Introduction to Computer Engineering

CS/ECE 252, Fall 2011
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Chapter 8 & 9.1
I/O and Traps
I/O: Connecting to Outside World

So far, we’ve learned how to:

• compute with values in registers
• load data from memory to registers
• store data from registers to memory

But where does data in memory come from?

And how does data get out of the system so that humans can use it?
I/O: Connecting to the Outside World

Types of I/O devices characterized by:

- **behavior**: input, output, storage
  - input: keyboard, motion detector, network interface
  - output: monitor, printer, network interface
  - storage: disk, CD-ROM

- **data rate**: how fast can data be transferred?
  - keyboard: 100 bytes/sec
  - disk: 30 MB/s
  - network: 1 Mb/s - 1 Gb/s
I/O Controller

Control/Status Registers
- CPU tells device what to do -- write to control register
- CPU checks whether task is done -- read status register

Data Registers
- CPU transfers data to/from device

Device electronics
- performs actual operation
  - pixels to screen, bits to/from disk, characters from keyboard
Programming Interface

How are device registers identified?
  • Memory-mapped vs. special instructions

How is timing of transfer managed?
  • Asynchronous vs. synchronous

Who controls transfer?
  • CPU (polling) vs. device (interrupts)
Memory-Mapped vs. I/O Instructions

Instructions

• designate opcode(s) for I/O
• register and operation encoded in instruction

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>15</th>
<th>14</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IO</td>
<td>Device</td>
<td>Op</td>
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Memory-mapped

• assign a memory address to each device register
• use data movement instructions (LD/ST) for control and data transfer
Transfer Timing

I/O events generally happen much slower than CPU cycles.

Synchronous

- data supplied at a fixed, predictable rate
- CPU reads/writes every X cycles

Asynchronous

- data rate less predictable
- CPU must synchronize with device, so that it doesn’t miss data or write too quickly
Transfer Control

Who determines when the next data transfer occurs?

Polling

• CPU keeps checking status register until *new data* arrives OR *device ready* for next data
• “Are we there yet? Are we there yet? Are we there yet?”

Interrupts

• Device sends a special signal to CPU when *new data* arrives OR *device ready* for next data
• CPU can be performing other tasks instead of polling device.
• “Wake me when we get there.”
**LC-3**

**Memory-mapped I/O** (Table A.3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>I/O Register</th>
<th>Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>xFE00</td>
<td>Keyboard Status Reg (KBSR)</td>
<td>Bit [15] is one when keyboard has received a new character.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xFE02</td>
<td>Keyboard Data Reg (KBDR)</td>
<td>Bits [7:0] contain the last character typed on keyboard.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xFE04</td>
<td>Display Status Register (DSR)</td>
<td>Bit [15] is one when device ready to display another char on screen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xFE06</td>
<td>Display Data Register (DDR)</td>
<td>Character written to bits [7:0] will be displayed on screen.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Asynchronous devices**

- synchronized through status registers

**Polling and Interrupts**

- the details of interrupts will be discussed in Chapter 10
Input from Keyboard

When a character is typed:

- its ASCII code is placed in bits [7:0] of KBDR (bits [15:8] are always zero)
- the “ready bit” (KBSR[15]) is set to one
- keyboard is disabled -- any typed characters will be ignored

When KBDR is read:

- KBSR[15] is set to zero
- keyboard is enabled
Basic Input Routine

new char?

Polling

NO

YES

read character

POLL LDI R0, KBSRPtr
BRzp POLL
LDI R0, KBDRPtr

KBSRPtr .FILL xFE00
KBDRPtr .FILL xFE02
Simple Implementation: Memory-Mapped Input

Address Control Logic determines whether MDR is loaded from Memory or from KBSR/KBDR.
Output to Monitor

When Monitor is ready to display another character:
  • the “ready bit” (DSR[15]) is set to one

When data is written to Display Data Register:
  • DSR[15] is set to zero
  • character in DDR[7:0] is displayed
  • any other character data written to DDR is ignored (while DSR[15] is zero)
Basic Output Routine

Polling

screen ready?

