PART 1 Background

CHAPTER 1

COMPUTER SYSTEM OVERVIEW

> *No artifact designed by man is so convenient for this kind of functional description as a digital computer. Almost the only ones of its properties that are detectable in its behavior are the organizational properties. Almost no interesting statement that one can make about on operating computer bears any particular relation to the specific nature of the hardware. A computer is an organization of elementary functional components in which, to a high approximation, only the function performed by those components is relevant to the behavior of the whole system.*
>
> *The Sciences of the Artificial*, Herbert Simon

Learning Objectives

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

- Describe the basic elements of a computer system and their interrelationship.
- Explain the steps taken by a processor to execute an instruction.
- Understand the concept of interrupts and how and why a processor uses interrupts.
- List and describe the levels of a typical computer memory hierarchy.
- Explain the basic characteristics of multiprocessor and multicore organizations.
- Discuss the concept of locality and analyze the performance of a multilevel memory hierarchy.
- Understand the operation of a stack and its use to support procedure call and return.

An operating system (OS) exploits the hardware resources of one or more processors to provide a set of services to system users. The OS also manages secondary memory and I/O (input/output) devices on behalf of its users. Accordingly, it is important to have some understanding of the underlying computer system hardware before we begin our examination of operating systems.

This chapter provides an overview of computer system hardware. In most areas, the survey is brief, as it is assumed that the reader is familiar with this subject. However, several areas are covered in some detail because of their importance to topics covered later in the book. Further topics are covered in Appendix C.

1.1 BASIC ELEMENTS

At a top level, a computer consists of processor, memory, and I/O components, with one or more modules of each type. These components are interconnected in some fashion to achieve the main function of the computer, which is to execute programs. Thus, there are four main structural elements:

- **Processor:** Controls the operation of the computer and performs its data processing functions. When there is only one processor, it is often referred to as the **central processing unit** (CPU).

- **Main memory:** Stores data and programs. This memory is typically volatile; that is, when the computer is shut down, the contents of the memory are lost. In contrast, the contents of disk memory are retained even when the computer system is shut down. Main memory is also referred to as *real memory* or *primary memory*.
- **I/O modules:** Move data between the computer and its external environment. The external environment consists of a variety of devices, including secondary memory devices (e.g., disks), communications equipment, and terminals.
- **System bus:** Provides for communication among processors, main memory, and I/O modules.

Figure 1.1 depicts these top-level components. One of the processor's functions is to exchange data with memory. For this purpose, it typically makes use of two internal (to the processor) registers: a memory address register (MAR), which specifies the address in memory for the next read or write; and a memory buffer register (MBR), which contains the data to be written into memory or which receives

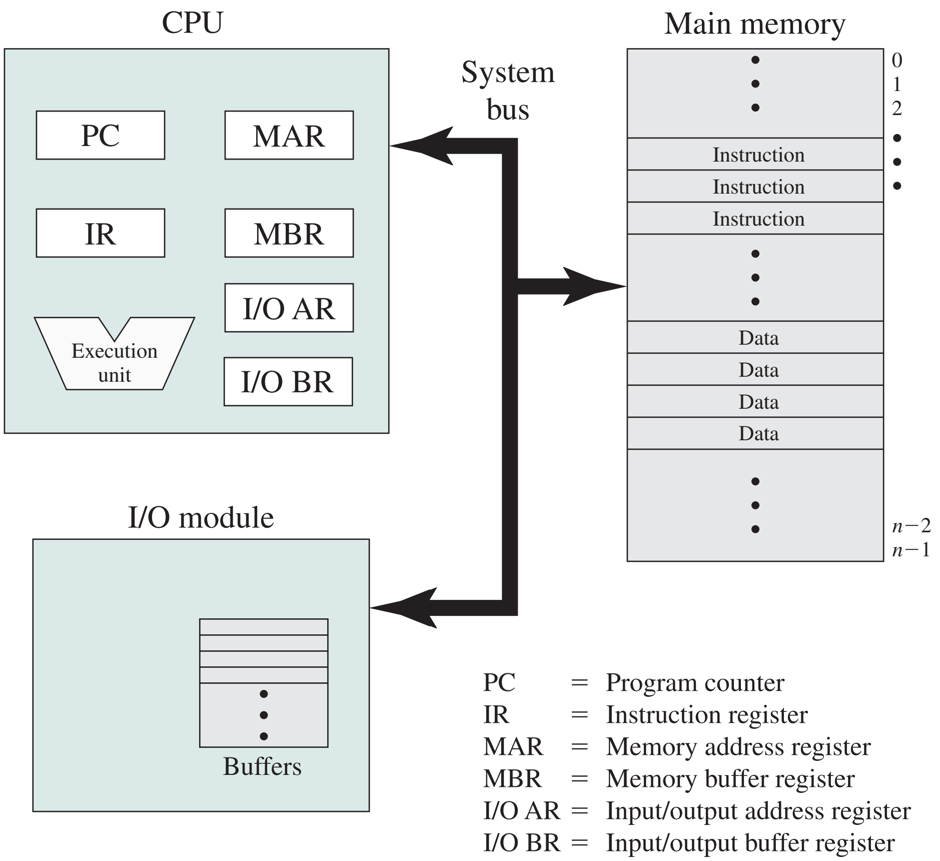

CPU
PC
MAR
IR
MBR
I/O AR
Execution unit
I/O BR
System bus
Main memory
0
1
2
Instruction
Instruction
Instruction
Data
Data
Data
Data
n−2
n−1
I/O module
Buffers
PC = Program counter
IR = Instruction register
MAR = Memory address register
MBR = Memory buffer register
I/O AR = Input/output address register
I/O BR = Input/output buffer register

Figure 1.1 Computer Components: Top-Level View

the data read from memory. Similarly, an I/O address register (I/OAR) specifies a particular I/O device. An I/O buffer register (I/OBR) is used for the exchange of data between an I/O module and the processor.

A memory module consists of a set of locations, defined by sequentially numbered addresses. Each location contains a bit pattern that can be interpreted as either an instruction or data. An I/O module transfers data from external devices to processor and memory, and vice versa. It contains internal buffers for temporarily holding data until they can be sent on.

1.2 EVOLUTION OF THE MICROPROCESSOR

The hardware revolution that brought about desktop and handheld computing was the invention of the microprocessor, which contained a processor on a single chip. Though originally much slower than multichip processors, microprocessors have continually evolved to the point that they are now much faster for most computations due to the physics involved in moving information around in sub-nanosecond timeframes.

Not only have microprocessors become the fastest general purpose processors available, they are now multiprocessors; each chip (called a socket) contains multiple processors (called cores), each with multiple levels of large memory caches, and multiple logical processors sharing the execution units of each core. As of 2010, it is not unusual for even a laptop to have 2 or 4 cores, each with 2 hardware threads, for a total of 4 or 8 logical processors.

Although processors provide very good performance for most forms of computing, there is increasing demand for numerical computation. Graphical Processing Units (GPUs) provide efficient computation on arrays of data using Single-Instruction Multiple Data (SIMD) techniques pioneered in supercomputers. GPUs are no longer used just for rendering advanced graphics, but they are also used for general numerical processing, such as physics simulations for games or computations on large spreadsheets. Simultaneously, the CPUs themselves are gaining the capability of operating on arrays of data—with increasingly powerful vector units integrated into the processor architecture of the x86 and AMD64 families.

Processors and GPUs are not the end of the computational story for the modern PC. Digital Signal Processors (DSPs) are also present, for dealing with streaming signals—such as audio or video. DSPs used to be embedded in I/O devices, like modems, but they are now becoming first-class computational devices, especially in handhelds. Other specialized computational devices (fixed function units) co-exist with the CPU to support other standard computations, such as encoding/decoding speech and video (codecs), or providing support for encryption and security.

To satisfy the requirements of handheld devices, the classic microprocessor is giving way to the System on a Chip (SoC), where not just the CPUs and caches are on the same chip, but also many of the other components of the system, such as DSPs, GPUs, I/O devices (such as radios and codecs), and main memory.

1.3 INSTRUCTION EXECUTION

A program to be executed by a processor consists of a set of instructions stored in memory. In its simplest form, instruction processing consists of two steps: The processor reads (*fetches*) instructions from memory one at a time and executes each instruction. Program execution consists of repeating the process of instruction fetch and instruction execution. Instruction execution may involve several operations and depends on the nature of the instruction.

The processing required for a single instruction is called an *instruction cycle.* Using a simplified two-step description, the instruction cycle is depicted in Figure 1.2. The two steps are referred to as the *fetch stage* and the *execute stage.* Program execution halts only if the processor is turned off, some sort of unrecoverable error occurs, or a program instruction that halts the processor is encountered.

At the beginning of each instruction cycle, the processor fetches an instruction from memory. Typically, the program counter (PC) holds the address of the next instruction to be fetched. Unless instructed otherwise, the processor always increments the PC after each instruction fetch so that it will fetch the next instruction in sequence (i.e., the instruction located at the next higher memory address). For example, consider a simplified computer in which each instruction occupies one 16-bit word of memory. Assume that the program counter is set to location 300. The processor will next fetch the instruction at location 300. On succeeding instruction cycles, it will fetch instructions from locations 301, 302, 303, and so on. This sequence may be altered, as explained subsequently.

