

CSCI 2021: Memory Systems

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Logistics

Reading Bryant/O'Hallaron

- ▶ Ch 4: Finish / Skim
- ▶ Ch 6: Memory

Goals

- ▶ Finish Arch
- ▶ 2D arrays
- ▶ Timing issues
- ▶ Memory efficient programs
- ▶ Permanent Storage

Assignments

- ▶ Lab 11: `clock()` function
- ▶ HW 11: Memory Optimization
- ▶ Both deal with memory layout affecting performance

Project 4

Later today

Architecture Performance

```
// LOOP 1
for(i=0; i<iters; i++){
    retA += delA;
    retB += delB;
}
*start = retA+retB;
```

```
// LOOP 2
for(i=0; i<iters; i++){
    retA += delA;
    retA += delB;
}
*start = retA;
```

- ▶ LOOP1 or LOOP2 faster?
- ▶ Why?

Exercise: 2D Arrays

- ▶ Several ways to construct “2D” arrays in C
- ▶ All must *embed* a 2D construct into 1-dimensional memory
- ▶ Consider the 2 styles below: **how will the picture of memory look different?**

```
// REPEATED MALLOC
// allocate
int rows=100, cols=30;
int **mat =
    malloc(rows * sizeof(int*));

for(int i=0; i<rows; i++){
    mat[i] = malloc(cols*sizeof(int));
}

// do work
mat[i][j] = ...

// free memory
for(int i=0; i<rows; i++){
    free(mat[i]);
}
free(mat);
```

```
// TWO MALLOCs
// allocate
int rows=100, cols=30;
int **mat =
    malloc(rows * sizeof(int*));
int *data =
    malloc(rows*cols*sizeof(int));
for(int i=0; i<rows; i++){
    mat[i] = data+i*cols;
}

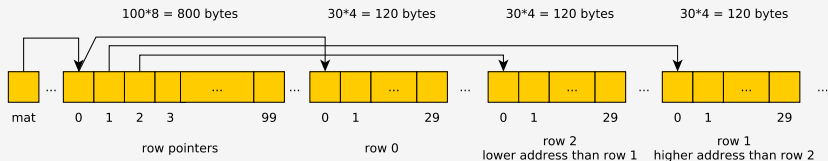
// do work
mat[i][j] = ...

// free memory
free(data);

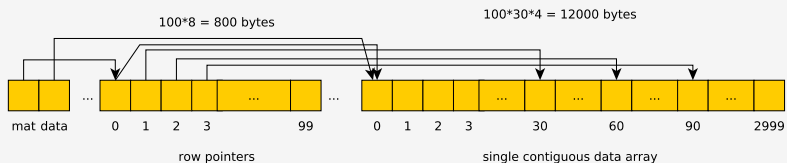
free(mat);
```

Answer: 2D Arrays

Repeated Mallocs



Two Mallocs



Single Malloc Matrices

Somewhat common to use a 1D array as a 2D matrix as in

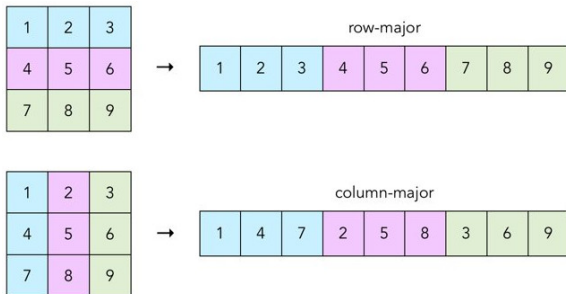
```
int *matrix =  
    malloc(rows*cols*sizeof(int));  
  
int i=5, j=20;  
int elem_ij = matrix[ i*cols + j ]; // retrieve element i,j
```

P4 will use this technique along with some structs and macros to make it more readable:

```
matrix_t mat;  
matrix_init(&mat, rows, cols);  
  
int elij = MGET(mat,i,j);  
// elij = mat.data[ mat.cols*i + j]  
  
MSET(mat,i,j, 55);  
// mat.data[ mat.cols*i + j ] = 55;
```

Aside: Row-Major vs Col-Major Layout

- ▶ Many languages use **Row-Major** order for 2D arrays/lists
 - ▶ C, Java, Python, Ocaml,...
 - ▶ `mat[i]` is a contiguous row, `mat[i][j]` is an element
- ▶ Numerically-oriented languages use **Column-Major** order
 - ▶ Fortran, Matlab/Octave, R, Ocaml (?)...
 - ▶ `mat[j]` is a contiguous **column**, `mat[i][j]` is an element
- ▶ Being aware of language convention can increase efficiency



