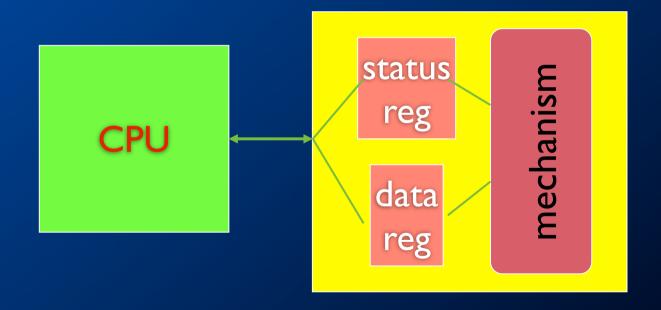


Agenda

- Input and output
- Busses
- Memory Architectures

I/O devices

- Usually includes some non-digital component.
- Typical digital interface to CPU:



Application: 8251 UART

- Universal asynchronous receiver transmitter (UART): provides serial communication.
- 8251 functions are integrated into standard PC interface chip.
- Allows many communication parameters to be programmed.

Serial communication

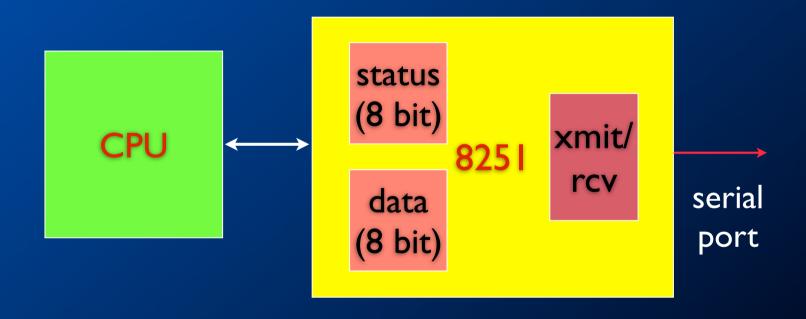
• Characters are transmitted separately:



Serial communication parameters

- Baud (bit) rate.
- Number of bits per character.
- Parity/no parity.
 - Even/odd parity.
- Length of stop bit (1, 1.5, 2 bits).

8251 CPU interface



Programming I/O

- Two types of instructions can support I/O:
 - special-purpose I/O instructions;
 - memory-mapped load/store instructions.
- Intel x86 provides in, out instructions. Most other CPUs use memory-mapped I/O.
- I/O instructions do not preclude memory-mapped I/O.

ARM memory-mapped I/O

Define location for device:

DEVI EQU 0x1000

Read/write code:

LDR rI,#DEVI; set up device adrs

LDR r0,[r1]; read DEVI

LDR r0,#8; set up value to write

STR r0,[r1]; write value to device

Peek and poke

Traditional HLL interfaces:

```
int peek(char *location) {
    return *location; }
```

```
void poke(char *location, char newval) {
    (*location) = newval; }
```

Busy/wait output

- Simplest way to program device.
 - Use instructions to test when device is ready.

```
current_char = mystring;
while (*current_char != '\0') {
   poke(OUT_CHAR,*current_char);
   while (peek(OUT_STATUS) != 0);
   current_char++;
}
```

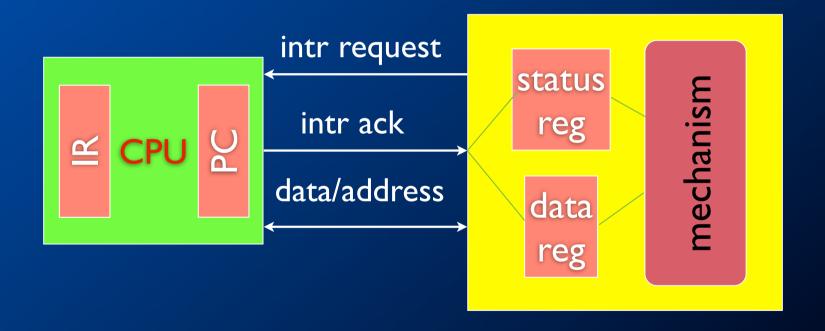
Simultaneous busy/wait input and output

```
while (TRUE) {
  /* read */
  while (peek(IN_STATUS) == 0);
  achar = (char)peek(IN_DATA);
  /* write */
  poke(OUT_DATA,achar);
  poke(OUT_STATUS, I);
  while (peek(OUT_STATUS) != 0);
```

Interrupt I/O

- Busy/wait is very inefficient.
 - CPU can't do other work while testing device.
 - Hard to do simultaneous I/O.
- Interrupts allow a device to change the flow of control in the CPU.
 - Causes subroutine call to handle device.

Interrupt interface



Interrupt behavior

- Based on subroutine call mechanism.
- Interrupt forces next instruction to be a subroutine call to a predetermined location.
 - Return address is saved to resume executing foreground program.

Interrupt physical interface

- CPU and device are connected by CPU bus.
- CPU and device handshake:
 - device asserts interrupt request;
 - CPU asserts interrupt acknowledge when it can handle the interrupt.

Example: character I/O handlers

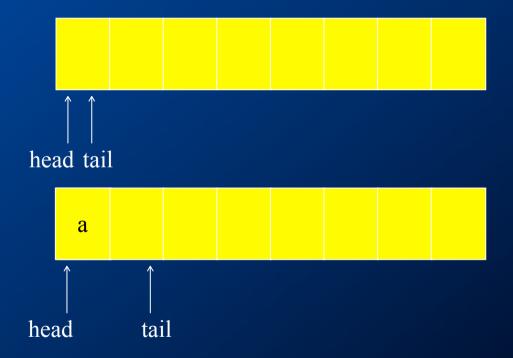
```
void input_handler() {
  achar = peek(IN_DATA);
  gotchar = TRUE;
  poke(IN_STATUS,0);
void output_handler() {
```

Example: interrupt-driven main program

```
main() {
  while (TRUE) {
      if (gotchar) {
          poke(OUT_DATA,achar);
          poke(OUT_STATUS,I);
          gotchar = FALSE;
  other processing....
```

