

Lectures 24-25

- More I/O

I/O is slow!

- How fast can a typical I/O device supply data to a computer?
 - A fast typist can enter **9-10 characters a second** on a keyboard.
 - Common local-area network (LAN) speeds go up to 100 Mbit/s, which is about **12.5MB/s**.
 - Today's hard disks provide a lot of storage and transfer speeds around **40-60MB** per second.
- Unfortunately, this is excruciatingly slow compared to modern processors and memory systems:
 - Modern CPUs can execute more than a **billion instructions per second**.
 - Modern memory systems can provide **2-4 GB/s** bandwidth.
- I/O performance has not increased as quickly as CPU performance, partially due to neglect and partially to physical limitations.
 - This is changing, with faster networks, better I/O buses, RAID drive arrays, and other new technologies.

I/O speeds often limit system performance

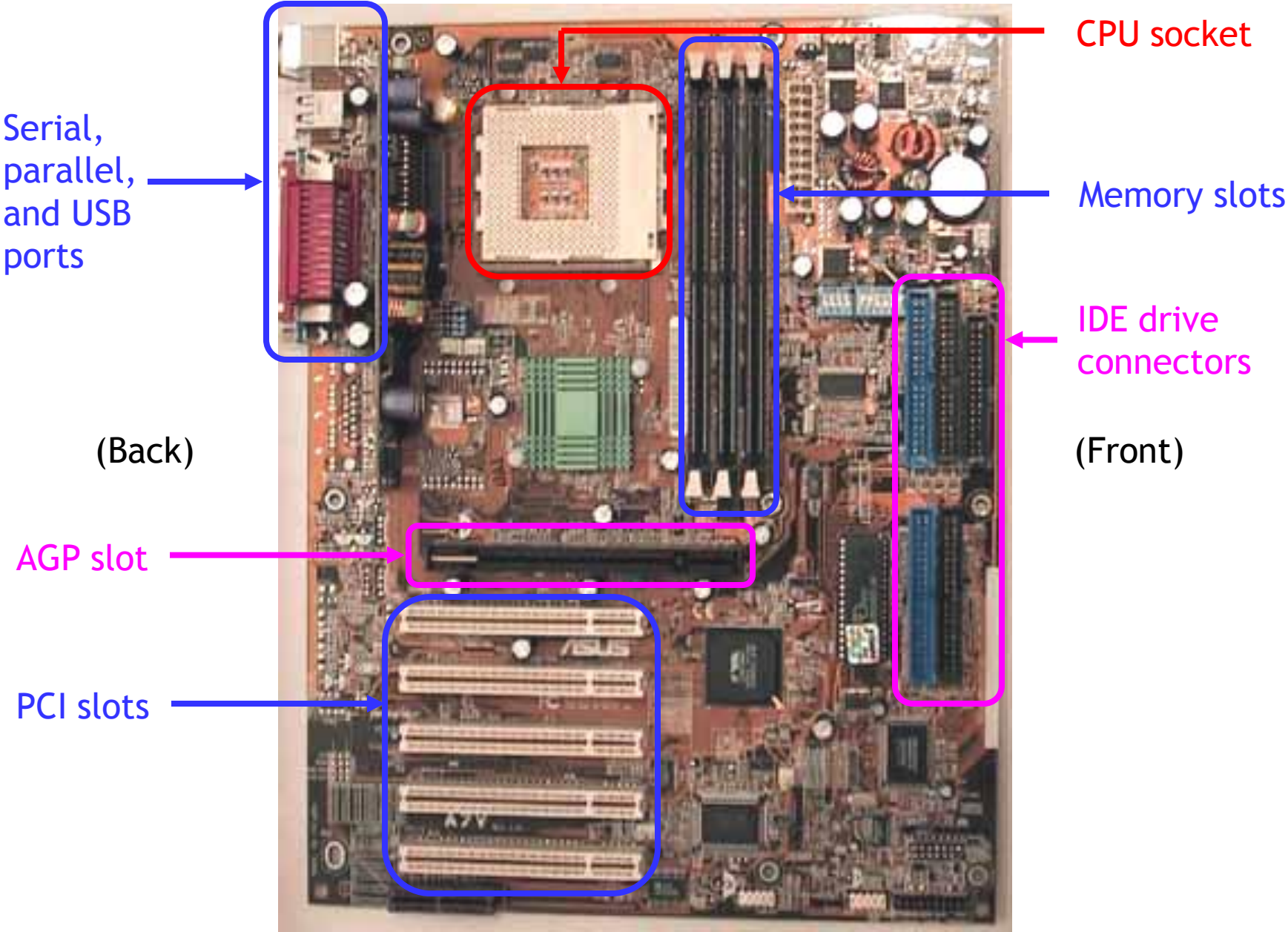
- Many computing tasks are **I/O-bound**, and the speed of the input and output devices limits the overall system performance.
- This is another instance of **Amdahl's Law**. Improved CPU performance alone has a limited effect on overall system speed.

$$\text{Execution time after improvement} = \frac{\text{Time affected by improvement}}{\text{Amount of improvement}} + \text{Time unaffected by improvement}$$

Common I/O devices

- Hard drives are almost a necessity these days, so their speed has a big impact on system performance.
 - They store all the programs, movies and assignments you crave.
 - **Virtual memory systems** let a hard disk act as a large (but slow) part of main memory.
- Networks are also ubiquitous nowadays.
 - They give you access to data from around the world.
 - Hard disks can act as a cache for network data. For example, web browsers often store local copies of recently viewed web pages.

