

Administrivia

Outline

- Recall we will have a resurrection final
 - As long as you took the midterm
 - Don't panic if you didn't do well on midterm
 - But make sure you understand all the answers
 - There may be questions on same topics on the final
- Final grade based on rank and thresholds
 - Rank based on Projects $+ \max(Final, (Midterm + Final)/2)$ (Assuming you took the midterm)

- PC system architecture
- 2 Driver architecture
- 3 Disks
- 4 Disk scheduling
- 5 Flash

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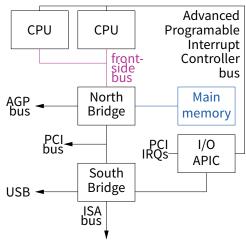
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Old school memory and I/O buses

CPU 1880Mbps Memory 1056Mbps I/O bus Crossbar

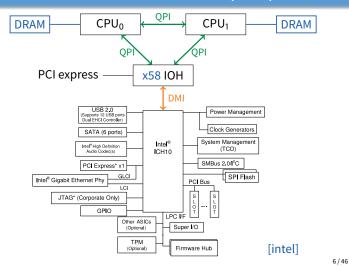
- CPU accesses physical memory over a bus
- Devices access memory over I/O bus with DMA
- Devices can appear to be a region of memory

Realistic ~2005 PC architecture



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Modern PC architecture (intel)



What is memory?

SRAM – Static RAM

- Like two NOT gates circularly wired input-to-output
- 4-6 transistors per bit, actively holds its value
- Very fast, used to cache slower memory

DRAM – Dynamic RAM

- A capacitor + gate, holds charge to indicate bit value
- 1 transistor per bit extremely dense storage
- Charge leaks need slow comparator to decide if bit 1 or 0
- Must re-write charge after reading, and periodically refresh

VRAM – "Video RAM"

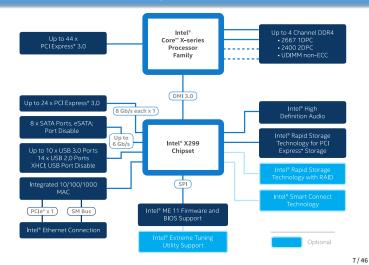
- Dual ported DRAM, can write while someone else reads

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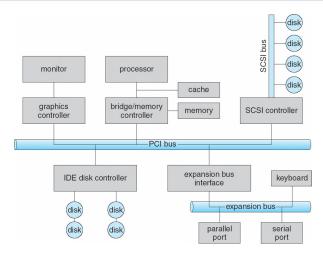
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CPU now entirely subsumes IOH [intel]



What is I/O bus? E.g., PCI



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Communicating with a device

Memory-mapped device registers

- Certain physical addresses correspond to device registers
- Load/store gets status/sends instructions not real memory
- Device memory device may have memory OS can write to directly on other side of I/O bus

Special I/O instructions

- Some CPUs (e.g., x86) have special I/O instructions
- Like load & store, but asserts special I/O pin on CPU
- OS can allow user-mode access to I/O ports at byte granularity

DMA – place instructions to card in main memory

- Typically then need to "poke" card by writing to register
- Overlaps unrelated computation with moving data over (typically slower than memory) I/O bus

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x86 I/O instructions

```
static inline uint8_t
inb (uint16_t port)
 uint8 t data:
  asm volatile ("inb %w1, %b0" : "=a" (data) : "Nd" (port));
  return data:
static inline void
outb (uint16_t port, uint8_t data)
  asm volatile ("outb %b0, %w1" : : "a" (data), "Nd" (port));
static inline void
insw (uint16_t port, void *addr, size_t cnt)
  asm volatile ("rep insw" : "+D" (addr), "+c" (cnt)
                : "d" (port) : "memory");
}
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```

Writing bit to parallel port [osdev]

