Page Table

Constraints	Page Table			
32 bit addresses				
4KB pages	<u>v</u>	a	pro	physPGaddr
1 wd Page Table Entries	0	0	urw	0x00ab5
Q1: How big is the program's	0	0	urw	0x29102
data space, probably?	0	0	urw	0x42fc3
Q2: What physical frame holds virtual program page 1?	0	0	ur	0x00ab6
Pg Table Base Addr:	0	0	ur	0x2111d

Be A TLB

Q3: The Virtual Address 000013a4 is what physical		Page Table			
address?		v	d	pro	physPGaddr
Pg Num Pg Offs	set	0	0	urw	0x00ab5
00001 <mark>3a4</mark> V	irtual Addr	0	0	urw	0x29102
00ab6 <mark>3a4</mark> P	hys Addr	0	0	117747	0x42fc3
TLB for translation		U	U	ur w	UNIZICJ
1:10 ur 00ab6		1	0	ur	0x00ab6
Pg Table Ba	ase Addr:	1	0	ur	0x2111d

Exercises

Give Physical Addresses for these virtual addresses:	Page Table			
Q4: 0x 00002000	v d pro physPGaddr			
Q5: 0x 00000abc	0 0 urw 0x00ab5			
<mark>Q6</mark> : 0x 00004444	0 0 urw 0x29102			
Q7: 0x 00004fff	0 0 urw 0x42fc3			
Q8: 0x 00003bat				
	1 0 ur 0x00ab6			

Pg Table Base Addr: 1 0 ur 0x2111d

Handling a TLB Miss

Hardware usually handles a TLB miss. How?

- Using the V page number, multiply by 4 (e.g. shift 2)
- Add result to page table base address stored in an OS-accessible register to get physical addr of PTE
- In parallel, pick TLB entry to evict, writing back to page table, if necessary
 - How to decide if write back is needed?
 - Eviction Policy
 - Finding the PTE to write back into
- In parallel check that V page number is < the number of mapped pages, i.e. less than pg tab length
- If valid PTE load into empty TLB slot, and restart

Example

- Page Table Base Address:
 0x 00001444 Len: 5
- Handling a miss on V addr 0x 00001000
 - Say TLB₄₂ is not valid; pick it
 - 00001 x 4 == 00004
 - 01444 + 00004 == 01448
 - 00001 < 5 == TRUE
 - $\text{TLB}_{42} = 1 \text{ 0 ur 00ab6}$

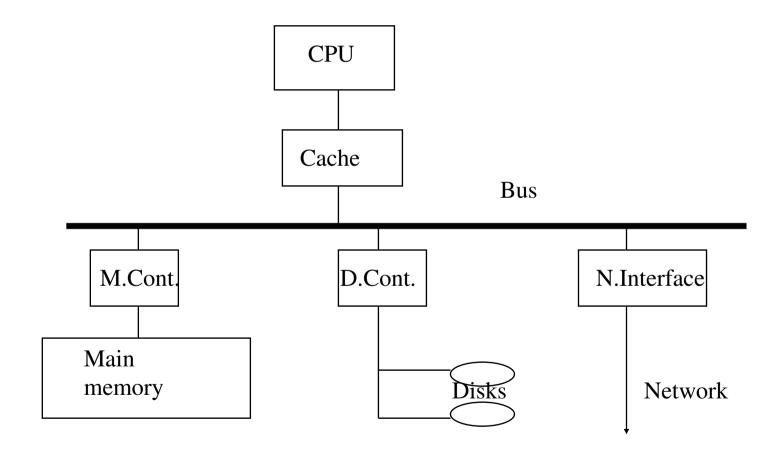
Page Table

- v d pro physPGaddr
- 0 0 urw 0x00ab5
- 0 0 urw 0x29102
- 1 0 urw 0x42fc3
- 1 0 ur 0x00ab6
- 00001444: 1 0 ur 0x2111d

Input-output

- I/O is very much architecture/system dependent
- I/O requires cooperation between
 - processor that issues I/O command (read, write etc.)
 - buses that provide the interconnection between processor, memory and I/O devices
 - I/O controllers that handle the specifics of control of each device and interfacing
 - devices that store data or signal events

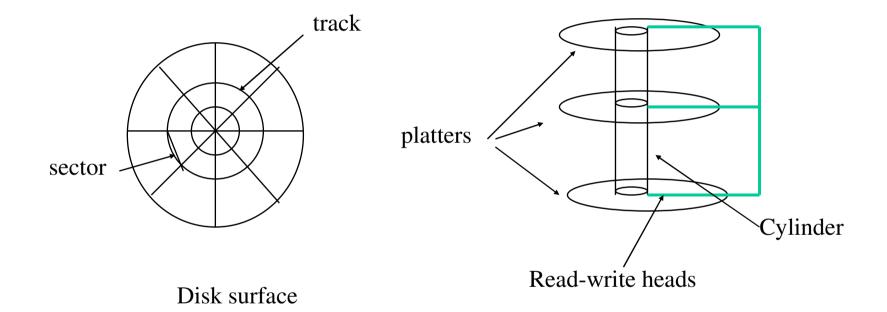
Basic (simplified) I/O architecture



Types of I/O devices

- Input devices
 - keyboard, mouse
- Output devices
 - screen, line printer
- Devices for both input and output
 - disks, network interfaces

