CS162 Operating Systems and Systems Programming Lecture 17

Disk Management and File Systems

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Review: Want Standard Interfaces to Devices

- · Block Devices: e.g. disk drives, tape drives, Cdrom
 - Access blocks of data
 - Commands include open(), read(), write(), seek()
 - Raw I/O or file-system access
 - Memory-mapped file access possible
- Character Devices: e.g. keyboards, mice, serial ports, some USB devices
 - Single characters at a time
 - Commands include get(), put()
 - Libraries layered on top allow line editing
- · Network Devices: e.g. Ethernet, Wireless, Bluetooth
 - Different enough from block/character to have own interface
 - Unix and Windows include socket interface
 - » Separates network protocol from network operation
 - » Includes select() functionality
 - Usage: pipes, FIFOs, streams, queues, mailboxes

Review: How Does User Deal with Timing?

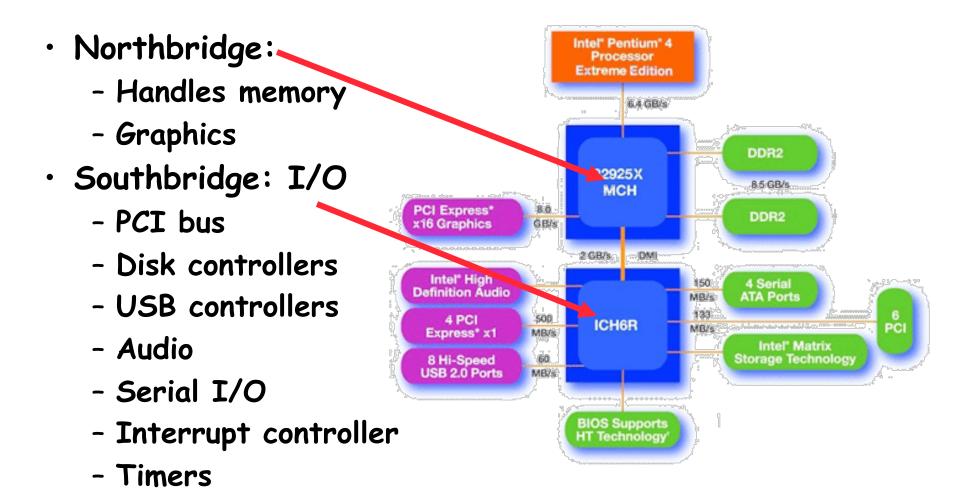
- · Blocking Interface: "Wait"
 - When request data (e.g. read() system call), put process to sleep until data is ready
 - When write data (e.g. write() system call), put process to sleep until device is ready for data
- Non-blocking Interface: "Don't Wait"
 - Returns quickly from read or write request with count of bytes successfully transferred
 - Read may return nothing, write may write nothing
- · Asynchronous Interface: "Tell Me Later"
 - When request data, take pointer to user's buffer, return immediately; later kernel fills buffer and notifies user
 - When send data, take pointer to user's buffer, return immediately; later kernel takes data and notifies user

Goals for Today

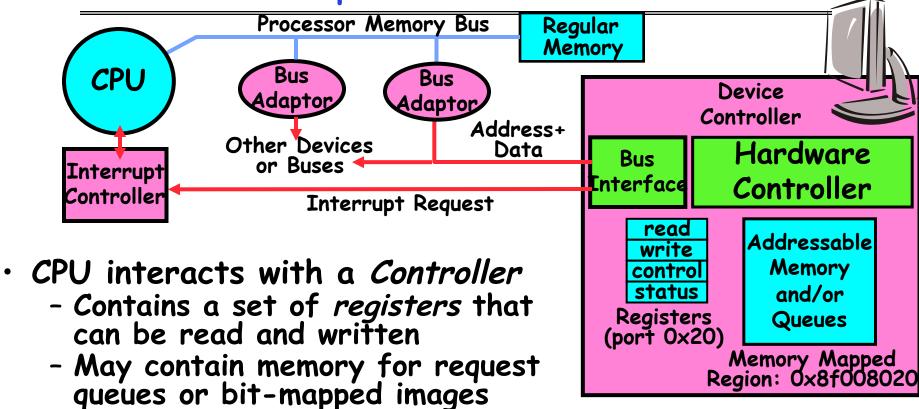
- Finish Discussing I/O Systems
 - Hardware Access
 - Device Drivers
- Disk Performance
 - Hardware performance parameters
 - Queuing Theory
- · File Systems
 - Structure, Naming, Directories, and Caching

