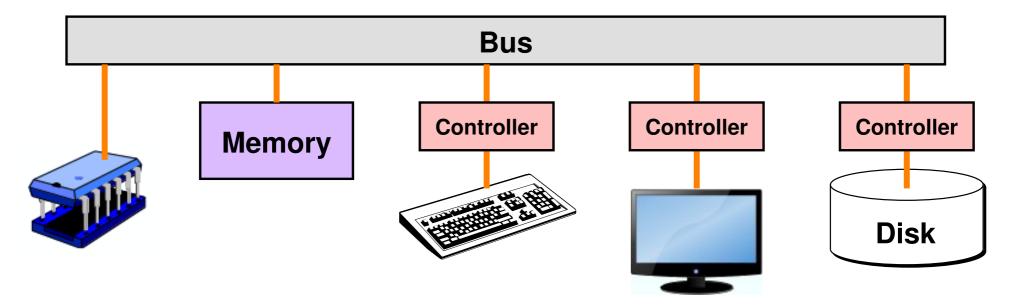


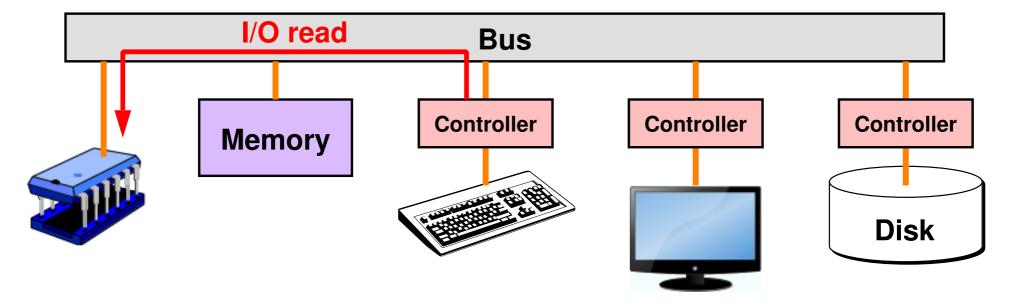
- memory-mapped I/O
  - all controllers listen on the bus to determine if a request is for itself or not
  - I/O controllers "process" the bus request
    - and respond to relatively few addresses
    - if no one responds, you get a "bus error"
  - memory is not really a "device"



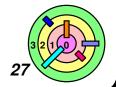


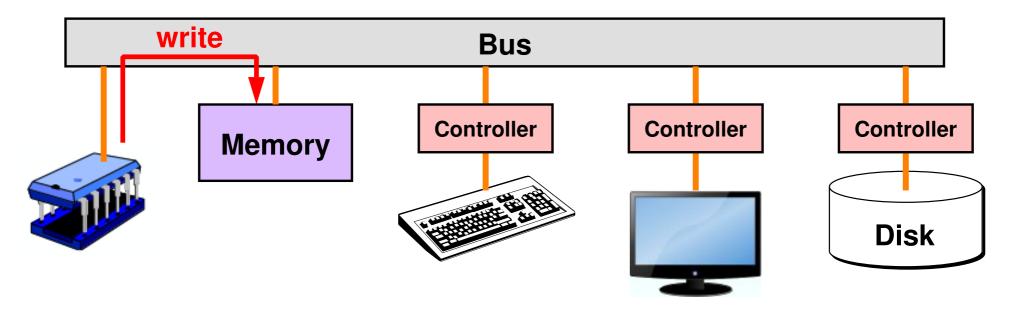
- memory-mapped I/O
- two categories of devices
  - PIO (programmed I/O)
    - perform I/O operations by reading or writing data in the controller registers one byte or word at a time over the bus