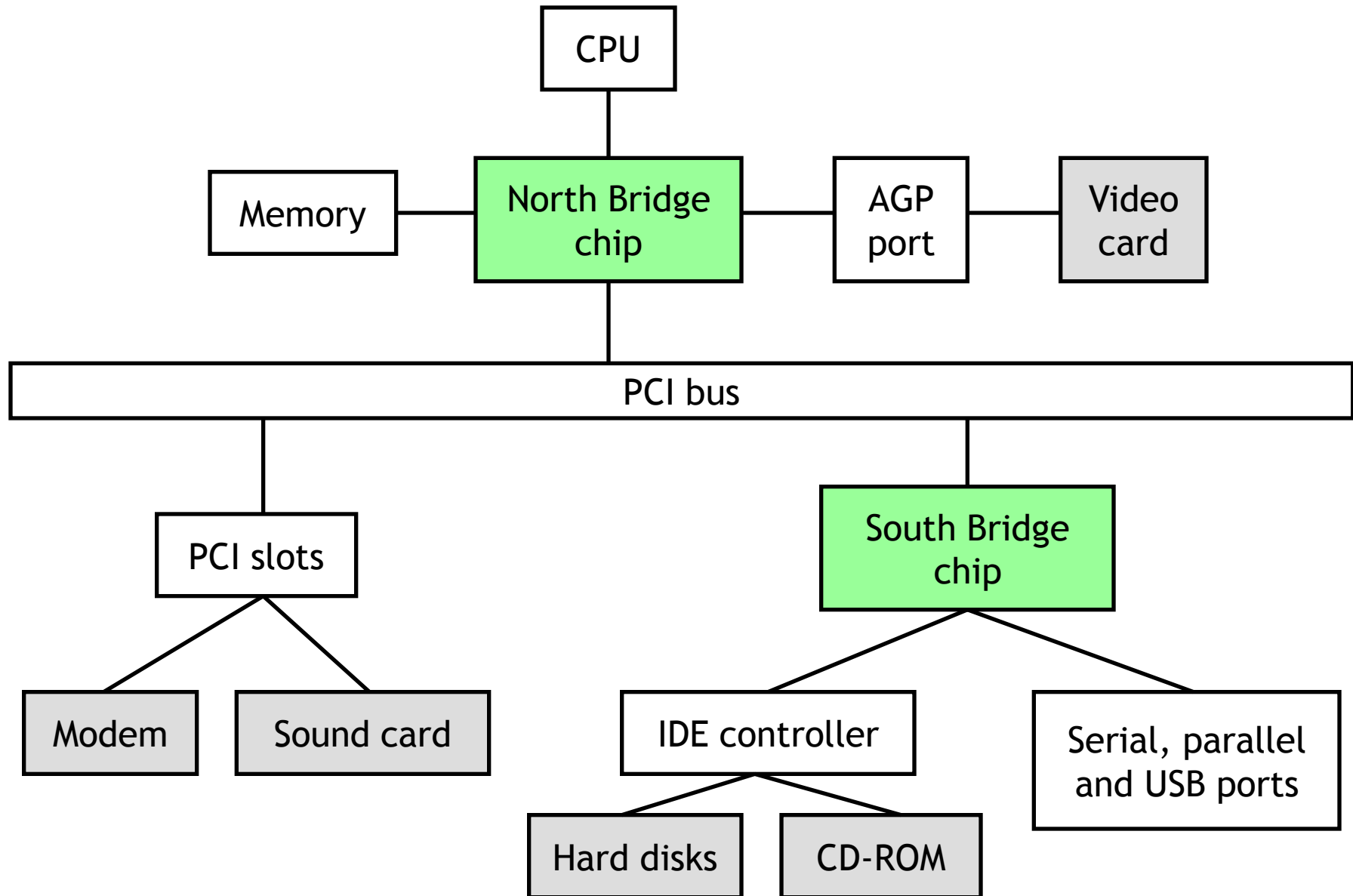
The Hardware (the motherboard)



What is all that stuff?