Note: Some slides and/or pictures in the following are adapted from slides ©2005 Silberschatz, Galvin, and Gagne. Many slides generated from lecture notes by Kubiatowicz.

Main components of Intel Chipset: Pentium 4



How does the processor talk to the device?



- · Regardless of the complexity of the connections and buses, processor accesses registers in two ways:
 - I/O instructions: in/out instructions
 - » Example from the Intel architecture: out 0x21,AL
 - Memory mapped I/O: load/store instructions
 - » Registers/memory appear in physical address space
 - » I/O accomplished with load and store instructions CS162 ©UCB Spring 2010

Memory-Mapped Display Controller Example

· Memory-Mapped:

- Hardware maps control registers and display memory to physical address space

» Addresses set by hardware jumpers or programming at boot time

- Simply writing to display memory (also called the "frame buffer") changes image on screen

» Addr: 0x8000F000—0x8000FFFF

- Writing graphics description to command-queue area

» Say enter a set of triangles that describe some scene

» Addr: 0x80010000—0x8001FFFF

 Writing to the command register may cause on-board graphics hardware to do something

» Say render the above scene

» Addr: 0x0007F004

Can protect with page tables

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0×80020000

0x80010000

0x8000F000

0x0007F004 **Command**

0×0007F000

Command Status

Graphics

Command

Queue

Display

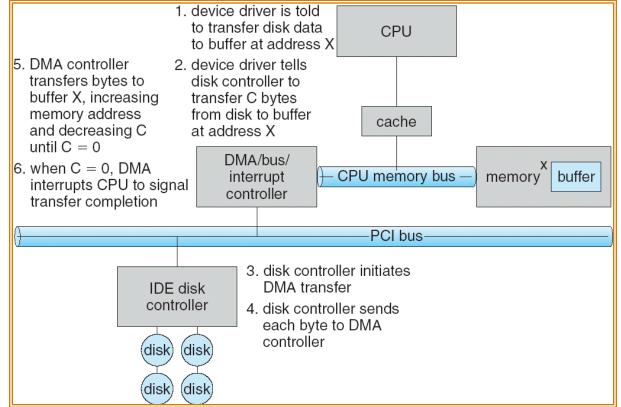
Memory

Physical Address Space

Lec 17.7

Transferring Data To/From Controller

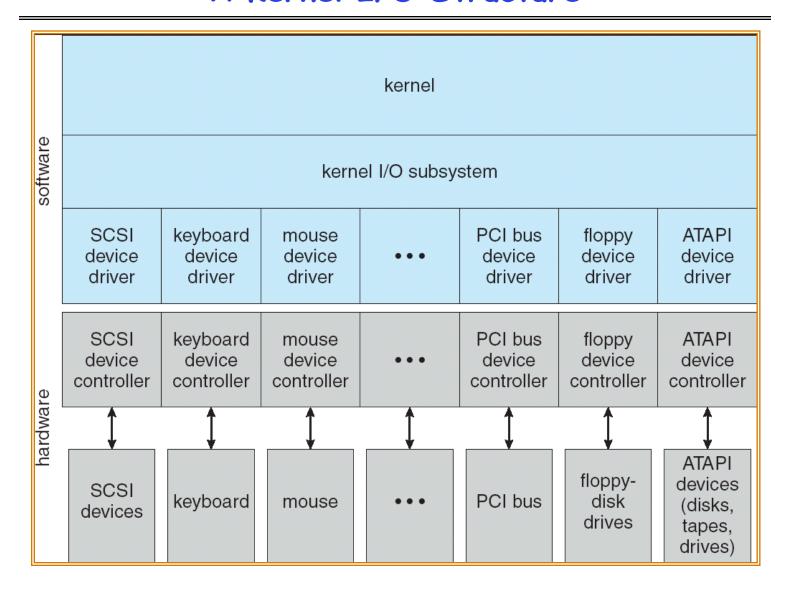
- Programmed I/O:
 - Each byte transferred via processor in/out or load/store
 - Pro: Simple hardware, easy to program
 - Con: Consumes processor cycles proportional to data size
- · Direct Memory Access:
 - Give controller access to memory bus
 - Ask it to transfer data to/from memory directly
- · Sample interaction with DMA controller (from book):



