Announcements

- Lab 4 is out
 - Putting the pipeline to work!
- Homework 4 will be out soon
 - No, we did not forget about it \odot
- Pick up your midterm

Networks and Buses



- There are two main ingredients to I/O systems.
 - Devices like hard drives that we discussed last time.
 - Buses/Networks connect devices to each other and the processor.
 - Back of the envelope performance metrics
 - Bus organization and Performance
 - Serial vs. Parallel

Networks (e.g., the Internet)

- When communicating over a network, typically your communication is broken into a collection of "packets"
 - Each packet carries (1kB) of data
 - Packets are reassembled into the original message at the destination.

Network (and I/O) Performance

There are two fundamental performance metrics for I/O systems:

- Bandwidth: the amount of data that can be transferred in unit time (units = bytes/time)
 - This is a primary concern for applications which transfer large amounts of data in big blocks.
 - If you download large files, bandwidth will be the limiting factor.
- Latency: the time taken for the smallest transfer (units = time)
 - This is a primary concern for programs that do many small dependent transfers.
 - It takes time for bits to travel across states, countries and oceans!

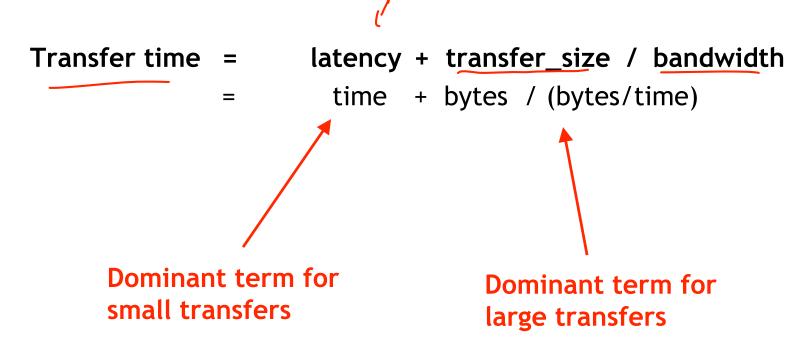
```
>ping www.washington.edu
Approximate round trip times in milli-seconds:
    Minimum = 104ms, Maximum = 115ms, Average = 112ms

>ping www.stanford.edu
Approximate round trip times in milli-seconds:
    Minimum = 160ms, Maximum = 170ms, Average = 164ms

>ping nus.edu.sg
Approximate round trip times in milli-seconds:
    Minimum = 410ms, Maximum = 437ms, Average = 420ms
```

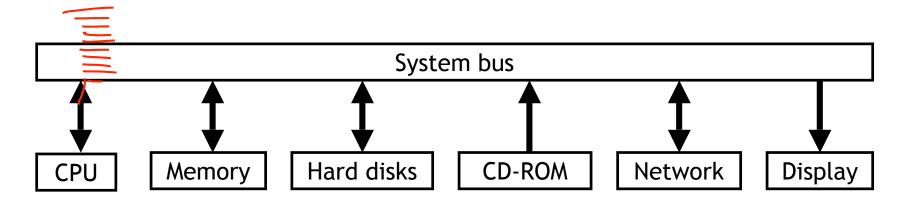
Back of the Envelope Calculation

 Because the transmission of network packets can be pipelined, the time for a transfer can be estimated as:



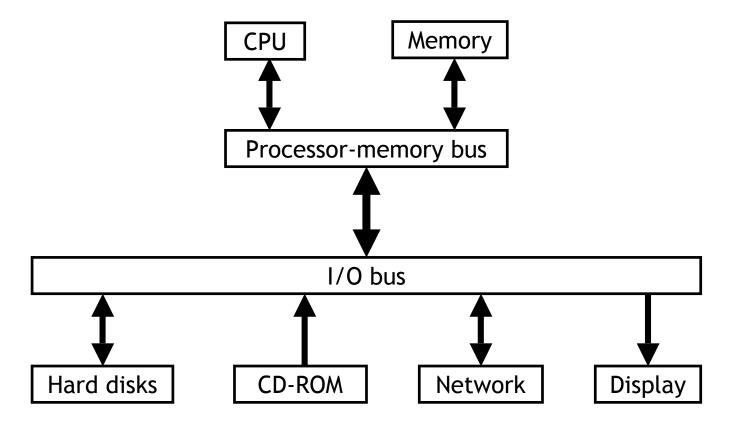
Computer buses

- Every computer has several small "networks" inside, called buses, to connect processors, memory, and I/O devices.
- The simplest kind of bus is linear, as shown below.
 - All devices share the same bus.
 - Only one device at a time may transfer data on the bus.
- Simple is not always good!
 - With many devices, there might be a lot of contention.
 - The distance from one end of the bus to the other may also be relatively long, increasing latencies.