Source: The Craft of Coding

Exercise: Matrix Summing

- ▶ How are the two codes below different?
- ▶ Are they doing the same number of operations?
- ▶ Which will run faster?

```
int sumR = 0;
for(int i=0; i<rows; i++){
    for(int j=0; j<cols; j++){
        sumR += mat[i][j];
    }
}
```

```
int sumC = 0;
for(int j=0; j<cols; j++){
    for(int i=0; i<rows; i++){
        sumC += mat[i][j];
    }
}
```


Answer: Matrix Summing

- ▶ Show timing in `matrix_timing.c`
- ▶ `sumR` faster than `sumC`: caching effects
- ▶ Discuss timing functions used to determine duration of runs

```
> gcc -Og matrix_timing.c
```

```
> a.out 50000 10000
```

```
sumR: 1711656320 row-wise CPU time: 0.265 sec, Wall time: 0.265
```

```
sumC: 1711656320 col-wise CPU time: 1.307 sec, Wall time: 1.307
```

- ▶ `sumR` runs about 6 times faster than `sumC`
- ▶ Understanding why requires knowledge of the memory hierarchy and cache behavior

Measuring Time in Code

- ▶ Measure CPU time with the standard `clock()` function; measure time difference and convert to seconds
- ▶ Measure Wall (real) time with `gettimeofday()` or related functions; fills struct with info on time of day (duh)

CPU Time

```
#include <time.h>

clock_t begin, end;
begin = clock(); // current cpu moment

do_something();

end = clock(); // later moment

double cpu_time =
    ((double) (end-begin)) / CLOCKS_PER_SEC;
```

Real (Wall) Time

```
#include <sys/time.h>

struct timeval tv1, tv2;
gettimeofday(&tv1, NULL); // early time

do_something();

gettimeofday(&tv2, NULL); // later time

double wall_time =
    ((tv2.tv_sec-tv1.tv_sec)) +
    ((tv2.tv_usec-tv1.tv_usec) / 1000000.0);
```

Tools to Measure Performance: perf

- ▶ The Linux `perf` tool is useful to measure performance of an entire program
- ▶ Shows variety of statistics tracked by the kernel about things like memory performance
- ▶ **Examine** examples involving the `matrix_timing` program: `sumR` vs `sumC`
- ▶ **Determine** statistics that explain the performance gap between these two?

Exercise: perf stats for sumR vs sumC, what's striking?

```
> perf stat $perfopts ./matrix_timing 8000 4000 row    ## RUN sumR ROW SUMMING
sumR: 1227611136 row-wise CPU time: 0.019 sec, Wall time: 0.019
```

```
Performance counter stats for './matrix_timing 8000 4000 row':      %SAMPLED
135,161,407    cycles:u                                           (45.27%)
417,889,646    instructions:u          #  3.09  insn per cycle      (56.22%)
 56,413,529    L1-dcache-loads:u                                           (55.96%)
  3,843,602    L1-dcache-load-misses:u #  6.81% of all L1-dcache hits (50.41%)
28,153,429    L1-dcache-stores:u                                           (47.42%)
   125         L1-icache-load-misses:u                                     (44.77%)
 3,473,211    cache-references:u      # last level of cache      (56.22%)
1,161,006     cache-misses:u          # 33.427 % of all cache refs (56.22%)
```

```
> perf stat $perfopts ./matrix_timing 8000 4000 col    # RUN sumC COLUMN SUMMING
sumC: 1227611136 col-wise CPU time: 0.086 sec, Wall time: 0.086
```

```
Performance counter stats for './matrix_timing 8000 4000 col':      %SAMPLED
372,203,024    cycles:u                                           (40.60%)
404,821,793    instructions:u          #  1.09  insn per cycle      (57.23%)
 61,990,626    L1-dcache-loads:u                                           (60.21%)
 39,281,370    L1-dcache-load-misses:u # 63.37% of all L1-dcache hits (45.66%)
23,886,332    L1-dcache-stores:u                                           (43.24%)
   2,486       L1-icache-load-misses:u                                     (40.82%)
32,582,656    cache-references:u      # last level of cache      (59.38%)
1,894,514     cache-misses:u          #  5.814 % of all cache refs (60.38%)
```

Answers: perf stats for sumR vs sumC, what's striking?