Administrivia

- Group Evaluations (Both Projects 1 and 2)
 - These MUST be done: you will get a ZERO on your project score if you don't fill them out
 - We will be asking you about them, so make sure you are careful to fill them out honestly
- · Other things
 - Group problems? Don't wait.
 - Talk to TA/talk to me
 - » Let's get things fixed!

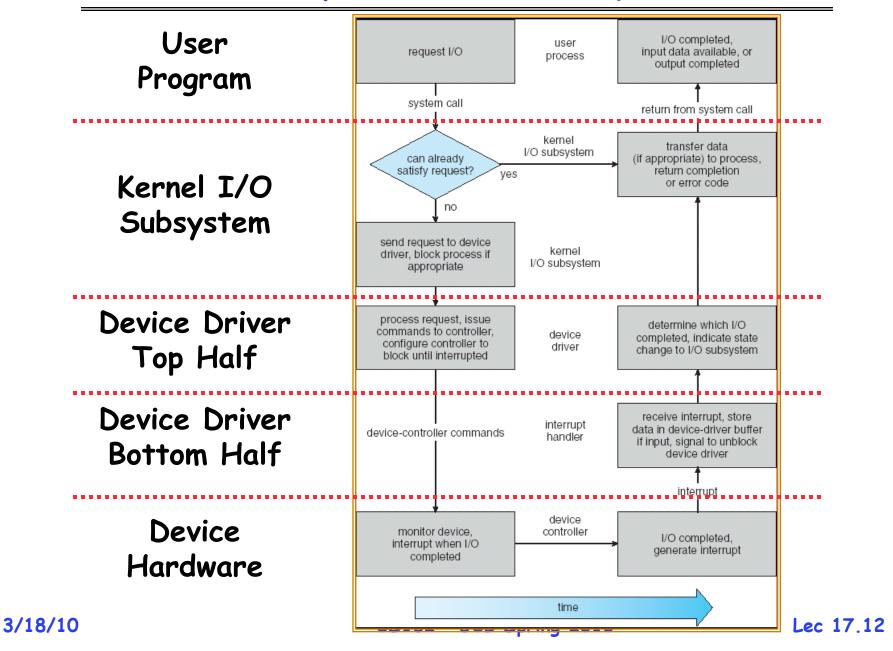
A Kernel I/O Structure



Device Drivers

- Device Driver: Device-specific code in the kernel that interacts directly with the device hardware
 - Supports a standard, internal interface
 - Same kernel I/O system can interact easily with different device drivers
 - Special device-specific configuration supported with the ioctl() system call
- · Device Drivers typically divided into two pieces:
 - Top half: accessed in call path from system calls
 - » implements a set of standard, cross-device calls like open
 (), close(), read(), write(), ioctl()
 - » This is the kernel's interface to the device driver
 - » Top half will start I/O to device, may put thread to sleep until finished
 - Bottom half: run as interrupt routine
 - » Gets input or transfers next block of output
 - » May wake sleeping threads if I/O now complete

