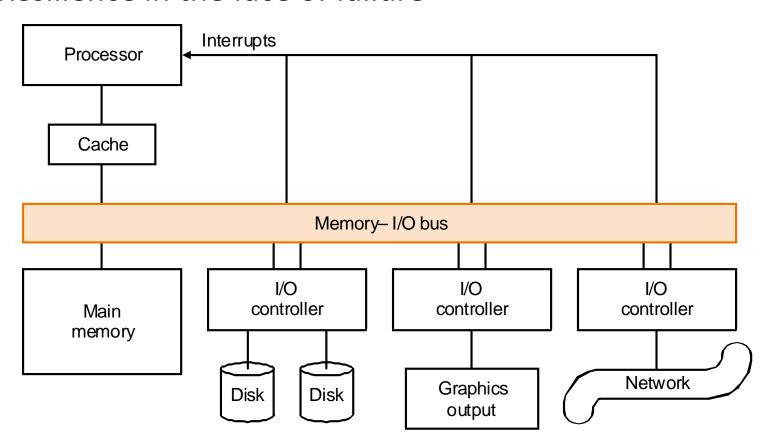


# Interfacing Processor and Peripheral

EL3010 Arsitektur Sistem Komputer Sekolah Teknik Elektro dan Informatika – ITB 2010

## I/O System Design Issues

- Performance
- Expandability
- Resilience in the face of failure



## **Motivation for Input/Output**

- ▶ I/O is how humans interact with computers
- ▶ I/O lets computers do amazing things:
  - Read pressure, temperature, etc
  - Control propellers, motors, communicate
  - Read bar codes of items in refrigerator
- Computer without I/O like a car without wheels; great technology, but won't get you anywhere

## I/O Device Examples and Speeds

▶ I/O Speed: bytes transferred per second (from mouse to display: million-to-1)

Device	Behavior	Partner	Data Rate (Kbytes/sec)
Keyboard	Input	Human	0.01
Mouse	Input	Human	0.02
Line Printer	Output	Human	1
Floppy disk	Storage	Machine	50
Laser Printer	Output	Human	100
Magnetic Disk	Storage	Machine	10000
Network-LAN	I or O	Machine	10000
Graphics Display	Output	Human	30000

## I/O System Performance

- ► I/O System performance depends on many aspects of the system ("limited by weakest link in the chain"):
  - The CPU
  - ▶ The memory system:
    - Internal and external caches
    - Main Memory
  - The underlying interconnection (buses)
  - ▶ The I/O controller
  - ▶ The I/O device
  - ▶ The speed of the I/O software (Operating System)
  - The efficiency of the software's use of the I/O devices
- ▶ Two common performance metrics:
  - Throughput: I/O bandwidth
  - Response time: Latency

## Impact of I/O on System Performance

- Suppose a benchmark executes in 100 seconds, where 90 seconds is CPU time and the rest is I/O.
- ▶ If CPU time improves by 50% per year for the next five years, but I/O time does not improve, how much faster will the program run at the end of five years.

Elapsed time = CPU time + I/O time I/O time = 100 - 90 = 10 seconds

After n Years	CPU time (seconds)	I/O time (seconds)	Elapsed time (seconds)	% I/O time
0	90	10	100	0.1
1	90/1.5 = 60	10	70	0.142857
2	60/1.5 = 40	10	50	0.2
3	40/1.5 = 27	10	37	0.27027
4	27/1.5 = 18	10	28	0.357143
5	18/1.5 = 12	10	22	0.454545

## I/O Architecture

- Two methods are used to address the device:
  - Special I/O instructions
  - Memory-mapped I/O
- Special I/O instructions specify:
  - Both the device number and the command word
  - Device number: the processor communicates this via a set of wires normally included as part of the I/O bus
  - Command word: this is usually send on the bus's data lines