Observations

- ▶ Similar number of instructions between row/col versions
- ▶ #cycles lower for row version → higher insn per cycle
- ▶ **L1-dcache-misses**: marked difference between row/col version
- ▶ **Last Level Cache Refs** : many, many more in col version
- ▶ Col version: much time spent waiting for memory system to feed in data to the processor

Notes

- ▶ The right-side percentages like (50.41%) indicate how much of how much of the time this feature is measured; some items can't be monitored all the time.
- ▶ Specific perf invocation is in `10-memory-systems-code/measure-cache.sh`

Exercise: Time and Throughput

Consider the following simple loop to sum elements of an array from `stride_throughput.c`

```
int *data = ...;    // global array
int sum_simple(int len, int stride){
    int sum = 0;
    for(int i=0; i<len; i+=stride)
    {
        sum += data[i];
    }
    return sum;
}
```

- ▶ Param `stride` controls step size through loop
- ▶ Interested in two features of the `sum_simple()` function:

1. Total Time to complete
2. **Throughput:**

$$\text{Throughput} = \frac{\# \text{Additions}}{\text{Second}}$$

- ▶ How would one **measure and calculate** these two in a program?
- ▶ As stride increases, **predict how Total Time and Throughput change**

Answers: Time and Throughput

Measuring Time/Throughput

Most interested in CPU time so

```
begin = clock();  
sum_simple(length,stride);  
end = clock();  
cpu_time = ((double) (end-begin))  
           / CLOCKS_PER_SEC;
```

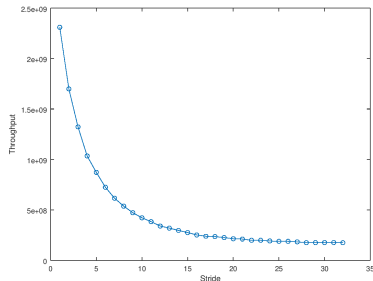
```
throughput = ((double) length) /  
             stride /  
             cpu_time;
```

Time vs Throughput

As stride increases...

- ▶ Time decreases: doing fewer additions (duh)
- ▶ Throughput **decreases**

Plot of Stride vs Throughput

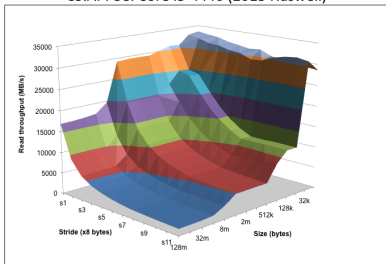


- ▶ Stride = 1: consecutive memory accesses
- ▶ Stride = 16: jumps through memory, more time

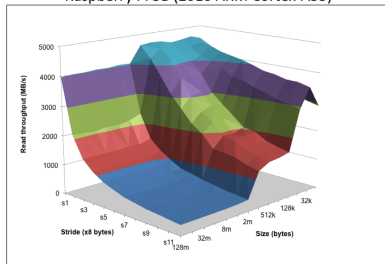
Memory Mountains from Bryant/O'Hallaron

- ▶ Varying stride for a fixed length leads to decreasing performance, 2D plot
- ▶ Can also vary length for size of array to get a 3D plot
- ▶ Illustrates features of CPU/memory on a system
- ▶ The “Memory Mountain” on the cover of our textbook
- ▶ What **interesting structure** do you see?

CS:APP3e: Core i5-4440 (2013 Haswell)



Raspberry Pi 3B (2016 ARM Cortex-A53)



Increasing Efficiency

- ▶ Can increase the efficiency of loop summing with tricks
- ▶ B/O'H use multiple *accumulators*: multiple variables for summing
- ▶ Facilitates pipelining / superscalar processor
- ▶ Code is significantly faster BUT much trickier and less readable
- ▶ May be compiler options which enable this but not with defaults in gcc -O3 (try searching [optimization options](#), ~67 pages)

```
// From Bryant/O'Hallaron
int sum_add4(int elems, int stride){
    int i,
        sx1 = stride*1, sx2 = stride*2,
        sx3 = stride*3, sx4 = stride*4,
        acc0 = 0, acc1 = 0,
        acc2 = 0, acc3 = 0;
    int length = elems;
    int limit = length - sx4;

    /* Combine 4 elements at a time */
    for (i = 0; i < limit; i += sx4) {
        acc0 = acc0 + data[i];
        acc1 = acc1 + data[i+sx1];
        acc2 = acc2 + data[i+sx2];
        acc3 = acc3 + data[i+sx3];
    }

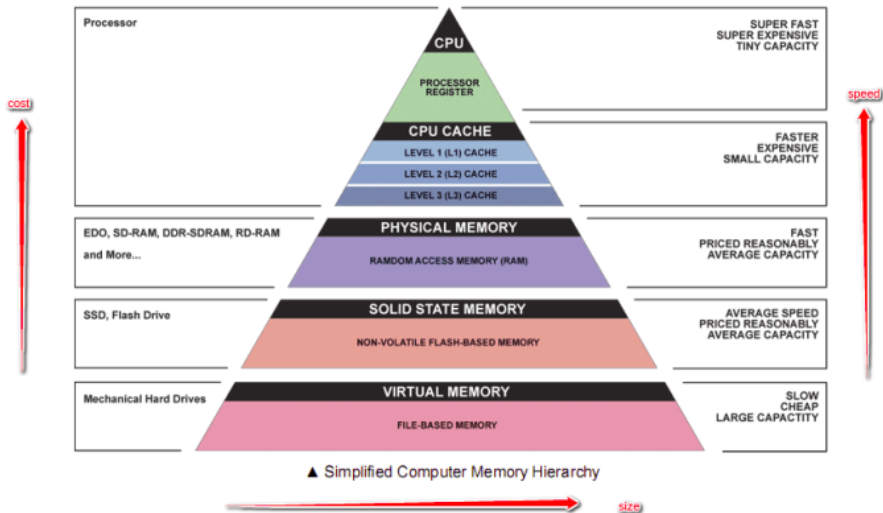
    /* Finish any remaining elements */
    for (; i < length; i += stride) {
        acc0 = acc0 + data[i];
    }
    return acc0+acc1+acc2+acc3;
}
```