```
void
sendbyte(uint8_t byte)
  /* Wait until \overline{BSY} bit is 1. */
 while ((inb (0x379) \& 0x80) == 0)
   delay ();
  /* Put the byte we wish to send on pins D7-0. */
 outb (0x378, byte);
 /* Pulse STR (strobe) line to inform the printer
  * that a byte is available */
 uint8_t ctrlval = inb (0x37a);
 outb (0x37a, ctrlval | 0x01);
 delay ();
 outb (0x37a, ctrlval);
```

Memory-mapped IO

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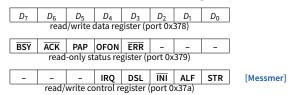
- in/out instructions slow and clunky
 - Instruction format restricts what registers you can use
 - Only allows 2¹⁶ different port numbers
 - Per-port access control turns out not to be useful (any port access allows you to disable all interrupts)
- Devices can achieve same effect with physical addresses, e.g.:

```
volatile int32_t *device_control
   = (int32_t *) (0xc0100 + PHYS_BASE);
*device_control = 0x80;
int32_t status = *device_control;
```

- OS must map physical to virtual addresses, ensure non-cachable
- Assign physical addresses at boot to avoid conflicts. PCI:
 - Slow/clunky way to access configuration registers on device
 - Use that to assign ranges of physical addresses to device

Example: parallel port (LPT1)

Simple hardware has three control registers:



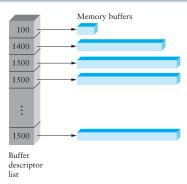
Every bit except IRQ corresponds to a pin on 25-pin connector:



IDE disk driver