- Different motherboards support different CPUs, types of memories, and expansion options.
- The picture is an Asus A7V.
 - The **CPU socket** supports AMD Duron and Athlon processors.
 - There are three **DIMM slots** for standard PC100 memory. Using 512MB DIMMs, you can get up to 1.5GB of main memory.
 - The **AGP slot** is for video cards, which generate and send images from the PC to a monitor.
 - **IDE ports** connect internal storage devices like hard drives, CD-ROMs, and Zip drives (anyone remember those?).
 - **PCI slots** hold other internal devices such as network and sound cards and modems.
 - **Serial, parallel and USB ports** are used to attach external devices such as scanners and printers.

How is it all connected?



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:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Transfer time} &= \text{latency} &+ \text{transfer_size} / \text{bandwidth} \\ &= \text{time} &+ \text{bytes} / (\text{bytes/time}) \end{aligned}$$

**Dominant term for
small transfers**

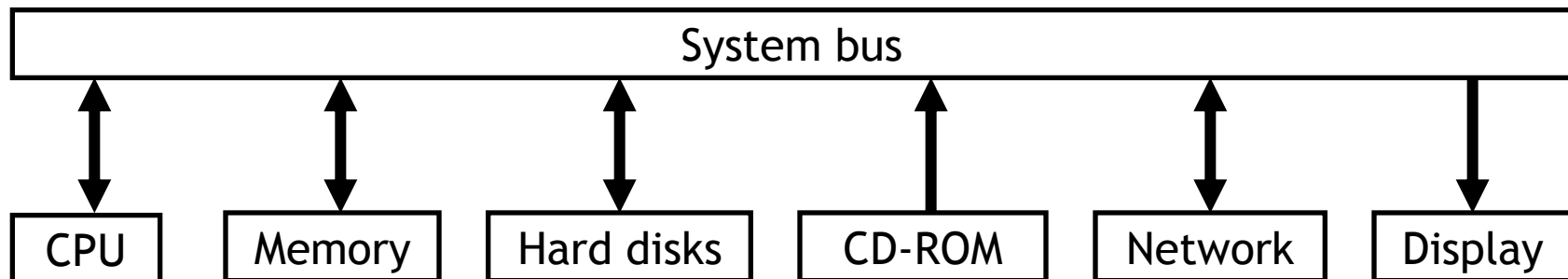


**Dominant term for
large transfers**



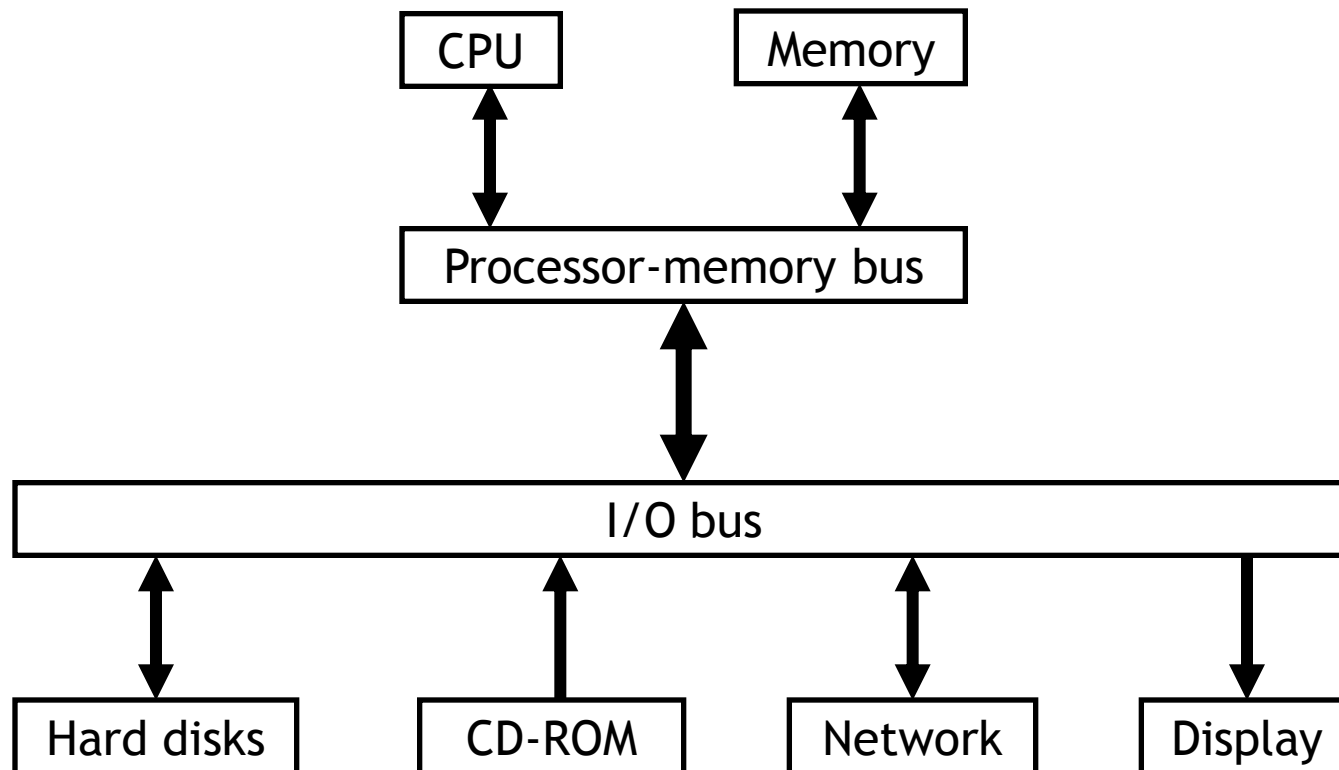
Computer buses

- 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.