## I/O Architecture

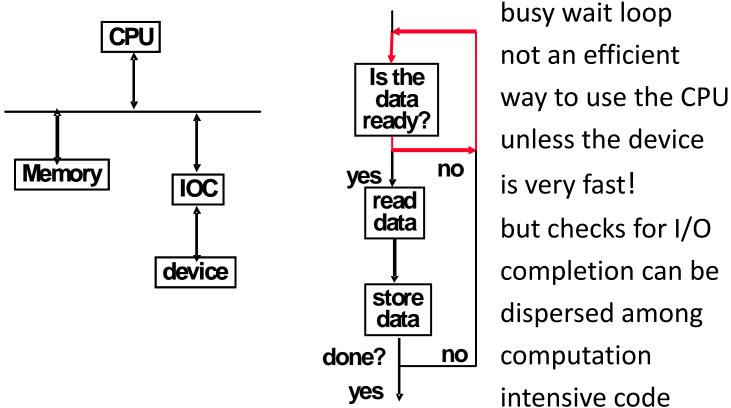
#### Memory-mapped I/O:

- Portions of the address space are assigned to I/O device
- Read and writes to those addresses are interpreted s commands to the I/O devices
- User programs are prevented from issuing I/O operations directly:
  - ▶ The I/O address space is protected by the address translation

## I/O Device Notifying the OS

- The OS needs to know when:
  - ▶ The I/O device has completed an operation
  - The I/O operation has encountered an error
- This can be accomplished in two different ways:
  - Polling:
    - ▶ The I/O device put information in a status register
    - ▶ The OS periodically check the status register
  - ► I/O Interrupt:
    - ▶ Whenever an I/O device needs attention from the processor, it interrupts the processor from what it is currently doing.

## Polling: Programmed I/O



- Advantage:
  - Simple: the processor is totally in control and does all the work
- Disadvantage:
  - Polling overhead can consume a lot of CPU time

## Cost of Polling?

- Assume for a processor with a 1000-MHz clock it takes 800 clock cycles for a polling operation (call polling routine, accessing the device, and returning). Determine % of processor time for polling
  - Mouse: polled 30 times/sec so as not to miss user movement
  - Floppy disk: transfers data in 2-byte units and has a data rate of 50 KB/second. No data transfer can be missed.
  - Hard disk: transfers data in 16-byte chunks and can transfer at 8 MB/second. Again, no transfer can be missed.

## % Processor time to poll mouse, floppy

#### Mouse Polling Clocks/sec

- > = 30 \* 800 = 24000 clocks/sec
- % Processor for polling:
  - 24\*103/(1000\*106) = 0.002%
- Polling mouse little impact on processor

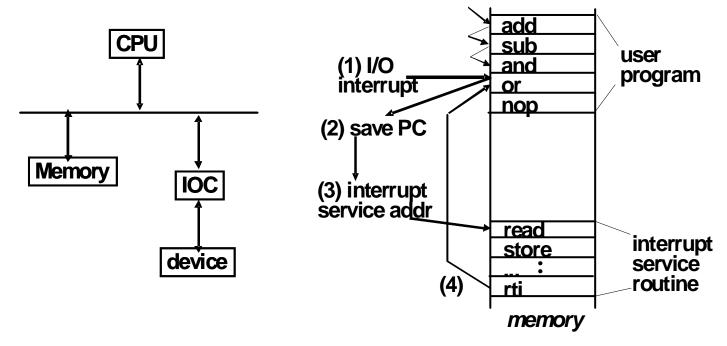
#### Times Polling Floppy/sec

- > = 50 KB/s /2B = 25K polls/sec
- Floppy Polling Clocks/sec
  - > = 25K \* 800 = 20,000,000 clocks/sec
- % Processor for polling:
  - > 20\*106/(1000\*106) = 2%
- OK if not too many I/O devices

#### % Processor time to hard disk

- Times Polling Disk/sec
  - = 8 MB/s /16B = 500K polls/sec
- Disk Polling Clocks/sec
  - > = 500K \* 800 = 400,000,000 clocks/sec
- % Processor for polling:
  - **400\*106/1000\*106 = 40%**
- Unacceptable