The fetched instruction is loaded into the instruction register (IR). The instruction contains bits that specify the action the processor is to take. The processor interprets the instruction and performs the required action. In general, these actions fall into four categories:

- **Processor-memory:** Data may be transferred from processor to memory or from memory to processor.
- **Processor-I/O:** Data may be transferred to or from a peripheral device by transferring between the processor and an I/O module.
- **Data processing:** The processor may perform some arithmetic or logic operation on data.
- **Control:** An instruction may specify that the sequence of execution be altered. For example, the processor may fetch an instruction from location 149, which

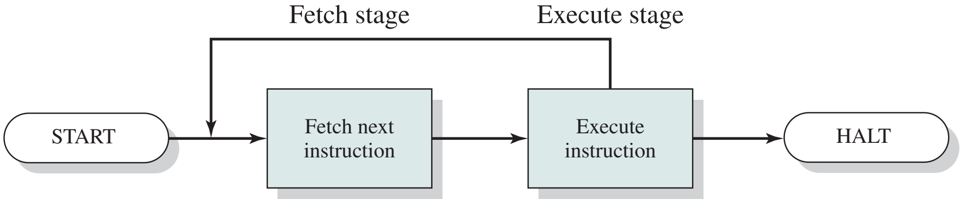
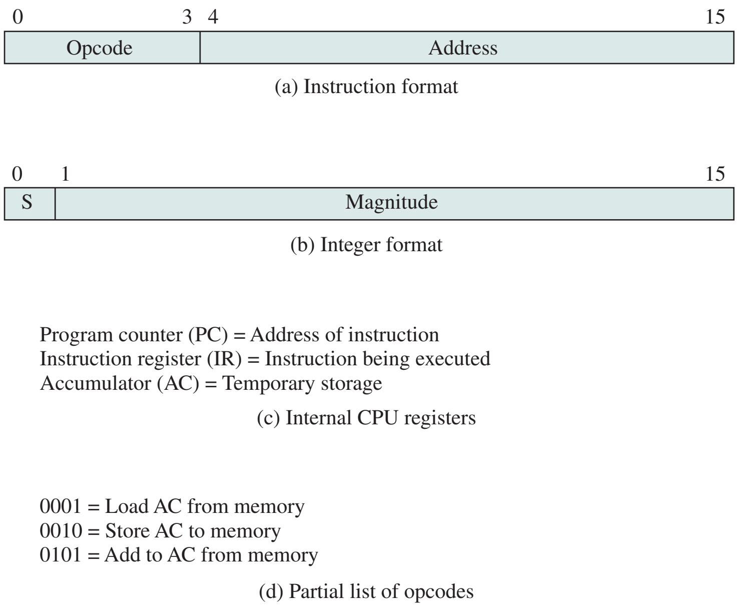


Figure 1.2 Basic Instruction Cycle



(a) Instruction format

(b) Integer format

Program counter (PC) = Address of instruction
Instruction register (IR) = Instruction being executed
Accumulator (AC) = Temporary storage

(c) Internal CPU registers

0001 = Load AC from memory
0010 = Store AC to memory
0101 = Add to AC from memory

(d) Partial list of opcodes

Figure 1.3 Characteristics of a Hypothetical Machine

specifies that the next instruction will be from location 182. The processor sets the program counter to 182. Thus, on the next fetch stage, the instruction will be fetched from location 182 rather than 150.

An instruction's execution may involve a combination of these actions.

Consider a simple example using a hypothetical processor that includes the characteristics listed in Figure 1.3. The processor contains a single data register, called the accumulator (AC). Both instructions and data are 16 bits long, and memory is organized as a sequence of 16-bit words. The instruction format provides 4 bits for the opcode, allowing as many as $2^4 = 16$ different opcodes (represented by a single hexadecimal[1] digit). The opcode defines the operation the processor is to perform. With the remaining 12 bits of the instruction format, up to $2^{12} = 4{,}096$ (4K) words of memory (denoted by three hexadecimal digits) can be directly addressed.

Figure 1.4 illustrates a partial program execution, showing the relevant portions of memory and processor registers. The program fragment shown adds the contents of the memory word at address 940 to the contents of the memory word at address 941 and stores the result in the latter location. Three instructions, which can be described as three fetch and three execute stages, are required:

1. The PC contains 300, the address of the first instruction. This instruction (the value 1940 in hexadecimal) is loaded into the IR and the PC is incremented. Note that this process involves the use of a memory address register (MAR)

[1] A basic refresher on number systems (decimal, binary, hexadecimal) can be found at the Computer Science Student Resource Site at ComputerScienceStudent.com.

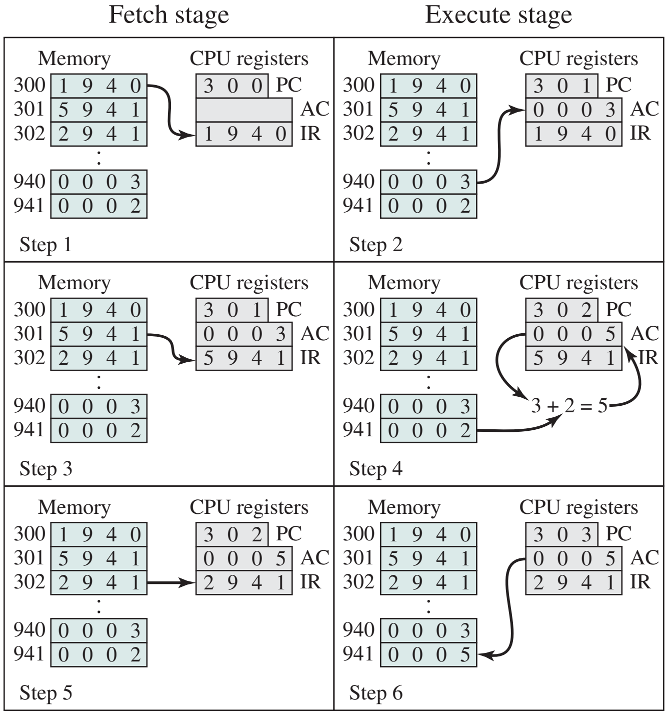


Figure 1.4 Example of Program Execution (contents of memory and registers in hexadecimal)

and a memory buffer register (MBR). For simplicity, these intermediate registers are not shown.

2. The first 4 bits (first hexadecimal digit) in the IR indicate that the AC is to be loaded from memory. The remaining 12 bits (three hexadecimal digits) specify the address, which is 940.
3. The next instruction (5941) is fetched from location 301 and the PC is incremented.
4. The old contents of the AC and the contents of location 941 are added and the result is stored in the AC.
5. The next instruction (2941) is fetched from location 302 and the PC is incremented.
6. The contents of the AC are stored in location 941.

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.

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 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.[2] 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.

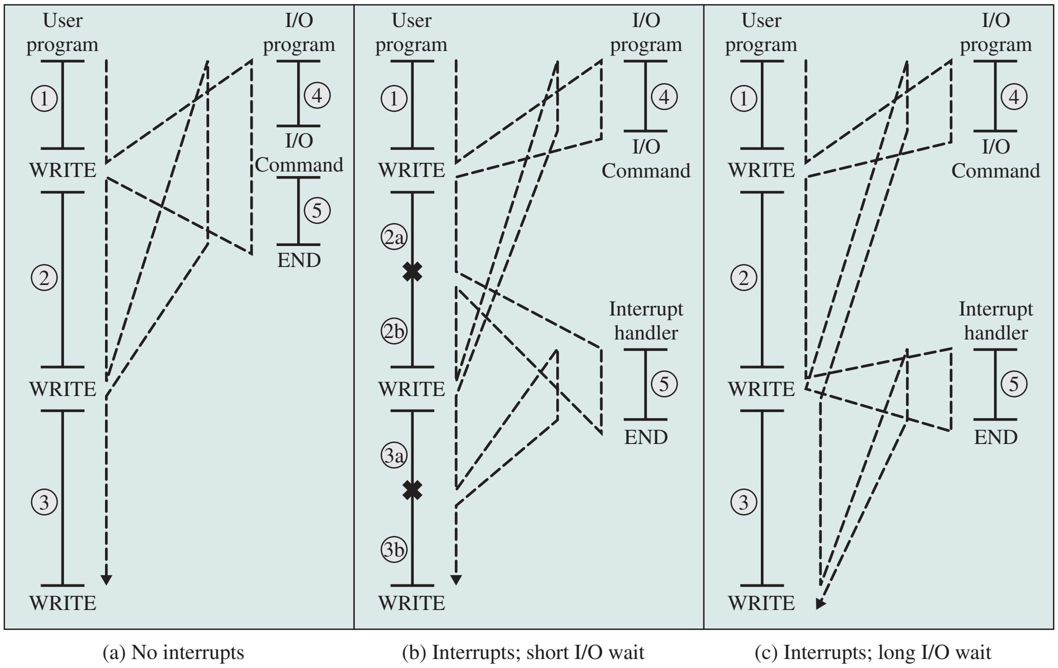
Figure 1.5a illustrates this state of affairs. The user program performs a series of WRITE calls interleaved with processing. The solid vertical lines represent segments of code in a program. Code segments 1, 2, and 3 refer to sequences of instructions that do not involve I/O. The WRITE calls are to 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 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.

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.

[2] 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 ComputerScienceStudent.com.