Example: interrupt I/O with buffers

Queue for characters:

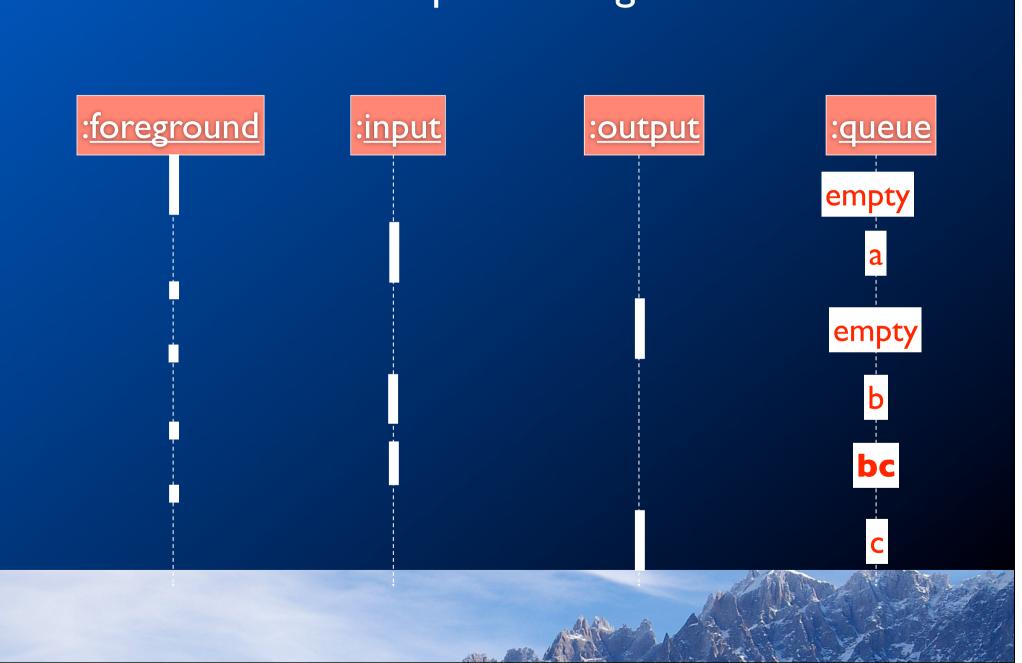


leave one empty slot to allow full buffer to be detected

Buffer-based input handler

```
void input_handler() {
  char achar;
  if (full_buffer()) error = I;
  else {
      achar = peek(IN_DATA);
      add_char(achar); }
  poke(IN_STATUS,0);
  if (nchars == 1)
      poke(OUT_DATA,remove_char();
       poke(OUT_STATUS, I); }
```

I/O sequence diagram



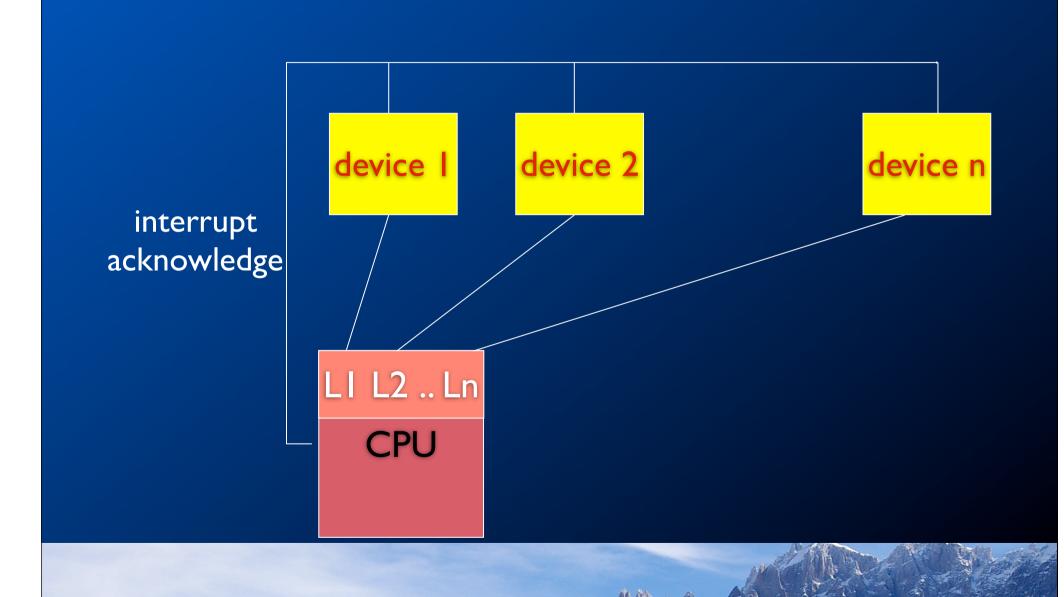
Debugging interrupt code

- What if you forget to change registers?
 - Foreground program can exhibit mysterious bugs.
 - Bugs will be hard to repeat---depend on interrupt timing.

Priorities and vectors

- Two mechanisms allow us to make interrupts more specific:
 - Priorities determine what interrupt gets CPU first.
 - Vectors determine what code is called for each type of interrupt.
- Mechanisms are orthogonal: most CPUs provide both.