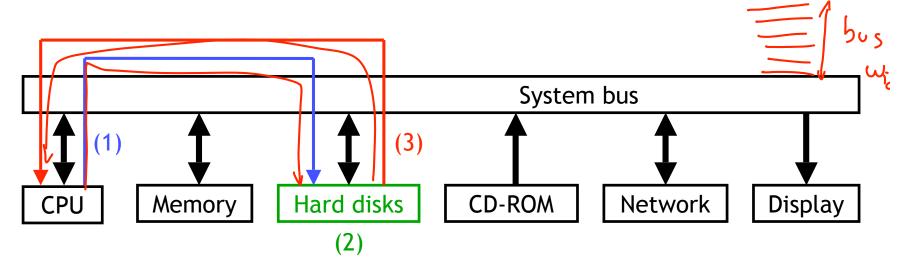
Hierarchical buses

- We could <u>split the bus into different segments</u>.
 - Since the CPU and memory need to communicate so often, a shorter and faster processor-memory bus can be dedicated to them.
 - A separate I/O bus would connect the slower devices to each other, and eventually to the processor.



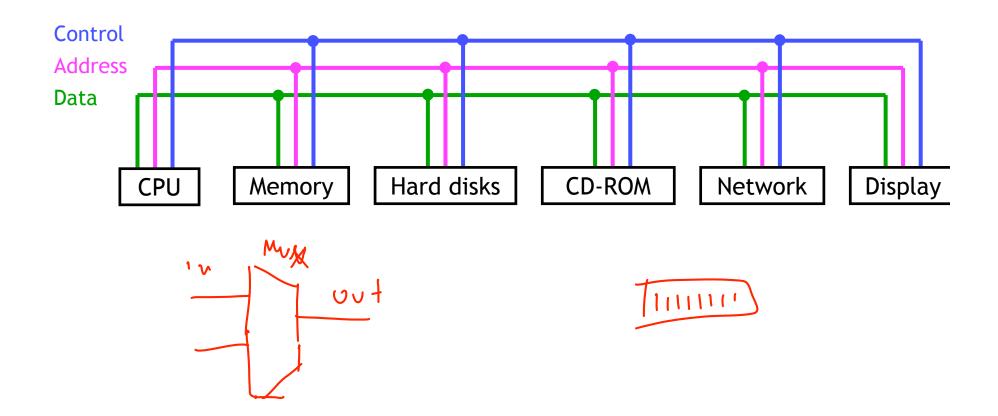
Basic bus protocols

- Although physically, our computer may have a hierarchy of buses (for performance), logically it behaves like a single bus
- A few lectures ago we discussed how I/O reads and writes can be programmed like loads and stores, using addresses.
- Two devices might interact as follows.
 - 1. An initiator sends an address and data over the bus to a target.
 - 2. The target processes the request by "reading" or "writing" data.
 - 3. The target sends a reply over the bus back to the initiator.
- The bus width limits the number of bits transferred per cycle.



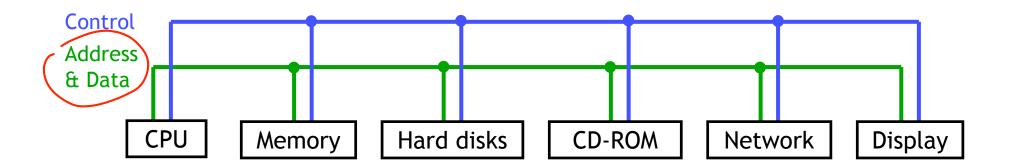
What is the bus anyway?

- A bus is just a bunch of wires which transmits three kinds of information.
 - Control signals specify commands like "read" or "write."
 - The location on the device to read or write is the <u>address</u>.
 - Finally, there is also the actual data being transferred.
- Some buses include separate control, address and data lines, so all of thi information can be sent in one clock cycle.



Multiplexed bus lines

- Unfortunately, this could lead to many wires and wires cost money.
 - Many buses transfer 32 to 64 bits of data at a time.
 - Addresses are usually at least 32-bits long.
- Another common approach is to multiplex some lines.
 - For example, we can use the same lines to send both the <u>address</u> and the data, one after the other.
 - The drawback is that now it takes two cycles to transmit both pieces of information.