## Interrupt Driven Data Transfer



#### Advantage:

- User program progress is only halted during actual transfer
- Disadvantage, special hardware is needed to:
  - Cause an interrupt (I/O device)
  - Detect an interrupt (processor)
  - Save the proper states to resume after the interrupt (processor)

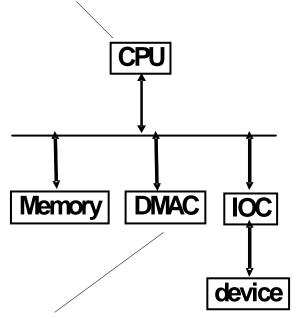
## I/O Interrupt

- An I/O interrupt is just like the exceptions except:
  - An I/O interrupt is asynchronous
  - Further information needs to be conveyed
- An I/O interrupt is asynchronous with respect to instruction execution:
  - ▶ I/O interrupt is not associated with any instruction
  - ▶ I/O interrupt does not prevent any instruction from completion
  - You can pick your own convenient point to take an interrupt
- ▶ I/O interrupt is more complicated than exception:
  - Needs to convey the identity of the device generating the interrupt
  - Interrupt requests can have different urgencies:
  - Interrupt request needs to be prioritized

## Delegating I/O Responsibility from the CPU: DMA

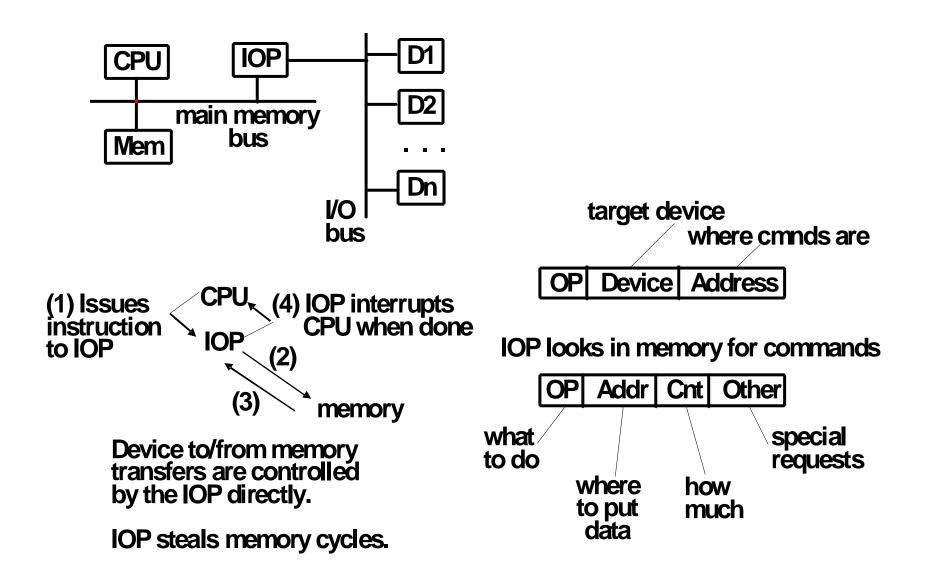
- Direct Memory Access (DMA):
  - External to the CPU
  - Act as a master on the bus
  - Transfer blocks of data to or from memory without CPU intervention

CPU sends a starting address, direction, and length count to DMAC. Then issues "start".



DMAC provides handshake signals for Peripheral Controller, and Memory Addresses and handshake signals for Memory.