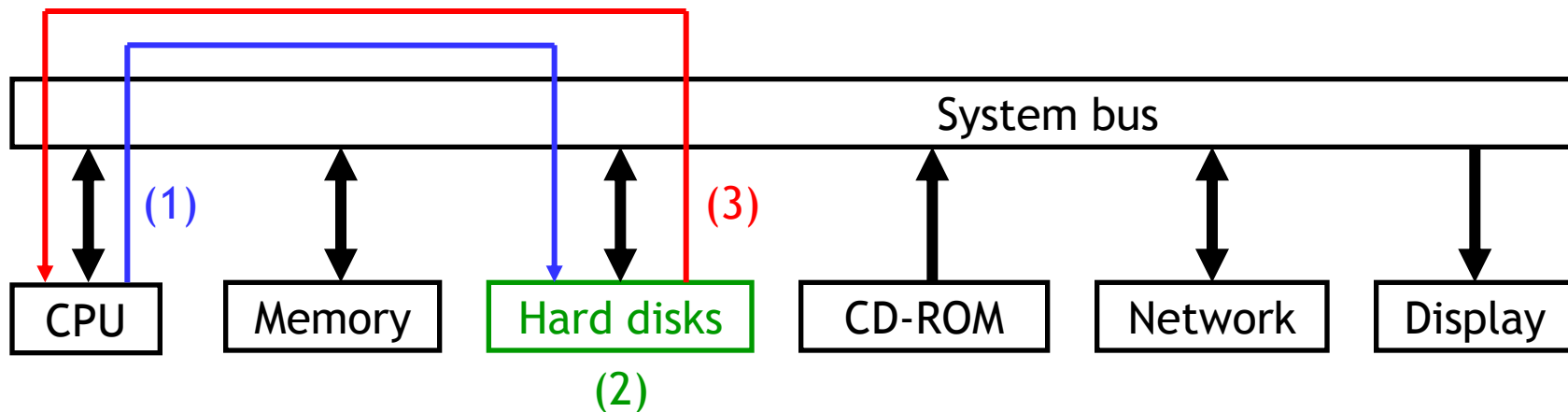
Hierarchical buses

- We could split the bus into different segments.
 - 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.



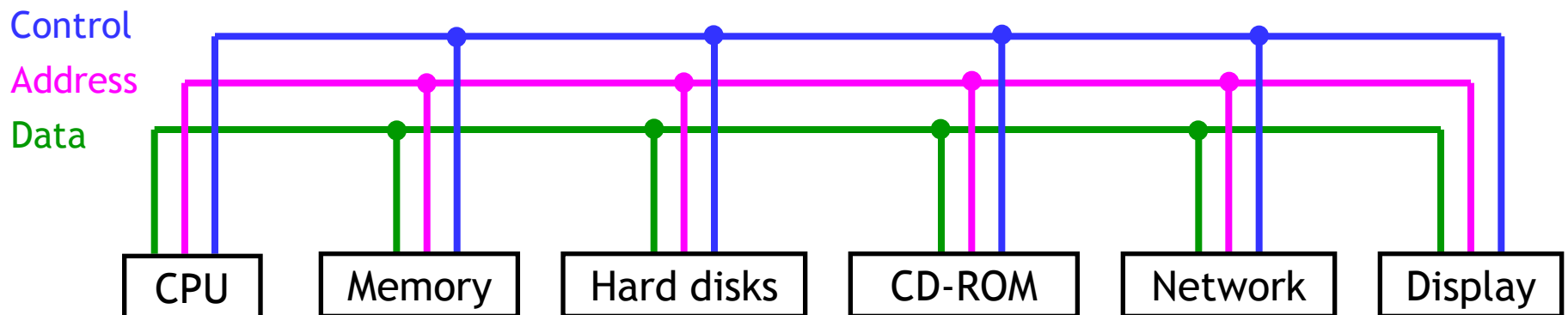
Basic bus protocols

- Although physically, our computer may have a hierarchy of buses (for performance), logically it behaves like a single bus
- Last time 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.



