CS162 Operating Systems and Systems Programming Lecture 17

Disk Management and File Systems

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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

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

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Goals for Today

- Finish Discussing I/O Systems
 - Hardware Access
 - Device Drivers
- Disk Performance
 - Hardware performance parameters
 - Queuing Theory
- File Systems

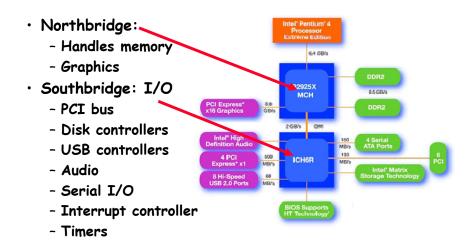
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- Structure, Naming, Directories, and Caching

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

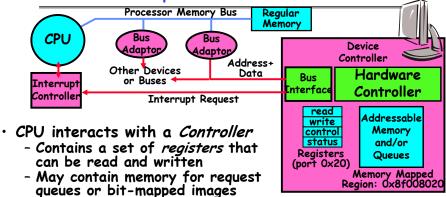
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Main components of Intel Chipset: Pentium 4



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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 Kubiatowicz CS162 ©UCB Fall 2007

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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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0x80020000

S

0x80010000

Display
Memory

0x80007F004

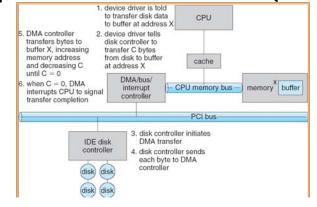
0x0007F000

Physical Address
Space

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Transferring Data To/From Controller

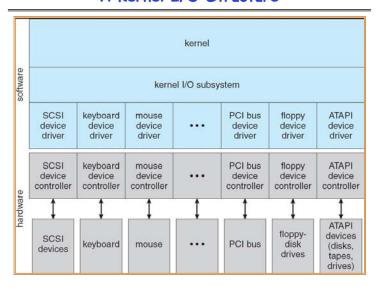
- Programmed I/O:
 - Each byte transferred via processor in/out or load/store
 - Pro: Simple hardware, easy to program
 - Con: Consumes processor cycles proportional to data size
- · Direct Memory Access:
 - Give controller access to memory bus
 - Ask it to transfer data to/from memory directly
- · Sample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



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A Kernel I/O Structure



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Device Drivers

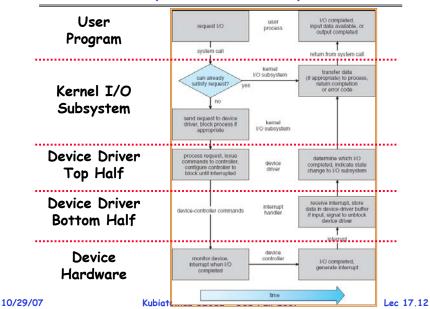
- Device Driver: Device-specific code in the kernel that interacts directly with the device hardware
 - Supports a standard, internal interface
 - Same kernel I/O system can interact easily with different device drivers
 - Special device-specific configuration supported with the ioctl() system call
- · 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(),
 strategy()
 - » 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

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
- Thursday sections
 - Fill out a survey form to see how class is going
 - Give you an opportunity to give feedback
- · Other things
 - Group problems? Don't wait.
 - Talk to TA/talk to me
 - » Let's get things fixed!

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Life Cycle of An I/O Request



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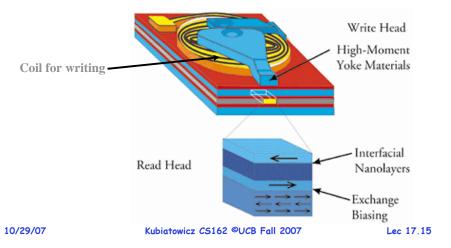
I/O Device Notifying the OS

- · 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

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Nano-layered Disk Heads

- Special sensitivity of Disk head comes from "Giant Magneto-Resistive effect" or (GMR)
- · IBM is (was) leader in this technology



Hard Disk Drives



http://www.storagereview.com/quide/



Read/Write Head Side View



IBM/Hitachi Microdrive

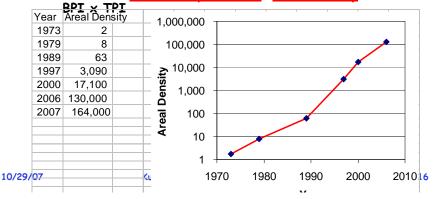
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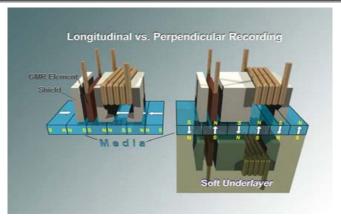
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Disk Figure of Merit: Areal Density