## Delegating I/O Responsibility from the CPU: IOP



## Responsibilities of the Operating System

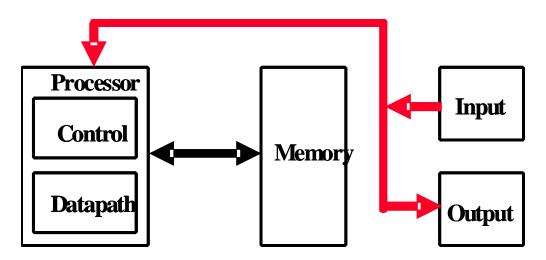
- The operating system acts as the interface between:
  - The I/O hardware and the program that requests I/O
- ▶ Three characteristics of the I/O systems:
  - The I/O system is shared by multiple program using the processor
  - ► I/O systems often use interrupts (external generated exceptions) to communicate information about I/O operations.
    - Interrupts must be handled by the OS because they cause a transfer to supervisor mode
  - ▶ The low-level control of an I/O device is complex:
    - Managing a set of concurrent events
    - The requirements for correct device control are very detailed

## **Operating System Requirements**

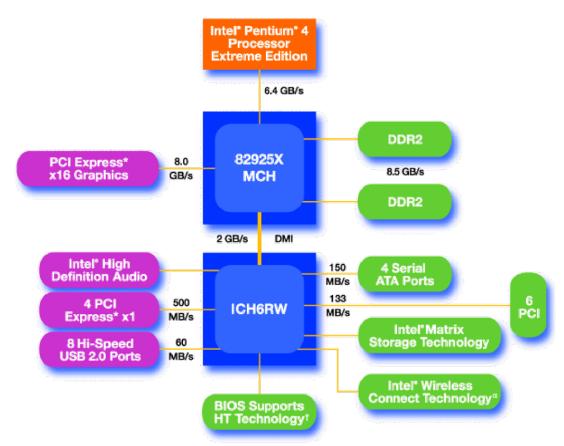
- Provide protection to shared I/O resources
  - Guarantees that a user's program can only access the portions of an I/O device to which the user has rights
- Provides abstraction for accessing devices:
  - Supply routines that handle low-level device operation
- Handles the interrupts generated by I/O devices
- Provide equitable access to the shared I/O resources
  - ▶ All user programs must have equal access to the I/O resources
- Schedule accesses in order to enhance system throughput

#### Bus

- Shared communication link
- Single set of wires used to connect multiple subsystems
- A Bus is also a fundamental tool for composing large, complex systems
  - systematic means of abstraction



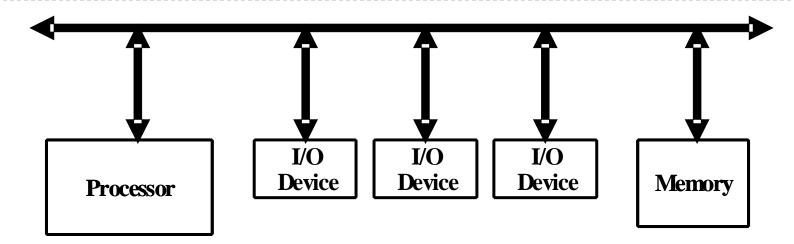
## **Example: Pentium System Organization**



<sup>†</sup> Hyper-Threading (HT) Technology requires a computer system with an Intel® Pentium® 4 processor supporting Hyper-Threading Technology and an HT Technology enabled chipset, BIOS and operating system. Performance will vary depending on the specific hardware and software you use. See http://www.intel.com/info/hyperthreading/ for more information including details on which processors support HT Technology.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>®</sup> Intel® Wireless Connect Technology requires an Intel® 9xx Express chipset with Intel® 82801FW or RW (ICH6W or RW) I/O Controller Hub and a separate Intel® PRO/Wireless 2225BG Network Connection solution. Availability may be limited. Consult with your system vendor for more information, including whether Intel Wireless Connect Technology has been enabled on your system.

