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Memory Architecture II

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Lecture Topics

- Dependability
 - Parity Bits
 - Error Correction Code
- Virtual Machines
- Virtual Memory
 - Page Faults
 - Exceptions
- Rotational Hard Disks

- A device (such as a hard drive) alternates between two states of service
- Service Accomplishment
 - The device is working (delivering service) as designed
- Service Interruption
 - The device is not working (not delivering service) as designed
- A failure causes the device to go from Service Accomplishment to Service Interruption
- A restoration causes the device to go from Service Interruption to Service Accomplishment

- The measure of continuous, uninterrupted Service
 Accomplishment until the device experiences a failure its
 reliability
 - Two such measures of reliability are:
 - Mean Time to Failure (MTTF)
 - The average time it takes until a device fails
 - Annual Failure Rate (AFR)
 - The percentage of devices expected to fail in a year within a given MTTF

- As an example, we'll say a server farm has 25,000 servers.
 - Each server has 3 hard disks (all the same model)
 - $3 \times 25000 = 75000 \ disks$
 - The MTTF of these disks are said to be 1,000,000 hours

One year =
$$365 \ days \times 24 \frac{hours}{day} = 8760 \ hours$$

$$AFR = \frac{8760 \ hours}{1000000 \ hours} = .00876 = .876\%$$

The AFR of each disk is 0.876%

$$75000 \ disks \times .00876 = 657$$

- 657 disks are expected to fail annually
 - $\frac{657 \text{ disks}}{365 \text{ days}} = 1.8 \sim 2 \text{ disks per day}$

- Service Interruption is measured by Mean Time to Repair (MTTR)
- The Mean Time Between Failures (MTBF) is the sum of the MTTF and MTTR
- Availability is the measure of Service Accomplishment (MTTF) with respect to the alternation between Service Accomplishment and Service Interruption (MTBF)

$$Availability = \frac{MTTF}{(MTTF + MTTR)}$$

- Using the previous example, we'll say MTTR for each disk in the server farm is 2 hours.
 - Each server has 3 hard disks (all the same model)
 - $3 \times 25000 = 75000 \ disks$
 - The MTTF of these disks are said to be 1,000,000 hours
 - 657 disks are expected to fail annually (calculated on a previous slide)

$$Availability = \frac{1000000 \ hours}{(1000000 \ hours + (2 \ hours \times 657 \ disks))} \sim .9986 \sim 99.86\%$$

 MTTF can be increased through improving the quality of components or designing them to continue operating in the event of failures

Fault avoidance

Preventing faults in the design of the device/components

Fault tolerance

Using redundancy to continue functioning in the event of faults

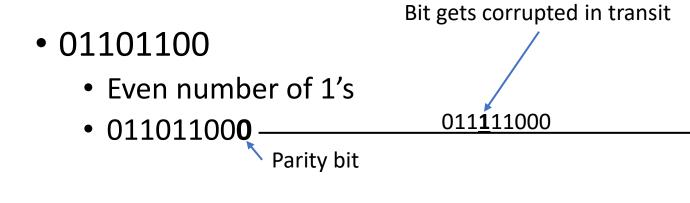
Fault forecasting

• Predicting faults so that devices/components may be replaced before a fault occurs

Parity Bits

- Parity bits are used as a way of validating that binary data makes it from source to destination intact.
 - A type of error detection code
- Before a binary word is sent through the system's data path (we'll use 8-bit words for this example), the total number of 1's in the word are counted.
 - If there are an even number of 1's, a 0 is added to the end of the number
 - If there are an odd number of 1's, a 1 is added to the end of the number
 - Either way, parity bits ensure an even number of 1's in the n+1 bit word.
 - If the received binary word (plus the parity bit) contain an odd number of 1's, it indicates there was a problem with the integrity of the data, and the word should be re-sent.