(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

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

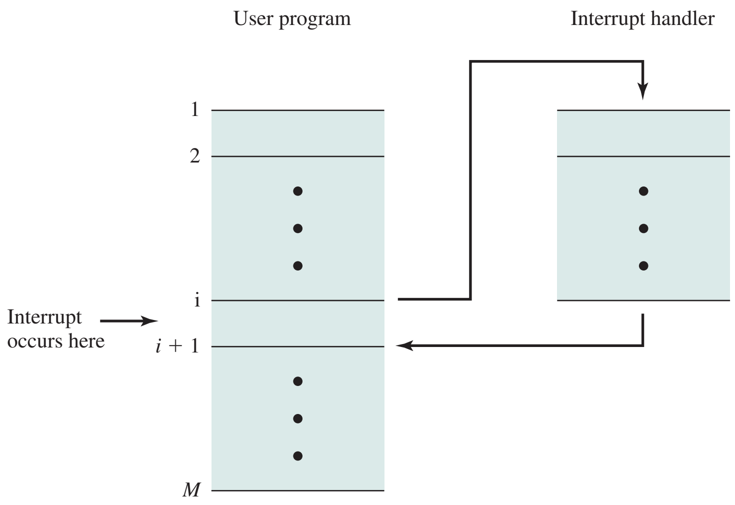


Figure 1.6 **Transfer of Control via Interrupts**

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,

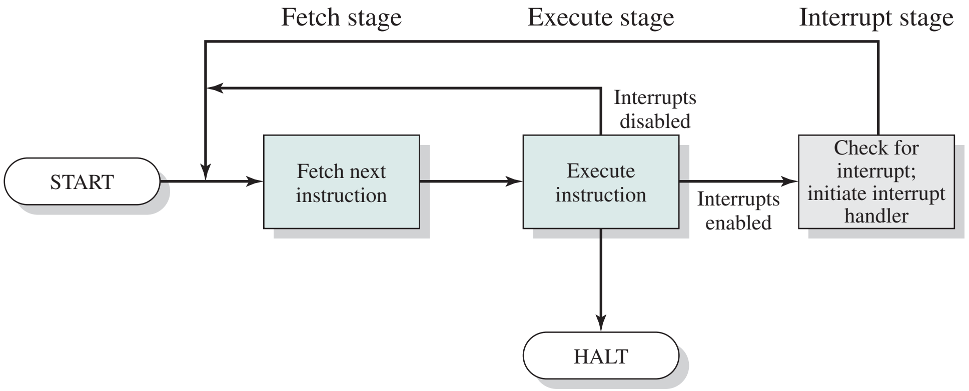
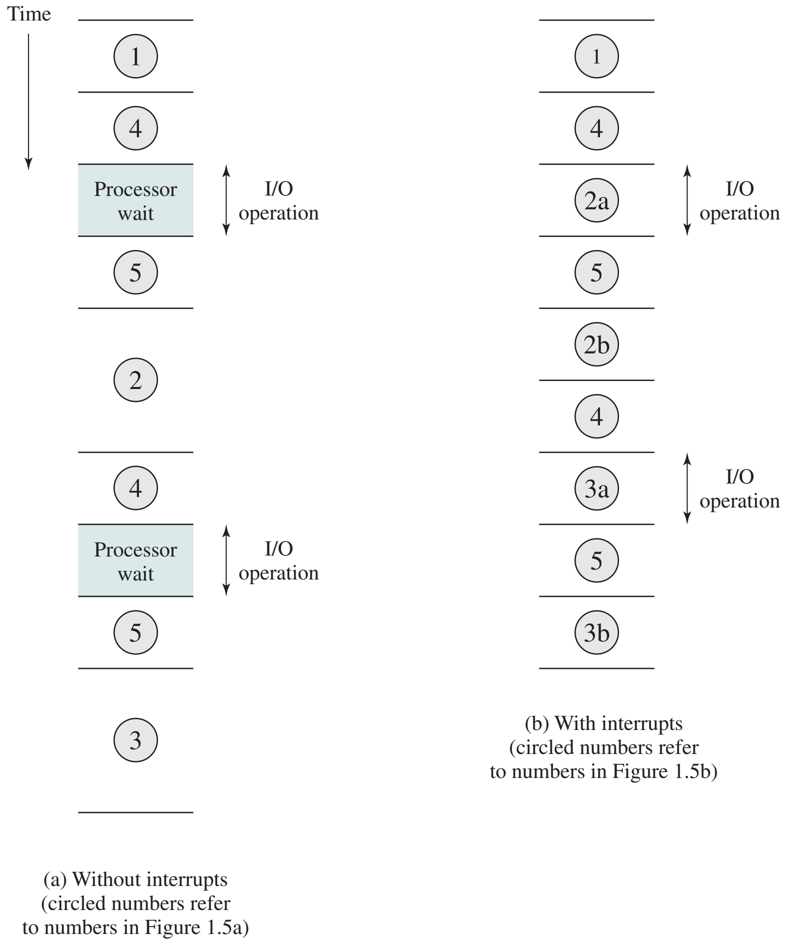


Figure 1.7 **Instruction Cycle with Interrupts**

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 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.

To appreciate the gain in efficiency, consider Figure 1.8, which is a timing diagram based on the flow of control in Figures 1.5a and 1.5b. Figures 1.5b and 1.8

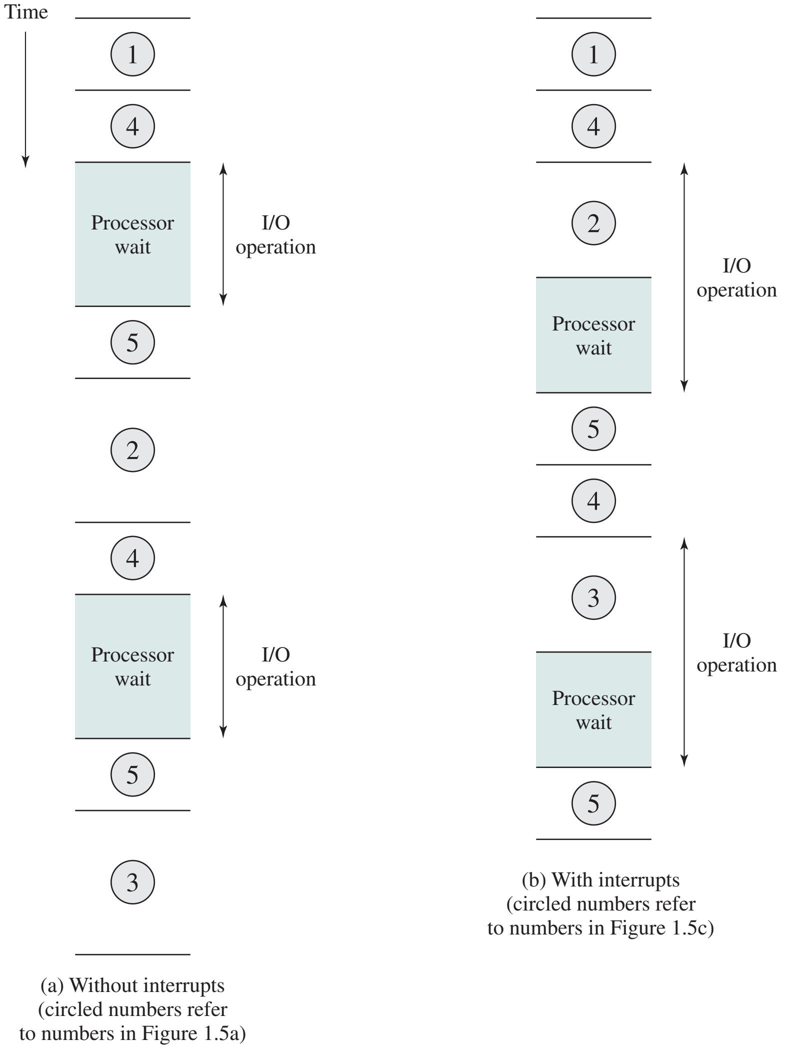


(a) Without interrupts (circled numbers refer to numbers in Figure 1.5a)

(b) With interrupts (circled numbers refer to numbers in Figure 1.5b)

Figure 1.8 Program Timing: Short I/O Wait

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 1.5c 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.



(a) Without interrupts (circled numbers refer to numbers in Figure 1.5a)

(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.
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[3] (PSW) and the location of the next instruction to be executed, which

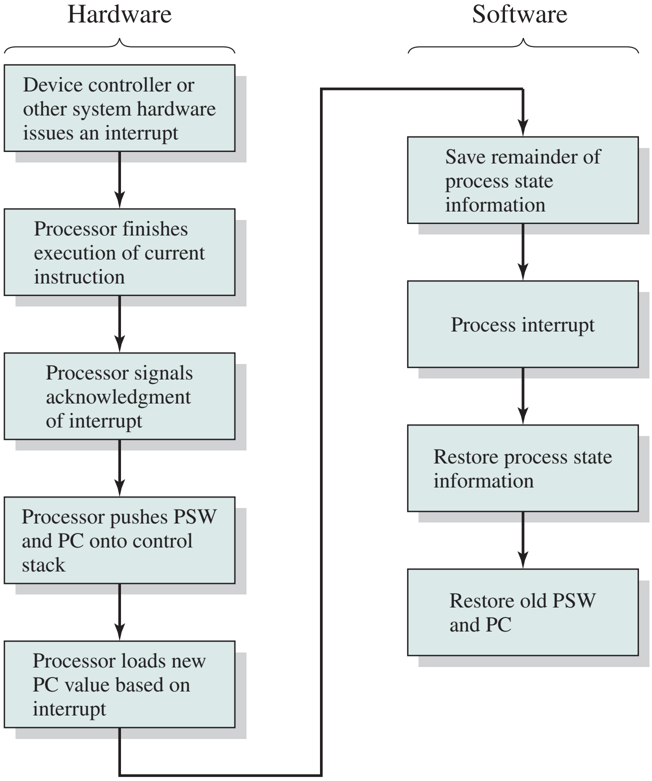

Hardware
Software
Device controller or other system hardware issues an interrupt
Processor finishes execution of current instruction
Processor signals acknowledgment of interrupt
Processor pushes PSW and PC onto control stack
Processor loads new PC value based on interrupt
Save remainder of process state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

Figure 1.10 Simple Interrupt Processing

[3] The PSW contains status information about the currently running process, including memory usage information, condition codes, and other status information, such as an interrupt enable/disable bit and a kernel/user mode bit. See Appendix C for further discussion.