## Advantages of Buses



#### Versatility:

- New devices can be added easily
- Peripherals can be moved between computer systems that use the same bus standard

#### Low Cost:

- A single set of wires is shared in multiple ways
- Manage complexity by partitioning the design

## Disadvantage of Buses

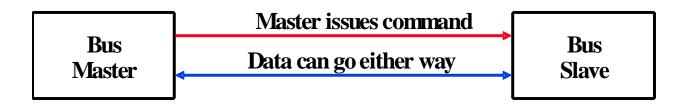
- It creates a communication bottleneck
  - The bandwidth of that bus can limit the maximum I/O throughput
- The maximum bus speed is largely limited by:
  - The length of the bus
  - The number of devices on the bus
  - ▶ The need to support a range of devices with:
    - Widely varying latencies
    - Widely varying data transfer rates

## The General Organization of a Bus



- Control lines:
  - Signal requests and acknowledgments
  - Indicate what type of information is on the data lines
- Data lines carry information between the source and the destination:
  - Data and Addresses
  - Complex commands

#### Master versus Slave



- A bus transaction includes two parts:
  - Issuing the command (and address) request
  - Transferring the data action
- Master is the one who starts the bus transaction by:
  - issuing the command (and address)
- Slave is the one who responds to the address by:
  - Sending data to the master if the master ask for data
  - Receiving data from the master if the master wants to send data

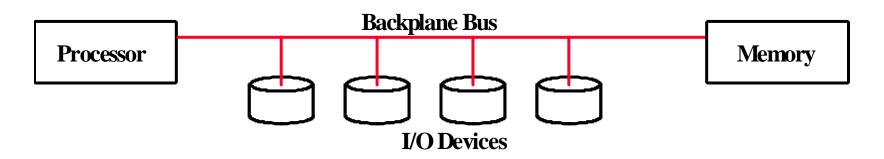
## Types of Buses

- Processor-Memory Bus (design specific)
  - Short and high speed
  - Only need to match the memory system
  - Maximize memory-to-processor bandwidth
  - Connects directly to the processor
  - Optimized for cache block transfers
- I/O Bus (industry standard)
  - Usually is lengthy and slower
  - Need to match a wide range of I/O devices
  - Connects to the processor-memory bus or backplane bus

## Types of Buses

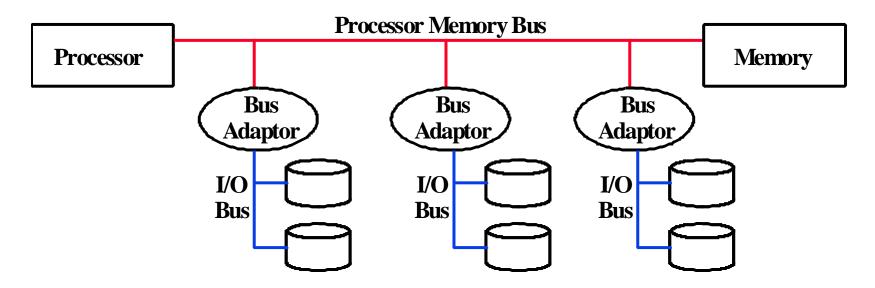
- Backplane Bus (standard or proprietary)
  - Backplane: an interconnection structure within the chassis
  - Allow processors, memory, and I/O devices to coexist
  - Cost advantage: one bus for all components

#### A Computer System with One Bus: Backplane Bus



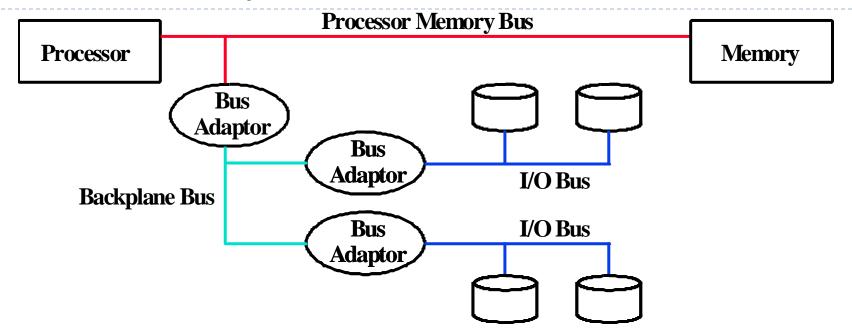
- A single bus (the backplane bus) is used for:
  - Processor to memory communication
  - Communication between I/O devices and memory
- Advantages: Simple and low cost
- Disadvantages: slow and the bus can become a major bottleneck
- Example: IBM PC AT