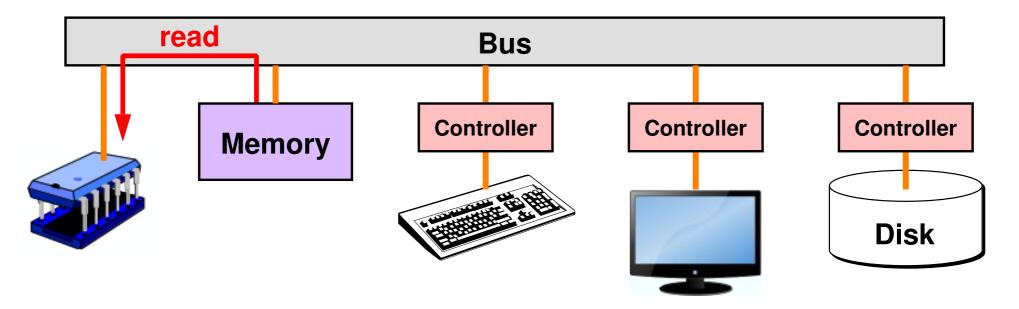
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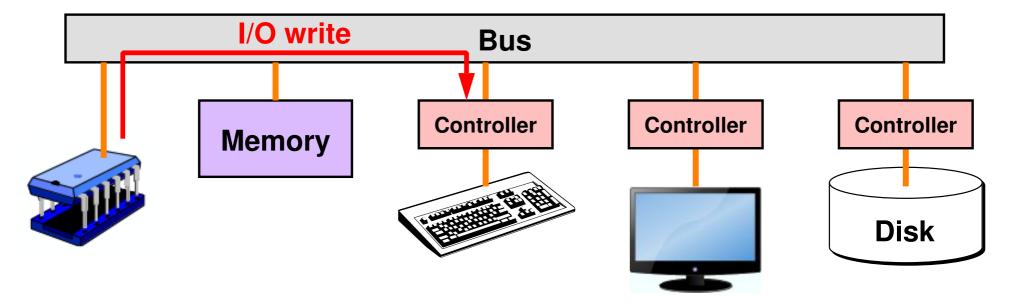
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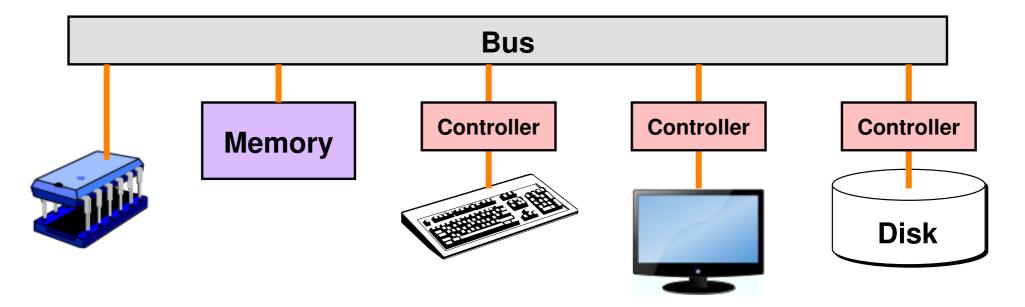
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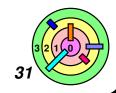


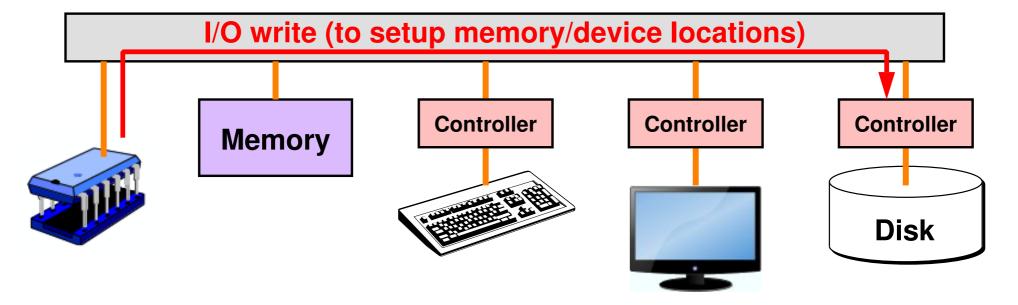
- memory-mapped I/O
- two categories of devices
  - PIO (programmed I/O)
    - perform I/O operations by reading or writing data in the controller registers one byte or word at a time over the bus





