

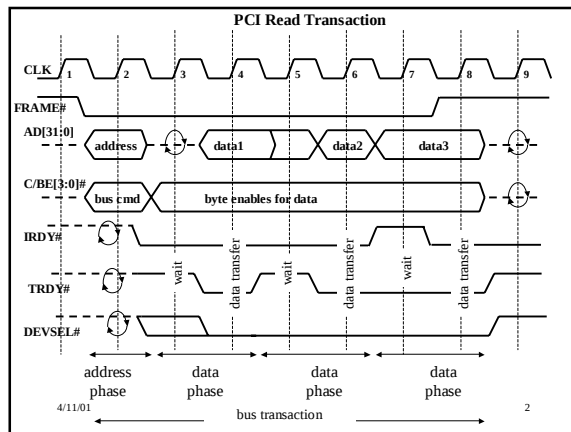
Solving Bus Contention between Multiple Devices

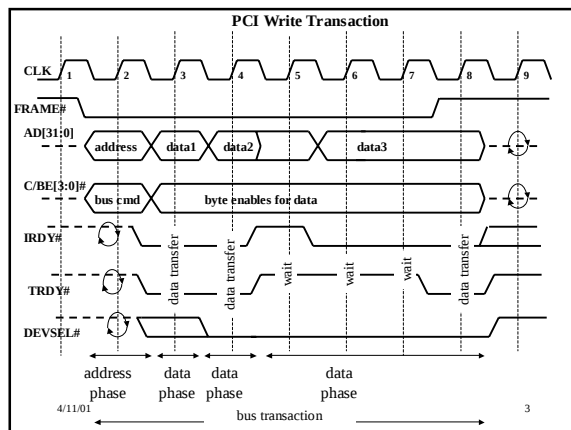
- Central Arbitration - arbiter decides which device gets the bus via Bus Request/Bus Grant pairs
- Single Bus Master – one device (the Root) initiates and controls all transfers (used by USB, IEEE Firewire)
- Time Division Multiplexing (TDM) – give each device a scheduled time period in which to access the bus
- Carrier Sense Multiple Access (CSMA)
 - Used by single-cable Ethernet
 - Each device listens to what it sends - if data is corrupted, then this means that a collision occurred (multiple devices tried to send)
 - On collision, wait a random amount of time ('backoff time'), then try again. On successive collisions, keep increasing the range of backoff time.

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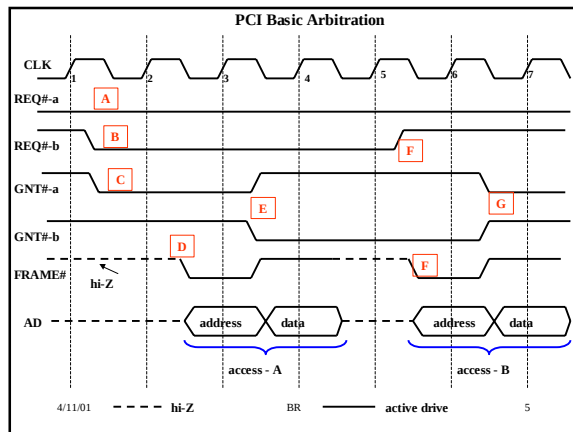
Read, Write Transactions

- Master drives FRAME#, Bus command, provides address, provides data (write only)
- Target (slave) decodes address, provides data (read), accepts data (write)
 - For READ, *turnaround* cycle needed on AD for target to drive Address/data lines with data
 - For READ, initial latency of data from address is at least 1 cycle (turnaround)
 - For WRITE, data can follow on cycle immediately after address
- Data can be transferred every clock. Wait cycles can be inserted by either Master or Slave
 - IRDY# driven by master to indicate it is ready to provide data
 - TRDY# driven by target to indicate it is ready to provide data
 - Both IRDY# and TRDY# must be asserted to perform a data transfer

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Notes on Arbitration

- A** Device A has its request line asserted, requesting the bus.
- B** Device B asserts its request line, also requesting the bus.
- C** Arbiter grants Device A the bus since it had its request line asserted before Device B.
- D** Device A asserts FRAME#, indicating that it is the current bus master. Device A sends address, data – transaction completed in cycle 4. Device A negates FRAME#, releasing bus, but keeps its request asserted, indicating that it desires another transaction.
- E** Arbiter grants bus to Device B by asserting GNT#-b and negating GNT#-a. Device B must have higher priority than Device A.
- F** Device B only requires bus for one transaction, so negates its request while asserting FRAME#, indicating it is the bus master – the transaction is completed in cycle 6.
- G** Arbiter grants Device A the bus by asserting GNT#-a, and negating GNT#-b.