## A Two-Bus System



- ▶ I/O buses tap into the processor-memory bus via bus adaptors:
  - Processor-memory bus: mainly for processor-memory traffic
  - ▶ I/O buses: provide expansion slots for I/O devices
- Apple Macintosh-II
  - NuBus: Processor, memory, and a few selected I/O devices
  - SCCI Bus: the rest of the I/O devices

## A Three-Bus System



- A small number of backplane buses tap into the processormemory bus
  - Processor-memory bus is used for processor memory traffic
  - I/O buses are connected to the backplane bus
- Advantage: loading on the processor bus is greatly reduced

## Synchronous and Asynchronous Bus

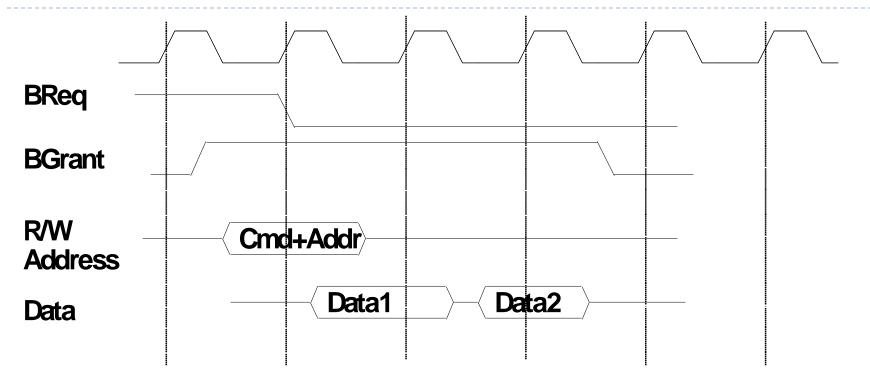
#### Synchronous Bus:

- Includes a clock in the control lines
- A fixed protocol for communication that is relative to the clock
- Advantage: involves very little logic and can run very fast
- Disadvantages:
  - Every device on the bus must run at the same clock rate
  - ▶ To avoid clock skew, they cannot be long if they are fast

#### Asynchronous Bus:

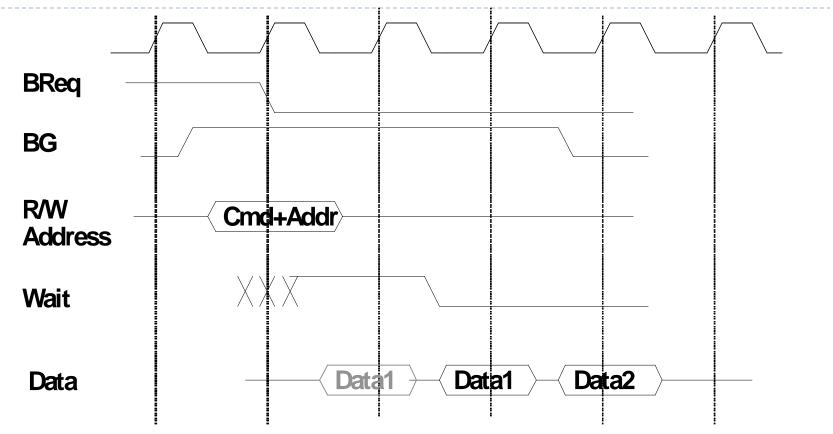
- It is not clocked
- It can accommodate a wide range of devices
- It can be lengthened without worrying about clock skew
- It requires a handshaking protocol