NO

YES

write character

POLL LDI R1, DSRPtr
BRzp POLL
STI R0, DDRPtr

... 

DSRPtr .FILL xFE04
DDRPtr .FILL xFE06
Simple Implementation: Memory-Mapped Output

Sets LD_DDR or selects DSR as input.
Keyboard Echo Routine

Usually, input character is also printed to screen.

- User gets feedback on character typed and knows it's ok to type the next character.

```
| POLL1     | LDI  R0, KBSRPtr |
|           | BRzp POLL1       |
| POLL2     | LDI  R1, DSRPtr  |
|           | BRzp POLL2       |
|           | STI  R0, DDRPtr  |
|           | ...              |
| KBSRPtr   | .FILL xFE00      |
| KBDRPtr   | .FILL xFE02      |
| DSRPtr    | .FILL xFE04      |
| DDRPtr    | .FILL xFE06      |
```
Interrupt-Driven I/O

External device can:
(1) Force currently executing program to stop;
(2) Have the processor satisfy the device’s needs; and
(3) Resume the stopped program as if nothing happened.

Why?

• Polling consumes a lot of cycles, especially for rare events – these cycles can be used for more computation.
• Example: Process previous input while collecting current input. (See Example 8.1 in text.)
Interrupt-Driven I/O

To implement an interrupt mechanism, we need:

- A way for the I/O device to **signal** the CPU that an interesting event has occurred.
- A way for the CPU to **test** whether the **interrupt signal** is set and whether its **priority is higher** than the current program.

Generating Signal

- Software sets "interrupt enable" bit in device register.
- When ready bit is set and IE bit is set, interrupt is signaled.
Priority

Every instruction executes at a stated level of urgency.

LC-3: 8 priority levels (PL0-PL7)

• Example:
  - Payroll program runs at PL0.
  - Nuclear power plant control program runs at PL6.

• It’s OK for PL6 device to interrupt PL0 program, but not the other way around.

Priority encoder selects highest-priority device, compares to current processor priority level, and generates interrupt signal if appropriate.
Testing for Interrupt Signal

CPU looks at signal between STORE and FETCH phases. If not set, continues with next instruction. If set, transfers control to interrupt service routine.

More details in Chapter 10.
Full Implementation of LC-3 Memory-Mapped I/O

Because of interrupt enable bits, status registers (KBSR/DSR) must be written, as well as read.
System Calls

Certain operations require specialized knowledge and protection:

- specific knowledge of I/O device registers and the sequence of operations needed to use them
- I/O resources shared among multiple users/programs; a mistake could affect lots of other users!

Not every programmer knows (or wants to know) this level of detail

Provide service routines or system calls (part of operating system) to safely and conveniently perform low-level, privileged operations
System Call

1. User program invokes system call.
2. Operating system code performs operation.
3. Returns control to user program.

In LC-3, this is done through the TRAP mechanism.
LC-3 TRAP Mechanism

1. A set of service routines.
   • part of operating system -- routines start at arbitrary addresses
     (convention is that system code is below x3000)
   • up to 256 routines

2. Table of starting addresses.
   • stored at x0000 through x00FF in memory
   • called System Control Block in some architectures

3. TRAP instruction.
   • used by program to transfer control to operating system
   • 8-bit trap vector names one of the 256 service routines

4. A linkage back to the user program.
   • want execution to resume immediately after the TRAP instruction
TRAP Instruction

TRAP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<td>0</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>trapvect8</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Trap vector

- identifies which system call to invoke
- 8-bit index into table of service routine addresses
  - in LC-3, this table is stored in memory at 0x0000 – 0x00FF
  - 8-bit trap vector is zero-extended into 16-bit memory address

Where to go

- lookup starting address from table; place in PC

How to get back

- save address of next instruction (current PC) in R7
NOTE: PC has already been incremented during instruction fetch stage.
**RET (JMP R7)**

How do we transfer control back to instruction following the TRAP?