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Latency vs. Throughput

- Latency is the time from when an operation is started to when the data is ready
- Throughput is operations per unit time
- Desire low latency and high throughput, but these are usually traded off against one another
- *Arbitration Latency* is time (in clocks) between a master's REQ# assertion and its GNT# assertion
 - depends on number of bus masters, priority scheme, and the length of each master's transactions
- Long transactions by bus masters increase arbitration latency for other bus masters since they have to wait for the transactions to complete
 - Arbiter needs some method of controlling the arbitration latency

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PCI Latency Timer

- The Latency Timer is a programmable timer required in each bus master that will limit the amount of time a master can control the bus
 - used by OS to balance bus performance by controlling the arbitration latency

Data Phases	Bytes Transf.	Total Clks	Lat. Timer	Bandwidth (MB/s)	Latency (us)
8	32	16	14	67	0.48
16	64	24	22	89	0.72
32	128	40	38	107	1.20
64	256	72	70	119	2.16

Note that as throughput goes up (better bus utilization), latency increases. Numbers assume initial 8 clock latency from address and a 32-bit bus.

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Theoretical Maximum (Peak) Bandwidth

- Peak Bandwidth of PCI is:
bytes per clock * clk freq = MB/s
- 32 bit bus, 33 Mhz: $4 * 33 \text{ Mhz} = 132 \text{ MB/s}$
- 64 bit bus, 66 Mhz: $8 * 66 \text{ Mhz} = 528 \text{ MB/s}$
- PCI cannot achieve peak bandwidth. Many factors contribute to not reaching peak bandwidth
 - turnaround cycles on a bus are "dead" cycles (no data transferred)
 - handoff cycles from one bus master to another bus master
 - address phase of transaction does not transfer data
- Clocks for a PCI transaction is initial target latency (includes time for address phase) + data phases (assume 1 clk/data phase).

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PCI Bus Example

Device	Bandwidth (MB/s)	Bytes/10 us	Time Used (us)	# of transactions per slice	Notes
Graphics	50	500	6.15	10	1
LAN	4	40	0.54	1	2
Disk	5	50	0.63	1	3
ISA Bridge	4	40	0.78	2	4
PCI to PCI bridge	9	90	1.17	2	5
Total	72	720	9.27	16	2.16

All transactions assume an 8 clock initial target latency.

Note that bus utilization is 93%, but only $72/132 = 55\%$ of peak bandwidth is achieved.

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PCI Notes

- Supports 5V and 3.3V signaling
 - I/O buffers on board draw power from either 5.0V or 3.3V rail
- On backplane pinout, CLK is bracketed by two Ground pins to shield other signals from noise coupling
- CLK frequency is 33 Mhz or 66 Mhz.
 - Same protocol (all transfers on rising edge of clock)
 - All devices on 66 Mhz PCI bus must operate at 66 Mhz
- Split transactions is not supported on the PCI bus
 - Once the bus is released by the master, the transaction is over with
 - Can't send the address, then release the bus and come back and get the data later – must wait for the data during the same transaction
 - Because of this, devices on the PCI bus must be LOW LATENCY

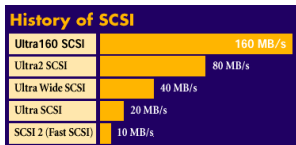
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Increasing Bus Bandwidth

The SCSI standard (Small Computer System Interface) provides a good example on how the bandwidth for a bus standard has been improved over time



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SCSI Evolution

- SCSI-1 was 8 bits, 5 MB/sec.
- SCSI-2 doubled bandwidth by doubling bus speed
- Ultra SCSI doubled bandwidth by doubling bus speed
- Ultra Wide SCSI doubled bandwidth by increasing data size from 8 bits to 16 bits
- Ultra2 SCSI doubled bandwidth by going to differential signaling with reduced voltage swing
- Ultra160 SCSI doubles bandwidth by transferring data on each transition

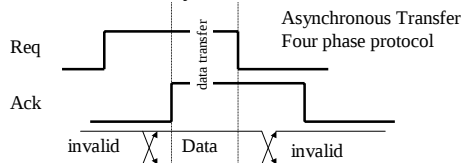
To increase bandwidth: increase bus speed, change physical signaling method, increase data width, transfer data on each clock edge

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SCSI Asynchronous Transfer



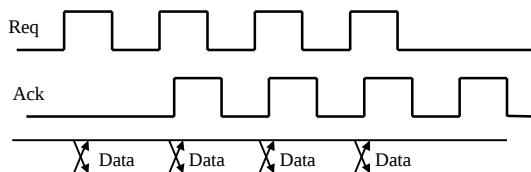
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SCSI Synchronous Transfer

SCSI supports a synchronous transfer mode in which the ACK lags the REQ.