```
void IDE_ReadSector(int disk, int off, void *buf)
  outb(0x1F6, disk == 0 ? 0xE0 : 0xF0); // Select Drive
  IDEWait();
  outb(0x1F2, 1);
                            // Read length (1 sector = 512 B)
  outb(0x1F3, off);
                           // LBA low
                           // LBA mid
  outb(0x1F4, off >> 8);
  outb(0x1F5, off >> 16);
                           // LBA high
  outb(0x1F7, 0x20);
                           // Read command
  insw(0x1F0, buf, 256);
                           // Read 256 words
void IDEWait()
{
  // Discard status 4 times
  inb(0x1F7); inb(0x1F7);
  inb(0x1F7); inb(0x1F7);
  // Wait for status BUSY flag to clear
  while ((inb(0x1F7) \& 0x80) != 0)
}
```

DMA buffers



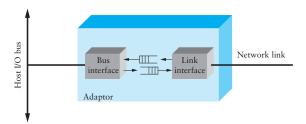
- Idea: only use CPU to transfer control requests, not data
- Include list of buffer locations in main memory
 - Device reads list and accesses buffers through DMA
 - Descriptions sometimes allow for scatter/gather I/O

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Example: Network Interface Card



- Link interface talks to wire/fiber/antenna
 - Typically does framing, link-layer CRC
- FIFOs on card provide small amount of buffering
- Bus interface logic uses DMA to move packets to and from buffers in main memory

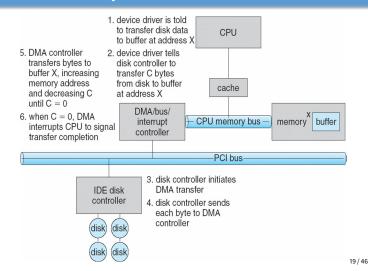
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Driver architecture

- Device driver provides several entry points to kernel
 - Reset, ioctl, output, interrupt, read, write, strategy ...
- How should driver synchronize with card?
 - E.g., Need to know when transmit buffers free or packets arrive
 - Need to know when disk request complete
- One approach: Polling
 - Sent a packet? Loop asking card when buffer is free
 - Waiting to receive? Keep asking card if it has packet
 - Disk I/O? Keep looping until disk ready bit set
- Disadvantages of polling?

Example: IDE disk read w. DMA



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- Disadvantages of polling?
 - Can't use CPU for anything else while polling
 - Schedule poll in future? High latency to receive packet or process disk block bad for response time

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Interrupt driven devices

Instead, ask card to interrupt CPU on events

- Interrupt handler runs at high priority
- Asks card what happened (xmit buffer free, new packet)
- This is what most general-purpose OSes do

Bad under high network packet arrival rate

- Packets can arrive faster than OS can process them
- Interrupts are expensive
- Interrupt handlers have high priority
- In worst case, can spend 100% of time in interrupt handler and never make any progress *receive livelock*
- Best: Adaptive switching between interrupts and polling
- Very good for disk requests
- Rest of today: Disks (network devices in 3 lectures)

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Anatomy of a disk [Ruemmler]

Disk

Stack of magnetic platters

- Rotate together on a central spindle @3,600-15,000 RPM
- Drive speed drifts slowly over time
- Can't predict rotational position after 100-200 revolutions

Disk arm assembly

- Arms rotate around pivot, all move together
- Pivot offers some resistance to linear shocks
- One disk head per recording surface (2×platters)
- Sensitive to motion and vibration [Gregg] (demo on youtube)



Disk

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Disk

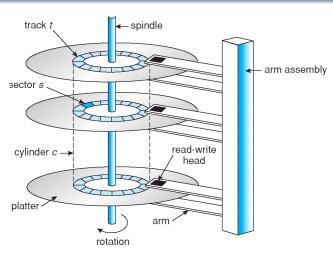




Cylinders, tracks, & sectors

Storage on a magnetic platter

- Platters divided into concentric tracks
- A stack of tracks of fixed radius is a cylinder
- Heads record and sense data along cylinders
 - Significant fractions of encoded stream for error correction
- Generally only one head active at a time
 - Disks usually have one set of read-write circuitry
 - Must worry about cross-talk between channels
 - Hard to keep multiple heads exactly aligned



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Disk positioning system

- Move head to specific track and keep it there
 - Resist physical shocks, imperfect tracks, etc.
- A seek consists of up to four phases:
 - speedup-accelerate arm to max speed or half way point
 - coast-at max speed (for long seeks)
 - slowdown-stops arm near destination
 - settle-adjusts head to actual desired track
- Very short seeks dominated by settle time (\sim 1 ms)
- Short (200-400 cyl.) seeks dominated by speedup
 - Accelerations of 40g

Seek details

Head switches comparable to short seeks

- May also require head adjustment
- Settles take longer for writes than for reads Why?

• Disk keeps table of pivot motor power

- Maps seek distance to power and time
- Disk interpolates over entries in table
- Table set by periodic "thermal recalibration"
- But, e.g., \sim 500 ms recalibration every \sim 25 min bad for AV