Parity Bits



- 01001100
 - Odd number of 1's
 - 010011001 Parity bit

Destination

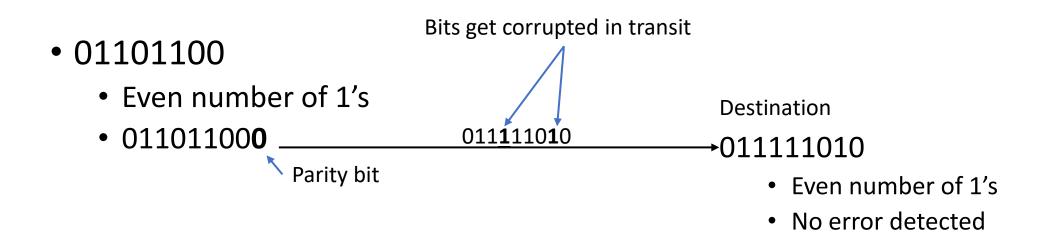
011111000

- Not an even number of 1's
- Data must have been corrupted.

Parity Bits

• Parity bits alone are only able to *detect* errors.

• It is possible that an error will not be detected:



• Error Correction Code (ECC or Hamming Code, named after its creator Richard Hamming) uses multiple parity bits that can detect and *correct* errors in a binary word.

 A simple algorithm is followed to insert parity bits into the binary data.

1. Number the bits starting at 1 from the left side:

2. Mark the positions that are powers of 2 (1, 2, 4, 8, 16, and so on) as the parity bits

3. All bit positions that are not powers of two will be used for the actual data:

- 4. The position of a parity bit determines which bits it checks:
 - Bit 1 checks positions 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, and so on
 - Bit 2 checks positions 2, 3, 6, 7, 10, 11, 14, 15, and so on
 - Bit 4 checks positions 4-7, 12-15, 20-23, and so on
 - Bit 8 checks positions 8-15, 24-31, 40-47, and so on
 - Each bit of the actual data is checked by two or more parity bits

• Bit 1 checks positions 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, and so on:

• Odd number of 1's

• Bit 2 checks positions 2, 3, 6, 7, 10, 11, 14, 15, and so on:

• Odd number of 1's

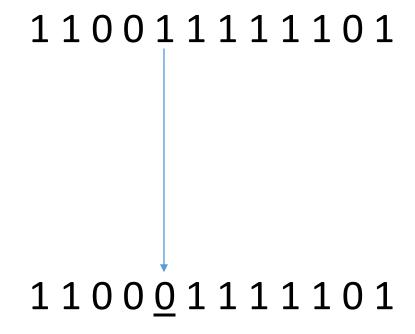
• Bit 4 checks positions 4-7, 12-15, 20-23, and so on:

• Even number of 1's

• Bit 8 checks positions 8-15, 24-31, 40-47, and so on:

• Odd number of 1's

• We'll say these bits are received with an error:



- Bit 1 gets checked (positions 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, and so on):
 - Odd parity; Error detected

1 1 **0** 0 **0** 1 **1** 1 1 1 0 1

- Bit 2 gets checked (positions 2, 3, 6, 7, 10, 11, 14, 15, and so on):
 - Even parity; No error detected

1 **1 0** 0 <u>0</u> **1 1** 1 1 **1 0** 1

- Bit 4 gets checked (positions 4-7, 12-15, 20-23, and so on):
 - Odd parity; Error detected

1 1 0 **0 0 1 1** 1 1 1 0 **1**

- Bit 8 gets checked (positions 8-15, 24-31, 40-47, and so on):
 - Even parity; No error detected

1 1 0 0 <u>0</u> 1 1 **1 1 1 0 1**

- Bit 1 + Bit 4 = Bit 5
 - Bit 5 is wrong

110011111111

• A **virtual machine** (VM) is a software-based computer that emulates all major functions of a physical computer system.

