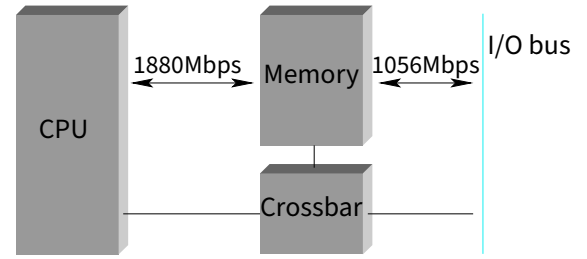


## Outline

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

## Old-school memory and I/O buses

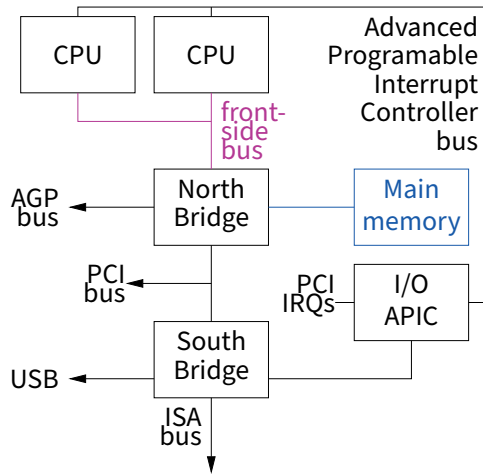


- CPU accesses physical memory over a bus
- Devices access memory over I/O bus with DMA
- Devices can appear to be a region of memory

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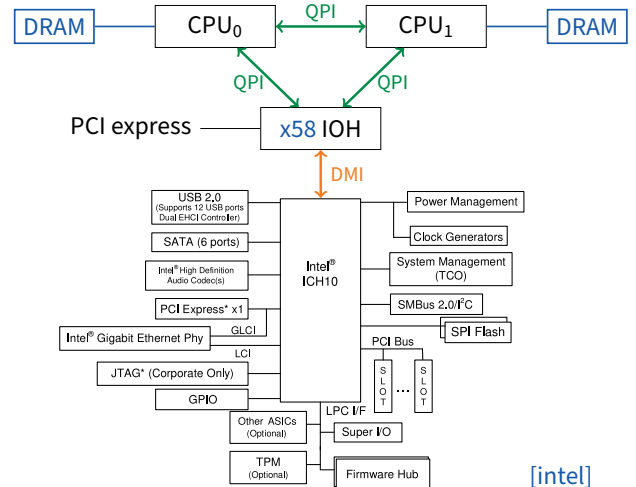
2 / 45

## Realistic ~2005 PC architecture



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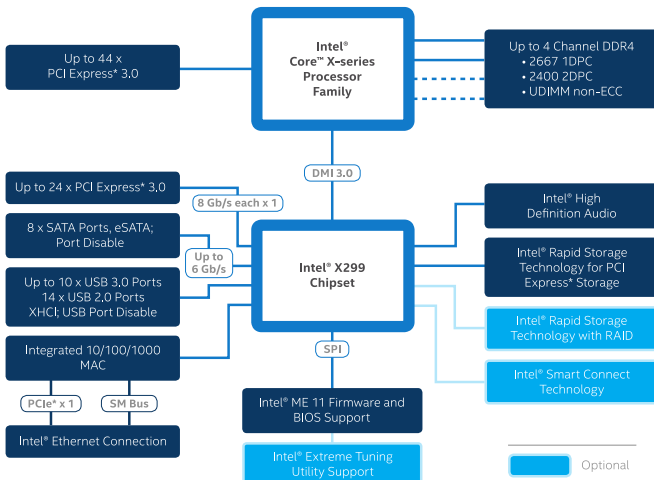
## Modern PC architecture (intel)



[intel]

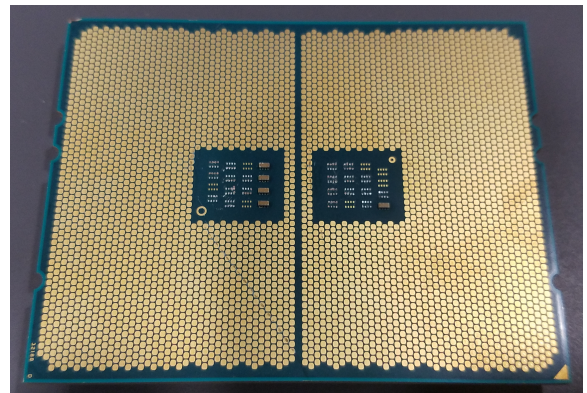
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## CPU now entirely subsumes IOH [intel]



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## AMD EPYC is essentially an SoC



- 4094 pins: both memory controller and 128 lanes PCIe directly on chip!