Ack pulses can lag behind Req by several pulses. Same number of Ack pulses must be sent as Req pulses.

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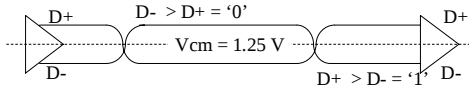
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Advanced Electrical Signaling LVDS – Low Voltage Differential Signal (LVDS)

LVDS used on Ultra2 SCSI - differential signaling of 300 mV about $V_{cm} = 1.25$ V.

Smaller voltage swing means faster signaling!
Differential voltage signaling also rejects cabling noise.



Resistor termination needed to prevent reflections.

Differential signal requires 2X wires!

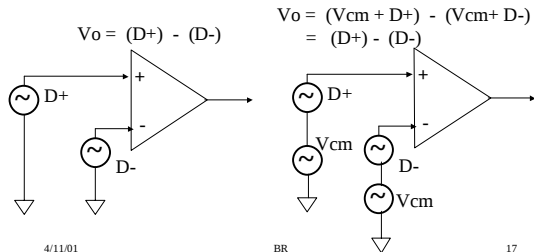
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Differential Signaling: Noise Rejection

Differential signaling very good at rejecting common-mode noise. If noise is coupled into a cable, then usually it is coupled into all wires in the cable. This 'common-mode' noise (V_{cm}) can be rejected by input amplifier.



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Other Standards Use Advanced Signaling Techniques

- USB uses differential signaling, but is not low voltage swing
 - Voltage swing can be > 2 volts
 - Lower data rates - peak is 12 Mb/s
- IEEE Firewire uses differential low voltage signaling, but a different standard than LVDS
 - Data rates 100 Mb/s to 400 Mb/s
 - Differential voltage swing < 300 mV
- Rambus uses limited voltage swing signaling (± 200 mV) about a fixed voltage reference. Differential pairs NOT used.
 - Voltage Ref = 1.0 V.
 - Limited swing signaling gives high speed signaling (400 Mhz clock, data transfer on each clock edge)
 - Two clock signals used which are complements of each other – data latched on clock crossing.
 - Only used for Processor/Memory buses – distance is very short, so noise coupling is not as much of a problem.

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Dealing with Varying Latency: Split Transactions

- SCSI is intended for devices with widely varying I/O characteristics.
 - This means the I/O latency can be highly variable
- For high latency devices, do not want to wait for data to become available after initial command.
 - Would like to issue commands to other devices, then come back later and finish the transaction.
- Split Transactions adds parallelism to I/O operations

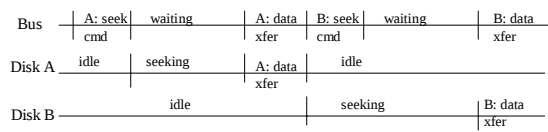
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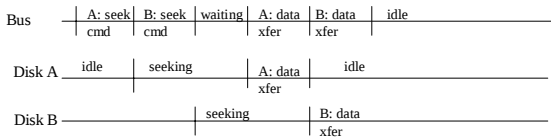
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Split Transaction Example

Without Split Transactions



With Split Transactions



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Maintaining Data Synchronization

- When sending data between devices, must delineate data boundaries
- Asynchronous protocols use handshaking signals to do this
- Synchronous protocols use a time reference (a clock signal)
- Methods for specifying the time reference in synchronous transfers
 - The clock signal can be part of the bus specification (i.e. PCI)
 - Data encoding allows clocks at receiver and transmitter to remain synchronized
 - The clock signal is encoded as part of the data

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Data Synchronization: USB

USB – Universal Serial Bus – serial data transfer.