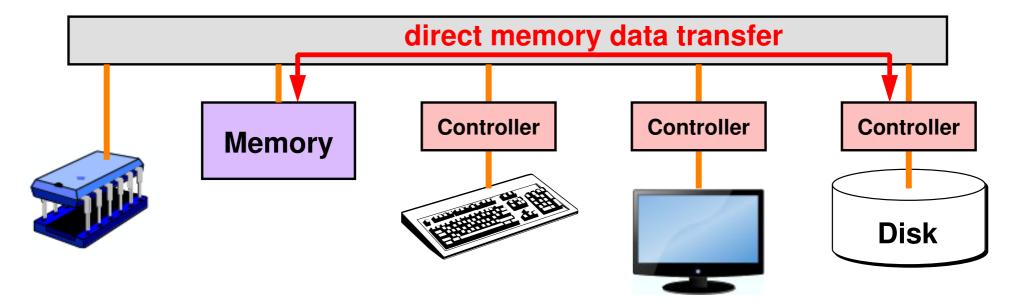
- memory-mapped I/O
- two categories of devices
  - PIO (programmed I/O)
  - DMA (direct memory access)
    - the controller performs the I/O itself
    - the processor writes to the controller to tell it where to transfer the results to
    - the controller takes over and transfers data between itself and primary memory



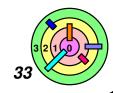


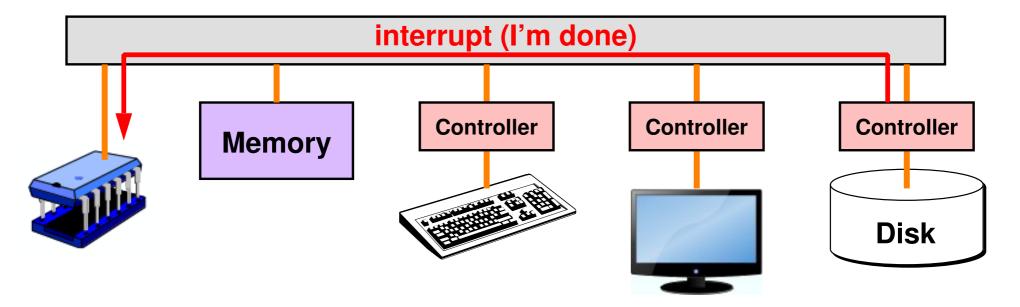
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# **PIO Registers**



This is the abstraction of a PIO device

- a "register" is just a memory-mapped I/O address on the bus

GoR	GoW	IER	IEW			Control register (1 byte)
RdyR	RdyW					Status register (1 byte)
						Read register (1 byte)
						Write register (1 byte)

Legend: GoR Go read (start a read operation)

GoW Go write (start a write operation)

IER Enable read-completion interrupts

**IEW** Enable write-completion interrupts

RdyR Ready to read

**RdyW** Ready to write



# Programmed I/O

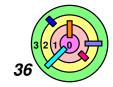


**E.g.: Terminal controller** 



**Procedure (write)** 

- write a byte into the write register
- set the GoW bit (and optionally the IEW bit if you'd like to be notified via an interrupt) in the control register
- poll and wait for RdyW bit (in status register) to be set (if interrupts have been enabled, an interrupt occurs when this happens)