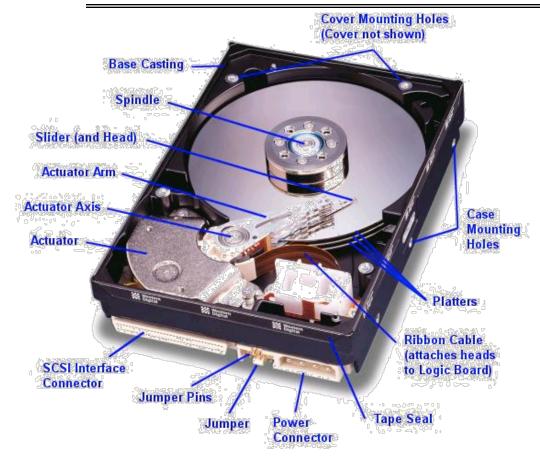
Life Cycle of An I/O Request



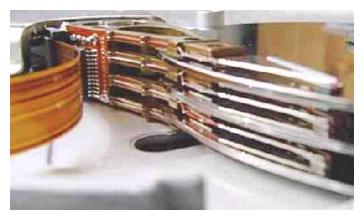
I/O Device Notifying the OS

- · The OS needs to know when:
 - The I/O device has completed an operation
 - The I/O operation has encountered an error
- I/O Interrupt:
 - Device generates an interrupt whenever it needs service
 - Handled in bottom half of device driver
 - » Often run on special kernel-level stack
 - Pro: handles unpredictable events well
 - Con: interrupts relatively high overhead
- · Polling:
 - -OS periodically checks a device-specific status register
 - » I/O device puts completion information in status register
 - » Could use timer to invoke lower half of drivers occasionally
 - Pro: low overhead
 - -Con: may waste many cycles on polling if infrequent or unpredictable I/O operations
- · Actual devices combine both polling and interrupts
 - For instance: High-bandwidth network device:
 - » Interrupt for First incoming packet
 - » Poll for following packets until hardware empty

Hard Disk Drives



Western Digital Drive http://www.storagereview.com/guide/

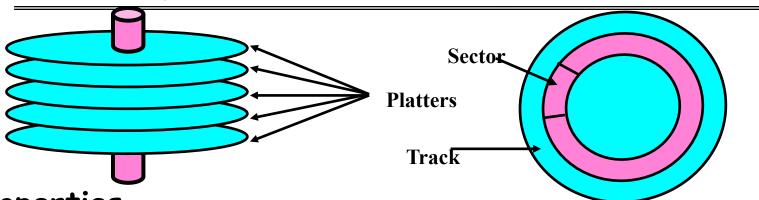


Read/Write Head Side View



IBM/Hitachi Microdrive

Properties of a Hard Magnetic Disk



Properties

Independently addressable element: sector
» OS always transfers groups of sectors together—"blocks"
A disk can access directly any given block of information it contains (random access). Can access any file either sequentially or randomly.

- A disk can be rewritten in place: it is possible to read/

modify/write a block from the disk

Typical numbers (depending on the disk size):
500 to more than 20,000 tracks per surface

- 32 to 800 sectors per track

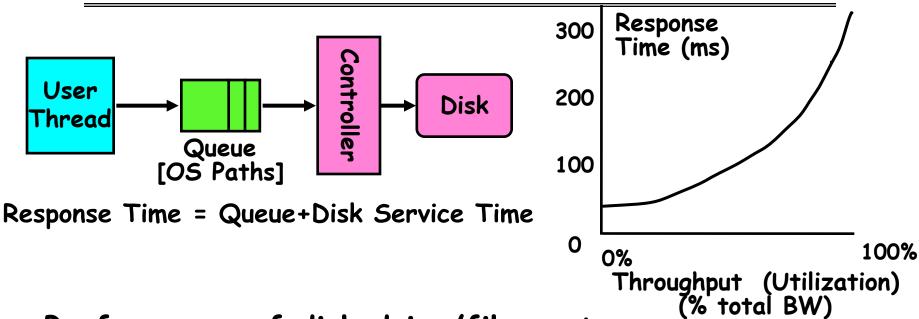
» A sector is the smallest unit that can be read or written