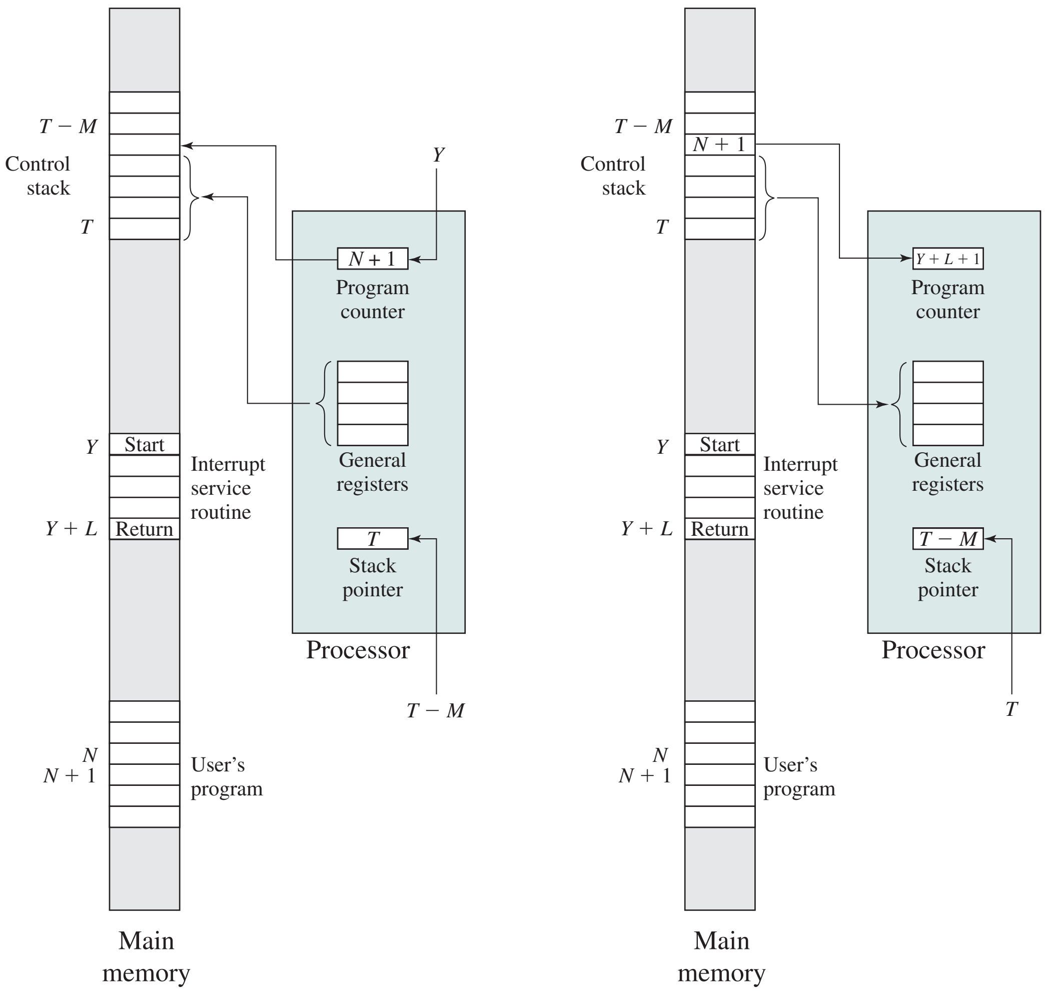
is contained in the program counter (PC). These can be pushed onto a control stack (see Appendix P).

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 1.11a 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.



(a) Interrupt occurs after instruction at location *N*

(b) Return from interrupt

Figure 1.11 Changes in Memory and Registers for an Interrupt

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, if an interrupt occurs when a user program is executing, then interrupts are disabled immediately. After the 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).

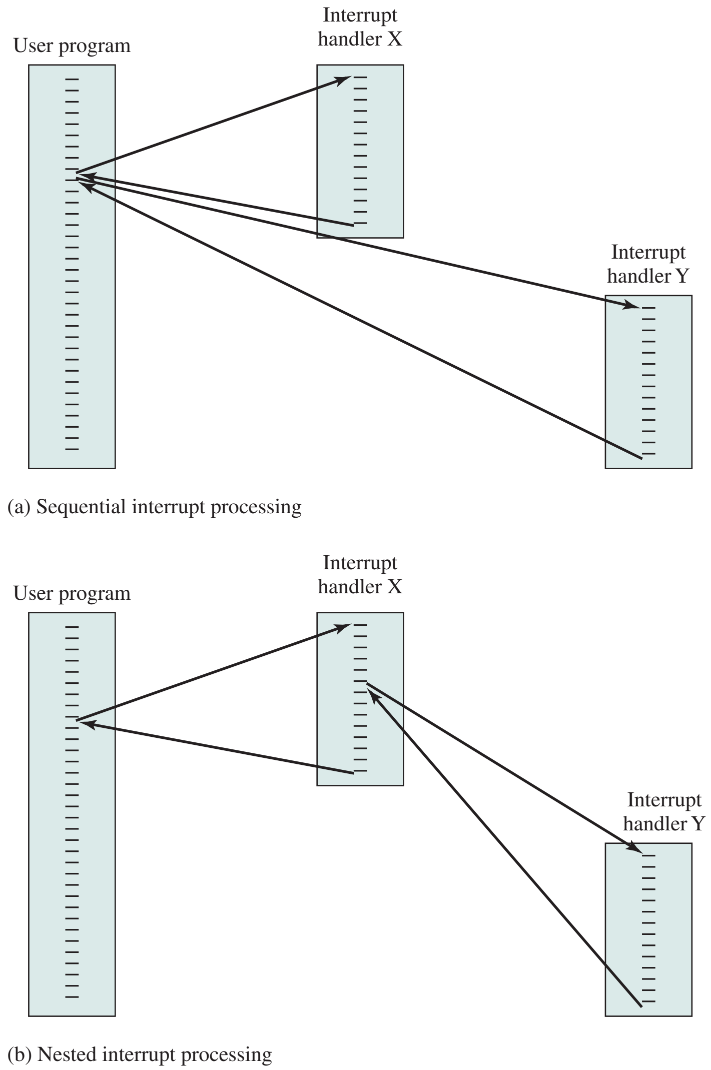


Figure 1.12 Transfer of Control with Multiple Interrupts

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 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 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.

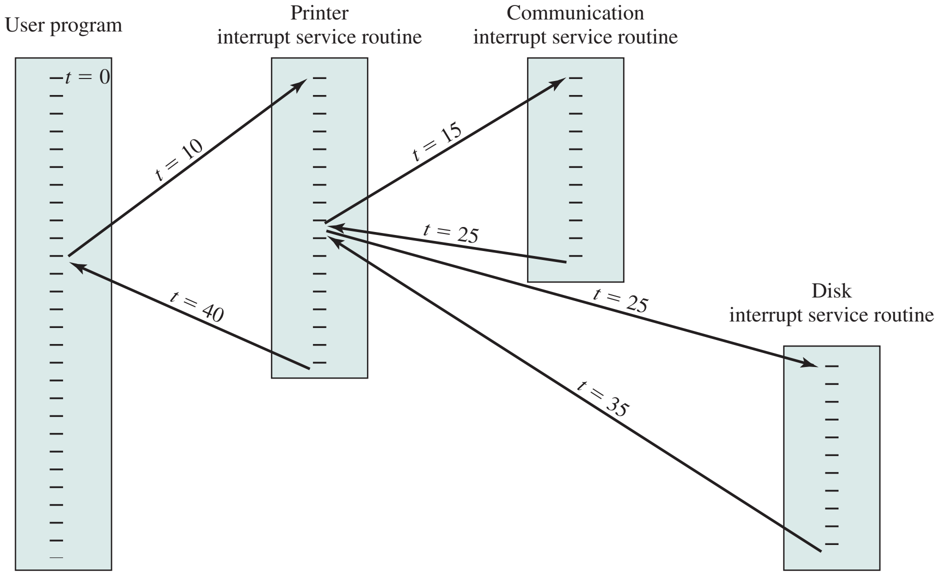

User program
Printer interrupt service routine
Communication interrupt service routine
Disk interrupt service routine
t = 0
t = 10
t = 15
t = 25
t = 25
t = 40
t = 35

Figure 1.13 Example Time Sequence of Multiple Interrupts

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 trade-off 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 is the 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 1,000 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 processor accesses it directly. If it is in level 2, then the byte is first transferred to level 1 and then accessed by the processor. For simplicity, we ignore the time required for the processor to determine whether the byte is in level 1 or level 2.