## Simple Synchronous Protocol



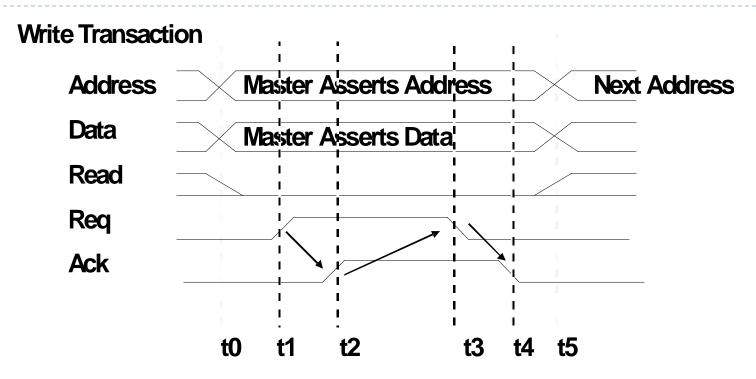
- Even memory busses are more complex than this
  - memory (slave) may take time to respond
  - need to control data rate

## Typical Synchronous Protocol



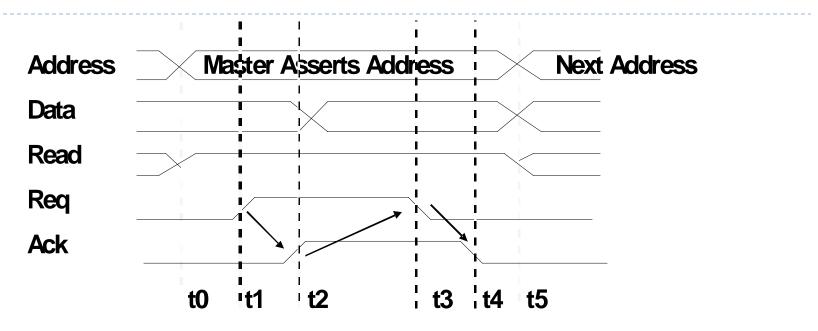
- Slave indicates when it is prepared for data transfer
- Actual transfer goes at bus rate

## Asynchronous Handshake



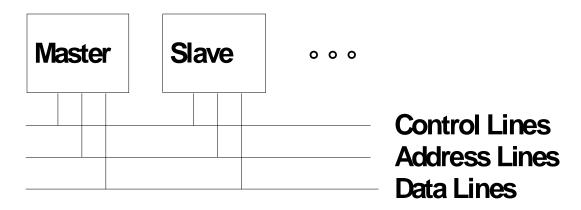
- ▶ t0 : Master has obtained control and asserts address, direction, data
  - Waits a specified amount of time for slaves to decode target
- ▶ t1: Master asserts request line
- ▶ t2: Slave asserts ack, indicating data received
- t3: Master releases req
- ▶ t4: Slave releases ack

#### **Read Transaction**



- ▶ t0 : Master has obtained control and asserts address, direction, data
  - Waits a specified amount of time for slaves to decode target\
- ▶ t1: Master asserts request line
- ▶ t2: Slave asserts ack, indicating ready to transmit data
- t3: Master releases req, data received
- ▶ t4: Slave releases ack

#### Busses so far



- Bus Master: has ability to control the bus, initiates transaction
- Bus Slave: module activated by the transaction
- Bus Communication Protocol: specification of sequence of events and timing requirements in transferring information.
- Asynchronous Bus Transfers: control lines (req, ack) serve to orchestrate sequencing.
- Synchronous Bus Transfers: sequence relative to common clock

## Arbitration: Obtaining Access to the Bus



- One of the most important issues in bus design:
  - How is the bus reserved by a devices that wishes to use it?
- Chaos is avoided by a master-slave arrangement:
  - Only the bus master can control access to the bus:
    - ▶ It initiates and controls all bus requests
    - ▶ A slave responds to read and write requests
- The simplest system:
  - Processor is the only bus master
  - All bus requests must be controlled by the processor
  - Major drawback: the processor is involved in every transaction