Temporal and Spatial Locality

- ▶ In the beginning, there was only CPU and Memory
- ▶ Both ran at about the same speed (same clock frequency)
- ▶ CPUs were easier to make faster, began outpacing speed of memory
- ▶ Hardware folks noticed programmers often write loops like

```
for(int i=0; i<0; i++){  
    sum += array[i];  
}
```
- ▶ Led to development of faster memories exploit Locality
- ▶ **Temporal Locality**: memory recently used likely to be used again soon
- ▶ **Spatial Locality**: memory near to recently used memory likely to be used
- ▶ Register file and Cache were developed to exploit this: faster memory that is automatically managed

The Memory Pyramid



Source

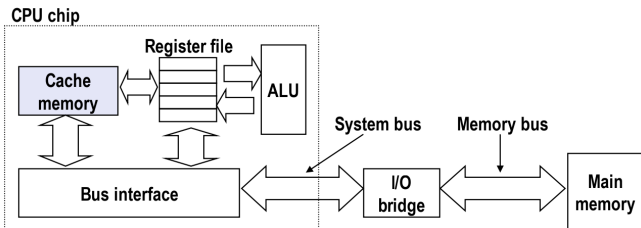
Numbers Everyone Should Know

Edited Excerpt of [Jeff Dean's](#) talk on data centers.

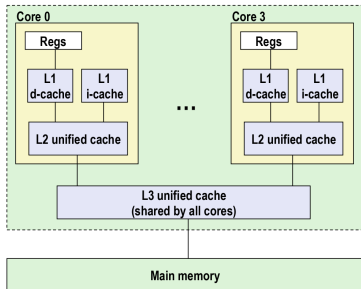
Reference	Time	Analogy
Register	-	Your brain
L1 cache reference	0.5 ns	Your desk
L2 cache reference	7 ns	Neighbor's Desk
Main memory reference	100 ns	This Room
Disk seek	10,000,000 ns	Salt Lake City

Big-O Analysis does NOT capture these; proficient programmers do

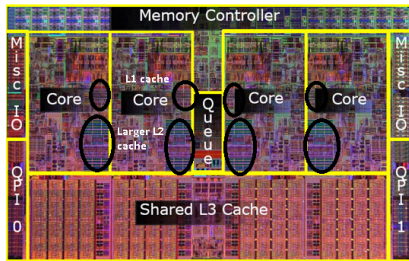
Diagrams of Memory Interface and Cache Levels



Source: Bryant/O'Hallaron CS:APP 3rd Ed.



Bryant and O'Hallaron, Computer Systems: A Programmer's Perspective, Third Edition



Source: SO "Where exactly L1, L2 and L3 Caches located in computer?"

Why isn't Everything Cache?

Metric	1985	1990	1995	2000	2005	2010	2015	2015/1985
SRAM \$/MB	2,900	320	256	100	75	60	25	116
SRAM access (ns)	150	35	15	3	2	1.5	1.3	115
DRAM \$/MB	880	100	30	1	0.1	0.06	0.02	44,000
DRAM access (ns)	200	100	70	60	50	40	20	10