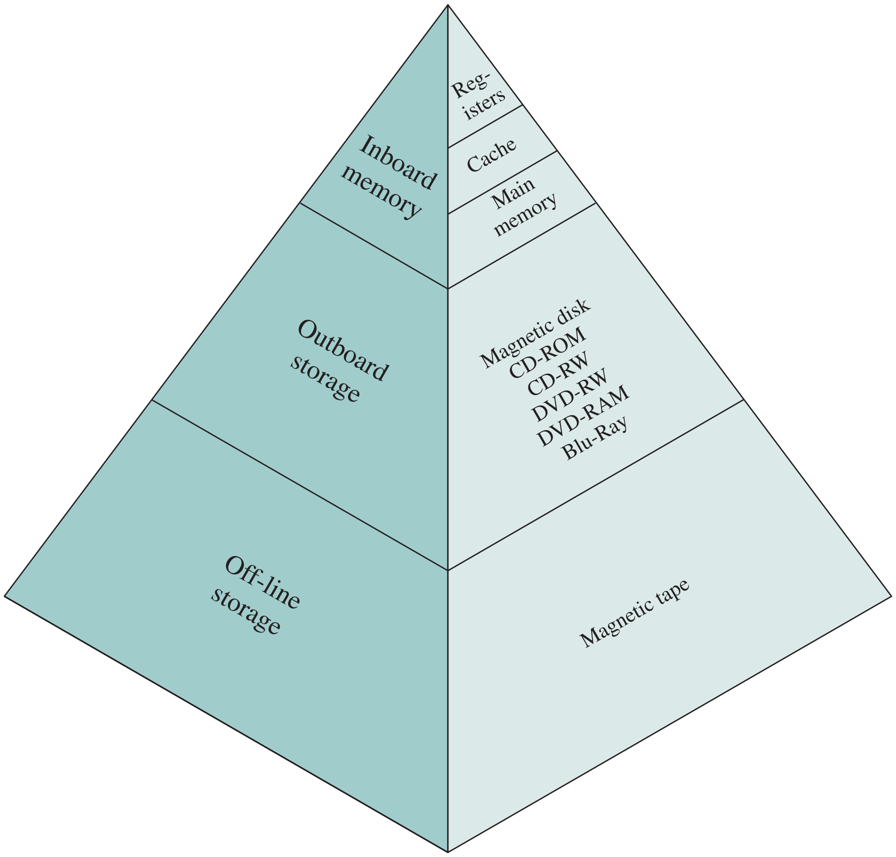


Figure 1.14 **The Memory Hierarchy**

Figure 1.15 shows the general shape of the curve that models this situation. The figure shows the average access time to a two-level memory as a function of the **hit ratio** H, where H is defined as the fraction of all memory accesses that are found in the faster memory (e.g., the cache), T_1 is the access time to level 1, and T_2 is the access time to level 2.[4] As can be seen, for high percentages of level 1 access, the average total access time is much closer to that of level 1 than that of level 2.

In our example, suppose 95% of the memory accesses are found in the cache (H = 0.95). Then the average time to access a byte can be expressed as

$$(0.95)\ (0.1\ \mu\text{s}) + (0.05)\ (0.1\ \mu\text{s} + 1\ \mu\text{s}) = 0.095 + 0.055 = 0.15\ \mu\text{s}$$

The result is close to the access time of the faster memory. So the strategy of using two memory levels works in principle, but only if conditions (a) through (d) in the preceding list apply. By employing a variety of technologies, a spectrum of

[4] If the accessed word is found in the faster memory, that is defined as a **hit**. A **miss** occurs if the accessed word is not found in the faster memory.

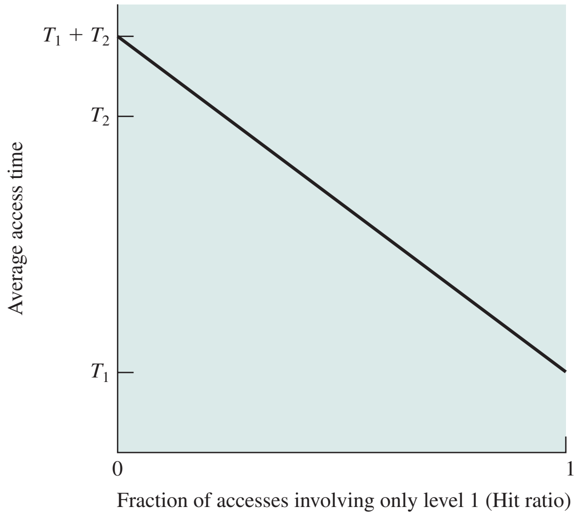


Figure 1.15 **Performance of a Simple Two-Level Memory**

memory systems exists that satisfies conditions (a) through (c). Fortunately, condition (d) is also generally valid.

The basis for the validity of condition (d) is a principle known as **locality of reference** [DENN68]. During the course of execution of a program, memory references by the processor, for both instructions and data, tend to cluster. Programs typically contain a number of iterative loops and subroutines. Once a loop or subroutine is entered, there are repeated references to a small set of instructions. Similarly, operations on tables and arrays involve access to a clustered set of data bytes. Over a long period of time, the clusters in use change, but over a short period of time, the processor is primarily working with fixed clusters of memory references.

Accordingly, it is possible to organize data across the hierarchy such that the percentage of accesses to each successively lower level is substantially less than that of the level above. Consider the two-level example already presented. Let level 2 memory contain all program instructions and data. The current clusters can be temporarily placed in level 1. From time to time, one of the clusters in level 1 will have to be swapped back to level 2 to make room for a new cluster coming in to level 1. On average, however, most references will be to instructions and data contained in level 1.

This principle can be applied across more than two levels of memory. The fastest, smallest, and most expensive type of memory consists of the registers internal to the processor. Typically, a processor will contain a few dozen such registers, although some processors contain hundreds of registers. Skipping down two levels, main memory is the principal internal memory system of the computer. Each location in main memory has a unique address, and most machine instructions refer to one or more main memory addresses. Main memory is usually extended with a higher-speed, smaller cache. The cache is not usually visible to the programmer or, indeed, to the processor. It is a device for staging the movement of data between main memory and processor registers to improve performance.

The three forms of memory just described are, typically, volatile and employ semiconductor technology. The use of three levels exploits the fact that semiconductor memory comes in a variety of types, which differ in speed and cost. Data are stored more permanently on external mass storage devices, of which the most common are hard disk and removable media, such as removable disk, tape, and optical storage. External, nonvolatile memory is also referred to as **secondary memory** or **auxiliary memory**. These are used to store program and data files, and are usually visible to the programmer only in terms of files and records, as opposed to individual bytes or words. A hard disk is also used to provide an extension to main memory known as virtual memory, which is discussed in Chapter 8.

Additional levels can be effectively added to the hierarchy in software. For example, a portion of main memory can be used as a buffer to temporarily hold data that are to be read out to disk. Such a technique, sometimes referred to as a disk cache (examined in detail in Chapter 11), improves performance in two ways:

- Disk writes are clustered. Instead of many small transfers of data, we have a few large transfers of data. This improves disk performance and minimizes processor involvement.
- Some data destined for write-out may be referenced by a program before the next dump to disk. In that case, the data are retrieved rapidly from the software cache rather than slowly from the disk.

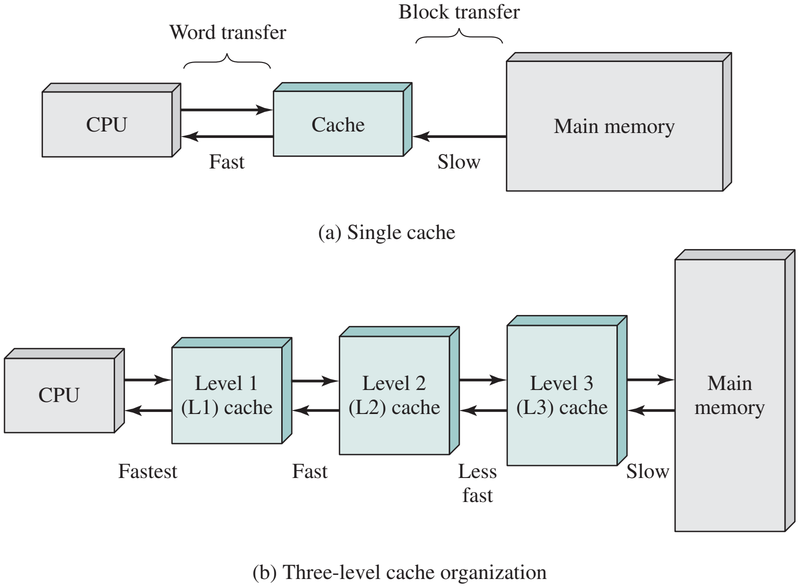
Appendix 1A examines the performance implications of multilevel memory structures.

1.6 CACHE MEMORY

Although cache memory is invisible to the OS, it interacts with other memory management hardware. Furthermore, many of the principles used in virtual memory schemes (discussed in Chapter 8) are also applied in cache memory.

Motivation

On all instruction cycles, the processor accesses memory at least once, to fetch the instruction, and often one or more additional times, to fetch operands and/or store results. The rate at which the processor can execute instructions is clearly limited by the memory cycle time (the time it takes to read one word from or write one word to memory). This limitation has been a significant problem because of the persistent mismatch between processor and main memory speeds: Over the years, processor speed has consistently increased more rapidly than memory access speed. We are faced with a trade-off among speed, cost, and size. Ideally, main memory should be built with the same technology as that of the processor registers, giving memory cycle times comparable to processor cycle times. This has always been too expensive a strategy. The solution is to exploit the principle of locality by providing a small, fast memory between the processor and main memory, namely the cache.



(a) Single cache

(b) Three-level cache organization

Figure 1.16 Cache and Main Memory

Cache Principles

Cache memory is intended to provide memory access time approaching that of the fastest memories available and at the same time support a large memory size that has the price of less expensive types of semiconductor memories. The concept is illustrated in Figure 1.16a. There is a relatively large and slow main memory together with a smaller, faster cache memory. The cache contains a copy of a portion of main memory. When the processor attempts to read a byte or word of memory, a check is made to determine if the byte or word is in the cache. If so, the byte or word is delivered to the processor. If not, a block of main memory, consisting of some fixed number of bytes, is read into the cache and then the byte or word is delivered to the processor. Because of the phenomenon of locality of reference, when a block of data is fetched into the cache to satisfy a single memory reference, it is likely that many of the near-future memory references will be to other bytes in the block.

Figure 1.16b depicts the use of multiple levels of cache. The L2 cache is slower and typically larger than the L1 cache, and the L3 cache is slower and typically larger than the L2 cache.