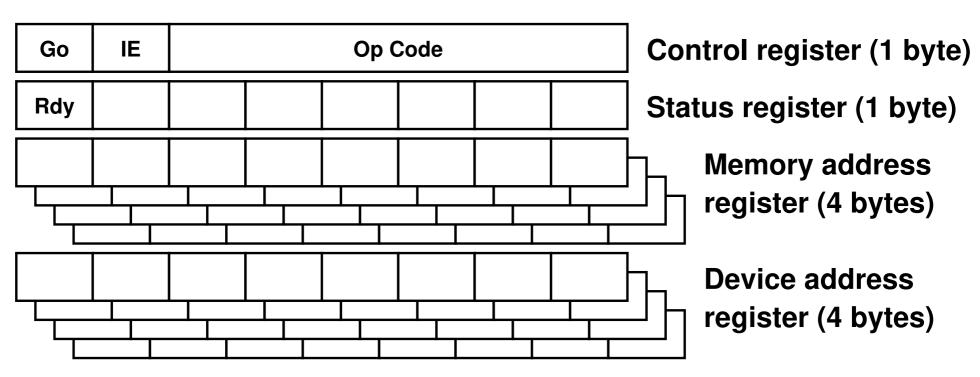


# **DMA Registers**



This is the abstraction of a DMA device

- a "register" is just a memory-mapped I/O address on the bus



Legend: Go Start an operation

Op Code Operation code (identifies the operation)

IE Enable interrupts

**Rdy** Controller is ready



# **Direct Memory Access**

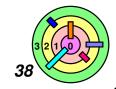


E.g.: Disk controller



### **Procedure**

- set the disk address in the device address register (only relevant for a seek request)
- set the buffer address in the memory address register
- set the op code (SEEK, READ or WRITE), the Go bit and, if desired, the IE bit in the control register
- wait for interrupt or for Rdy bit to be set



### **Device Drivers**



Who knows how to use memory-mapped I/O to talk to devices?

- not the kernel developers
- device manufacturers do
- it's desirable if kernel is device-independent
  - but how?



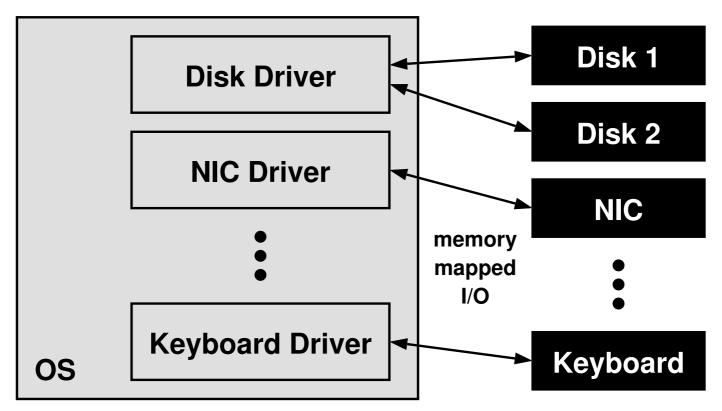
### **Device Drivers**



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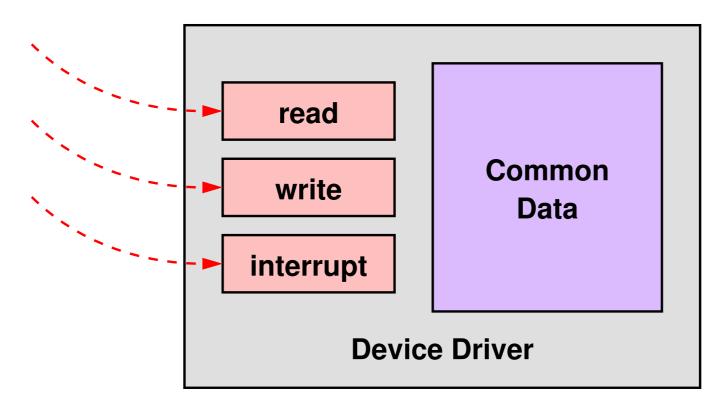
Device manufacturers package their knowledge into device drivers





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### **Device Drivers**





Device drivers provide a standard interface to the rest of the OS

- code in device drivers knows how to talk to devices (the rest of the OS really doesn't know the details)
- OS can treat I/O in a device-indepdendent manner by calling functions in the standard interface
  - "interface" = array of function pointers

# C++ Interface = Array of Function Pointers

```
class disk {
  public:
    virtual status_t read(request_t) = 0;
    virtual status_t write(request_t) = 0;
    virtual status_t interrupt() = 0;
};
```



C++ polymorphism achieved using virtual base class or interface

- each type of disk driver is a subclass of the disk class and has its own implementation of these functions
  - each disk driver looks like a generic disk to the OS
- this gets compiled into an array of function pointers (which is what C++ code gets compiled into)
  - o in reality, there are no object classes and no polymorphism
    - the CPU doesn't even know about data structures
    - the CPU only knows about memory addresses and how to execute machine instructions