An important I/O device: the disk



Secondary memory (disks)

- Physical characteristics
 - Platters (1 to 20) with diameters from 1.3 to 8 inches (recording on both sides)
 - Tracks (1,000 to 10,000)
 - Cylinders (all the tracks in the same position in the platters)
 - Sectors (e.g., 128-256 sectors/track with gaps and info related to sectors between them; typical sector 512 bytes)
 - Current trend: constant bit density, i.e., more info (sectors) on outer tracks

Example: IBM Ultrastar 146Z10

- Disk for server
 - 146 GB
 - 8 MB cache
 - 10,000 RPM
 - 3 ms average latency
 - Up to 6 platters; Up to 12 heads
 - Average seek latency 4.7 ms
 - Sustained transfer rate 33-66 MB/s

Disk access time

- Arm(s) with a reading/writing head
- Four components in an access:
 - Seek time (to move the arm on the right cylinder). From 0 (if arm already positioned) to a maximum of 15-20 ms. Not a linear function. Smaller disks have smaller seek times.
 Ultrastar example: Average seek time = 4.7 ms;

 My guess: track to track 0.5 ms; longest (inner most track to outer most track) 8 ms

 Rotation time (on the average 1/2 rotation). At 3600 RPM, 8.3 ms. Current disks are 3600 (rarely now) or 5400 or 7200 or 10,000 (e.g., the Ultrastar, hence average is 3 ms) or even 15000 RPM

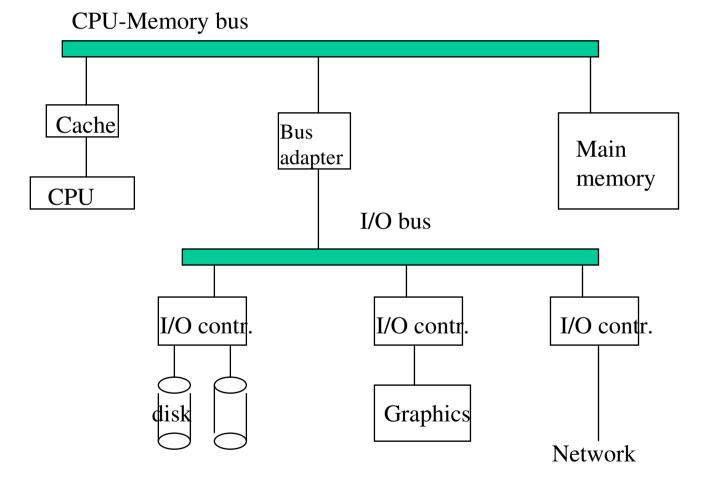
Disk access time (ct'd)

- Transfer time depends on rotation time, amount to transfer (minimal size a sector), recording density, disk/memory connection. Today, transfer time occurs at 10 to 100 MB/second
- Disk controller time. Overhead to perform an access (of the order of 1 ms)
- But ... many disk controllers have a cache that contains recently accessed sectors. If the I/O requests hits in the cache, the only components of access time are disk controller time and transfer time (which is then of the order of 40-100 MB/sec). Cache is also used to prefetch on read.

Improvements in disks

- Capacity (via density). Same growth rate as DRAMs
- Price decrease has followed (today \$2-\$10/GB?)
- Access times have decreased but not enormously
 - Higher density -> smaller drives -> smaller seek time
 - RPM has increased 3600 upto 15,000
 - Transfer time has improved
- CPU speed DRAM access is one "memory wall"
- DRAM access time Disk access time is a "memory gap"
 - Technologies to fill the gap have not entirely succeeded (currently the most promising is more DRAM backed up by batteries and Flash memory to supercede disk cache)

Connecting CPU, Memory and I/O



Buses

- Simplest interconnect
 - Low cost: set of shared wires
 - Easy to add devices (although variety of devices might make the design more complex or less efficient -- longer bus and more electrical load; hence the distinction between I/O buses and CPU/memory buses)
 - But bus is a single shared resource so can get saturated (both physically because of electrical load, and performancewise because of contention to access it)
- Key parameters:
 - Width (number of lines:data, addresses, control)
 - Speed (limited by length and electrical load)

Memory and I/O buses

- CPU/memory bus: tailored to the particular CPU
 - Fast (separate address and data lines; of course separate control lines)
 - Often short and hence synchronous (governed by a clock)
 - Wide (64-128 and even 256 bits)
 - Expensive
- I/O bus: follows some standard so many types of devices can be hooked on to it
 - Asynchronous (hand-shaking protocol)
 - Narrower

Bus transactions

- Consists of arbitration and commands
 - Arbitration: who is getting control of the bus
 - Commands: type of transaction (read, write, ack, etc...)
- Read, Write, Atomic Read-Modify-Write (atomic swap)
 - Read: send address and data is returned
 - Write: send address and data
 - Read-Modify-write : keep bus during the whole transaction.
 Used for synchronization between processes

Bus arbitration

- Arbitration: who gets the bus if several requests occur at the same time
 - Only one master (processor): centralized arbitration
 - Multiple masters (most common case): centralized arbitration (FIFO, daisy-chain, round-robin, combination of those) vs.
 decentralized arbitration (each device knows its own priority)
- Communication protocol between master and slave
 - Synchronous (for short buses no clock skew i.e. CPU/memory)
 - Asynchronous (hand-shaking finite-state machine; easier to accommodate many devices)