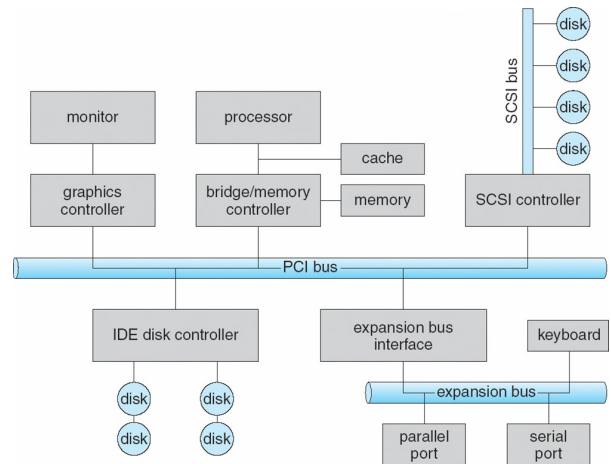
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## What is memory?

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



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## Outline

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

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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;
}

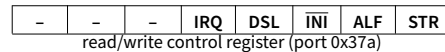
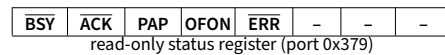
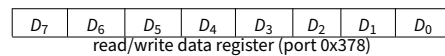
static inline void
outb (uint16_t port, uint8_t data)
{
    asm volatile ("outb %b0, %w1" : : "a" (data), "Nd" (port));
}

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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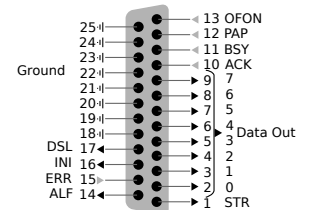
## Example: parallel port (LPT1)

- **Simple hardware has three control registers:**



[Messmer]

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



[image credits: Wikipedia]

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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);
}
}
```

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## 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
    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)
        ;
}
}
```