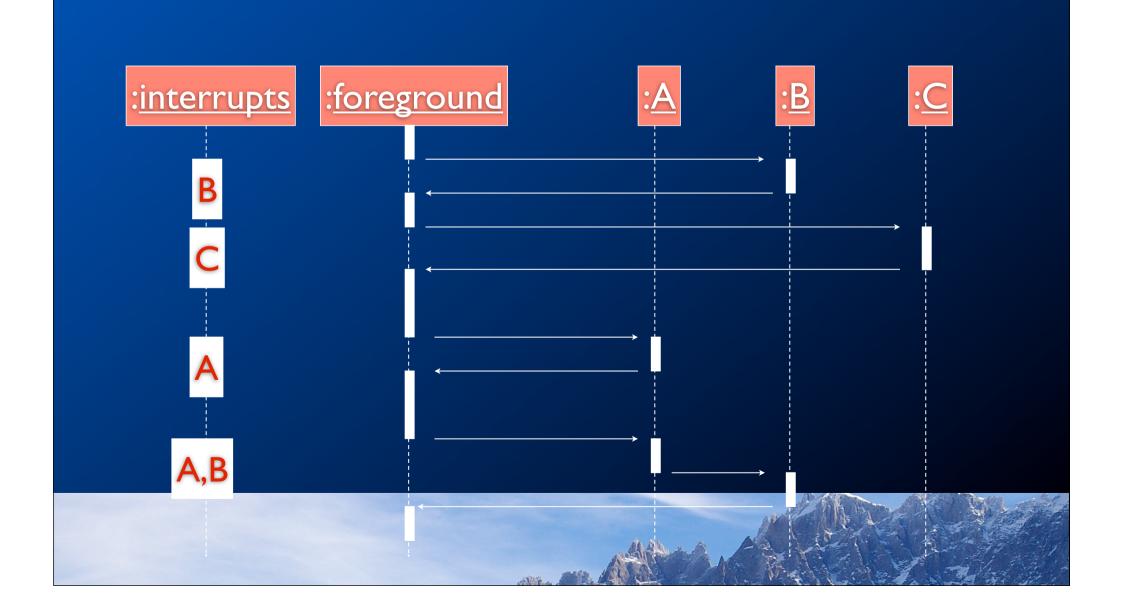
Prioritized interrupts



Interrupt prioritization

- Masking: interrupt with priority lower than current priority is not recognized until pending interrupt is complete.
- Non-maskable interrupt (NMI): highest-priority, never masked.
 - Often used for power-down.

Example: Prioritized I/O



Interrupt vectors

- Allow different devices to be handled by different code.
- Interrupt vector table:

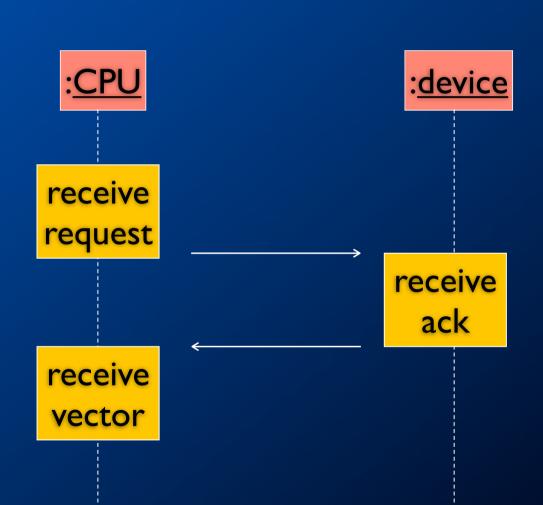
handler 0

handler I

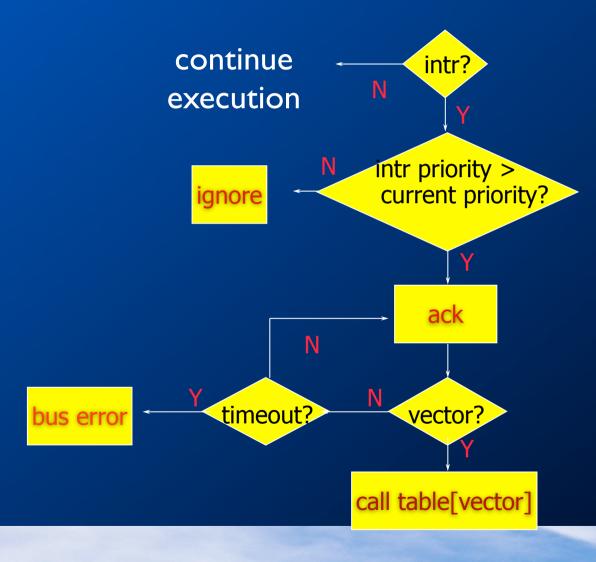
handler 2

handler 3

Interrupt vector acquisition



Generic interrupt mechanism



Assume priority selection is handled before this point.

Interrupt sequence

- CPU acknowledges request.
- Device sends vector.
- CPU calls handler.
- Software processes request.
- CPU restores state to foreground program.

Sources of interrupt overhead

- Handler execution time.
- Interrupt mechanism overhead.
- Register save/restore.
- Pipeline-related penalties.
- Cache-related penalties.

ARM interrupts

- ARM7 supports two types of interrupts:
 - Fast interrupt requests (FIQs).
 - Interrupt requests (IRQs).
- Interrupt table starts at location 0.

ARM interrupt procedure

- CPU actions:
 - Save PC. Copy CPSR to SPSR.
 - Force bits in CPSR to record interrupt.
 - Force PC to vector.
- Handler responsibilities:
 - Restore proper PC.
 - Restore CPSR from SPSR.
 - Clear interrupt disable flags.

ARM interrupt latency

- Worst-case latency to respond to interrupt is 27 cycles:
 - Two cycles to synchronize external request.
 - Up to 20 cycles to complete current instruction.
 - Three cycles for data abort.
 - Two cycles to enter interrupt handling state.

Supervisor mode

- May want to provide protective barriers between programs.
 - Avoid memory corruption.
- Need supervisor mode to manage the various programs.

ARM supervisor mode

- Use SWI instruction to enter supervisor mode, similar to subroutine:
 - SWI CODE_I
- Sets PC to 0x08.
- Argument to SWI is passed to supervisor mode code.
- Saves CPSR in SPSR.

Exception

- Exception: internally detected error.
- Exceptions are synchronous with instructions but unpredictable.
- Build exception mechanism on top of interrupt mechanism.
- Exceptions are usually prioritized and vectorized.

Trap

- Trap (software interrupt): an exception generated by an instruction.
 - Call supervisor mode.
- ARM uses SWI instruction for traps.