Figure 1.17 depicts the structure of a cache/main memory system. Main memory consists of up to 2^n addressable words, with each word having a unique n-bit address. For mapping purposes, this memory is considered to consist of a number of fixed-length **blocks** of K words each. That is, there are $M = 2^n/K$ blocks. Cache consists of C **slots** (also referred to as *lines*) of K words each, and the number of slots is considerably less than the number of main memory blocks ($C<<M$).[5] Some subset of the blocks of main memory resides in the slots of the cache. If a word in a block

[5] The symbol << means *much less than.* Similarly, the symbol >> means *much greater than.*

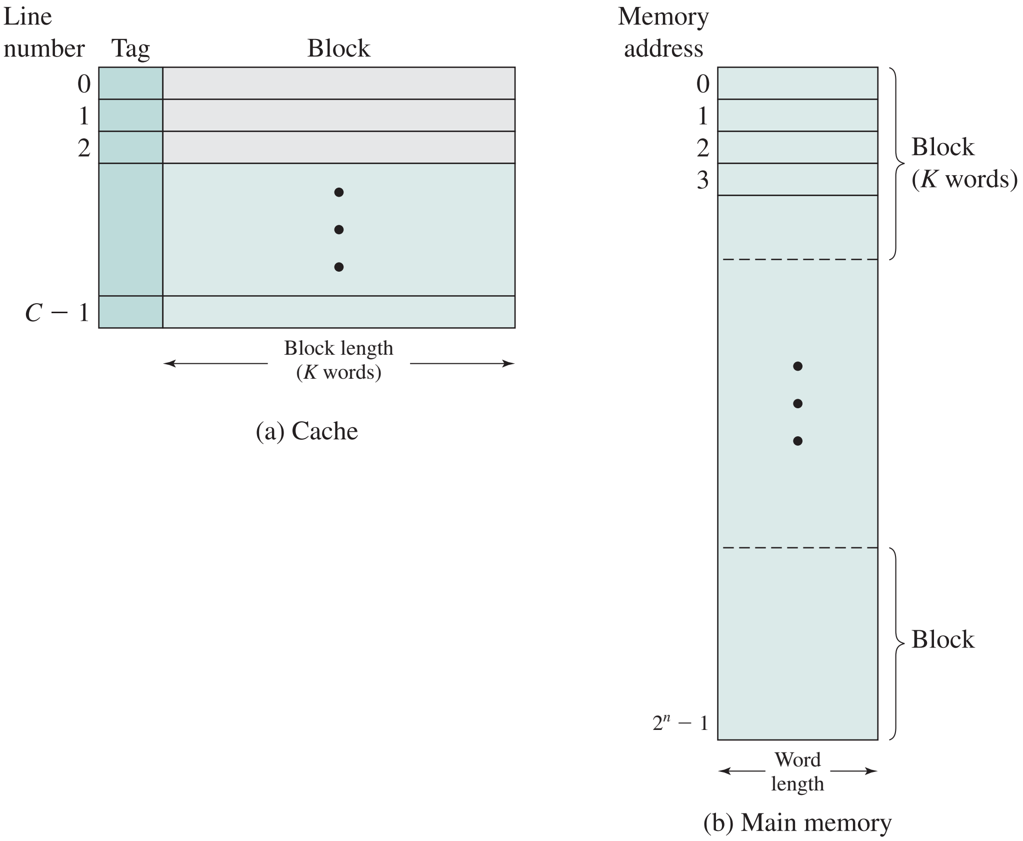


Figure 1.17 Cache/Main-Memory Structure

of memory that is not in the cache is read, that block is transferred to one of the slots of the cache. Because there are more blocks than slots, an individual slot cannot be uniquely and permanently dedicated to a particular block. Therefore, each slot includes a tag that identifies which particular block is currently being stored. The tag is usually some number of higher-order bits of the address and refers to all addresses that begin with that sequence of bits.

As a simple example, suppose that we have a 6-bit address and a 2-bit tag. The tag 01 refers to the block of locations with the following addresses: 010000, 010001, 010010, 010011, 010100, 010101, 010110, 010111, 011000, 011001, 011010, 011011, 011100, 011101, 011110, 011111.

Figure 1.18 illustrates the read operation. The processor generates the address, RA, of a word to be read. If the word is contained in the cache, it is delivered to the processor. Otherwise, the block containing that word is loaded into the cache and the word is delivered to the processor.

Cache Design

A detailed discussion of cache design is beyond the scope of this book. Key elements are briefly summarized here. We will see that similar design issues must be

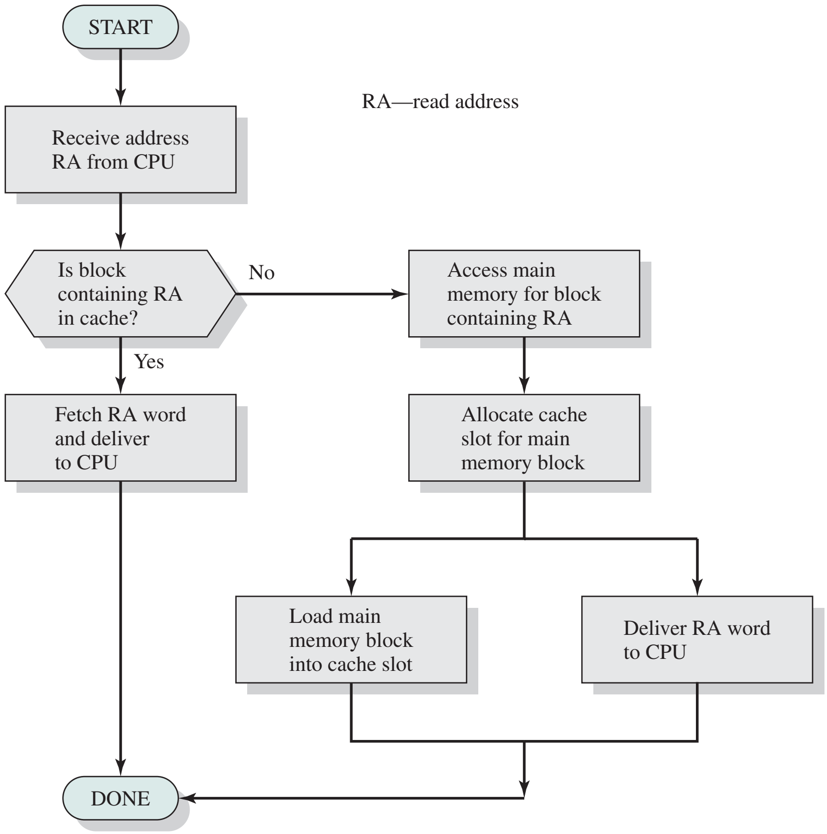

START
RA—read address
Receive address RA from CPU
Is block containing RA in cache?
No
Yes
Access main memory for block containing RA
Fetch RA word and deliver to CPU
Allocate cache slot for main memory block
Load main memory block into cache slot
Deliver RA word to CPU
DONE

Figure 1.18 Cache Read Operation

addressed in dealing with virtual memory and disk cache design. They fall into the following categories:

- Cache size
- Block size
- Mapping function
- Replacement algorithm
- Write policy
- Number of cache levels

We have already dealt with the issue of **cache size**. It turns out that reasonably small caches can have a significant impact on performance. Another size issue is that of **block size**: the unit of data exchanged between cache and main memory. As the block size increases from very small to larger sizes, the hit ratio will at first increase because of the principle of locality: the high probability that data in the vicinity of a referenced word are likely to be referenced in the near future. As the block size increases, more useful data are brought into the cache. The hit ratio will begin to decrease, however, as the block becomes even bigger and the probability of using the newly fetched data becomes less than the probability of reusing the data that have to be moved out of the cache to make room for the new block.

When a new block of data is read into the cache, the **mapping function** determines which cache location the block will occupy. Two constraints affect the design of the mapping function. First, when one block is read in, another may have to be replaced. We would like to do this in such a way as to minimize the probability that we will replace a block that will be needed in the near future. The more flexible the mapping function, the more scope we have to design a replacement algorithm to maximize the hit ratio. Second, the more flexible the mapping function, the more complex is the circuitry required to search the cache to determine if a given block is in the cache.

The **replacement algorithm** chooses, within the constraints of the mapping function, which block to replace when a new block is to be loaded into the cache and the cache already has all slots filled with other blocks. We would like to replace the block that is least likely to be needed again in the near future. Although it is impossible to identify such a block, a reasonably effective strategy is to replace the block that has been in the cache longest with no reference to it. This policy is referred to as the least-recently-used (LRU) algorithm. Hardware mechanisms are needed to identify the least-recently-used block.

If the contents of a block in the cache are altered, then it is necessary to write it back to main memory before replacing it. The **write policy** dictates when the memory write operation takes place. At one extreme, the writing can occur every time that the block is updated. At the other extreme, the writing occurs only when the block is replaced. The latter policy minimizes memory write operations but leaves main memory in an obsolete state. This can interfere with multiple-processor operation and with direct memory access by I/O hardware modules.

Finally, it is now commonplace to have multiple levels of cache, labeled L1 (cache closest to the processor), L2, and in many cases a third level L3. A discussion of the performance benefits of multiple cache levels is beyond our scope; see [STAL10] for a discussion.

1.7 DIRECT MEMORY ACCESS

Three techniques are possible for I/O operations: programmed I/O, interrupt-driven I/O, and direct memory access (DMA). Before discussing DMA, we briefly define the other two techniques; see Appendix C for more detail.