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## Memory-mapped IO

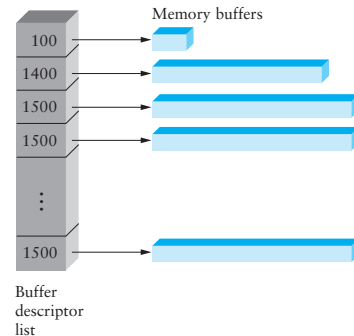
- in/out instructions slow and clunky
  - Instruction format restricts what registers you can use
  - Only allows  $2^{16}$  different port numbers
  - Per-port access control turns out not to be useful (any port access allows you to disable all interrupts)
- Devices can achieve same effect with physical addresses, e.g.:
 

```
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

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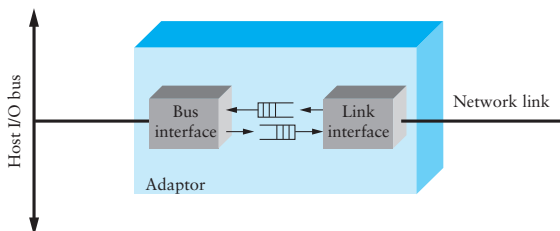
## DMA buffers



- 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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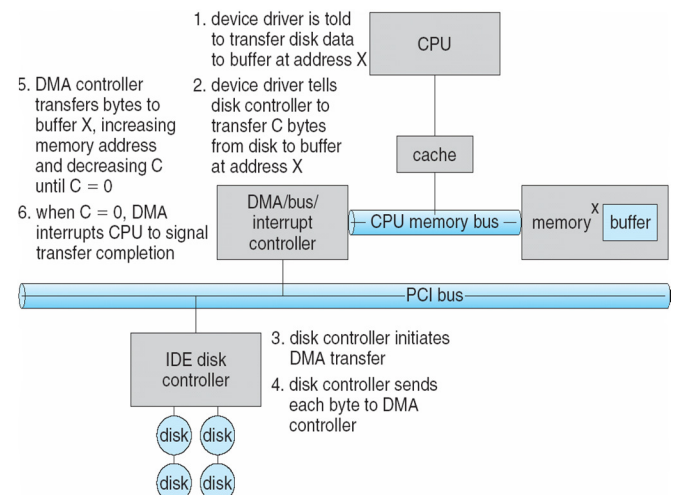
## Example: Network Interface Card



- 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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## Example: IDE disk read w. DMA



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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?**

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## Driver architecture

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  - Waiting to receive? Keep asking card if it has packet
  - Disk I/O? Keep looping until disk ready bit set
- **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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## Outline

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

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## Anatomy of a disk [Ruemmler]

- **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](#))

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## Disk



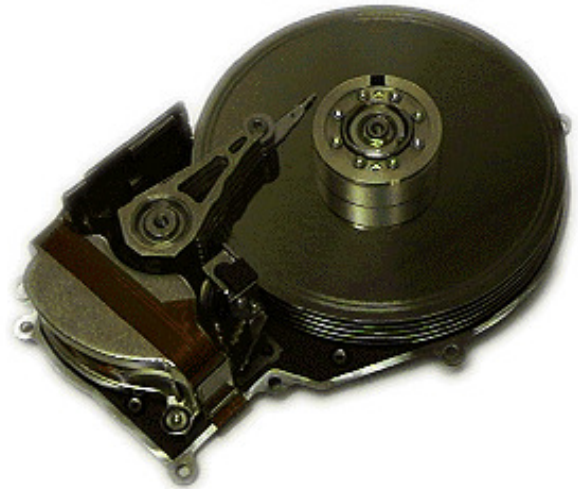
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## Disk



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## Disk



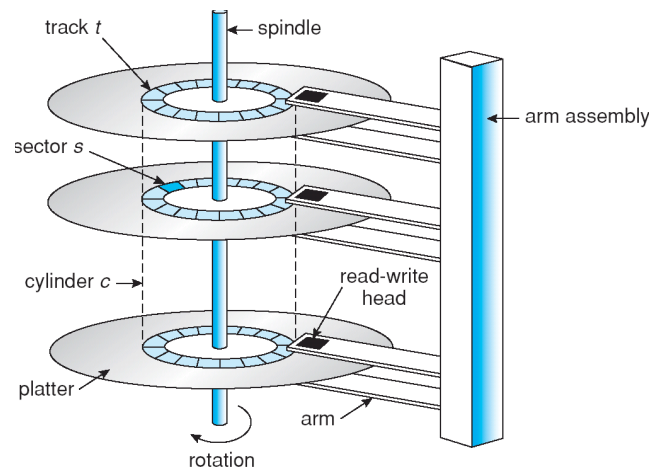
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## Storage on a magnetic platter

- 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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## Cylinders, tracks, & sectors



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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 (~1 ms)
- Short (200-400 cyl.) seeks dominated by speedup
  - Accelerations of 40g

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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 – 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

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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
- **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

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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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  - 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

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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 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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## Outline

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

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## Scheduling: FCFS

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

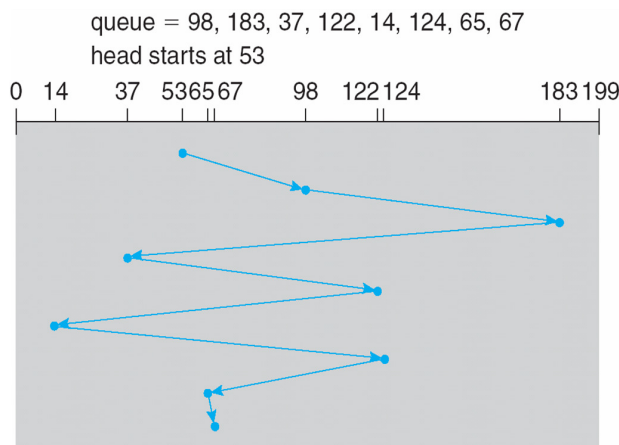
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## Scheduling: FCFS

- “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



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## 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)

- Shortest positioning time first (SPTF)
  - Always pick request with shortest seek time
- 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?

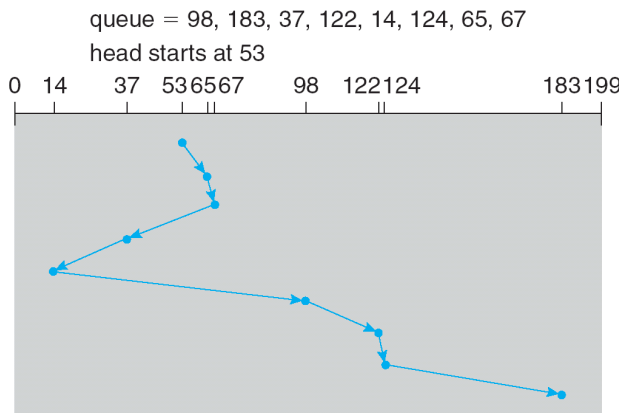
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## Shortest positioning time first (SPTF)

- Shortest positioning time first (SPTF)
  - Always pick request with shortest seek time
- Also called Shortest Seek Time First (SSTF)
- Advantages
  - 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:
$$T_{\text{eff}} = T_{\text{pos}} - W \cdot T_{\text{wait}}$$

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## SPTF example



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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
- Disadvantages

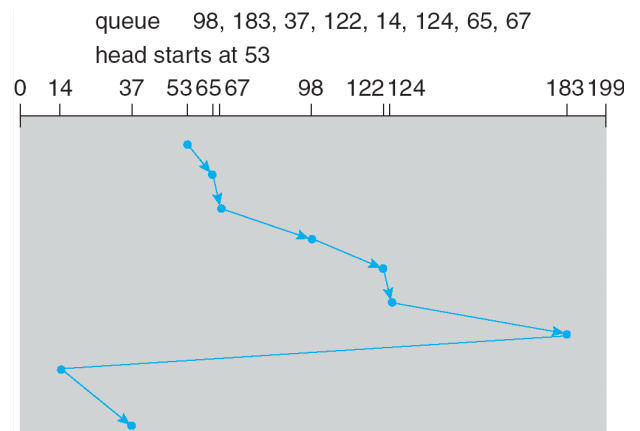
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## “Elevator” scheduling (SCAN)

- 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)

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## CSCAN example



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## VSCAN(r)

- 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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## Outline

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

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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

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## 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)

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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 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

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## 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 ( $\mu$ s)	25	25
Write Latency ( $\mu$ s)	200	800
Erase Latency ( $\mu$ 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  $\rightarrow$  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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  - A-W-O = 0-0-0: obsolete page (can erase block without copying)
- **Why the 0-1-1 state?** After power failure partly written ≠ 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

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## 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× 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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