Co-processor

- Co-processor: added function unit that is called by instruction.
 - Floating-point units are often structured as coprocessors.
- ARM allows up to 16 designer-selected co-processors.
 - Floating-point co-processor uses units 1, 2.

Agenda

- Input and output
- Busses
- Memory Architectures

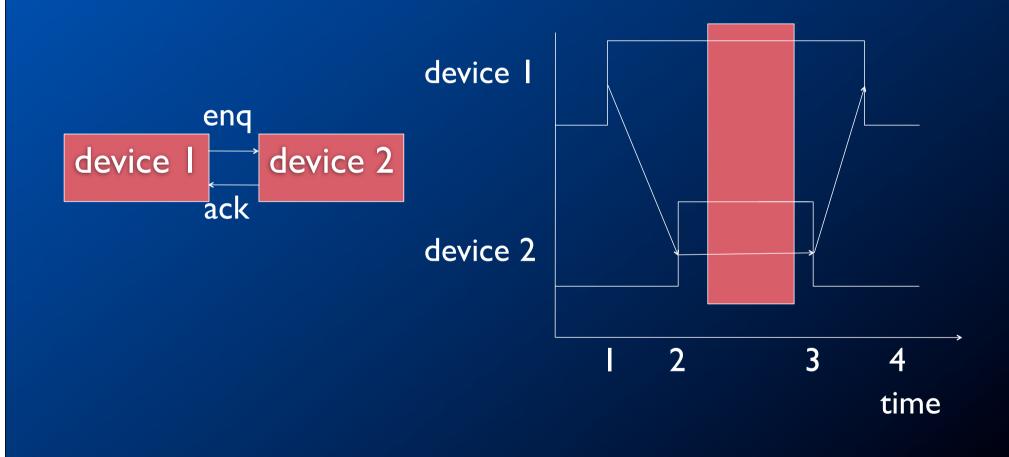
The CPU bus

- Bus allows CPU, memory, devices to communicate.
 - Shared communication medium.
- A bus is:
 - A set of wires.
 - A communications protocol.

Bus protocols

- Bus protocol determines how devices communicate.
- Devices on the bus go through sequences of states.
 - Protocols are specified by state machines, one state machine per actor in the protocol.
- May contain asynchronous logic behavior.

Four-cycle handshake

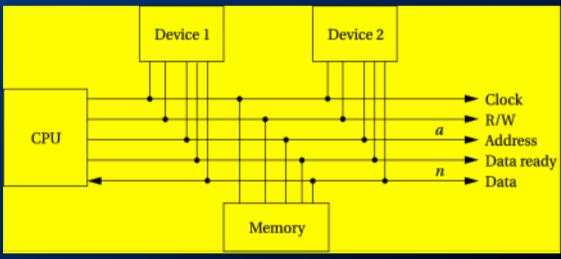


Four-cycle handshake, cont'd.

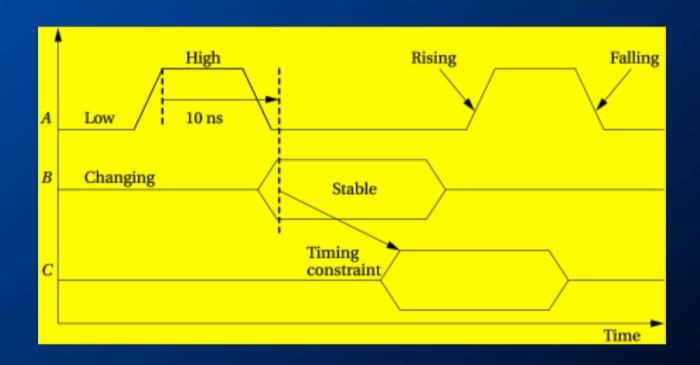
- I. Device I raises enq.
- 2. Device 2 responds with ack.
- 3. Device 2 lowers ack once it has finished.
- 4. Device I lowers enq.

Microprocessor busses

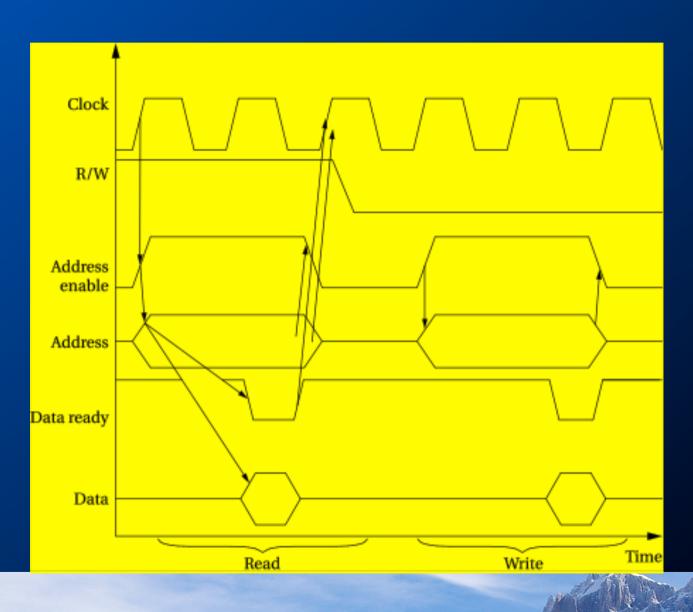
- Clock provides synchronization.
- R/W is true when reading (R/W' is false when reading).
- Address is a-bit bundle of address lines.
- Data is n-bit bundle of data lines.
- Data ready signals when nbit data is ready.