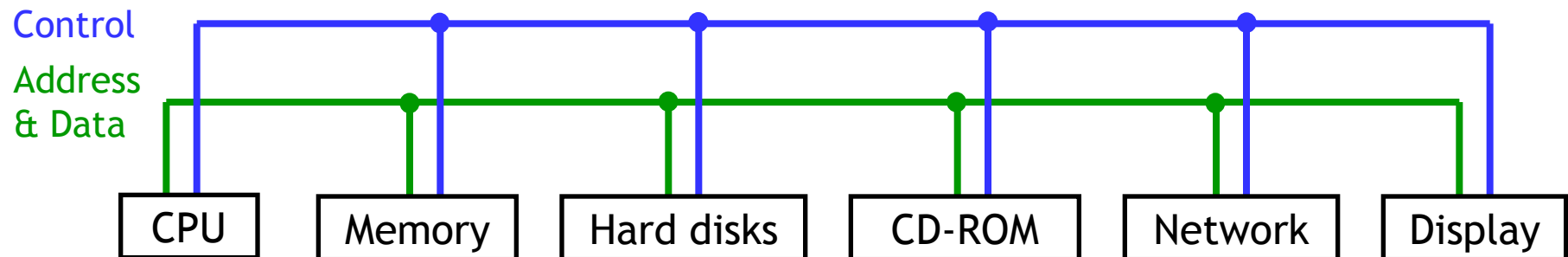
What is the bus anyway?

- 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 **address**.
 - Finally, there is also the actual **data** being transferred.
- Some buses include separate control, address and data lines, so all of this 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 address 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.
 - The memory needs 50ns to access a 64-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.
 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 $(12.5 \times 10^6 \text{ reads/second}) \times (8 \text{ bytes/read}) = 100\text{MB/s}$.

Example Bus Problems, cont.

2) Assume the following system:

- A CPU and memory share a 32-bit bus running at 100MHz.
- 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 an effective bandwidth of $(12.5 \times 10^6 \text{ reads/second}) \times (8 \text{ bytes/read}) = 100\text{MB/s}$.

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

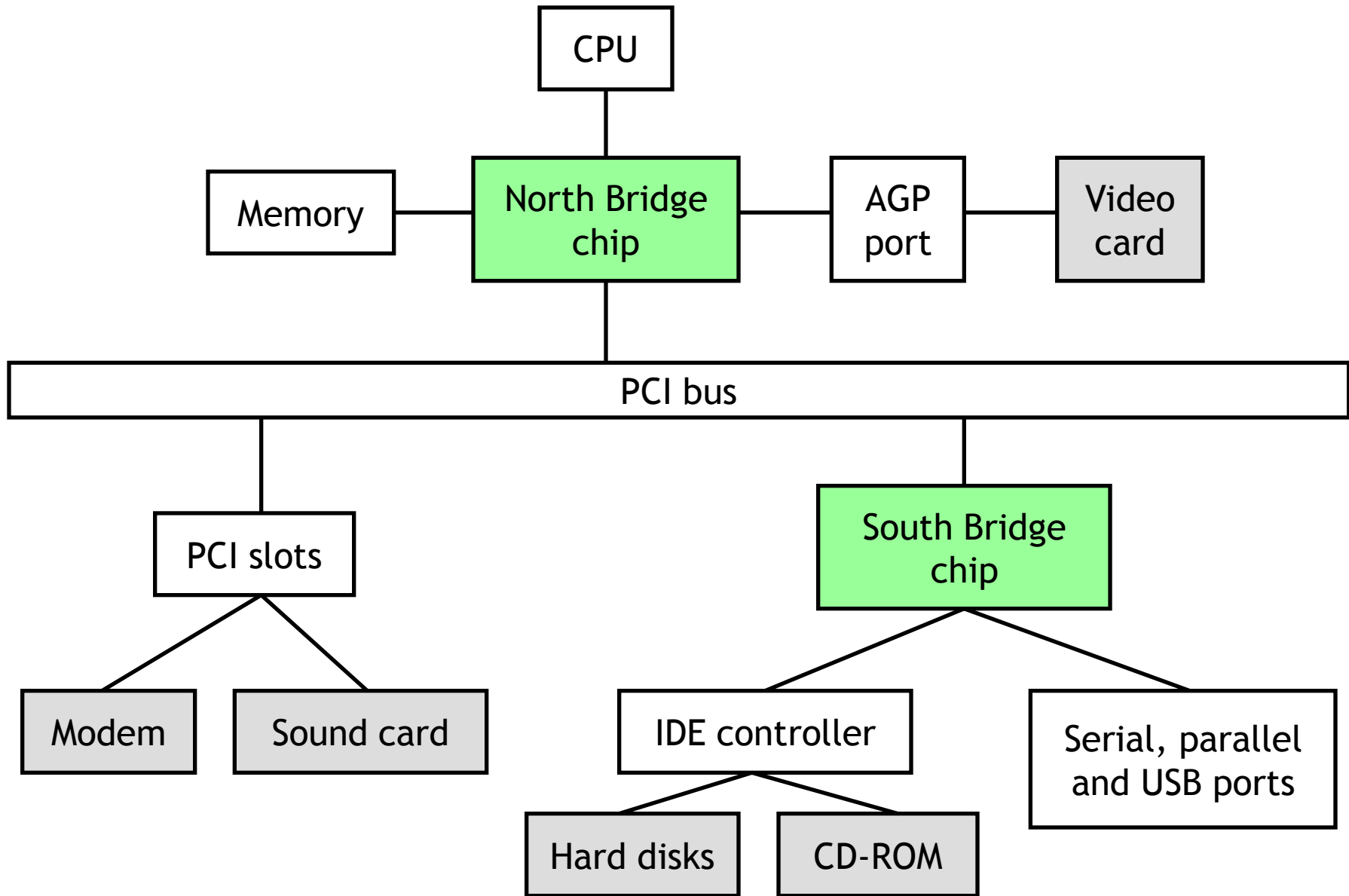
B) What is the bus utilization (fraction of cycles the bus is used) to achieve the above bandwidth?