- Process virtual machines are VMs that only run a single program
 - Like the Java Virtual Machine runs Java programs, but not an entire operating system with emulated hardware.
- System virtual machines emulate an entire computer system.
 - Software like VMware and VirtualBox are System VMs

• A *hypervisor* (or virtual machine manager) is software that manages virtual machines

 The underlying physical computer that the virtual machine runs on is called the host.

- Virtual machines have become significant in that they:
 - Allow multiple "machines" to run on (and share) one physical server
 - These machines might have entirely different software and operating system configurations
 - One physical server, many environments to test software on
 - Virtual machines can run on the same server but are isolated from each other.
 - If one is compromised, it doesn't necessarily compromise the entire server.

- Many instruction sets were not created with virtualization in mind.
 - X86, MIPS, and ARM, to name a few

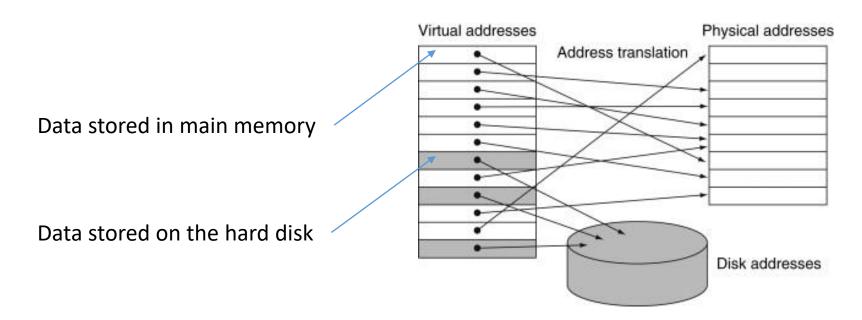
- The virtual machine cannot execute ISA-level instructions on the host system if the ISA does not support virtualization.
 - The virtualized system can only interact with virtualized resources

- Many instruction sets were not created with virtualization in mind.
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- The virtual machine cannot execute ISA-level instructions on the host system if the ISA does not support virtualization.
 - The virtualized system can only interact with virtualized resources

- Virtual memory is when the system's main memory gets used as cache for secondary storage devices (i.e., hard drives)
- Virtual memory allows for programs to only use a portion of main memory.
 - The program's address space is a range of virtual memory addresses available to the program.
- Virtual memory translates the virtual addresses to real, physical addresses of main memory
 - Called address mapping or address translation

- Virtual memory also expands the capacity of main memory.
 - Data that can't fit in main memory are stored in secondary storage devices.



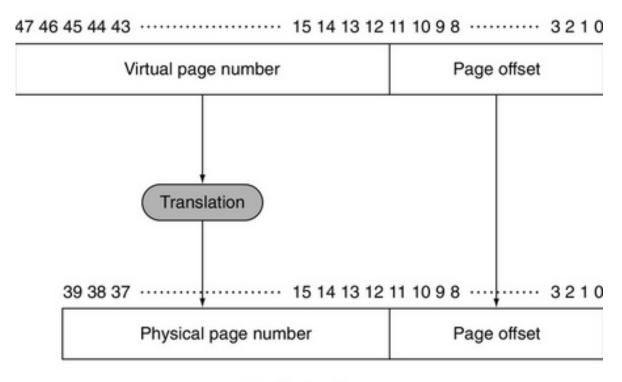
Virtual memory and caches operate on similar principles.

• Blocks of virtual memory are referred to as pages.

• Like when cache memory experiences a cache miss, virtual memory experiences a *page fault* when the page sought is not present.

- Virtual memory addresses are split into two sections: the virtual page number and page offset
- The virtual page number is translated to a physical page number
 - The physical page number will be the upper portion of a physical address
 - The page offset remains unchanged and is the lower portion of a physical address.