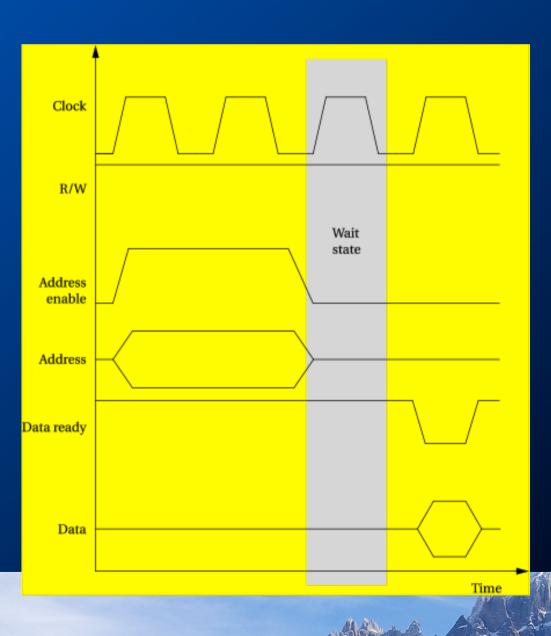
Timing diagrams



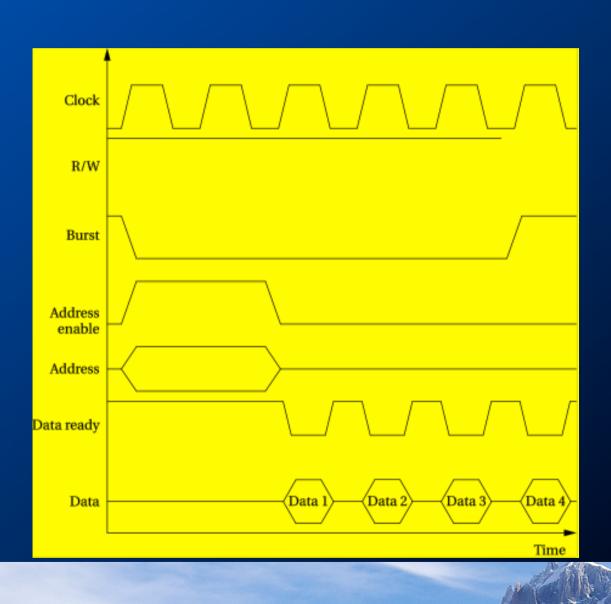
Bus read



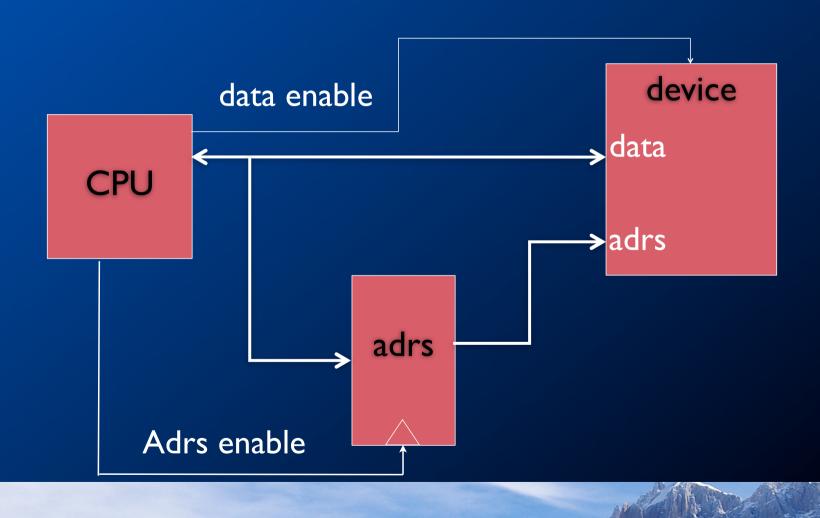
Bus wait state



Bus burst read

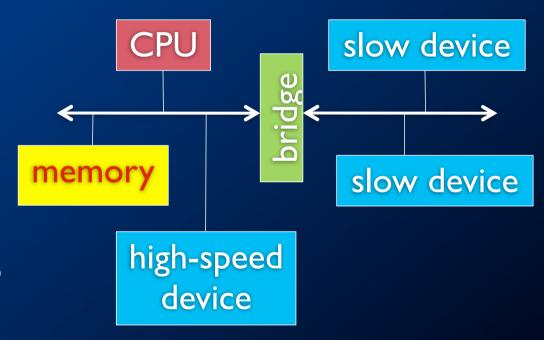


Bus multiplexing

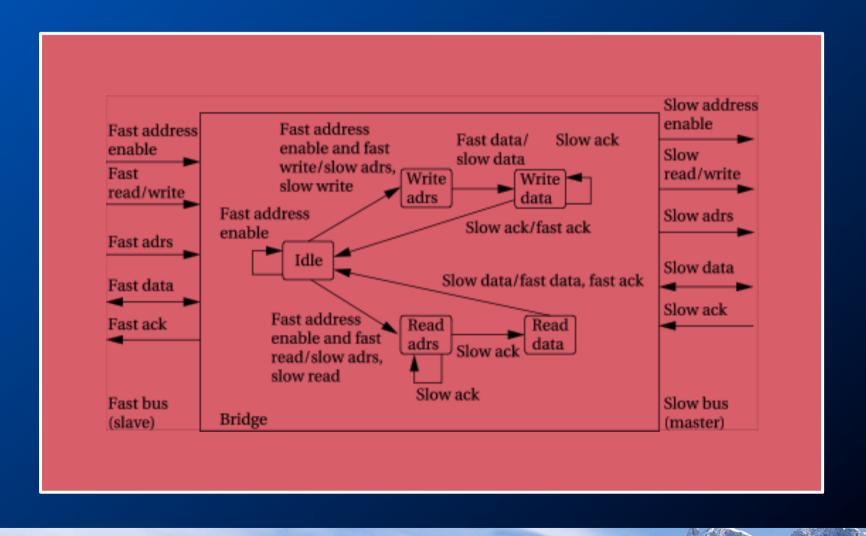


System bus configurations

- Multiple busses allow parallelism:
 - Slow devices on one bus.
 - Fast devices on separate bus.
- A bridge connects two busses.