· Zoned bit recording

- Constant bit density: more sectors on outer tracks

- Speed varies with track location

Disk I/O Performance



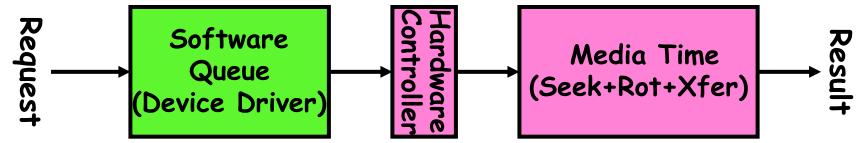
- · Performance of disk drive/file system
 - Metrics: Response Time, Throughput
 - Contributing factors to latency:
 - » Software paths (can be loosely modeled by a queue)
 - » Hardware controller
 - » Physical disk media
- · Queuing behavior:
 - Can lead to big increases of latency as utilization approaches 100%

Magnetic Disk Characteristic

- Cylinder: all the tracks under the head at a given point on all surface Head
- Read/write data is a three-stage process:



- Rotational latency: wait for the desired sector to rotate under the read/write head
- Transfer time: transfer a block of bits (sector) under the read-write head
- Disk Latency = Queueing Time + Controller time +
 Seek Time + Rotation Time + Xfer Time



- · Highest Bandwidth:
 - Transfer large group of blocks sequentially from one track

Track

Sector

Cylinder

Platter

Typical Numbers of a Magnetic Disk

- Average seek time as reported by the industry:
 - Typically in the range of 8 ms to 12 ms
- Rotational Latency:
 - Most disks rotate at 3,600 to 7200 RPM (Up to 15,000RPM or more)
 - Approximately 16 ms to 8 ms per revolution, respectively
 - An average latency to the desired information is halfway around the disk: 8 ms at 3600 RPM, 4 ms at 7200 RPM
- · Transfer Time is a function of:
 - Transfer size (usually a sector): 512B 1KB per sector
 - Rotation speed: 3600 RPM to 15000 RPM
 - Recording density: bits per inch on a track
 - Diameter: ranges from 1 in to 5.25 in
 - Typical values: 2 to 50 MB per second
- · Controller time depends on controller hardware
- · Cost drops by factor of two per year (since 1991)

Disk Performance

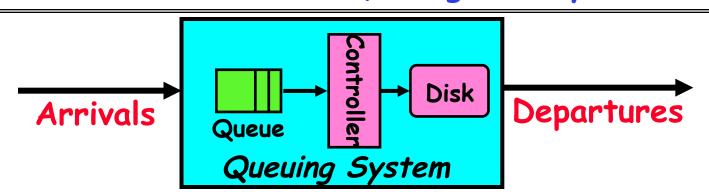
Assumptions:

- Ignoring queuing and controller times for now
- Avg seek time of 5ms, avg rotational delay of 4ms
- Transfer rate of 4MByte/s, sector size of 1 KByte
- · Random place on disk:
 - Seek (5ms) + Rot. Delay (4ms) + Transfer (0.25ms)
 - Roughly 10ms to fetch/put data: 100 KByte/sec
- Random place in same cylinder:
 - Rot. Delay (4ms) + Transfer (0.25ms)
 - Roughly 5ms to fetch/put data: 200 KByte/sec
- Next sector on same track:
 - Transfer (0.25ms): 4 MByte/sec
- Key to using disk effectively (esp. for filesystems) is to minimize seek and rotational delays

Disk Tradeoffs

- How do manufacturers choose disk sector sizes?
 - Need 100-1000 bits between each sector to allow system to measure how fast disk is spinning and to tolerate small (thermal) changes in track length
- What if sector was 1 byte?
 - Space efficiency only 1% of disk has useful space
 - Time efficiency each seek takes 10 ms, transfer rate of 50 100 Bytes/sec
- · What if sector was 1 KByte?
 - Space efficiency only 90% of disk has useful space
 - Time efficiency transfer rate of 100 KByte/sec
- What if sector was 1 MByte?
 - Space efficiency almost all of disk has useful space
 - Time efficiency transfer rate of 4 MByte/sec

Introduction to Queuing Theory



- What about queuing time?
 - Let's apply some queuing theory
 - Queuing Theory applies to long term, steady state behavior ⇒ Arrival rate = Departure rate
- · Little's Law:

Mean # tasks in system = arrival rate \times mean response time

- Observed by many, Little was first to prove
- Simple interpretation: you should see the same number of tasks in queue when entering as when leaving.
- · Applies to any system in equilibrium, as long as nothing in black box is creating or destroying tasks
 - Typical queuing theory doesn't deal with transient behavior, only steady-state behavior

Little's Theorem

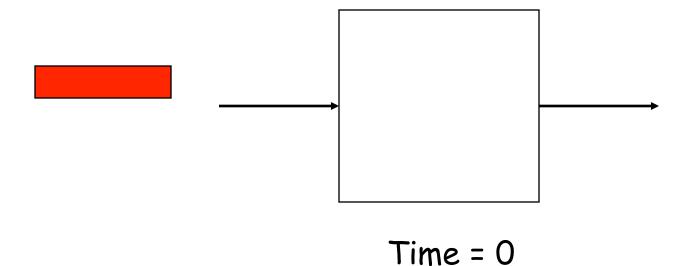
- Assume a system (e.g., router, network, checkout line in a supermarket) at which requests arrive at rate $\lambda(t)$
- Let T_{resp} (i) be the delay or response time of request i, i.e., time taken to process request i
- What is the average number of requests in the system?

$$T_{resp}(i)$$
 = response time of request i $\lambda(t)$ - arrival rate system

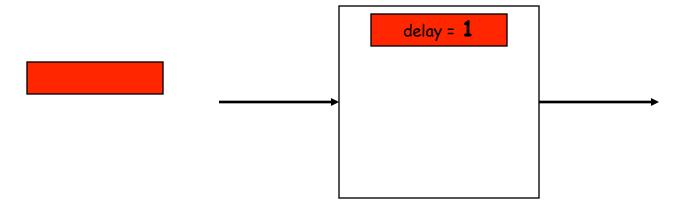
• Intuition:

- Assume arrival rate is a = 1 request per second and the response time of each request is s = 4 seconds
- What is the average number of requests in the system?

· Arrival rate = 1; response time (delay) = 4

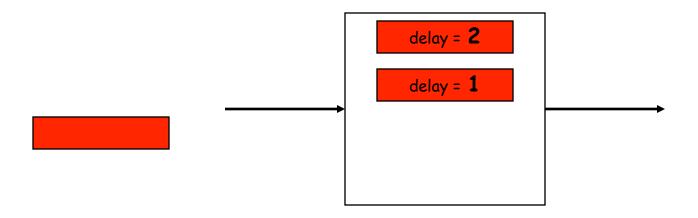


Arrival rate = 1; delay = 4



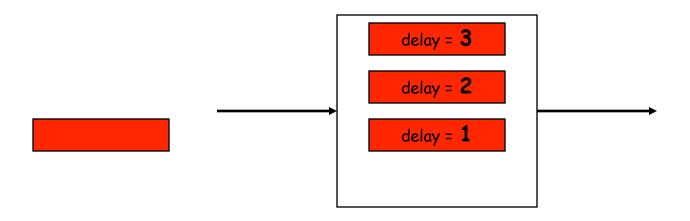
Time = 1

· Arrival rate = 1; delay = 4



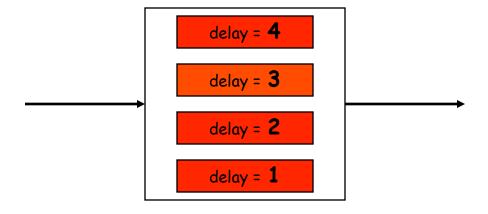
Time = 2

· Arrival rate = 1; delay = 4



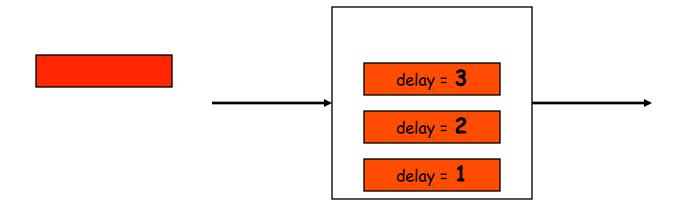
Time = 3

· Arrival rate = 1; delay = 4



Time = 4

· Arrival rate = 1; delay = 4



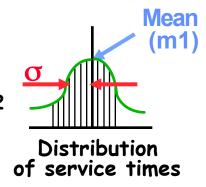
Time = 4

Q: What is the average number of packets in system?