## Multiple Potential Bus Masters: the Need for Arbitration

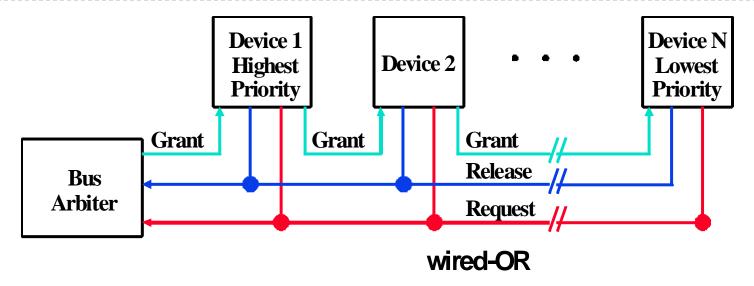
#### Bus arbitration scheme:

- ▶ A bus master wanting to use the bus asserts the bus request
- A bus master cannot use the bus until its request is granted
- A bus master must signal to the arbiter after finish using the bus
- Bus arbitration schemes usually try to balance two factors:
  - Bus priority: the highest priority device should be serviced first
  - Fairness: Even the lowest priority device should never
    - □ be completely locked out from the bus

## Multiple Potential Bus Masters: the Need for Arbitration

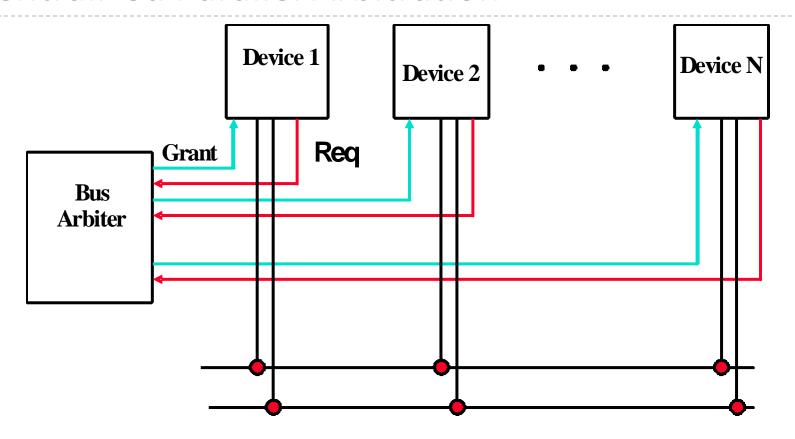
- Bus arbitration schemes can be divided into four broad classes:
  - Daisy chain arbitration: single device with all request lines.
  - Centralized, parallel arbitration: see next-next slide
  - Distributed arbitration by self-selection: each device wanting the bus places a code indicating its identity on the bus.
  - Distributed arbitration by collision detection: Ethernet uses this.

## The Daisy Chain Bus Arbitration Scheme



- Advantage: simple
- Disadvantages:
  - Cannot assure fairness:
    - ▶ A low-priority device may be locked out indefinitely
  - The use of the daisy chain grant signal also limits the bus speed

#### Centralized Parallel Arbitration



 Used in essentially all processor-memory busses and in high-speed I/O busses

## Increasing the Bus Bandwidth

#### Separate versus multiplexed address and data lines:

- Address and data can be transmitted in one bus cycle if separate address and data lines are available
- Cost: (a) more bus lines, (b) increased complexity

#### Data bus width:

- By increasing the width of the data bus, transfers of multiple words require fewer bus cycles
- Example: SPARCstation 20's memory bus is 128 bit wide
- Cost: more bus lines

## Increasing the Bus Bandwidth

#### Block transfers:

- Allow the bus to transfer multiple words in back-to- back bus cycles
- Only one address needs to be sent at the beginning
- The bus is not released until the last word is transferred
- Cost: (a) increased complexity
  - (b) decreased response time for request