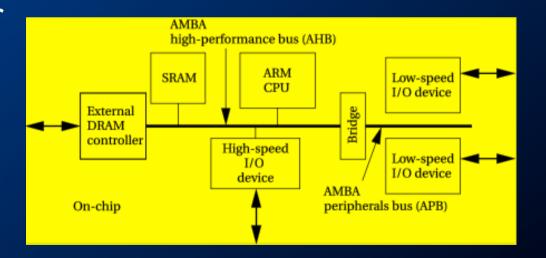


Bridge state diagram



ARM AMBA bus

- Two varieties:
 - AHB is high-performance.
 - APB is lower-speed, lower cost.
- AHB supports pipelining, burst transfers, split transactions, multiple bus masters.
- All devices are slaves on APB.

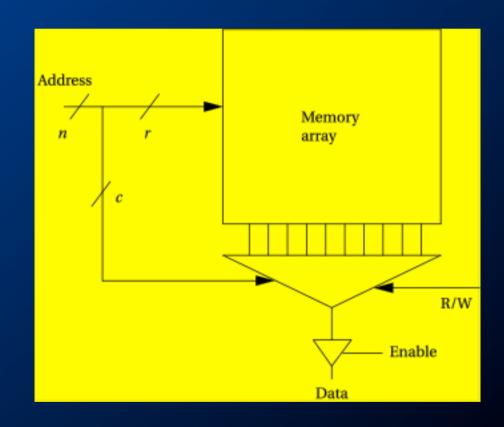




- Input and output
- Busses
- Memory Architectures

Memory components

- Several different types of memory:
 - DRAM.
 - SRAM.
 - Flash.
- Each type of memory comes in varying:
 - Capacities.
 - Widths.



Random-access memory

- Dynamic RAM is dense, requires refresh.
 - Synchronous DRAM is dominant type.
 - SDRAM uses clock to improve performance, pipeline memory accesses.
- Static RAM is faster, less dense, consumes more power.

Read-only memory

- ROM may be programmed at factory.
- Flash is dominant form of field-programmable ROM.
 - Electrically erasable, must be block erased.
 - Random access, but write/erase is much slower than read.
 - NOR flash is more flexible.
 - NAND flash is more dense.

Flash memory

- Non-volatile memory.
 - Flash can be programmed in-circuit.
- Random access for read.
- To write:
 - Erase a block to 1.
 - Write bits to 0.

Flash writing

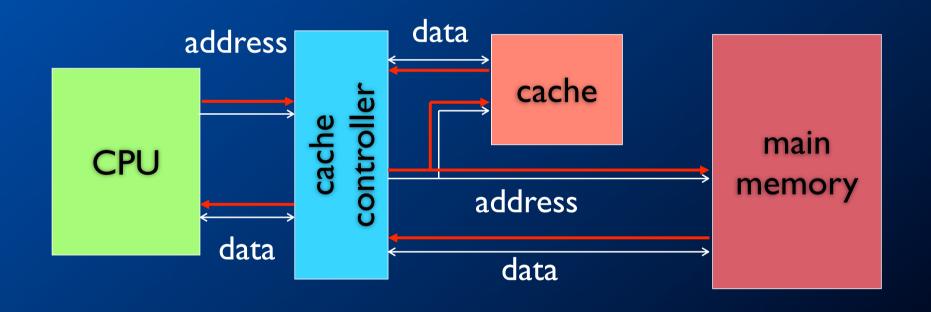
- Write is much slower than read.
 - 1.6 µs write, 70 ns read.
- Blocks are large (approx. I Mb).
- Writing causes wear that eventually destroys the device.
 - Modern lifetime approx. I million writes.

Types of flash

- NOR:
 - Word-accessible read.
 - Erase by blocks.
- NAND:
 - Read by pages (512-4K bytes).
 - Erase by blocks.
- NAND is cheaper, has faster erase, sequential access times.

	NOR	NAND
写入/擦除一个块的 操作时间	l∼5s	2~4ms
读性能	1200∼1500KB	600∼800KB
写性能	<80KB	200~400KB
接口/总线	SRAM接口/独立的地址数 据总线	8位地址/数据/控制总线, I/O接口复杂
读取模式	随机读取	串行地存取数据
成本	较高	较低,单元尺寸约为NOR的一半, 生产过程简单,同样大小的芯片可以 做更大的容量
容量及应用场合	I~64MB,主要用于存储 代码	8MB~4GB,主要用于存储 数据
擦写次数(耐用性)	约10万次	约100万次
位交换(bit位反转)	少	较多,关键性数据需要错误探 测/错误更正(EDC/ECC)算法
坏块处理	无,因为坏块故障率少	随机分布,无法修正

Caches and CPUs



Cache operation

- Many main memory locations are mapped onto one cache entry.
- May have caches for:
 - instructions;
 - data;
 - data + instructions (unified).
- Memory access time is no longer deterministic.

Terms

- Cache hit: required location is in cache.
- Cache miss: required location is not in cache.
- Working set: set of locations used by program in a time interval.

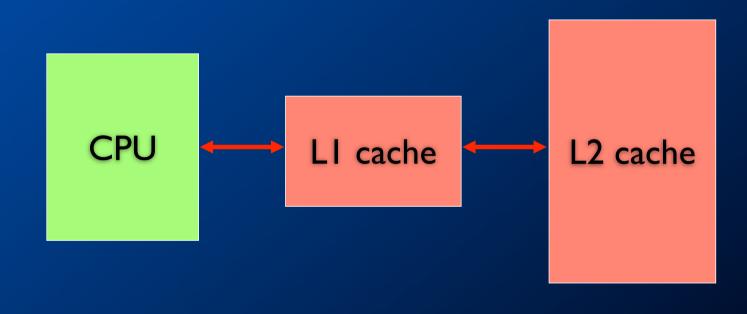
Types of misses

- Compulsory (cold): location has never been accessed.
- Capacity: working set is too large.
- Conflict: multiple locations in working set map to same cache entry.

Memory system performance

- h = cache hit rate.
- t_{cache} = cache access time, t_{main} = main memory access time.
- Average memory access time:
 - $t_{av} = ht_{cache} + (I-h)t_{main}$

Multiple levels of cache



Multi-level cache access time

- h_1 = cache hit rate.
- h_2 = hit rate on L2.
- Average memory access time:
 - $t_{av} = h_1 t_{L1} + h_2 t_{L2} + (I h_2 h_1) t_{main}$

Replacement policies

- Replacement policy: strategy for choosing which cache entry to throw out to make room for a new memory location.
- Two popular strategies:
 - Random.
 - Least-recently used (LRU).