When the processor is executing a program and encounters an instruction relating to I/O, it executes that instruction by issuing a command to the appropriate I/O module. In the case of **programmed I/O**, the I/O module performs the requested action and then sets the appropriate bits in the I/O status register but takes no further action to alert the processor. In particular, it does not interrupt the processor. Thus, after the I/O instruction is invoked, the processor must take some active role in determining when the I/O instruction is completed. For this purpose, the processor periodically checks the status of the I/O module until it finds that the operation is complete.

With programmed I/O, the processor has to wait a long time for the I/O module of concern to be ready for either reception or transmission of more data. The processor, while waiting, must repeatedly interrogate the status of the I/O module. As a result, the performance level of the entire system is severely degraded.

An alternative, known as **interrupt-driven I/O**, is for the processor to issue an I/O command to a module and then go on to do some other useful work. The I/O module will then interrupt the processor to request service when it is ready to exchange data with the processor. The processor then executes the data transfer, as before, and then resumes its former processing.

Interrupt-driven I/O, though more efficient than simple programmed I/O, still requires the active intervention of the processor to transfer data between memory and an I/O module, and any data transfer must traverse a path through the processor. Thus, both of these forms of I/O suffer from two inherent drawbacks:

1. The I/O transfer rate is limited by the speed with which the processor can test and service a device.
2. The processor is tied up in managing an I/O transfer; a number of instructions must be executed for each I/O transfer.

When large volumes of data are to be moved, a more efficient technique is required: **direct memory access (DMA).** The DMA function can be performed by a separate module on the system bus or it can be incorporated into an I/O module. In either case, the technique works as follows. When the processor wishes to read or write a block of data, it issues a command to the DMA module, by sending to the DMA module the following information:

- Whether a read or write is requested
- The address of the I/O device involved
- The starting location in memory to read data from or write data to
- The number of words to be read or written

The processor then continues with other work. It has delegated this I/O operation to the DMA module, and that module will take care of it. The DMA module transfers the entire block of data, one word at a time, directly to or from memory without going through the processor. When the transfer is complete, the DMA module sends an interrupt signal to the processor. Thus, the processor is involved only at the beginning and end of the transfer.

The DMA module needs to take control of the bus to transfer data to and from memory. Because of this competition for bus usage, there may be times when the processor needs the bus and must wait for the DMA module. Note that this is not an interrupt; the processor does not save a context and do something else. Rather, the processor pauses for one bus cycle (the time it takes to transfer one word across the bus). The overall effect is to cause the processor to execute more slowly during a DMA transfer when processor access to the bus is required. Nevertheless, for a multiple-word I/O transfer, DMA is far more efficient than interrupt-driven or programmed I/O.

1.8 MULTIPROCESSOR AND MULTICORE ORGANIZATION

Traditionally, the computer has been viewed as a sequential machine. Most computer programming languages require the programmer to specify algorithms as sequences of instructions. A processor executes programs by executing machine instructions in sequence and one at a time. Each instruction is executed in a sequence of operations (fetch instruction, fetch operands, perform operation, store results).

This view of the computer has never been entirely true. At the micro-operation level, multiple control signals are generated at the same time. Instruction pipelining, at least to the extent of overlapping fetch and execute operations, has been around for a long time. Both of these are examples of performing functions in parallel.

As computer technology has evolved and as the cost of computer hardware has dropped, computer designers have sought more and more opportunities for parallelism, usually to improve performance and, in some cases, to improve reliability. In this book, we examine the three most popular approaches to providing parallelism by replicating processors: symmetric multiprocessors (SMPs), multicore computers, and clusters. SMPs and multicore computers are discussed in this section; clusters are examined in Chapter 16.

Symmetric Multiprocessors

Definition An SMP can be defined as a stand-alone computer system with the following characteristics:

1. There are two or more similar processors of comparable capability.
2. These processors share the same main memory and I/O facilities and are interconnected by a bus or other internal connection scheme, such that memory access time is approximately the same for each processor.
3. All processors share access to I/O devices, either through the same channels or through different channels that provide paths to the same device.
4. All processors can perform the same functions (hence the term *symmetric*).
5. The system is controlled by an integrated operating system that provides interaction between processors and their programs at the job, task, file, and data element levels.

Points 1 to 4 should be self-explanatory. Point 5 illustrates one of the contrasts with a loosely coupled multiprocessing system, such as a cluster. In the latter, the physical unit of interaction is usually a message or complete file. In an SMP, individual data elements can constitute the level of interaction, and there can be a high degree of cooperation between processes.

An SMP organization has a number of potential advantages over a uniprocessor organization, including the following:

- **Performance:** If the work to be done by a computer can be organized so that some portions of the work can be done in parallel, then a system with multiple processors will yield greater performance than one with a single processor of the same type.

- **Availability:** In a symmetric multiprocessor, because all processors can perform the same functions, the failure of a single processor does not halt the machine. Instead, the system can continue to function at reduced performance.
- **Incremental growth:** A user can enhance the performance of a system by adding an additional processor.
- **Scaling:** Vendors can offer a range of products with different price and performance characteristics based on the number of processors configured in the system.

It is important to note that these are potential, rather than guaranteed, benefits. The operating system must provide tools and functions to exploit the parallelism in an SMP system.

An attractive feature of an SMP is that the existence of multiple processors is transparent to the user. The operating system takes care of scheduling of tasks on individual processors and of synchronization among processors.

Organization Figure 1.19 illustrates the general organization of an SMP. There are multiple processors, each of which contains its own control unit, arithmetic-logic unit, and registers. Each processor has access to a shared main memory and the I/O devices through some form of interconnection mechanism; a shared bus is a common facility. The processors can communicate with each other through memory (messages and status information left in shared address spaces). It may

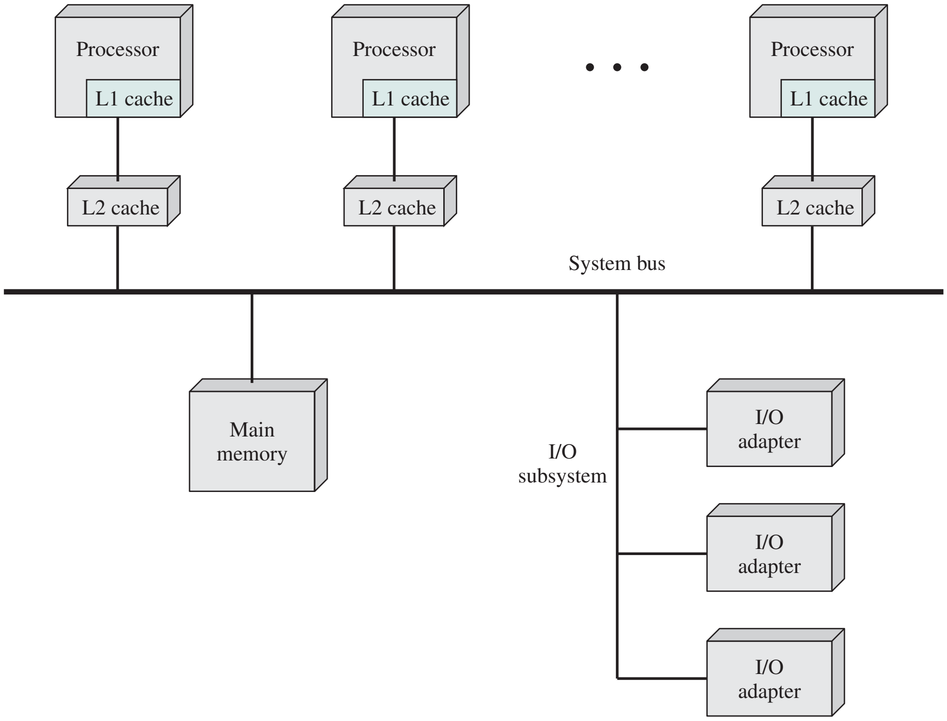


Figure 1.19 **Symmetric Multiprocessor Organization**

also be possible for processors to exchange signals directly. The memory is often organized so that multiple simultaneous accesses to separate blocks of memory are possible.

In modern computers, processors generally have at least one level of cache memory that is private to the processor. This use of cache introduces some new design considerations. Because each local cache contains an image of a portion of main memory, if a word is altered in one cache, it could conceivably invalidate a word in another cache. To prevent this, the other processors must be alerted that an update has taken place. This problem is known as the cache coherence problem and is typically addressed in hardware rather than by the OS.[6]

Multicore Computers

A **multicore** computer, also known as a **chip multiprocessor**, combines two or more processors (called cores) on a single piece of silicon (called a die). Typically, each core consists of all of the components of an independent processor, such as registers, ALU, pipeline hardware, and control unit, plus L1 instruction and data caches. In addition to the multiple cores, contemporary multicore chips also include L2 cache and, in some cases, L3 cache.

The motivation for the development of multicore computers can be summed up as follows. For decades, microprocessor systems have experienced a steady, usually exponential, increase in performance. This is partly due to hardware trends, such as an increase in clock frequency and the ability to put cache memory closer to the processor because of the increasing miniaturization of microcomputer components. Performance has also been improved by the increased complexity of processor design to exploit parallelism in instruction execution and memory access. In brief, designers have come up against practical limits in the ability to achieve greater performance by means of more complex processors. Designers have found that the best way to improve performance to take advantage of advances in hardware is to put multiple processors and a substantial amount of cache memory on a single chip. A detailed discussion of the rationale for this trend is beyond our scope, but is summarized in Appendix C.

An example of a multicore system is the Intel Core i7, which includes four x86 processors, each with a dedicated L2 cache, and with a shared L3 cache (Figure 1.20). One mechanism Intel uses to make its caches more effective is prefetching, in which the hardware examines memory access patterns and attempts to fill the caches speculatively with data that's likely to be requested soon.