"Average seek time" quoted can be many things

- Time to seek 1/3 disk, 1/3 time to seek whole disk

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Seek details

Head switches comparable to short seeks

- May also require head adjustment
- Settles take longer for writes than for reads
 If read strays from track, catch error with checksum, retry
 If write strays, you've just clobbered some other track

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Sectors

Disk interface presents linear array of sectors

- Historically 512 B, but 4 KiB in "advanced format" disks
- Written atomically (even if there is a power failure)

Disk maps logical sector #s to physical sectors

- Zoning-puts more sectors on longer tracks
- Track skewing-sector 0 pos. varies by track (why?)
- Sparing-flawed sectors remapped elsewhere

OS doesn't know logical to physical sector mapping

- Larger logical sector # difference means longer seek time
- Highly non-linear relationship (and depends on zone)
- OS has no info on rotational positions
- Can empirically build table to estimate times

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Disk interface

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- Controls hardware, mediates access
- Computer, disk often connected by bus (e.g., ATA, SCSI, SATA)
 - Multiple devices may contentd for bus
- Possible disk/interface features:
- Disconnect from bus during requests
- Command queuing: Give disk multiple requests
 - Disk can schedule them using rotational information
- Disk cache used for read-ahead
 - Otherwise, sequential reads would incur whole revolution
 - Cross track boundaries? Can't stop a head-switch
- · Some disks support write caching
 - But data not stable—not suitable for all requests

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Disk performance

- Placement & ordering of requests a huge issue
 - Sequential I/O much, much faster than random
 - Long seeks much slower than short ones
 - Power might fail any time, leaving inconsistent state
- Must be careful about order for crashes
 - More on this in next two lectures
- Try to achieve contiguous accesses where possible
 - E.g., make big chunks of individual files contiguous
- Try to order requests to minimize seek times
 - OS can only do this if it has a multiple requests to order
 - Requires disk I/O concurrency
 - High-performance apps try to maximize I/O concurrency
- Next: How to schedule concurrent requests

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Scheduling: FCFS

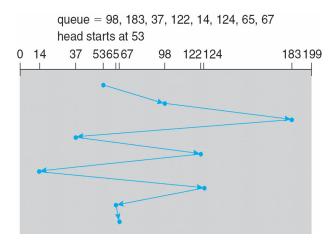
- "First Come First Served"
 - Process disk requests in the order they are received
- Advantages
- Disadvantages

Scheduling: FCFS

- "First Come First Served"
 - Process disk requests in the order they are received
- Advantages
 - Easy to implement
 - Good fairness
- Disadvantages
 - Cannot exploit request locality
 - Increases average latency, decreasing throughput

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FCFS example



Shortest positioning time first (SPTF)

- Shortest positioning time first (SPTF)
 - Always pick request with shortest seek time
- Also called Shortest Seek Time First (SSTF)
- Advantages
- Disadvantages

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Shortest positioning time first (SPTF)

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- Also called Shortest Seek Time First (SSTF)
- Advantages
 - Exploits locality of disk requests
 - Higher throughput
- Disadvantages
 - Starvation
 - Don't always know what request will be fastest
- Improvement?

Shortest positioning time first (SPTF)

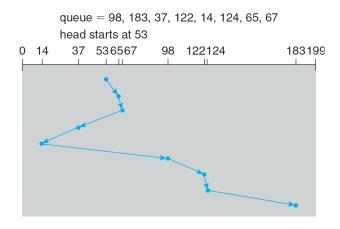
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- Also called Shortest Seek Time First (SSTF)
- Advantages
 - Exploits locality of disk requests
 - Higher throughput
- Disadvantages
 - Starvation
 - Don't always know what request will be fastest
- Improvement: Aged SPTF
 - Give older requests higher priority
 - Adjust "effective" seek time with weighting factor: $T_{\rm eff} = T_{\rm pos} W \cdot T_{\rm wait}$

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SPTF example



"Elevator" scheduling (SCAN)

- Sweep across disk, servicing all requests passed
 - Like SPTF, but next seek must be in same direction
 - Switch directions only if no further requests
- Advantages
- Disadvantages

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"Elevator" scheduling (SCAN)

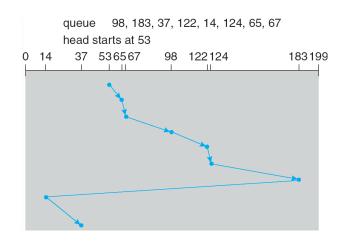
Sweep across disk, servicing all requests passed

- Like SPTF, but next seek must be in same direction
- Switch directions only if no further requests

Advantages

- Takes advantage of locality
- Bounded waiting
- Disadvantages
 - Cylinders in the middle get better service
 - Might miss locality SPTF could exploit
- CSCAN: Only sweep in one direction