# C Impmlementation of C++ Polymorphism

```
(void *)wd123_disk_ops[] = {
struct disk {
  void **disk_ops;
                            read_handler_t wd123_read;
                            write_handler_t wd123_write;
                            intr_handler_t wd123_intr;
                          (void *) sg76_disk_ops[] = {
                            read_handler_t sg76_read;
                            write_handler_t sg76_write;
                            intr_handler_t sg76_intr;
struct disk *d = ...;
d->disk_ops = wd123_disk_ops; /* known as "binding" */
/* or d->disk_ops = sg76_disk_ops; */
  to read from any disk, call the first function indirectly
(*((read_handler_t)d->disk_ops[0]))(...);
```

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### ... in C++

```
class disk {
  public:
    virtual status_t read(request_t) = 0;
    virtual status_t write(request_t) = 0;
    virtual status_t interrupt() = 0;
};
```



### This is a synchronous interface

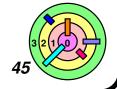
- a user thread would call read/write() system call
- these functions are called in the kernel which starts the device
- the device driver's interrupt method is called in the interrupt context
  - if I/O is completed, the thread is unblocked and return from the read/write() system call



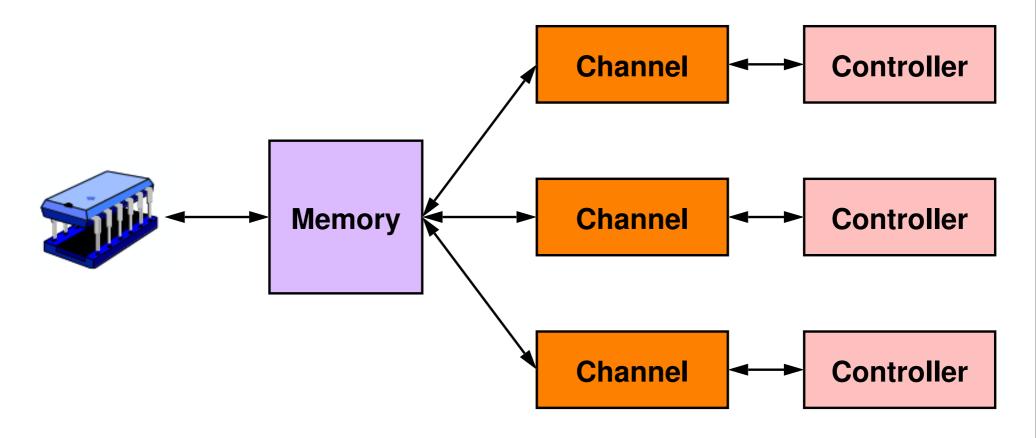
### **A Bit More Realistic**

```
class disk {
  public:
    virtual handle_t start_read(request_t) = 0;
    virtual handle_t start_write(request_t) = 0;
    virtual status_t wait(handle_t) = 0;
    virtual status_t interrupt() = 0;
};
```

- Even in Sixth-Edition Unix, the internal driver interface is often asynchronous
  - start\_read/start\_write() returns a handle identifying the operation that has started
  - a thread can call the wait () method to synchronously wait for I/O completion



## I/O Processors: Channels



- when I/O costs dominate computation costs
  - use I/O processors (a.k.a. channels) to handle much of the I/O work
  - important in large data-processing applications
- can even download program into a channel processor



# 3.3 Dynamic Storage Allocation



Buddy System

Slab Allocation



# **Dynamic Storage Allocation**



Where in the kernel do you need to do memory allocation?

- stack space
- malloc()
- fork()
- various OS data structures
  - process control block
  - thread control block
  - mutex (it's a queue)
- etc.