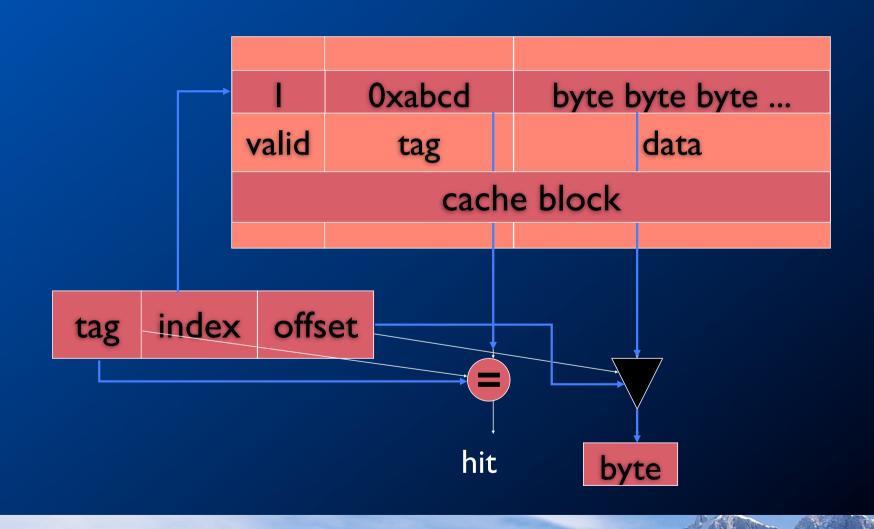
Cache organizations

- Fully-associative: any memory location can be stored anywhere in the cache (almost never implemented).
- Direct-mapped: each memory location maps onto exactly one cache entry.
- N-way set-associative: each memory location can go into one of n sets.

Cache performance benefits

- Keep frequently-accessed locations in fast cache.
- Cache retrieves more than one word at a time.
 - Sequential accesses are faster after first access.

Direct-mapped cache



Write operations

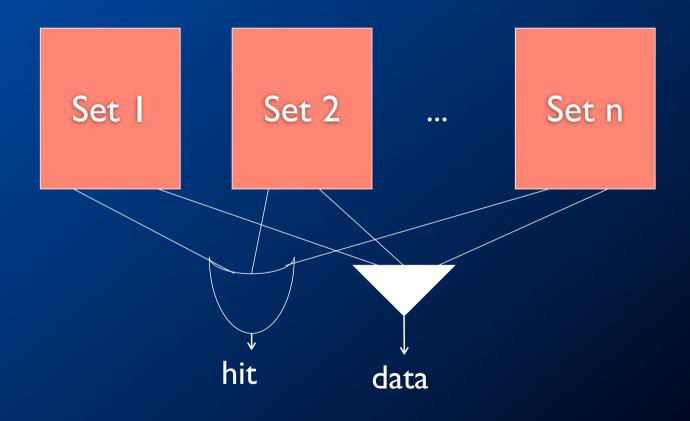
- Write-through: immediately copy write to main memory.
- Write-back: write to main memory only when location is removed from cache.

Direct-mapped cache locations

- Many locations map onto the same cache block.
- Conflict misses are easy to generate:
 - Array a[] uses locations 0, 1, 2, ...
 - Array b[] uses locations 1024, 1025, 1026, ...
 - Operation a[i] + b[i] generates conflict misses.

Set-associative cache

A set of direct-mapped caches:



Example: direct-mapped vs. set-associative

address	data
000	0101
001	1111
010	0000
011	0110
100	1000
101	0001
110	1010
111	0100

Direct-mapped cache behavior

After 001 access:

block	tag	data
00	-	-
01	0	1111
10	-	-
11	-	-

After 010 access:

block	tag	data
00	-	-
01	0	1111
10	0	0000
11	_	_

Direct-mapped cache behavior, cont'd.

• After 011 access:

block	tag	data
00	-	-
01	0	1111
10	0	0000
11	0	0110

After 100 access:

block	tag	data
00	1	1000
01	0	1111
10	0	0000
11	0	0110

Direct-mapped cache behavior, cont'd.

After 101 access:

A CI			
Afte	rıı	1 2	ccess:

block	tag	data	block	tag	data
00	1	1000	00	1	1000
01	1	0001	01	1	0001
10	0	0000	10	0	0000
11	0	0110	11	1	0100

2-way set-associtive cache behavior

Final state of cache (twice as big as direct-mapped):

Block	Way 0 tag	Way 0 data	Way 1 tag	Way 1 data
00	1	1000	-	-
01	0	1111	1	0001
10	0	0000	-	-
11	0	0110	1	0100

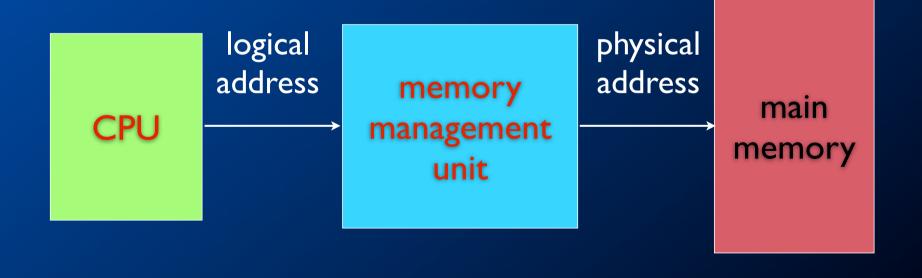
2-way set-associative cache behavior

Final state of cache (same size as direct-mapped):

Block	Way 0 tag	Way 0 data	Way 1 tag	Way 1 data
0	01	0000	10	1000
1	10	0001	11	0100

Memory management units

Memory management unit (MMU) translates addresses:



Memory management tasks

- Allows programs to move in physical memory during execution.
- Allows virtual memory:
 - memory images kept in secondary storage;
 - images returned to main memory on demand during execution.
- Page fault: request for location not resident in memory.