Source: Bryant/O'Hallaron CS:APP 3rd Ed., Fig 6.15, pg 603

1 bit SRAM = 6 transistors

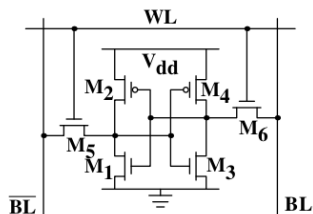


Figure 2.4: 6-T Static RAM

1 bit DRAM = 1 transistor + 1 capacitor

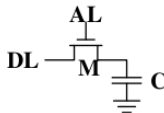


Figure 2.5: 1-T Dynamic RAM

[“What Every Programmer Should Know About Memory” by Ulrich Drepper, Red Hat, Inc.](#)

Cache Principles: Hits and Misses

CPU-Memory is a Client-Server

- ▶ CPU makes requests
- ▶ Memory system services request as fast as possible

Cache Hit

- ▶ CPU requests memory at address 0xFFFF1234 be loaded into register %rax
- ▶ **Finds** valid data for 0xFFFF1234 in L1 Cache: **L1 Hit**
- ▶ Loads into register fast

Cache Miss

- ▶ CPU requests memory at address 0xFFFF7890 be loaded into register %rax
- ▶ 0xFFFF7890 **not in L1**
Cache: **L1 Miss**
- ▶ Search L2: if found move into L1, then %rax
- ▶ Search L3: if found move into L2, L1, %rax
- ▶ Search main memory: if found, move into caches, if not...

Wait, how could 0xFFFF7890 not be in main memory... ?

Types of Cache Misses

Compulsory “Cold” Miss: Getting Started

- ▶ First time accessing an element in a program
- ▶ After the cache “warms up” hopefully doesn’t happen much

Capacity Miss: Too Big to Fit

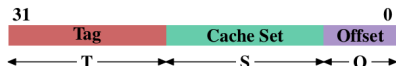
- ▶ **Working set** is set of memory being frequently accessed in a phase of a program
- ▶ Large working set may exceed the size of a cache

Conflict Miss: This Stall Occupied

- ▶ Internal **placement policies** of cache lead to a conflict
- ▶ Two pieces of memory in working set both want to reside at the same location but cannot
- ▶ Makes more sense after discussing placement policies

Memory Address Determines Location in a Cache

- ▶ Cache specified by
 - ▶ # of **Sets** S
 - ▶ # of **Lines** per Set E
 - ▶ # of bytes in a **Block** B
- ▶ Each Line in a Set has a **Tag**
- ▶ Combination of (tag+set) uniquely identifies a Block in memory
- ▶ To determine whether memory address A is in cache, check each line in associated Set for its Tag
- ▶ Specific byte will be at an **Offset** in cache block



Address Bits to Cache Location

- ▶ Bits from address determine location for memory in cache
- ▶ Direct-Mapped cache, 4 sets and 16 byte blocks/lines

- ▶ Load address 0x28

0 2 8
0x28 = 00 10 1000
| | |
| | +-> Offset: 4 bits
| +-> Set: 2 bits
+-> Tag: Remaining bits

- ▶ 0x20 in the same line, will also be loaded into set #2

Exercises: Anatomy of a Simple CPU Cache

MAIN MEMORY

Addr	Addr Bits			Value	Tag	Set	Off
00	00	00	0000	331	00	0	0
08	00	00	1000	332	00	0	8
10	00	01	0000	333	00	1	0
18	00	01	1000	334	00	1	8
20	00	10	0000	335	00	2	0
28	00	10	1000	336	00	2	8
30	00	11	0000	337	00	3	0
38	00	11	1000	338	00	3	8
...							
C0	11	00	0000	551	11	0	0
C8	11	00	1000	552	11	0	8
D0	11	01	0000	553	11	1	0
D8	11	01	1000	554	11	1	8
E0	11	10	0000	555	11	2	0
E8	11	10	1000	556	11	2	8
F0	11	11	0000	557	11	3	0
F8	11	11	1000	558	11	3	8

	Tag	Set	Offset				

CACHE

			Blocks/Line	
Set	V	Tag	0-7	8-15

00	0	-	-	
01	1	00	333	334
10	1	11	555	556
11	1	00	337	338

			0-7	8-15
DIRECT-MAPPED Cache				
- Direct-mapped: 1 line per set				
- 16-byte lines = 4-bit offset				
- 4 Sets = 2-bit index				
- 8-bit Address = 2-bit tag				
- Total Cache Size = 64 bytes				
4 sets * 16 bytes				
HITS OR MISSES? Show effects				
1. Load 0x08				
2. Load 0xF0				
3. Load 0x18				