Example bus problems

- I/O problems always start with some assumptions about a system.
 - A CPU and memory share a 32-bit bus running at 100MHz. 600
 - The memory needs 50ns to access a <u>64</u>-bit value from one address.
- Then, questions generally ask about the latency or throughput.
 - How long does it take to read one address of memory?
 - How many random addresses can be read per second?
- You need to find the total time for a single transaction.
 - 1. It takes one cycle to send a 32-bit address to the memory.
 - 2. The memory needs 50ns, or 5 cycles, to read a 64-bit value. 5
 - 3. It takes two cycles to send 64 bits over a 32-bit wide bus. ?
- Then you can calculate latencies and throughputs.
 - The time to read from one address is eight cycles or 80ns.
 - You can do 12.5 million reads per second, for an effective bandwidth of $(12.5 \times 10^6 \text{ reads/second}) \times (8 \text{ bytes/read}) = 100 \text{MB/s}$.

buff sher

Example Bus Problems, cont.

- 2) Assume the following system:
 - -> A CPU and memory share a 32-bit bus running at 100MHz. 1045
 - The memory needs 50ns to access a 64-bit value from one address.

For this system, a single read can be performed in eight cycles or 80ns for a effective bandwidth of $(12.5 \times 10^6 \text{ reads/second}) \times (8 \text{ bytes/read}) = 100MB/s.$

A) If the memory was widened, such that 128-bit values could be read in 50ns, what is the new effective bandwidth?

50ns, what is the new effective bandwidth? $1 + 5 + 4 = 10_{\text{erg}} \Rightarrow \text{have}$

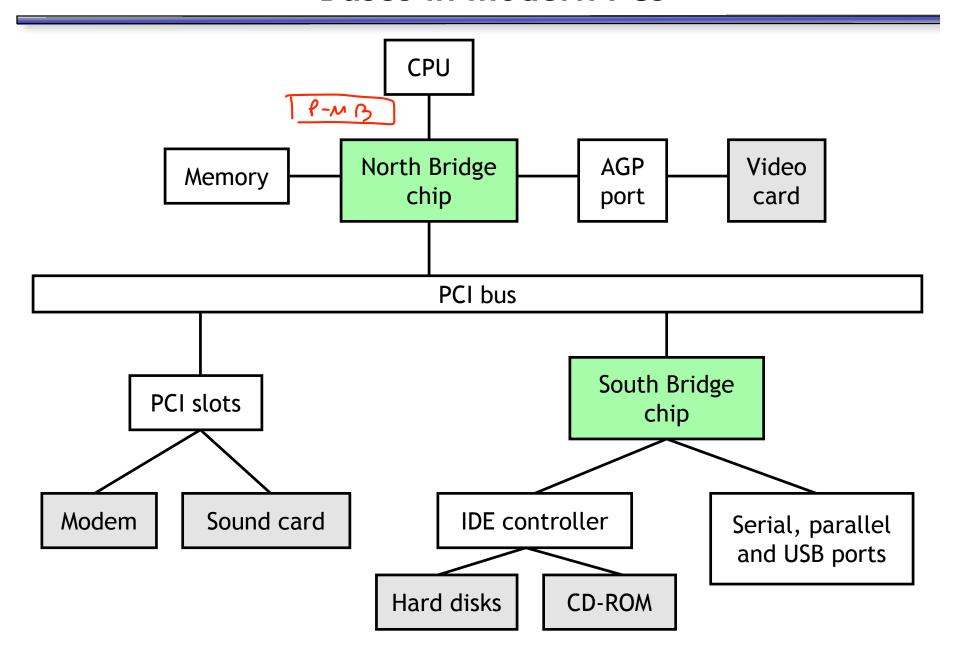
- B) What is the bus utilization (fraction of cycles the bus is used) to achieve the above bandwidth? $\frac{1+4}{10} = \frac{1}{2} = 50\%$
- C) If utilization were 100% (achievable by adding additional memories), wha effective bandwidth would be achieved?

400 M B/S

Synchronous and asynchronous buses

- A synchronous bus operates with a central clock signal.
 - Bus transactions can be handled easily with finite state machines.
 - However, the clock rate and bus length are inversely proportional;
 faster clocks mean less time for data to travel. This is one reason why
 PCs never have more than about five expansion slots.
 - All devices on the bus must run at the same speed, even if they are capable of going faster.
- An asynchronous bus does not rely on clock signals.
 - Bus transactions rely on complicated handshaking protocols so each device can determine when other ones are available or ready.
 - On the other hand, the bus can be longer and individual devices can operate at different speeds.
 - Many external buses like USB and Firewire are asynchronous.