Transfer is half duplex using bidirectional differential signaling

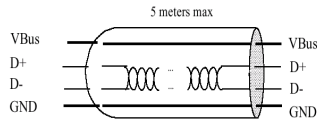


Figure 4-2. USB Cable

Data speeds are 1.5 Mb/s, 12 Mb/s.

Data encoding allows Sending/Receiving clocks to remain synchronized.

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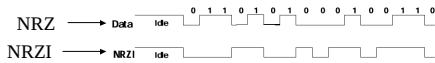


Figure 7-11. NRZI Data Encoding

Non-return to zero (NRZ) - normal data transitions.

NRZ – Inverted (not a good description, is not inverse of NRZ). A transition for every zero bit.

Strings of zeros means lots of transitions. Strings of '1's means steady line.

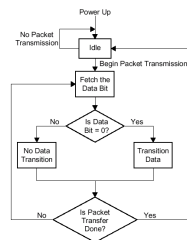


Figure 7-12. Flow Diagram for NRZI

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Bit Stuffing – a '0' is inserted after every six consecutive '1's in order to ensure a signal transition so that receiver clock can remain synchronized to the bit stream.

Data Encoding Sequence:

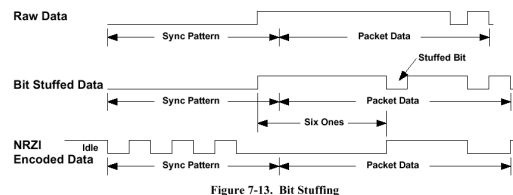
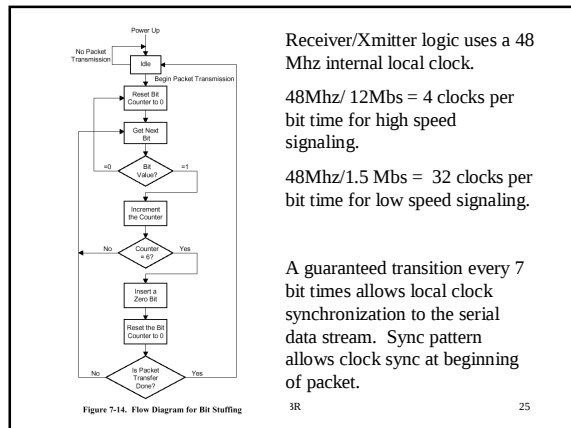


Figure 7-13. Bit Stuffing

Bit stuffing done automatically by sending logic. Sync pattern starts data transmission and is seven '0's followed by a '1'.

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Receiver/Xmitter logic uses a 48 Mhz internal local clock.

$48\text{Mhz} / 12\text{Mbps} = 4$ clocks per bit time for high speed signaling.

$48\text{Mhz} / 1.5\text{Mbs} = 32$ clocks per bit time for low speed signaling.

A guaranteed transition every 7 bit times allows local clock synchronization to the serial data stream. Sync pattern allows clock sync at beginning of packet.

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Data Synchronization: IEEE Firewire

IEEE 1394 (Fire Wire) – serial data transfer.

Transfer is half duplex using bi-directional differential signaling

- Signaling uses *Data Strobe* encoding – requires two binary signals to send one bit, each binary signal is represented by a differential pair of signals (D+, D-, S+, S-) Cable also has VDD, GND signals for 6 wires total (USB has 4 wires total).

Data encoding sends the clock encoded in the data signal. The Receiver can *EXTRACT* the clock from the data.

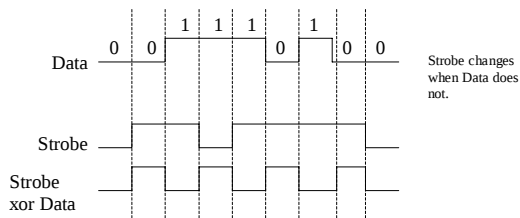
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Data Strobe Signaling

Serial Encoding method first used in a multicomputer called the *Transputer*, invented by SGS-Thompson



Extract clock from data and strobe as:
Clock = Data XOR Strobe ; Data clocked on both edges

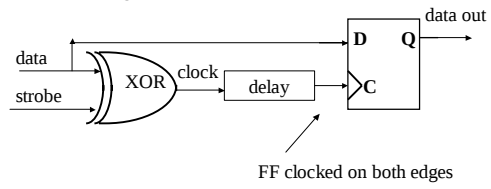
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Extracting the clock from data/strobe, latching the data. Data stream is 'self-clocking'. Can vary speed of data stream and circuit will still work.

No bit stuffing needed.



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