Answers: Anatomy of a Simple CPU Cache

MAIN MEMORY

Addr	Addr Bits			Value	Tag	Set	Off
00	00	00	0000	331	00	0	0
08	00	00	1000	332	00	0	8
10	00	01	0000	333	00	1	0
18	00	01	1000	334	00	1	8
20	00	10	0000	335	00	2	0
28	00	10	1000	336	00	2	8
30	00	11	0000	337	00	3	0
38	00	11	1000	338	00	3	8
...							
C0	11	00	0000	551	11	0	0
C8	11	00	1000	552	11	0	8
D0	11	01	0000	553	11	1	0
D8	11	01	1000	554	11	1	8
E0	11	10	0000	555	11	2	0
E8	11	10	1000	556	11	2	8
F0	11	11	0000	557	11	3	0
F8	11	11	1000	558	11	3	8

	Tag	Set	Offset				

CACHE

			Blocks/Line	
Set	V	Tag	0-7	8-15

00	1	*00	331	332
01	1	00	333	334
10	1	11	555	556
11	1	*11	557	558

			0-7	8-15

DIRECT-MAPPED Cache

- Direct-mapped: 1 line per set
- 16-byte lines = 4-bit offset
- 4 Sets = 2-bit index
- 8-bit Address = 2-bit tag
- Total Cache Size = 64 bytes
4 sets * 16 bytes

HITS OR MISSES? Show effects

1. Load 0x08: MISS to set 00
2. Load 0xF0: MISS overwrite set 11
3. Load 0x18: HIT in set 01
no change

Direct vs Associative Caches

Direct Mapped

One line per set

Set	V	Tag	Blocks/Line	
			0-7	8-15
00	0	-	-	-
01	1	00	333	334
10	1	11	555	556
11	1	00	337	338

- ▶ Simple circuitry
- ▶ **Conflict misses** may result: 1 slot for many possible tags
- ▶ **Thrashing:** need memory with overlapping tags

vv
 0x10 = 00 01 0000 : in cache
 0xD8 = 11 01 1000 : conflict
 ^^

N-Way Associative Cache

Ex: 2-way = 2 lines per set

Set	V	Tag	Blocks		
			0-7	8-15	
00	0	-	-	-	Line1
	1	11	551	552	Line2
01	1	00	333	334	Line1
	1	11	553	554	Line2
10	1	11	555	556	Line1
	0	-	-	-	Line2
11	1	00	337	338	Line1
	1	11	557	558	Line2

- ▶ Complex circuitry → \$\$
- ▶ Requires an **eviction policy**, usually least recently used

How big is your cache? Check Linux System special Files

lscpu Utility

Handy Linux program that summarizes info on CPU(s)

```
> lscpu
Architecture:      x86_64
CPU op-mode(s):    32-bit, 64-bit
Byte Order:        Little Endian
Address sizes:      36 bits physical,
                   48 bits virtual
CPU(s):            4
Vendor ID:         GenuineIntel
CPU family:        6
Model:             58
Model name:        Intel(R) Core(TM)
                   i7-3667U CPU @ 2.00GHz
...
L1d cache:         64 KiB
L1i cache:         64 KiB
L2 cache:          512 KiB
L3 cache:          4 MiB
Vulnerability Meltdown: Mitigation; ...
Vulnerability Spectre v1: Mitigation; ...
...
```

Detailed Hardware Info

Files under /sys/devices/...
show hardware info (caches)

```
> cd /sys/devices/system/cpu/cpu0/cache/
> ls
index0  index1  index2  index3 ...

> ls index0/
number_of_sets  type  level  size
ways_of_associativity ...

> cd index0
> cat level type number_* ways_* size
1 Data 64 8 32K

> cd ../index1
> cat level type number_* ways_* size
1 Instruction 64 8 32K

> cd ../index3
> cat level type number_* ways_* size
3 Unified 8192 20 10240K
```

Disks: Persistent Block Storage

- ▶ Have discussed a variety of fast memories which are **small**
- ▶ At the bottom of the pyramid are **disks**: slow but **large** memories
- ▶ These are **persistent**: when powered off, they retain information

Using Disk as Main Memory

- ▶ Operating Systems can create the illusion that main memory is larger than it is in reality
- ▶ Ex: 2 GB DRAM + 6 GB of disk space = 8 GB Main Memory
- ▶ Disk file is called **swap** or a **swap file**
- ▶ Naturally much slower than RAM so OS will try to limit its use
- ▶ A **Virtual Memory** system manages RAM/Disk as main memory, will discuss later in the course

Flavors of Permanent Storage

- ▶ Permanent storage often referred to as a “drive”
- ▶ Comes in many variants but these 3 are worth knowing about in the modern era
 1. Rotating Disk Drive
 2. Solid State Drive
 3. Magnetic Tape Drive
- ▶ Surveyed in the slides that follow