- · Bits recorded along a track
 - Metric is <u>Bits Per Inch</u> (<u>BPI</u>)
- · Number of tracks per surface
 - Metric is <u>Tracks Per Inch</u> (<u>TPI</u>)
- Disk Designs Brag about bit density per unit area
 - Metric is <u>Bits Per Square Inch</u>: <u>Areal Density</u> =



Newest technology: Perpendicular Recording



- · In Perpendicular recording:
 - Bit densities much higher
 - Magnetic material placed on top of magnetic underlayer that reflects recording head and effectively doubles recording

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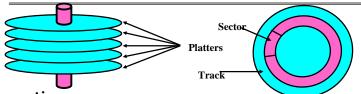
Seagate Barracuda

- · 1TB! 164 GB/in²
- · 4 platters, 2 heads each
- · 3.5" platters
- · Perpendicular recording
- · 7200 RPM
- · 4.2ms latency
- · 100MB/Sec transfer speed
- · 16MB cache
- Technology demonstrations:
 - Last year, Seagate demonstrated it could do 421 GB/in²!

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Properties of a Hard Magnetic Disk

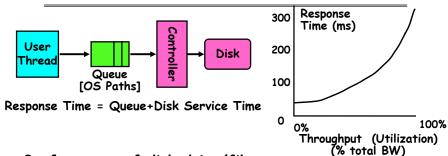


- Properties
 - Independently addressable element: sector
 - » OS always transfers groups of sectors together—"blocks"
 - A disk can access directly any given block of information it contains (random access). Can access any file either sequentially or randomly.
 - A disk can be rewritten in place: it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

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- 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%

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Magnetic Disk Characteristic

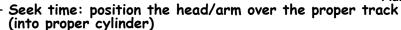
Track

Sector

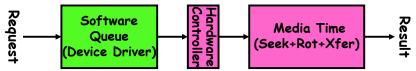
Cylinder

 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

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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

Typical Numbers of a Magnetic Disk

- · Average seek time as reported by the industry:
 - Typically in the range of 8 ms to 12 ms
 - Due to locality of disk reference may only be 25% to 33% of the advertised number
- 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)

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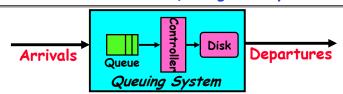
Disk Tradeoffs

- · 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?

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- 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 \Rightarrow Arrival rate = Departure rate
- Little's Law:

Mean # tasks in system = arrival rate x 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.

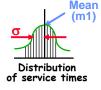
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- · Applies to any system in equilibrium, as long as nothing in black box is creating or destroying tasks
 - Typical queuing theory doesn't deal with transient behavior only steady-state behavior

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Background: Use of random distributions

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



mean

Memoryless

- · 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
 - Disk response times $C \approx 1.5$ (majority seeks < avg)

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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:
 - λ: mean number of arriving customers/second
 - mean time to service a customer ("m1")

 - squared coefficient of variance = $\sigma^2/m1^2$
 - µ: service rate = 1/T_{cor}
 - server utilization ($0 \le u \le 1$): $u = \lambda/\mu = \lambda \times T_{con}$
- 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: $T_a = T_{ser} \times u/(1 u)$
 - General service distribution (no restrictions), 1 server:
 - » Called M/G/1 queue: $T_a = T_{ser} \times \frac{1}{2}(1+C) \times u/(1-u)$

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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?
 - » 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? \Rightarrow Ans: $T_{sys} = T_a + T_{ser}$
- Computation:
- (avg # arriving customers/s) = 10/s T_{ser} (avg time to service customér) = 20 ms (0.02s) (server utilization) = $\lambda \times T_{ser} = 10/s \times .02s = 0.2$
- (avg time/customer in queue) = T_{ser} x u/(1 u)
- $= 20 \times 0.2/(1-0.2) = 20 \times 0.25 = 5 \text{ ms}(0.005\text{s})$
- (avg length of queue) = $\lambda \times T_a = 10/s \times .005s = 0.05$ (avg time/customer in system) = T + T_{ser} = 25 ms

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

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