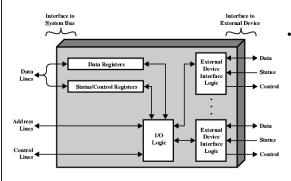


I/O Controller



- A <u>data register</u>, which is readable (by the processor) for an input device (e.g., a simple keyboard), writable for an output device (e.g., a simple printer), and both readable and writable for input/output devices (e.g., disks).
- <u>A control register</u> for giving commands to the device.
- A readable <u>status register</u> for reporting errors and announcing when the
 device is ready for the next action (e.g., for a keyboard telling when the data
 register is valid, and for a printer telling when the character to be printed has
 be successfully retrieved from the data register).

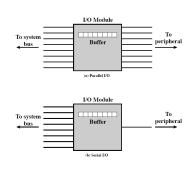
Two Types of Interfaces

Serial interface

- Single signal wire (also need ground); one bit at a time
- Less complex hardware with lower cost
- Most popular serial interface???
- COM ports on a machine

Parallel interface

- Many wires; each wire carries one bit at any time
- Width is number of wires
- Complex hardware with higher cost
- Theoretically faster than serial
- Practical limitation: at high data rates, close parallel wires have potential for interference
- LPT is the parallel port



Sharing of Interfaces

- Cannot afford to have a separate physical interconnect per device
 - Too many physical wires
 - Not enough pins on a processor chip
 - Interface hardware adds economic cost
- Solution is sharing
 - Allow multiple devices to use a given interconnection
 - Known as a bus

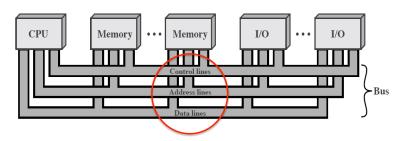
Sharing the bus

- Most buses shared by multiple devices
- Need an access protocol
 - Determines which device can use the bus at any time
 - All attached devices follow the protocol
- Note: it is possible and in fact common to have multiple buses in one computer

Types of Buses

- Processor-memory bus (usually proprietary)
 - Short and high speed
 - Matched to the memory system to maximize the memory-processor bandwidth
 - Optimized for cache block transfers
- Backplane bus (maybe industry standard)
 - The backplane is an interconnection structure within the chassis
 - Used as an intermediary bus connecting I/O busses to the processor-memory
- I/O bus (industry standard, e.g., SCSI, PCI,USB, Firewire)
 - Usually is lengthy and slower
 - Needs to accommodate a wide range of I/O devices
 - Connects to the processor-memory bus or backplane bus

Conceptual Lines In A Bus



- · Early bus designs did indeed use separate wires
- To lower cost, many bus designs now arrange to multiplex address and data information over the same wires (in a request, use the wires to send an address; in a response, use the same wires to send data)
- Serial bus multiplexes all communication over one wire

Bus Operations

- Bus hardware only supports two transactions
 - Fetch (also called read)
 - Place an address on the address lines
 - Use control line to signal fetch operation
 - Wait for control line to indicate operation complete
 - Extract data item from the data lines
 - Store (also called write)
 - Place an address on the address lines and a data item on the data lines
 - Use control line to signal store operation
 - Wait for control line to indicate operation complete
- Surprise: all device interaction, including communication with video cameras, speakers, and microphones, must be performed using the fetch-store paradigm

Synchronous and Asynchronous Buses

- Synchronous bus (e.g., processor-memory buses)
 - Includes a clock in the control lines and has a fixed protocol for communication that is relative to the clock
 - Advantage: involves very little logic and can run very fast
 - Disadvantages:
 - Every device communicating on the bus must use same clock rate
 - To avoid clock skew, they cannot be long if they are fast
 - Constraint:
 - ALL IO devices must run at the same speed.
- Asynchronous bus (e.g., I/O buses)
 - It is not clocked, so requires a handshaking protocol and additional control lines (ReadReq, Ack, DataRdy)
 - Advantages:
 - · Can accommodate a wide range of devices and device speeds
 - Can be lengthened without worrying about clock skew or synchronization problems
 - Disadvantage: slow(er)

A Problem

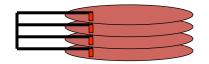
- Memory and bus support two widths of data transfer: 4 words and 16 words at a time
- 64-bit synchronous bus; 200MHz; 1 clock cycle for addr; 1 for data.
- Two clocks of "rest" between bus accesses
- Memory access times: 4 words in 200ns; additional 4 word blocks in 20ns per block.
- Can overlap transferring data with reading next data.
- Find
- 1. Sustained **bandwidth** and **latency** for reading 256 words using both size transfers
- 2. How many <u>bus transactions per sec</u> for each (1 transaction is addr+data).

Magnetic Disks

- Collection of platters, 1~15
 - The stack of platters rotates at 3600 to 15000 RPM
- Each platter has two recordable disk surfaces
 - Each surface is divided into concentric circles, or tracks
 - 1000~5000 tracks per surface
- Each track is divided into sectors
 - 64~200 sectors/track
- Sector is the smallest unit that can be read/written.
 - Sector sizes are typically 512 bytes

How to Find Data on Disks?

- Hardware
 - Movable arm
 - Read/write head, electromagnetic coil
- All disk heads for each surface are connected together
 - All disk heads move together



How to Find Data on Disks?