The Core i7 chip supports two forms of external communications to other chips. The **DDR3 memory controller** brings the memory controller for the DDR (double data rate) main memory onto the chip. The interface supports three channels that are 8 bytes wide for a total bus width of 192 bits, for an aggregate data rate of up to 32 GB/s. With the memory controller on the chip, the Front Side Bus is eliminated. The **QuickPath Interconnect (QPI)** is a point-to-point link electrical interconnect specification. It enables high-speed communications among connected processor chips. The QPI link operates at 6.4 GT/s (transfers per second).

[6] A description of hardware-based cache coherency schemes is provided in [STAL10].

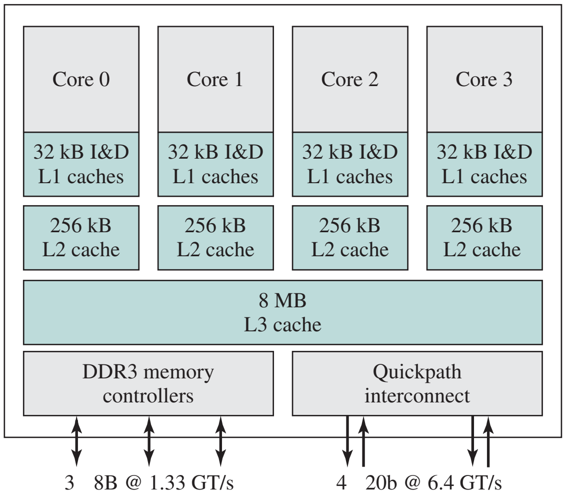


Figure 1.20 **Intel Core i7 Block Diagram**

At 16 bits per transfer, that adds up to 12.8 GB/s; and since QPI links involve dedicated bidirectional pairs, the total bandwidth is 25.6 GB/s.

1.9 RECOMMENDED READING AND WEB SITES

[STAL10] covers the topics of this chapter in detail. In addition, there are many other texts on computer organization and architecture. Among the more worthwhile texts are the following. [PATT09] is a comprehensive survey; [HENN07], by the same authors, is a more advanced text that emphasizes quantitative aspects of design.

[DENN05] looks at the history of the development and application of the locality principle, making for fascinating reading.

DENN05 Denning, P. "The Locality Principle." *Communications of the ACM*, July 2005.

HENN07 Hennessy, J., and Patterson, D. *Computer Architecture: A Quantitative Approach.* San Mateo, CA: Morgan Kaufmann, 2007.

PATT09 Patterson, D., and Hennessy, J. *Computer Organization and Design: The Hardware/Software Interface.* San Mateo, CA: Morgan Kaufmann, 2009.

STAL10 Stallings, W. *Computer Organization and Architecture, 8th ed.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall, 2010.

Recommended Web sites:

- **WWW Computer Architecture Home Page:** A comprehensive index to information relevant to computer architecture researchers, including architecture groups and projects, technical organizations, literature, employment, and commercial information
- **CPU Info Center:** Information on specific processors, including technical papers, product information, and latest announcements

1 Basic Elements

There are four main structures to a computer:

- Processor: controls the operation of the computer and process data, if theres one its the central processing unit, CPU
- Main memory: stores the data, volition (when you turn the computer off its wiped)
- I/O modules: interfaces between the computer and an external environment
- System bus: Provides communication between the other three structures

The CPU uses the Memory Address Register (which contains the address of the next location of a read or write) and the Memory Buffer Register (which contains the data to wbe written) to exchange data with memory. A near identical set up is used for I/O where there is an address register and a buffer register.

2 Evolution of the Microprocessor

Microprocessors are a processor on a single chip. This means that information doesn't need to move as much as with multi-chip processors. These were then broken up into multiple cores to increase the speed of multi-threading.

3 Instruction Execution

The simples process for instruction execution is a fetch then execute two stage cycle, called an instruction cycle. The PC always points to the next instruction to be executed and is usually incremented at the end of a instruction cycle. Fetched instructions are loaded into the instruction register (IR). They start with an opcode that defines what needs to be done.

- processor-memory: data needs to be transfered between processor and memory
- processor-io: data transfered between processor and op
- data processing: mathy things
- control: mucking about with set registers (like changing the PC to execute a specific line next)

The rest of the memory block is used for information about the process.

4 Interrupts

Interrupts allow the processor to start a slow execution (a IO read for example) and let it tick away on its own while the CPU does it thing. When the IO is done it interrupts the CPU to continue its process.

Four classes of interrupts

- program: bad instruction, eg divide by zero

- timer: certain functions that happen on intervals
- IO: io is done its shit
- hardware: a physical issue happened

To handle interrupts we add a interrupt stage to the instruction cycle in which we check if any interrupts have occurred after execution of the current instruction. This is all handled by the OS not the user. When this happens we need to know the nature of th einterrupt to know which handler is to be called.

For example, when an IO device finishes:

1. device issues interrupt signal
2. processor finishes current execution
3. processor tests for interrupt request, finds it, and sends an acknowledgment signal to device
4. the processor saves information needed to resume the current program when the interrupt is done (minimum is the program status word PSW and PC, which are pushed onto the control stack)
5. PC is loaded with the starting address of the interrupt handler, if there are multiple there needs to be a way of determining priority
6. The interrupt handler begins by saving the processor registers to the stack, stack pointer SP is moved to reflect the newly added data, finally the PC starts the interrupt service routine
7. the handler processes the interrupt
8. the register values are popped off the stack and back into place (in reverse order)
9. the PSW and PC are restored from the stack and things continue as they were

It is quite often that an interrupt will happened while another interrupt is being handled. We could just disable interrupts while an interrupt is being handeld and just tell the processor to ignore any new signals. These interrupts remain pending while the processor works and won't be checked until the processor is done. This means that interrupts are handled in strict sequential order. The problem with this is that certain interrupts need a very high priority (ex. data streams where the data will be lost if it is not processed now). The solution to this is to allow only interrupts of a higher priority to interrupt the handler.

5 Memory Hierarchy

Memory is either fast or cheap, to find a good comprimise we use a memory hierarchy, you know this shit. Going down the hierarchy:

- Decreasing cost per bit
- Increasing capacity
- Increasing access time
- Decreasing frequency of access to the memory by the processor

By increasing the probability of finding the data in a higher memory we can make our average hit time much lower. We call the ability to decrease frequence of hits to lower memory locality of reference. This principle is basically that the processor often works with chunks of data at a time instead of scattered bits, so when we load chunks at a time we can access a higher memory quite a lot until the next chunk is needed.

An example of this is that most harddrives actually have a small cache built into them to aid in moving memory from them to the registers.

6 Cache Memory

This is invisible to the OS but used a lot. We frequently use the same tricks we use for virtual memory on cache memory.

Every execution starts with fetching an instruction from main memory. There is no way to get around this so the speed at which you can execute is dependant on the speed at which you can fetch that memory since memory is much slower than processors. To make this we put a small super fast cache between the processor and main memory.

The cache keeps blocks from main memory right next to the processor for it to read quickly. If the data we are looking for is not in the cache we have to load a new block from memory into it. Because of locality of reference this doesn't happen very often. Sometimes we go even farther and have multiple layers of cache.

Main memory has 2^n addressable words where n is the length of the word. We divide main memory into blocks of K words. Now memory is made up of M ($M = \frac{2^n}{K}$) blocks. We do the same thing for the cache and call it C slots. Each slot contains a tag indicating which block it is currently containing. This tag usually refers to all memory addresses that start with it (so a the tag length should be $log_2(K)$).

As block size increases so does the hit ratio (bigger block = more relevant data), up to a certain point at which it actually starts to decrease because we are adding data in the cache that has little probability of being used. When we read a block into the cache we use a mapping function to determine which slot it goes in. We want a mapping function that kicks out a slot that will probably not be used in the future but we dont want it to be too complex and costly. We call the function that choses who to boot the replacement algorithm. It basically dumps the least recently used (LRU) block.

When a block in cache is altered we need to save that in main memory before we replace it. We could save it everytime it is updated which is costly or we could save it only when the block is dumped, but that could leave the main memory obsolete for a long while.

7 Direct Memory Access

There are three operations for I/O:

- programmed IO
- interrupt driven IO
- DMA

In programmed IO, when the processor calls to the IO it does what was asked and sets the status register, but doesn't alert the processor. This means that the processor has to sometimes poll the IO status register to see when its done. This is bad which is why we introduced interrupt driven IO. Which does what programmed IO does, then alerts the processor with an IO interrupt. These are both sucky because they required the processor to manage the data transfer.

The solution to this is the DMA model. When a processor wishes to read or write it sends a command to the DMA module contianing the operation, address of IO, location in memory, and number of words to read. From there on the DMA module handles the transfer of information to the IO and when its done sends a interrupt back to the processor. Since the DMA needs the data bus to do the transfer the processor might have to wait on it to finish, it pauses for one bus cycle.

8 Multiprocessor and Multi-core Organization

A SMP (symmetric multiprocessors) is a stand-alone computer that:

- with multiple processors
- its processors share the same main memory and I/O facilities, are interconnected by a bus, and memory access time is the same for each processor
- its processors share access to I/O devices through the same channels
- its processors can perform the same functions
- its system is controlled by an integrated operating system

SMP systems can have great performance advantages over regular single processor systems. Processor hiccups arent a very big deal because there are multiple. Its easy for the user to improve performance, add more processors. Special allowances have to be made for multiple processors. Memory should be structured to allow multiple simultaneous accesses. Any memory that is processor specific (caches) needs to remain in sync so that changes to one percolate to the others.

Multicore systems are similar to SMP, but each core as all of the peices independent to the processor (like registers and such).