Ye Olde Rotating Disk

- ▶ Store bits “permanently” as magnetized areas on special platters
- ▶ Magnetic disks: moving parts → slow
- ▶ Cheap per GB of space

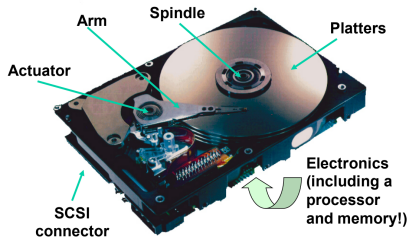
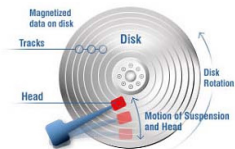


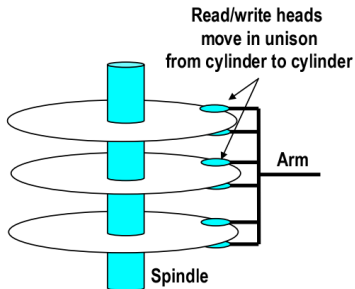
Image courtesy of Seagate Technology

Source: CS:APP Slides

HARD DRIVE DATA READ & WRITE OPERATION MOTION DIAGRAM



Source: Realtechs.net



Rotating Disk Drive Features of Interest

Measures of Quality

- ▶ Capacity: bigger is usually better
- ▶ Seek Time: delay before a head assembly reaches an arbitrary track of the disk that contains data
- ▶ Rotational Latency: time for disk to spin around to correct position; faster rotation → lower Latency
- ▶ Transfer Rate: once correct read/write position is found, how fast data moves between disk and RAM

Sequential vs Random Access

Due to the rotational nature of Magnetic Disks...

- ▶ Sequential reads/writes comparatively FAST
- ▶ Random reads/writes comparatively very SLOW

Solid State Drives

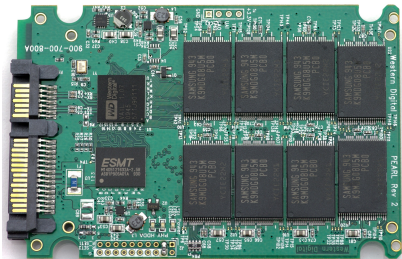
- ▶ No moving parts → speed
- ▶ Most use “flash” memory, non-volatile circuitry
- ▶ Major drawback: limited number of **writes**, disk wears out eventually

- ▶ Reads faster than writes
- ▶ Sequential somewhat faster than random access
- ▶ **Expensive:**

A 1TB internal 2.5-inch hard drive costs between \$40 and \$50, but as of this writing, an SSD of the same capacity and form factor starts at \$250. That translates into

- 4 to 5 cents/GB for HDD
- 25 cents/GB for the SSD.

PC Magazine, “SSD vs HDD” by Tom Brant and Joel Santo Domingo March 26, 2018

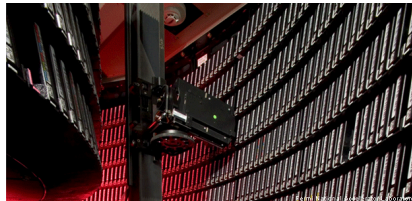


Tape Drives

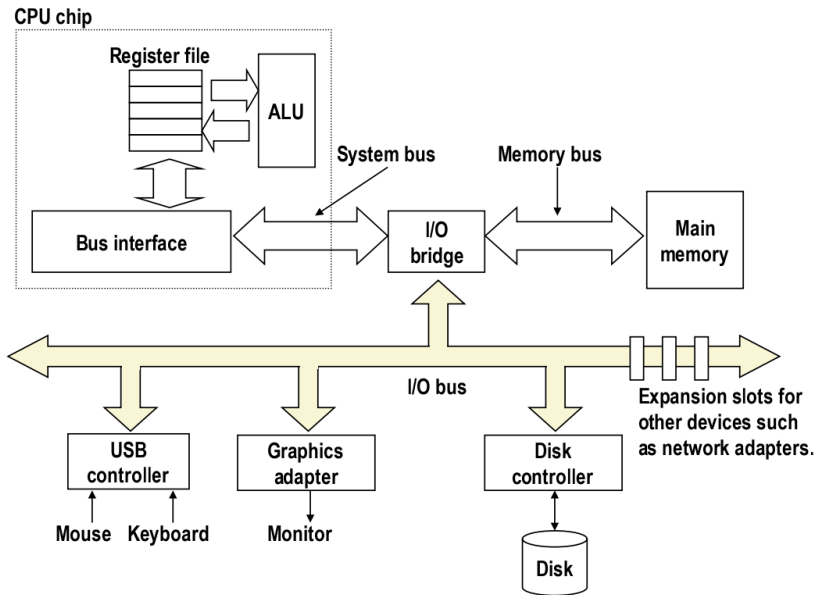
- ▶ Slowest yet: store bits as magnetic field on a piece of “tape” a la 1980’s cassette tape / video recorder



- ▶ Extremely cheap per GB so mostly used in backup systems
- ▶ Ex: CSELabs does nightly backups of home directories, recoverable from tape at request to Operator



The I/O System Connects CPU and Peripherals



Terminology

Bus A collection of wires which allow communication between parts of the computer. May be serial (single wire) or parallel (several wires), must have a communication protocol over it.

