Outline

1. PC system architecture
2. Driver architecture
3. Disks
4. Disk scheduling
5. Flash
Old-school memory and I/O buses

- 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

- CPU
- Advanced Programable Interrupt Controller
- ISA bus
- AGP bus
- North Bridge
- Main memory
- PCI IRQs
- South Bridge
- I/O APIC
- USB 2.0
- PCI bus
- ISA bus
- Front-side bus
CPU now entirely subsumes IOH [intel]

- Intel® Core™ X-series Processor Family
  - Up to 44 x PCI Express® 3.0
  - Up to 24 x PCI Express® 3.0
  - 8 x SATA Ports, eSATA; Port Disable
  - Up to 10 x USB 3.0 Ports
  - 14 x USB 2.0 Ports
  - XHCI; USB Port Disable
  - Integrated 10/100/1000 MAC
  - Intel® Ethernet Connection
  - Intel® ME 11 Firmware and BIOS Support
  - Intel® Extreme Tuning Utility Support

- Intel® X299 Chipset
  - DMI 3.0
  - 8 Gb/s each x 1
  - Up to 6 Gb/s

- Intel® High Definition Audio
- Intel® Rapid Storage Technology for PCI Express® Storage
- Intel® Rapid Storage Technology with RAID
- Intel® Smart Connect Technology

Optional
AMD EPYC is essentially an SoC

- 4094 pins: both memory controller and 128 lanes PCIe directly on chip!
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
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
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");
}
• Simple hardware has three control registers:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>D7</th>
<th>D6</th>
<th>D5</th>
<th>D4</th>
<th>D3</th>
<th>D2</th>
<th>D1</th>
<th>D0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

read/write data register (port 0x378)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BSY</th>
<th>ACK</th>
<th>PAP</th>
<th>OFON</th>
<th>ERR</th>
<th>–</th>
<th>–</th>
<th>–</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

read-only status register (port 0x379)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>–</th>
<th>–</th>
<th>–</th>
<th>IRQ</th>
<th>DSL</th>
<th>INI</th>
<th>ALF</th>
<th>STR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

read/write control register (port 0x37a)

• Every bit except IRQ corresponds to a pin on 25-pin connector:
void
sendbyte(uint8_t byte)
{
    /* Wait until 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);
}
IDE disk driver

```c
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
    outb(0x1F4, off >> 8);     // LBA mid
    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) 
    {
    }
}
Memory-mapped IO

- **in/out instructions slow and clunky**
  - Instruction format restricts what registers you can use
  - Only allows $2^{16}$ 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.:**

  ```c
  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
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
• 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
Example: IDE disk read w. DMA

1. device driver is told to transfer disk data to buffer at address X

2. device driver tells disk controller to transfer C bytes from disk to buffer at address X

3. disk controller initiates DMA transfer

4. disk controller sends each byte to DMA controller

5. DMA controller transfers bytes to buffer X, increasing memory address and decreasing C until C = 0

6. when C = 0, DMA interrupts CPU to signal transfer completion
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?
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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
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)
1. PC system architecture
2. Driver architecture
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4. Disk scheduling
5. Flash
• **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](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=example) (demo on youtube)
Disk
Disk
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
Cylinders, tracks, & sectors

- track \( t \)
- sector \( s \)
- cylinder \( c \)
- platter
- arm assembly
- spindle
- read-write head
- arm
- rotation
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 (~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., ~500 ms recalibration every ~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
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

• Controls hardware, mediates access
• Computer, disk often connected by bus (e.g., ATA, SCSI, SATA)
  - Multiple devices may contend 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
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 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
queue = 98, 183, 37, 122, 14, 124, 65, 67
head starts at 53
• Shortest positioning time first (SPTF)
  - Always pick request with shortest seek time

• Also called Shortest Seek Time First (SSTF)

• Advantages

• Disadvantages
Shortest positioning time first (SPTF)

- Always pick request with shortest seek time
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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)

- Always pick request with shortest seek time

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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:
  \[ T_{\text{eff}} = T_{\text{pos}} - W \cdot T_{\text{wait}} \]
queue = 98, 183, 37, 122, 14, 124, 65, 67
head starts at 53
“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

“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

queue: 98, 183, 37, 122, 14, 124, 65, 67
head starts at 53
• **Continuum between SPTF and SCAN**
  - Like SPTF, but slightly changes “effective” positioning time
    - If request in same direction as previous seek: \( T_{\text{eff}} = T_{\text{pos}} \)
    - Otherwise: \( T_{\text{eff}} = T_{\text{pos}} + r \cdot T_{\text{max}} \)
  - 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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• 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 (two) bits in voltage level
  - MLC slower to write than SLC
  - MLC has lower durability (bits decay faster)

• **Nowadays, most flash drives are TLC (or even QLC)**
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 segregated 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 $\mu$sec + time to get data off chip
- Must erase whole block before programming
  - 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) $\mu$sec
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:
  \[ \text{logical page } \#, \text{Allocated bit, Written bit, Obsolete bit} \]
  - 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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- 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

- **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**
  - Small random writes punch holes in many blocks
  - If small writes require garbage-collecting a 90%-full blocks
    …means you are writing $10 \times$ 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