A: number_of_request_in_system = avg_arrival_rate x avg_delay

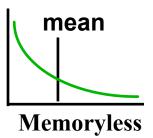
Background: Use of random distributions

- Server spends variable time with customers
 - Mean (Average) $m1 = \Sigma p(T) \times T$
 - Variance $\sigma^2 = \Sigma p(T) \times (T-m1)^2 = \Sigma p(T) \times T^2 m1^2$
 - Squared coefficient of variance: $C = \sigma^2/m1^2$ Aggregate description of the distribution.



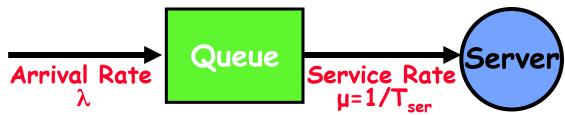
- Important values of C:
 - No variance or deterministic \Rightarrow C=0
 - "memoryless" or exponential \Rightarrow C=1
 - » Past tells nothing about future
 - » Many complex systems (or aggregates) well described as memoryless





A Little Queuing Theory: Some Results

- Assumptions:
 - System in equilibrium; No limit to the queue
 - Time between successive arrivals is random and memoryless



- Parameters that describe our system:
 - mean number of arriving customers/second **-** λ:
 - mean time to service a customer ("m1")
 - squared coefficient of variance = $\sigma^2/m1^2$
 - μ : service rate = $1/T_{ser}$
 - u: server utilization ($0 \le u \le 1$): $u = \lambda / \mu = \lambda \times T_{ser}$
- · Parameters we wish to compute:
 - Time spent in queue
 - Length of queue = $\lambda \times T_a$ (by Little's law)
- Results:
 - Memoryless service distribution (C = 1):
 - » Called M/M/1 queue: $T_g = T_{ser} \times u/(1 u)$ General service distribution (no restrictions), 1 server:
 - » Called M/G/1 queue: $T_q = T_{ser} \times \frac{1}{2}(1+C) \times u/(1-u)$)

A Little Queuing Theory: An Example

· Example Usage Statistics: User requests 10 x 8KB disk I/Os per second
Requests & service exponentially distributed (C=1.0)
Avg. service = 20 ms (From controller+seek+rot+trans) · Questions: - How utilized is the disk? \gg Ans: server utilization, $u = \lambda T_{ser}$ - What is the average time spent in the queue? » Ans: T - What is the number of requests in the queue? » Ans: L What is the avg response time for disk request?
 Ans: T_{sys} = T_q + T_{ser} · Computation: λ (avg # arriving customers/s) = 10/s T_{ser} (avg time to service customer) = 20 ms (0.02s) u (server utilization) = λ x T_{ser} = 10/s x .02s = 0.2 T_{q} (avg time/customer in queue) = T_{ser} x u/(1 - u) $= 20 \times 0.2/(1-0.2) = 20 \times 0.25 = 5$ ms (0 .005s) L_{q} (avg length of queue) = λ x T_{q} =10/s x .005s = 0.05 T_{ser} (avg time/customer in system) = T_{q} + T_{ser} = 25 ms CS162 @UCB Spring 2010

Summary

- I/O Controllers: Hardware that controls actual device
 - Processor Accesses through I/O instructions or load/store to special physical memory
- · Notification mechanisms
 - Interrupts
 - Polling: Report results through status register that processor looks at periodically
- · Disk Performance:
 - Queuing time + Controller + Seek + Rotational + Transfer
 - Rotational latency: on average $\frac{1}{2}$ rotation
 - Transfer time: spec of disk depends on rotation speed and bit storage density
- · Queuing Latency:
 - M/M/1 and M/G/1 queues: simplest to analyze
 - As utilization approaches 100%, latency $\rightarrow \infty$

$$T_q = T_{ser} \times \frac{1}{2}(1+C) \times u/(1-u)$$