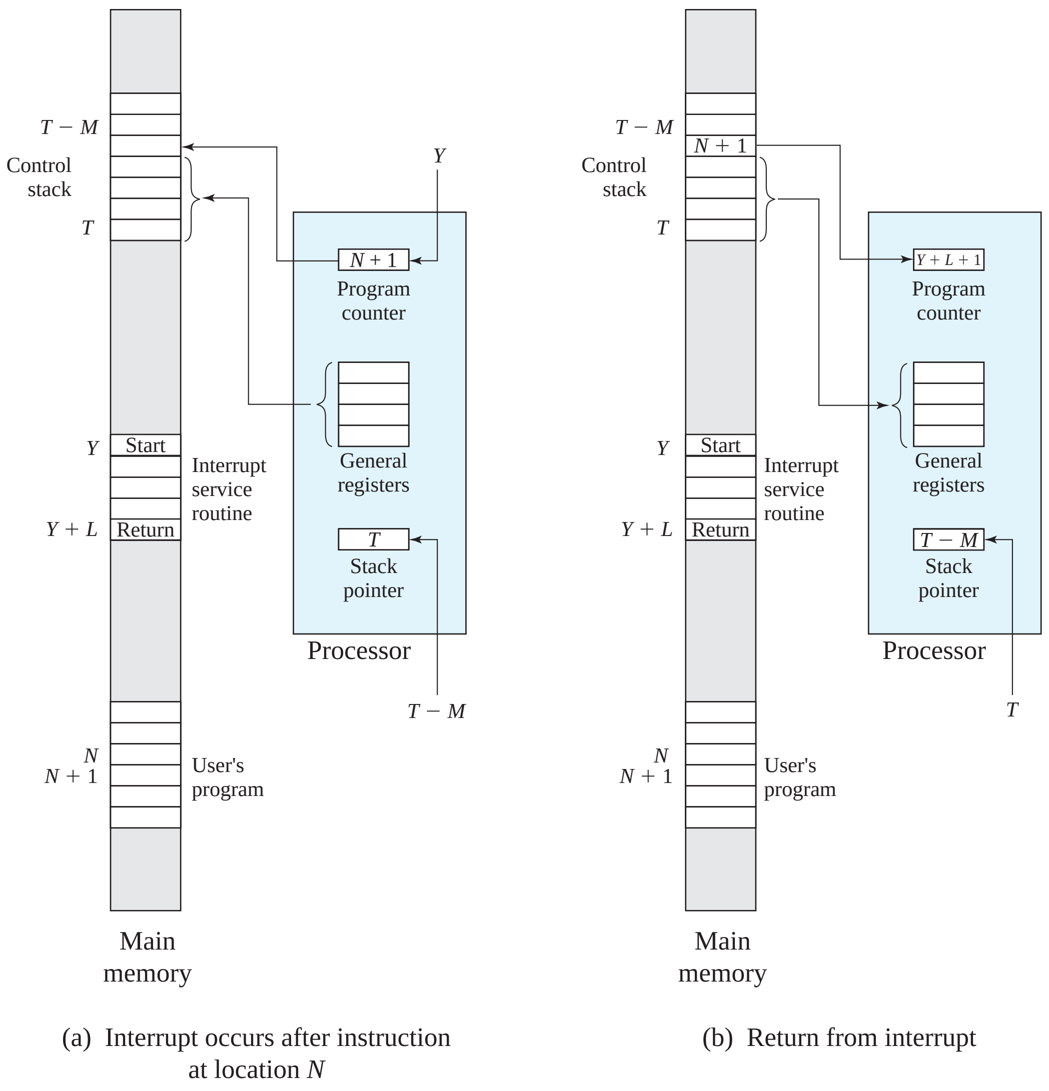
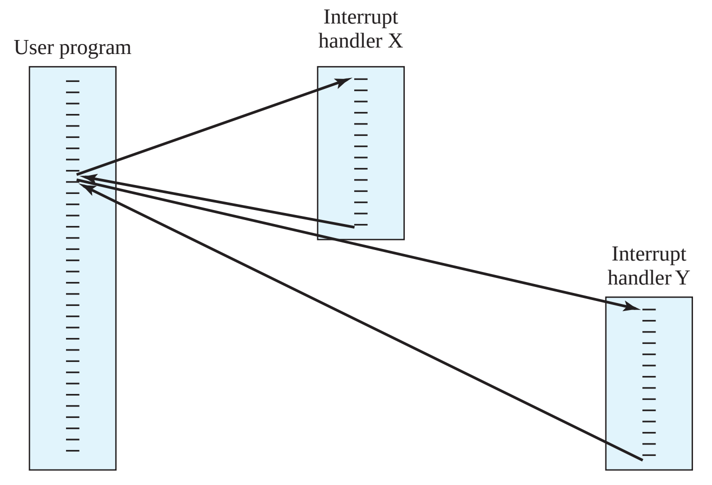