C) If utilization were 100% (achievable by adding additional memories), what effective bandwidth would be achieved?

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

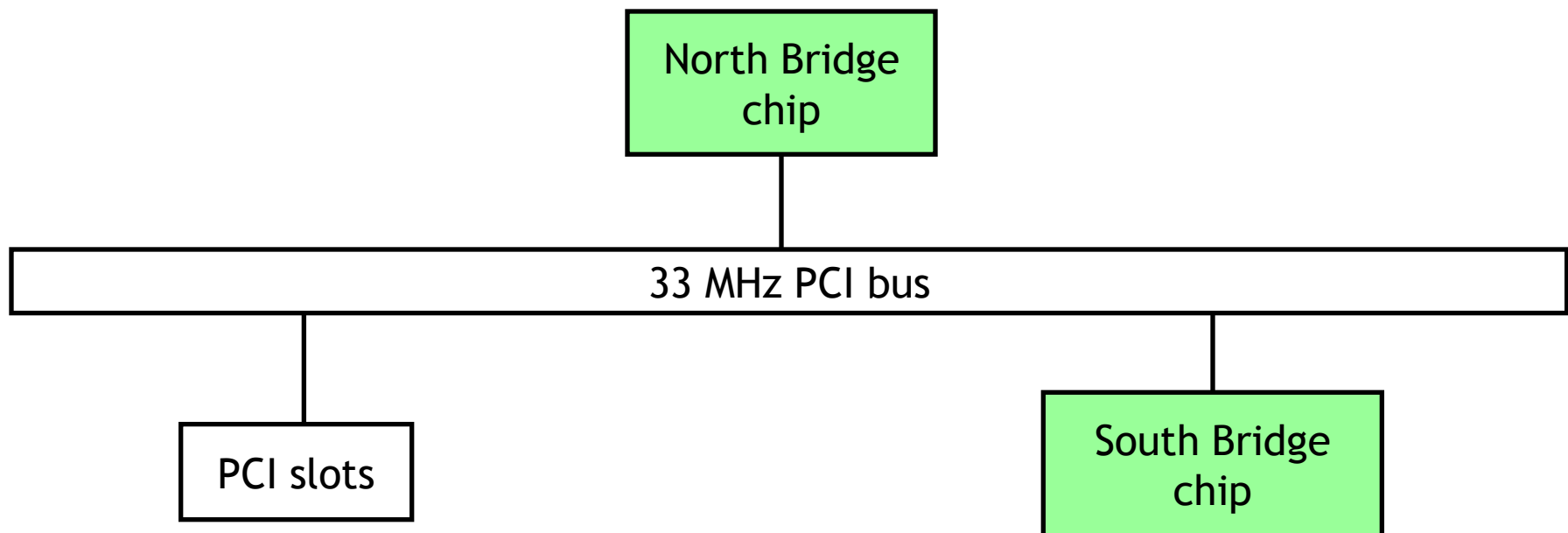


PCI

- **Peripheral Component Interconnect** is a synchronous 32-bit bus running at 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.