 Very commonly used algorithm in Unix
- Also called LOOK/CLOOK in textbook
 - (Textbook uses [C]SCAN to mean scan entire disk uselessly)

CSCAN example



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VSCAN(r) Outline

- Continuum between SPTF and SCAN
 - Like SPTF, but slightly changes "effective" positioning time If request in same direction as previous seek: $T_{\rm eff} = T_{\rm pos}$ Otherwise: $T_{\rm eff} = T_{\rm pos} + r \cdot T_{\rm max}$
 - when r = 0, get SPTF, when r = 1, get SCAN
 - E.g., r = 0.2 works well
- Advantages and disadvantages
 - Those of SPTF and SCAN, depending on how r is set
- See [Worthington] for good description and evaluation of various disk scheduling algorithms

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Flash memory

- Today, people increasingly using flash memory
- Completely solid state (no moving parts)
 - Remembers data by storing charge
 - Lower power consumption and heat
 - No mechanical seek times to worry about
- Limited # overwrites possible
 - Blocks wear out after 10,000 (MLC) 100,000 (SLC) erases
 - Requires flash translation layer (FTL) to provide wear leveling, so repeated writes to logical block don't wear out physical block
 - FTL can seriously impact performance
 - In particular, random writes very expensive [Birrell]
- Limited durability
 - Charge wears out over time
 - Turn off device for a year, you can potentially lose data

Types of flash memory

- NAND flash (most prevalent for storage)
 - Higher density (most used for storage)
 - Faster erase and write
 - More errors internally, so need error correction
- NOR flash
 - Faster reads in smaller data units
 - Can execute code straight out of NOR flash
 - Significantly slower erases
- Single-level cell (SLC) vs. Multi-level cell (MLC)
 - MLC encodes multiple bits in voltage level
 - MLC slower to write than SLC
 - MLC has lower durability (bits decay faster)

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NAND Flash Overview

- Flash device has 2112-byte pages
 - 2048 bytes of data + 64 bytes metadata & ECC
- Blocks contain 64 (SLC) or 128 (MLC) pages
- Blocks divided into 2–4 planes
 - All planes contend for same package pins
 - But can access their blocks in parallel to overlap latencies
- Can read one page at a time
 - Takes 25 μ sec + time to get data off chip
- Must erase whole block before programing
 - Erase sets all bits to 1—very expensive (2 msec)
 - Programming pre-erased block requires moving data to internal buffer, then 200 (SLC)–800 (MLC) μsec

Flash Characteristics [Caulfield'09]

	Parameter	SLC	MLC
Density Per Die (GB)		4	8
	Page Size (Bytes)	2048+32	2048+64
Block Size (Pages)		64	128
	Read Latency (μs)	25	25
	Write Latency (μs)	200	800
	Erase Latency ($\mu \mathrm{s}$)	2000	2000
40MHz, 16-bit bus Read b/w (MB/s)		75.8	75.8
	Program b/w (MB/s)	20.1	5.0
133MHz	Read b/w (MB/s)	126.4	126.4
	Program b/w (MB/s)	20.1	5.0

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FTL straw man: in-memory map

- Keep in-memory map of logical → physical page #
 - On write, pick unused page, mark previous physical page free
 - Repeated writes of a logical page will hit different physical pages
- Store map in device memory, but must rebuild on power-up
- Idea: Put header on each page, scan all headers on power-up: (logical page #, Allocated bit, Written bit, Obsolete bit)
 - A-W-O = 1-1-1: free page
 - A-W-O = 0-1-1: about to write page
 - A-W-O = 0-0-1: successfully written page
 - A-W-O = 0-0-0: obsolete page (can erase block without copying)
- Why the 0-1-1 state?
- What's wrong still?

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- Why the 0-1-1 state? After power failure partly written \neq free
- What's wrong still?
 - FTL requires a lot of RAM on device, plus time to scan all headers
 - Some blocks still get erased more than others (w. long-lived data)
 - Blocks with obsolete pages may also contain live pages

More realistic FTL

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- Store the FTL map in the flash device itself
 - Add one header bit to distinguish map page from data page
 - Logical read may miss map cache, require 2 flash reads
 - Keep smaller "map-map" in memory, cache some map pages
- Must garbage-collect blocks with obsolete pages
 - Copy live pages to a new block, erase old block
 - Always need free blocks, can't use 100% physical storage
- Problem: write amplification

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- Small random writes punch holes in many blocks
- If small writes require garbage-collecting a 90%-full blocks ...means you are writing 10× more physical than logical data!
- Must also periodically re-write even blocks w/o holes
 - Wear leveling ensures active blocks don't wear out first

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