Actions

- Seek. Position the head over proper track
- · Rotate. Find the right sector
- · Transfer. Send/access the sector

Disk Access Time

Seek

- Seek time varies, depending on which track
- Seek time = 8ms~20ms. Advertised by manufacturers
- Smaller seek time is better
- · Question: where to place your frequently-used data?

Rotate

- Rotational delay varies, depending on what sector
- Faster RPM is better
- Average rotational delay (e.g. 3600 RPM)
 = 0.5 rotation / 3600 RPM = 0.5 / (3600/60) = 8.3ms

Example

Advertised seek time = 12ms
512-byte block
rotate at 5400 RPM
Transfer rate = 5MB/sec
Controller overhead = 2ms
What is the average time to read or write one block?

Interfacing with an IO device

Two basic approaches

- Programmed I/O
 - A terrible name
 - Also called polled I/O
- Interrupt-driven I/O
 - Another poor naming choice
 - Software actually drives I/O

Polled I/O

- 1. Processor starts operation on the device.
- 2. Processor continually checks the device status to see if its complete.
 - To wait for an operation to complete, a processor
 - Executes a loop that repeatedly requests status from device
 - Allows the loop to continue until device indicates "ready"
 - Also called busy waiting

Cost of polling - Example

- Cost of a poll is 400 clock cycles.
- CPU is 500MHz.
- How much of the CPU is needed to poll
 - 1. A mouse that requires 30 polls per sec?
 - 2. A CD that sends 2 bytes at a time and achieves 50KB/sec?
 - 3. A hard disk that sends 16 bytes at a time and achieves 4MB/sec?

Interrupt driven I/O

- Motivation: increase performance by eliminating polling loops
- Technique
 - Add special hardware to processor and devices
 - Allow processor to start operation on a device
 - Arrange for device to *interrupt* the processor when the operation completes

Interrupt Mechanism

- Processor hardware
 - · Saves current instruction pointer
 - Jumps to code for the interrupt (interrupt handler separate for each device)
 - Resumes executing the application when the code executes a return from interrupt
- Asynchronous mechanism unlike polling that is synchronous

State management

- Entire state of computation must be saved when interrupt occurs
 - Values in registers
 - Program counter
- Hardware usually saves and restores a few items; interrupt code must save and restore the rest

What if there multiple devices that can interrupt?

- OS maintains, V, an array of pointers to interrupt routines
 - Called an interrupt vector
 - Informs bus hardware of the location of V
- Each device is assigned a number from 0 through K-1
- Device specifies its number, i, when interrupting
- Hardware (or in some architectures, the OS) branches to interrupt code at address V[i]
- Interrupt vector IDs are assigned by the OS

During boot

- Processor boots with interrupts disabled
- OS
 - Keeps interrupts disabled during initialization
 - Fills in interrupt vector with pointers to interrupt code for each device
- Once all interrupt table entries have been initialized, OS enables interrupts, which allows I/ O to proceed
- When handling an interrupt the OS usually disables other interrupts so that an interrupt handler is not interrupted!

Hierarchical Interrupts

- Simplest processors: only one interrupt at a time
- Advanced processors: devices assigned a priority, and higher priority devices can interrupt lower level interrupt code
- Typically a few priority levels (e.g., 7)
- Rule: at any given time, at most one device can be interrupting at each priority level
- Note: the lowest priority (usually zero) means no interrupt is occurring (i.e., an application program is executing)

Freeing up the CPU with Interrupt driven I/O

 Even with Interrupts, the OS (and the CPU) are involved with transferring the data. Can we free up the CPU to do other useful work?

Direct Memory Access

- Transfer data between I/O and memory
- Processor not involved, so can do useful work when transfer is in progress.
- I/O interrupts only when transfer is completed
- · Idea:
 - CPU tells controller where in memory to load data
 - Controller does this work and then informs the CPU.

The details

- Have a DMA engine (a small processor) on the controller.
- The processor initiates the DMA by writing the command into data registers on the controller (e.g., read sector 5, head 4, cylinder 123 into memory location 34500)
- The controller collects data from the device and then sends it on the bus to the memory without bothering the CPU.
- So we have a multimaster bus and need some sort of arbitration.
 - Normally the I/O devices are given higher priority than the CPU.
- Freeing the CPU from this task is good but isn't as wonderful as it seems since the memory is busy (but cache hits can be processed).
- A big gain is that only one bus transaction is needed per bus load. With PIO, two transactions are needed: controller to processor and then processor to memory.
- This was for an input operation (the controller writes to memory). A similar situation occurs for output where the controller reads from the memory). Once again one bus transaction per bus load.
- When the controller detects that the I/O is complete or if an error occurs, it sets the status register accordingly and sends an interrupt to the processor to notify the latter that the I/O is complete.

A complete example

Example: Overhead of Polling I/O

Consider a processor running at 500 MHz Consider a hard disk

Transfer 4-word chunks at rate of 4MB/sec

Polling operation includes

- Transferring to the polling routine
- · Access the device
- · Restart the program
- Total time is 400 cycles

Fraction of CPU time consumed for the I/O?

Given that no transfer can be missed

Summary

- Devices can use
 - Programmed I/O
 - Interrupt-driven I/O
- Interrupts
 - Allow processor to continue running while waiting for I/O
 - Use vector (usually in memory)
 - Occur "between" instructions in fetch-execute cycle

- Multi-level interrupts handle high-speed and low-speed devices on same bus
- Smart device has some processing power built into the device
- Optimizations for high-speed devices include
 - Direct Memory Access (DMA)
 - Buffer chaining
 - Operation chaining