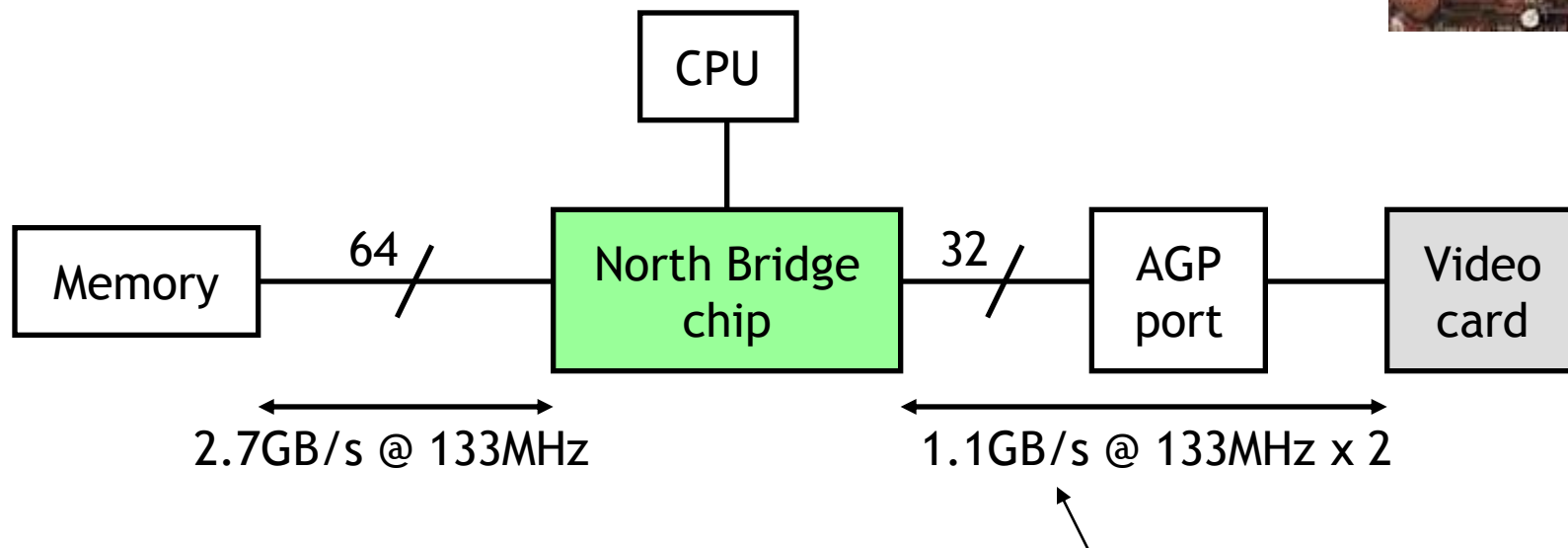


Frequencies

- 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 limits 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 data 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 needs 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, **Universal Serial Bus (USB)** and **FireWire**, have 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.

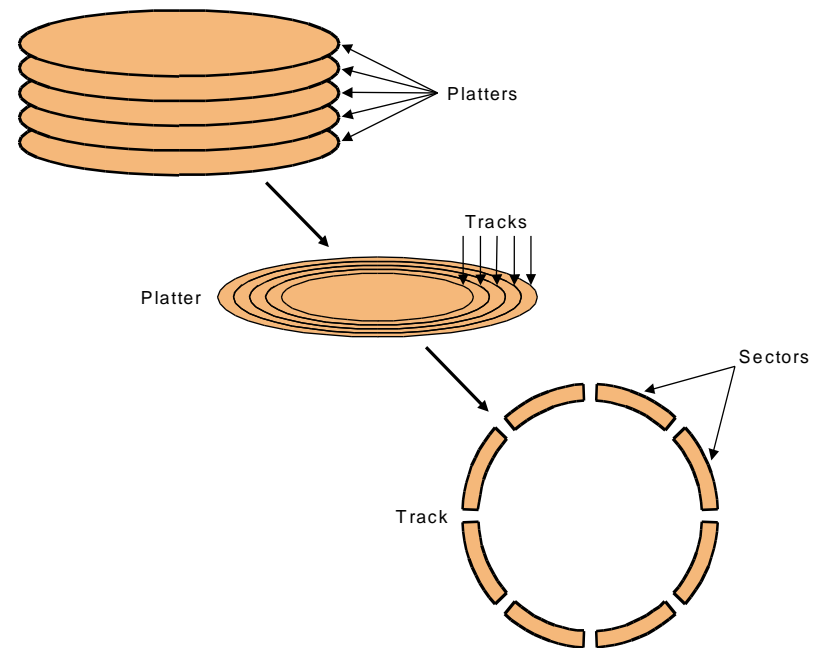


Serial/Parallel

- 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 3GIO) is a PCI bus replacement that uses serial links