Bus Speed Frequency of the clock signal on a particular bus, usually different between components/buses requiring interface chips

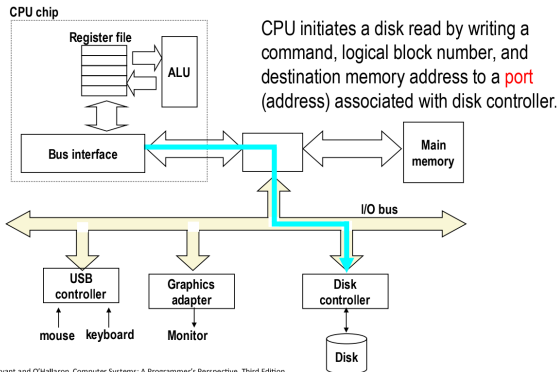
CPU Frequency > Memory Bus > I/O Bus

Interface/Bridge Computing chips that manage communications across the bus possibly routing signals to correct part of the computer and adapting to differing speeds of components

Motherboard A printed circuit board connects to connect CPU to RAM chips and peripherals. Has buses present on it to allow communication between parts. *Form factor* dictates which components can be handled.

Memory Mapped I/O

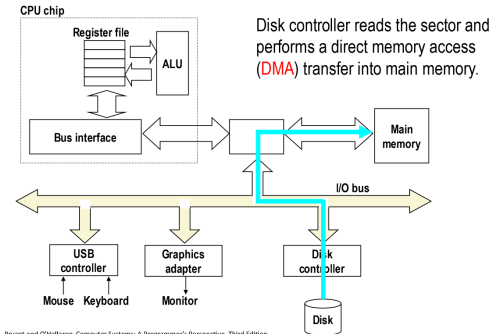
- ▶ Modern systems are a collection of devices and microprocessors
- ▶ CPU usually uses **memory mapped I/O**: read/write certain memory addresses translated to communication with devices on I/O bus



Bryant and O'Hallaron, Computer Systems: A Programmer's Perspective, Third Edition

Direct Memory Access

- ▶ Communication received by *other* microprocessors like a Disk Controller or Memory Management Unit (MMU)
- ▶ Other controllers may talk: Disk Controller loads data directly into Main Memory via **direct memory access**

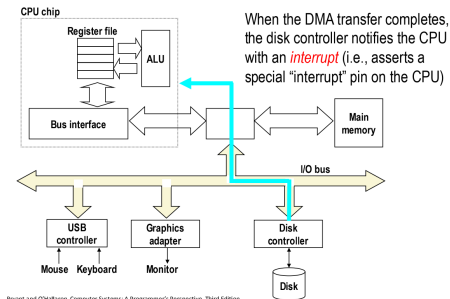


Interrupts and I/O

Recall access times

Place	Time
L1 cache	0.5 ns
RAM	100 ns
Disk	10,000,000 ns

- ▶ While running Program X, CPU reads an int from disk into %rax
- ▶ Communicates to disk controller to read from file
- ▶ Rather than wait, OS puts Program X to “sleep”, starts running program Y



- ▶ When disk controller completes read, signals the CPU via an **interrupt**, electrical signals indicating an event
- ▶ OS handles interrupt, schedules Program X as “ready to run”

Interrupts from Outside and Inside

- ▶ Examples of events that generate interrupts
 - ▶ Integer divide by 0
 - ▶ I/O Operation complete
 - ▶ Memory address not in RAM (Page Fault)
 - ▶ User generated: x86 instruction `int 80`
- ▶ Interrupts are mainly the business of the Operating System
- ▶ Usually cause generating program to immediately transfer control to the OS for handling
- ▶ When building your own OS, must write “interrupt handlers” to deal with above situations
 - ▶ Divide by 0: **signal** program usually terminating it
 - ▶ I/O Complete: schedule requesting program to run
 - ▶ Page Fault: sleep program until page loaded
 - ▶ User generated: perform system call
- ▶ User-level programs will sometimes get a little access to interrupts via **signals**, a topic for CSCI 4061