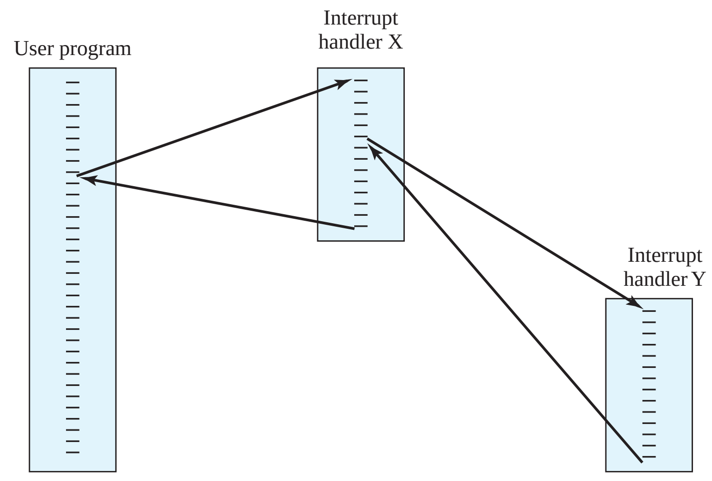
Figure 1.11 Changes in Memory and Registers for an Interrupt

interrupt-handler routine completes, interrupts are reenabled before resuming the user program, and the processor checks to see if additional interrupts have occurred. This approach is simple, as interrupts are handled in strict sequential order (Figure 1.12a).

The drawback to the preceding approach is that it does not take into account relative priority or time-critical needs. For example, when input arrives from the communications line, it may need to be absorbed rapidly to make room for more input. If the first batch of input has not been processed before the second batch arrives, data may be lost because the buffer on the I/O device may fill and overflow.



(a) Sequential interrupt processing



(b) Nested interrupt processing

Figure 1.12 Transfer of Control with Multiple Interrupts

A second approach is to define priorities for interrupts and to allow an interrupt of higher priority to cause a lower-priority interrupt handler to be interrupted (Figure 1.12b). As an example of this second approach, consider a system with three I/O devices: a printer, a disk, and a communications line, with increasing priorities of 2, 4, and 5, respectively. Figure 1.13, based on an example in [TANE06], illustrates a possible sequence. A user program begins at $t = 0$. At $t = 10$, a printer interrupt occurs; user information is placed on the control stack and execution continues at the printer interrupt service routine (ISR). While this routine is still executing, at $t = 15$ a communications interrupt occurs. Because the communications line has higher priority than the printer, the interrupt request is honored. The printer ISR is interrupted, its state is pushed onto the stack, and execution continues at the communications ISR. While this