Buses in modern PCs

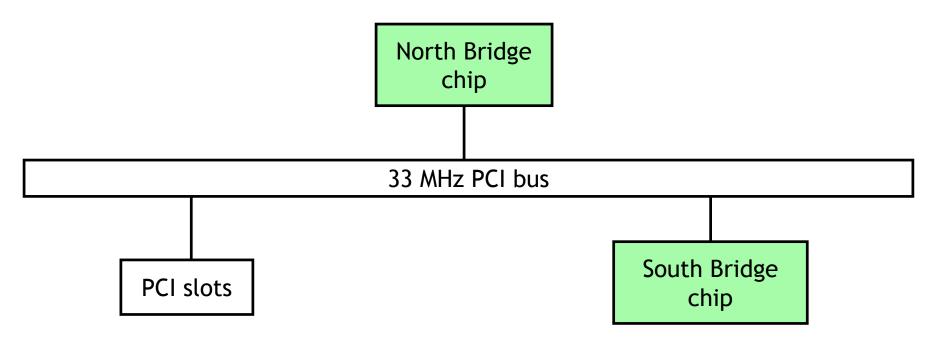


PCI

- Peripheral Component Interconnect is a synchronous 32-bit bus running a 33MHz, although it can be extended to 64 bits and 66MHz.
- The maximum bandwidth is about 132 MB/s.

33 million transfers/second x 4 bytes/transfer = 132MB/s

- Cards in the motherboard PCI slots plug directly into the PCI bus.
- Devices made for the older and slower ISA bus standard are connected via a "south bridge" controller chip, in a hierarchical manner.

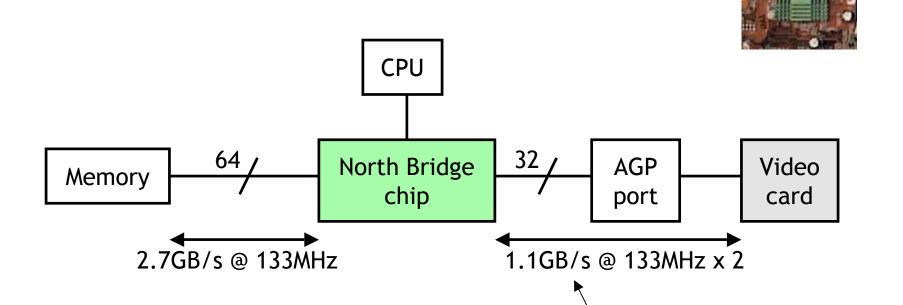


Frequencies

- CPUs actually operate at two frequencies.
 - The internal frequency is the clock rate inside the CPU, which is what we've been talking about so far.
 - The external frequency is the speed of the processor bus, which limit how fast the CPU can transfer data.
- The internal frequency is usually a multiple of the external bus speed.
 - A 2.167 GHz Athlon XP sits on a 166 MHz bus (166 x 13).
 - A 2.66 GHz Pentium 4 might use a 133 MHz bus (133 x 20).
 - You may have seen the Pentium 4's bus speed quoted at 533MHz. This is because the Pentium 4's bus is "quad-pumped", so that it transfers 4 dat items every clock cycle.
- Processor and Memory data rates far exceed PCI's capabilities:
 - With an 8-byte wide "533 MHz" bus, the Pentium 4 achieves 4.3GB/s
 - A bank of 166MHz Double Data Rate (DDR-333) Memory achieves
 2.7GB/s

The North Bridge

- To achieve the necessary bandwidths, a "frontside bus" is often dedicated to the CPU and main memory.
 - "bus" is actually a bit of a misnomer as, in most systems, the interconnect consists of point-to-point links.
 - The video card, which also need significant bandwidth, is also given a direct link to memory via the Accelerated Graphics Port (AGP).
- All this CPU-memory traffic goes through the "north bridge" controller, which can get very hot (hence the little green heatsink).



External buses

- External buses are provided to support the frequent plugging and unplugging of devices
 - As a result their designs significantly differ from internal buses
- Two modern external buses, <u>Universal Serial Bus (USB)</u> and <u>FireWire</u>, hav the following (desirable) characteristics:
 - Plug-and-play standards allow devices to be configured with software, instead of flipping switches or setting jumpers.
 - Hot plugging means that you don't have to turn off a machine to add or remove a peripheral.
 - The cable transmits power! No more power cables or extension cords.
 - Serial links are used, so the cable and connectors are small.





Serial/Parallel

- Why are modern external buses serial rather than parallel?
- Generally, one would think that having more wires would increase bandwidth and reduce latency, right?
 - Yes, but only if they can be clocked at comparable frequencies.
- Two physical issues allow serial links to be clocked significantly faster:
 - On parallel interconnects, interference between the signal wires becomes a serious issue.
 - Skew is also a problem; all of the bits in a parallel transfer could arrive at slightly different times.
- Serial links are being increasingly considered for internal buses:
 - Serial ATA is a new standard for hard drive interconnects
 - PCI-Express (aka 3GI/O) is a PCI bus replacement that uses serial links