Virtual address



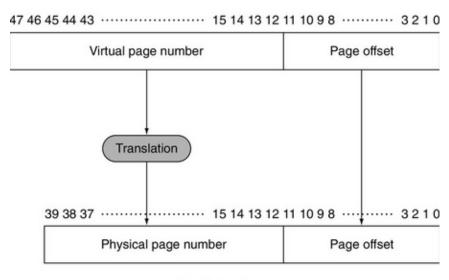
Physical address

$$Page\ Size = 2^{Number\ of\ Offset\ Bits}$$

 $Physical\ Pages = 2^{(Physical\ address\ length\ -\ Number\ of\ Offset\ Bits)}$

$$Address\ Space = 2^{(Address\ length)}$$

Virtual address



Physical address

- $Page\ Size = 2^{12} = 4\ KiB$
- *Physical Pages* = $2^{40-12} = 2^{28}$
- Virtual Memory
 - $Address Space = 2^{48} = 256 TiB$

- Physical Memory
 - $Address Space = 2^{40} = 1 TiB$

- Page faults to the hard disk are extremely time consuming.
 - By comparison, a page fault to main memory is about 100,000 times faster
- Pages should be large enough to compensate for high access times.
 - 4KiB to 16KiB are typical

Optimizing page placement reduces the frequency of page faults.

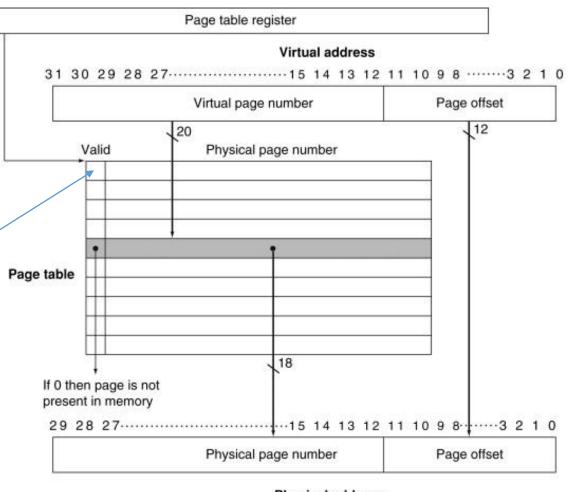
- Virtual memory systems use a *page table* to keep track of the virtual-to-physical memory translations.
 - Usually indexed by page number
 - Each table entry contains the physical page number for a virtual page number, provided the page is in memory

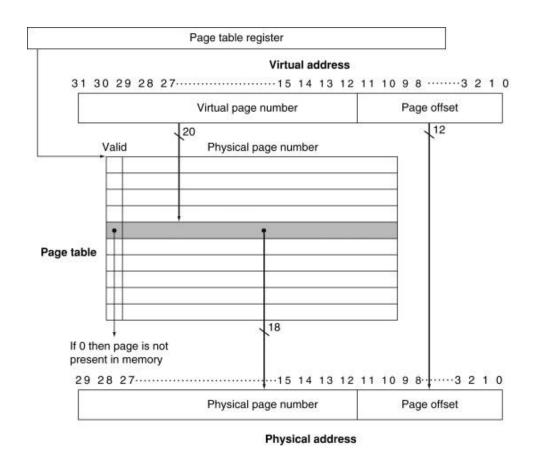
• Each program has its own page table that maps the virtual address space to physical memory addresses.

• The page table register points to the start of the page table

The valid bit is like valid/dirty bits in cache memory.

O will indicate a page fault.