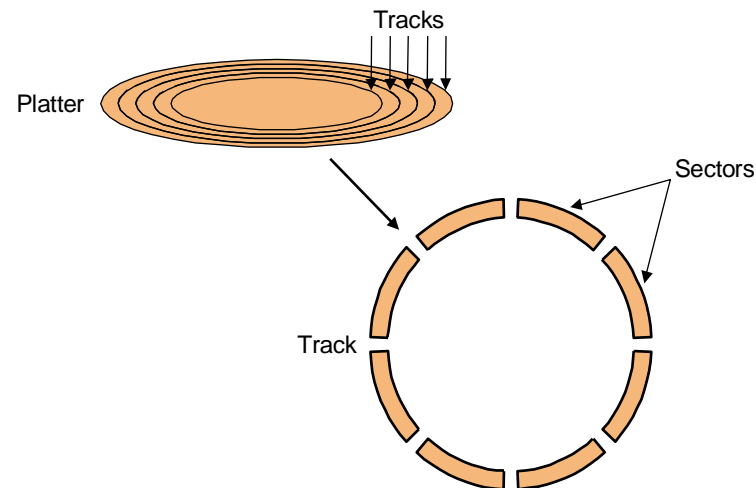
Hard drives

- The ugly guts of a hard disk.
 - Data is stored on double-sided magnetic disks called **platters**.
 - Each platter is arranged like a record, with many concentric **tracks**.
 - Tracks are further divided into individual **sectors**, which are the basic unit of data transfer.
 - Each surface has a read/write head like the arm on a record player, but all the heads are connected and move together.
- A 75GB IBM Deskstar has roughly:
 - 5 platters (10 surfaces),
 - 27,000 tracks per surface,
 - 512 sectors per track, and
 - 512 bytes per sector.



Accessing data on a hard disk

- Accessing a sector on a track on a hard disk takes a lot of time!
 - **Seek time** measures the delay for the disk head to reach the track.
 - A **rotational delay** accounts for the time to get to the right sector.
 - The **transfer time** is how long the actual data read or write takes.
 - There may be additional **overhead** for the operating system or the controller hardware on the hard disk drive.
- **Rotational speed**, measured in revolutions per minute or RPM, partially determines the rotational delay and transfer time.



Estimating disk latencies (seek time)

- Manufacturers often report *average* seek times of 8-10ms.
 - These times average the time to seek from any track to any other track.
- In practice, seek times are often much better.
 - For example, if the head is already on or near the desired track, then seek time is much smaller. In other words, **locality** is important!
 - Actual average seek times are often just 2-3ms.

Estimating Disk Latencies (rotational latency)

- Once the head is in place, we need to wait until the right sector is underneath the head.
 - This may require as little as **no time** (reading consecutive sectors) or as much as **a full rotation** (just missed it).
 - On **average**, for **random** reads/writes, we can assume that the disk spins halfway on average.

- Rotational delay depends partly on how fast the disk platters spin.

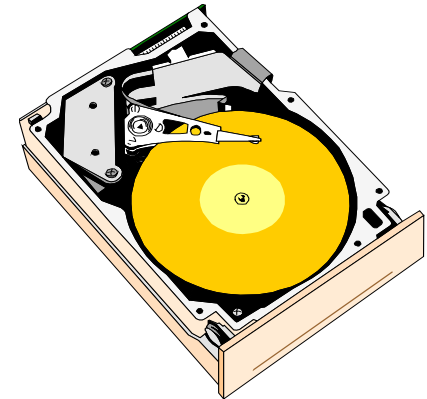
Average rotational delay = 0.5 x rotations x rotational speed

- For example, a 5400 RPM disk has an average rotational delay of:

$$0.5 \text{ rotations} / (5400 \text{ rotations/minute}) = 5.55\text{ms}$$

Estimating disk times

- The overall **response time** is the sum of the seek time, rotational delay, transfer time, and overhead.
- Assume a disk has the following specifications.
 - An average seek time of 9ms
 - A 5400 RPM rotational speed
 - A 10MB/s average transfer rate
 - 2ms of overheads
- How long does it take to read a random 1,024 byte sector?
 - The average rotational delay is 5.55ms.
 - The transfer time will be about $(1024 \text{ bytes} / 10 \text{ MB/s}) = 0.1\text{ms}$.
 - The response time is then $9\text{ms} + 5.55\text{ms} + 0.1\text{ms} + 2\text{ms} = 16.7\text{ms}$.
That's 16,700,000 cycles for a 1GHz processor!
- One possible measure of throughput would be the number of random sectors that can be read in one second.



$$(1 \text{ sector} / 16.7\text{ms}) \times (1000\text{ms} / 1\text{s}) = 60 \text{ sectors/second.}$$

Estimating disk times

- The overall **response time** is the sum of the seek time, rotational delay, transfer time, and overhead.
- Assume a disk has the following specifications.
 - An average seek time of 3ms
 - A 7200 RPM rotational speed
 - A 10MB/s average transfer rate
 - 2ms of overheads
- How long does it take to read a random 1,024 byte sector?
 - The average rotational delay is:
 - The transfer time will be about:
 - The response time is then:
- How long would it take to read a whole track (512 sectors) selected at random, if the sectors could be read in any order?

Parallel I/O

- Many hardware systems use parallelism for increased speed.
 - Pipelined processors include extra hardware so they can execute multiple instructions simultaneously.
 - Dividing memory into banks lets us access several words at once.
- A **redundant array of inexpensive disks** or **RAID** system allows access to several hard drives at once, for increased bandwidth.
 - The picture below shows a single data file with fifteen sectors denoted A-O, which are “striped” across four disks.
 - This is reminiscent of interleaved main memories from last week.