We saved old PC in R7.

- **JMP R7** gets us back to the user program at the right spot.
- LC-3 assembly language lets us use **RET** (return) in place of “**JMP R7**”.

Must make sure that service routine does not change R7, or we won’t know where to return.
TRAP Mechanism Operation

1. Lookup starting address.
2. Transfer to service routine.
3. Return (JMP R7).
Example: Using the TRAP Instruction

```
.ORIG x3000
LD   R2, TERM       ; Load negative ASCII ‘7’
LD   R3, ASCII      ; Load ASCII difference
AGAIN
   TRAP  x23         ; input character
   ADD  R1, R2, R0    ; Test for terminate
   BRz  EXIT         ; Exit if done
   ADD  R0, R0, R3    ; Change to lowercase
   TRAP  x21         ; Output to monitor...
   BRnzp AGAIN       ; ... again and again...
TERM  .FILL xFFC9   ; ‘7’
ASCII .FILL x0020    ; lowercase bit
EXIT  TRAP  x25      ; halt
.END
```
Example: Output Service Routine

```
.ORIG x0430                      ; syscall address
ST   R7, SaveR7                  ; save R7 & R1
ST   R1, SaveR1

; ----- Write character
TryWrite    LDI   R1, CRTSR       ; get status
            BRzp  TryWrite        ; look for bit 15 on
WriteIt     STI   R0, CRTDR       ; write char

; ----- Return from TRAP
Return      LD    R1, SaveR1      ; restore R1 & R7
            LD    R7, SaveR7
            RET          ; back to user

CRTSR       .FILL  xF3FC
CRTDR       .FILL  xF3FF
SaveR1      .FILL  0
SaveR7      .FILL  0
.END
```

stored in table, location x21
## TRAP Routines and their Assembler Names

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>vector</th>
<th>symbol</th>
<th>routine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>x20</td>
<td>GETC</td>
<td>read a single character (no echo)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x21</td>
<td>OUT</td>
<td>output a character to the monitor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x22</td>
<td>PUTS</td>
<td>write a string to the console</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x23</td>
<td>IN</td>
<td>print prompt to console, read and echo character from keyboard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x25</td>
<td>HALT</td>
<td>halt the program</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Saving and Restoring Registers

Must save the value of a register if:

- Its value will be destroyed by service routine, and
- We will need to use the value after that action.

Who saves?

- caller of service routine?
  - knows what it needs later, but may not know what gets altered by called routine
- called service routine?
  - knows what it alters, but does not know what will be needed later by calling routine
Example

LEA R3, Binary
LD R6, ASCII ; char->digit template
LD R7, COUNT ; initialize to 10

AGAIN
TRAP x23 ; Get char
ADD R0, R0, R6 ; convert to number
STR R0, R3, #0 ; store number
ADD R3, R3, #1 ; incr pointer
ADD R7, R7, -1 ; decr counter
BRp AGAIN ; more?
BRnzp NEXT

ASCII .FILL xFFD0
COUNT .FILL #10
Binary .BLKW #10

What's wrong with this routine?
What happens to R7?
Saving and Restoring Registers

Called routine -- “callee-save”

• Before start, save any registers that will be altered (unless altered value is desired by calling program!)
• Before return, restore those same registers

Calling routine -- “caller-save”

• Save registers destroyed by own instructions or by called routines (if known), if values needed later
  ➢ save R7 before TRAP
  ➢ save R0 before TRAP x23 (input character)
• Or avoid using those registers altogether

Values are saved by storing them in memory.
Summary

Chapter 8: Input/output
- Behavior and data rate of I/O device
- Asynchronous vs. synchronous
- Polled vs. interrupt-driven
- Programmed vs. memory-mapped
- Control registers, data registers

Chapter 9: Traps and System Calls
- Hide details of I/O device interaction
- TRAP/RET instructions
- Caller- vs callee-saved registers