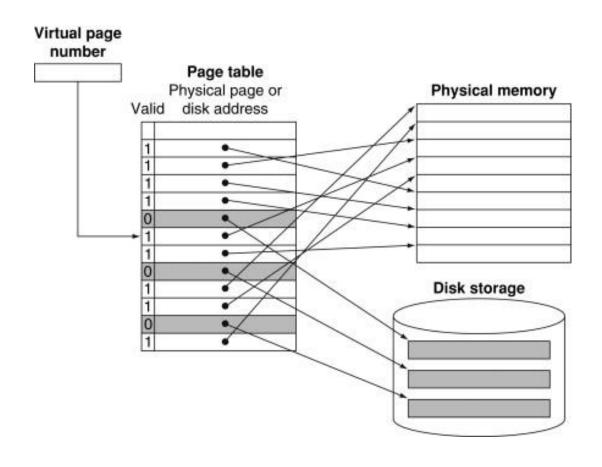




Page Table Entries = $2^{Virtual\ page\ number\ length} = 2^{20}$ = 1,048,576 entries

- The virtual address alone does not indicate where the page is on a hard disk.
 - The location of each page on disk in the virtual address space must be kept track of.

- The operating system creates *swap space* on the disk for all the pages of a process when the process is created.
 - Also creates records of where each virtual page is stored on disk.



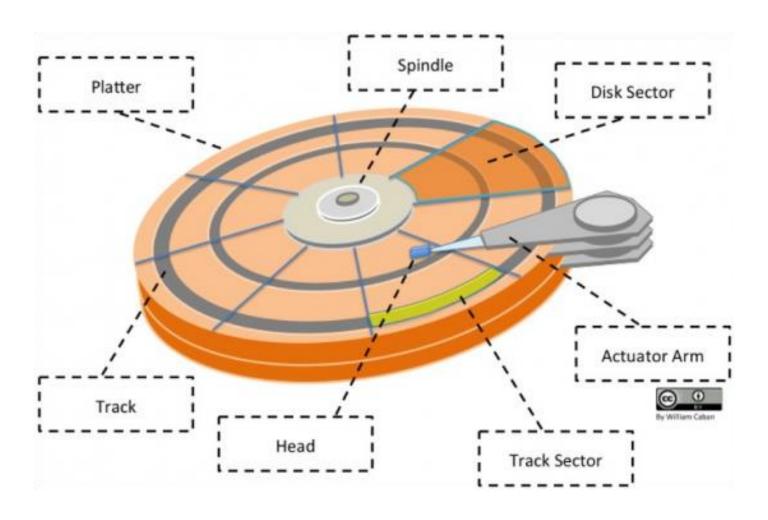
- If the valid bit is off, the page is on the hard disk
- The table of physical page addresses and disk page addresses, while logically one table, is stored in two separate data structures.
 - Dual tables are justified in part because we must keep the disk addresses of all the pages, even if they are currently in main memory

- Rotational hard disks consist of metal *platters* that rotate on a *spindle* at 5400 to 15,000 revolutions per minute.
 - The platters are covered with magnetic recording material on both sides.

- An actuator arm contains a small electromagnetic coil called a head is located just above the surface of each platter.
 - The actuator arm moves back and forth across the disk
 - The head reads and writes data to the disk.

• The surface of a platter is divided into concentric circles called *tracks*.

- Platters are further divided into sectors, typically 4096 bytes in size.
 - A track sector is the smallest unit of storage that can be allocated by the disk.
 - For example, a file that is only 100 bytes will still take up one whole track sector; A 5000-byte file will need to use 2 track sectors.



Hard disk performance is measured in a few different ways.

- Minimum seek time: The fastest the actuator can move a certain track
 - Seeking is the process of the actuator arm moving to a certain track
- Maximum seek time: The slowest the actuator can move a certain track
- Average seek time: Sum of all possible seek times divided by number of possible seeks

- One the actuator arm's head reaches the right track, it must wait for the platter to spin to the correct sector
 - Call the rotational latency
- Average rotational latency is one half of a rotation divided by the rotations per minute.
- For a disk with 5400 RPMs:

$$Average \ rotational \ latency = \frac{0.5 \ rotations}{5400 \ RPMs}$$

$$= \frac{0.5 \ rotations}{5400 \ RPMs/60 \frac{seconds}{minute}} = 0.0056 \ seconds = 5.6 \ ms$$