### **Memory allocator**

- computer science people like to personify things
  - just like we say that a variable "lives" in an address space
- a "memory allocator" is simply a collection of functions
  - it's not a thread
  - it's not a process



# **Dynamic Storage Allocation**



Goal: allow dynamic creation and destruction of data structures

- use "memory allocator" to manage a large block of memory (i.e., a collection of contiguous memory addresses)
  - contract with application:
    - application will not touch anything owned by the memory allocator (memory allocator can do anything with them)
    - application will only touch "allocated memory blocks" (memory allocator promises not to touch these)
  - very bad things can happen if contract is violated
    - assuming that there are no bugs in a memory allocator

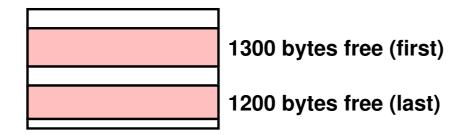
### **Concerns:**

- efficient use of storage
- efficient use of processor time



first-fit vs. best-fit allocation

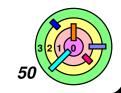


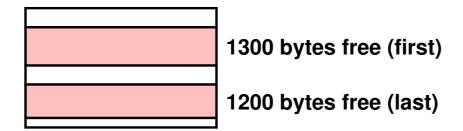


Allocate 1000 bytes: First Fit

**Best Fit** 

Allocate 1100 bytes:

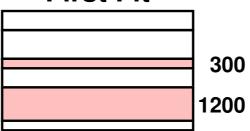




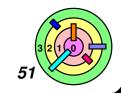
Allocate 1000 bytes:

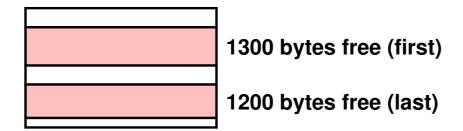
**First Fit** 

**Best Fit** 



Allocate 1100 bytes:





Allocate 1000 bytes:

**First Fit** 

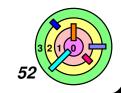
**Best Fit** 

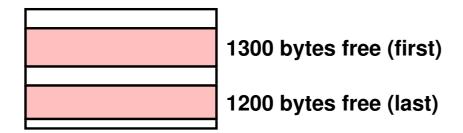
Allocate 1100 bytes:

300

300

1200





Allocate 1000 bytes: First Fit Best Fit

Allocate 1100 bytes:

Allocate 250 bytes:

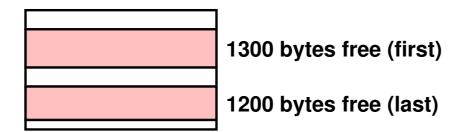


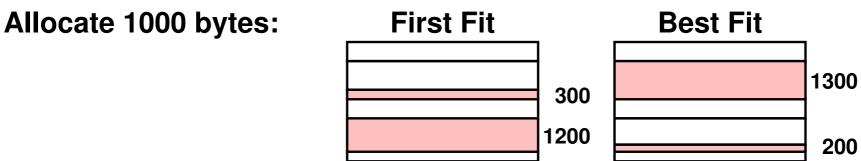
300

1200



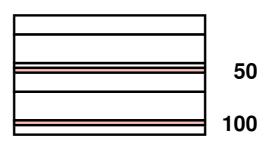




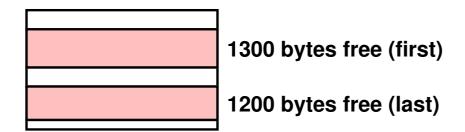


Allocate 1100 bytes:

300









Allocate 250 bytes:



100

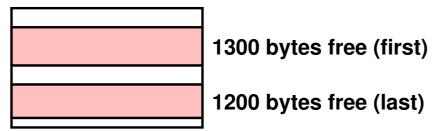


200

200

Stuck!

# **Allocation Example**





**50** 

100

# **Fragmentation**



First-fit vs. best-fit allocation

- studies have shown that first-fit works better
- best-fit tends to leave behind a large number of regions of memory that are too small to be useful
  - best-fit tends to create smallest left-over blocks!
- this is the general problem of fragmentation
  - internal fragmentation: unusable memory is contained within an allocated region (e.g., buddy system)
  - external fragmentation: unusable memory is separated into small blocks and is interspersed by allocated memory (e.g., best-fit)