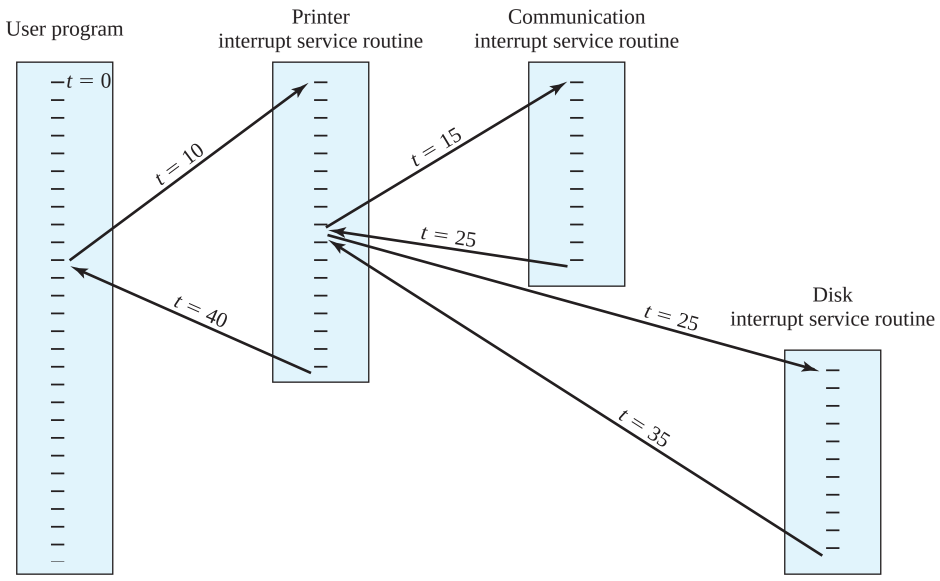

User program
Printer interrupt service routine
Communication interrupt service routine
Disk interrupt service routine
t = 0
t = 10
t = 15
t = 25
t = 25
t = 35
t = 40

Figure 1.13 Example Time Sequence of Multiple Interrupts

routine is executing, a disk interrupt occurs ($t = 20$). Because this interrupt is of lower priority, it is simply held, and the communications ISR runs to completion.

When the communications ISR is complete ($t = 25$), the previous processor state is restored, which is the execution of the printer ISR. However, before even a single instruction in that routine can be executed, the processor honors the higher-priority disk interrupt and transfers control to the disk ISR. Only when that routine is complete ($t = 35$) is the printer ISR resumed. When that routine completes ($t = 40$), control finally returns to the user program.

Multiprogramming

Even with the use of interrupts, a processor may not be used very efficiently. For example, refer to Figure 1.9b, which demonstrates utilization of the processor with long I/O waits. If the time required to complete an I/O operation is much greater than the user code between I/O calls (a common situation), then the processor will be idle much of the time. A solution to this problem is to allow multiple user programs to be active at the same time.

Suppose, for example, that the processor has two programs to execute. One is a program for reading data from memory and putting it out on an external device; the other is an application that involves a lot of calculation. The processor can begin the output program, issue a write command to the external device, and then proceed to begin execution of the other application. When the processor is dealing with a number of programs, the sequence with which programs are executed will depend on their relative priority as well as whether they are waiting for I/O. When a program has been interrupted and control transfers to an interrupt handler, once the interrupt-handler routine has completed, control may not necessarily immediately be returned to the user program that was in execution at the time. Instead, control may pass to some other pending program with a higher priority. Eventually, the user program that was interrupted will be resumed, when it has the highest priority. This concept of multiple programs taking turns in execution is known as multiprogramming and is discussed further in Chapter 2.

1.5 THE MEMORY HIERARCHY

The design constraints on a computer's memory can be summed up by three questions: How much? How fast? How expensive?

The question of how much is somewhat open ended. If the capacity is there, applications will likely be developed to use it. The question of how fast is, in a sense, easier to answer. To achieve greatest performance, the memory must be able to keep up with the processor. That is, as the processor is executing instructions, we would not want it to have to pause waiting for instructions or operands. The final question must also be considered. For a practical system, the cost of memory must be reasonable in relationship to other components.

As might be expected, there is a tradeoff among the three key characteristics of memory: namely, capacity, access time, and cost. A variety of technologies are used to implement memory systems, and across this spectrum of technologies, the following relationships hold:

- Faster access time, greater cost per bit
- Greater capacity, smaller cost per bit
- Greater capacity, slower access speed

The dilemma facing the designer is clear. The designer would like to use memory technologies that provide for large-capacity memory, both because the capacity is needed and because the cost per bit is low. However, to meet performance requirements, the designer needs to use expensive, relatively lower-capacity memories with fast access times.

The way out of this dilemma is to not rely on a single memory component or technology, but to employ a **memory hierarchy**. A typical hierarchy is illustrated in Figure 1.14. As one goes down the hierarchy, the following occur:

a. Decreasing cost per bit
b. Increasing capacity
c. Increasing access time
d. Decreasing frequency of access to the memory by the processor

Thus, smaller, more expensive, faster memories are supplemented by larger, cheaper, slower memories. The key to the success of this organization decreasing frequency of access at lower levels. We will examine this concept in greater detail later in this chapter, when we discuss the cache, and when we discuss virtual memory later in this book. A brief explanation is provided at this point.

Suppose that the processor has access to two levels of memory. Level 1 contains 1000 bytes and has an access time of 0.1 μs; level 2 contains 100,000 bytes and has an access time of 1 μs. Assume that if a byte to be accessed is in level 1, then the