Address translation

- Requires some sort of register/table to allow arbitrary mappings of logical to physical addresses.
- Two basic schemes:
 - segmented;
 - paged.
- Segmentation and paging can be combined (x86).

Segments and pages

page I

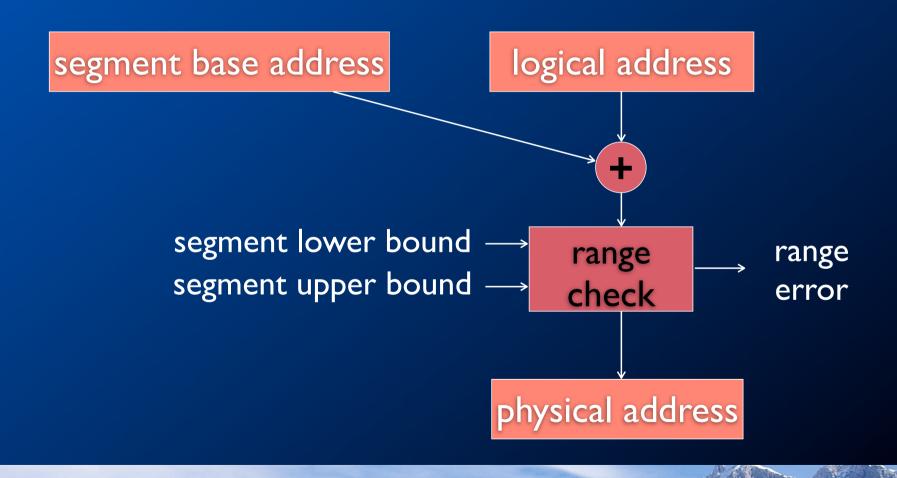
page 2

segment I

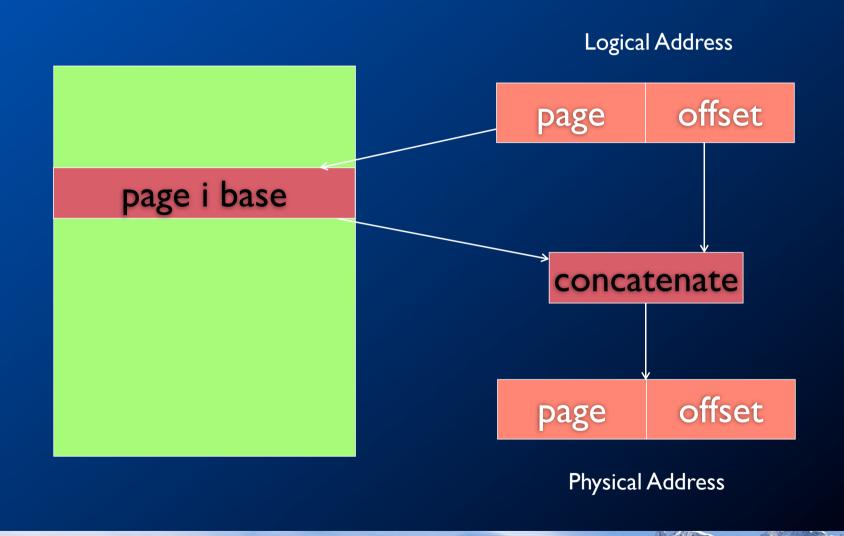
memory

segment 2

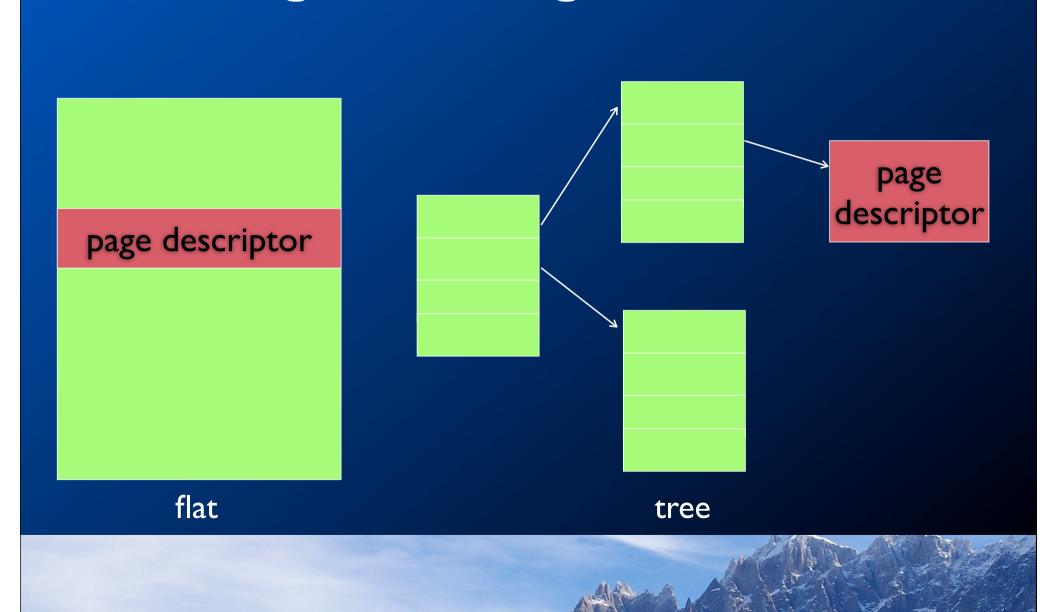
Segment address translation



Page address translation



Page table organizations



Caching address translations

- Large translation tables require main memory access.
- TLB: cache for address translation.
 - Typically small.

ARM memory management

- Memory region types:
 - section: I Mbyte block;
 - large page: 64 kbytes;
 - small page: 4 kbytes.
- An address is marked as section-mapped or page-mapped.
- Two-level translation scheme.

ARM address translation

