CS162
Operating Systems and Systems Programming
Lecture 19

General I/O, Storage Devices

March 23rd, 2023

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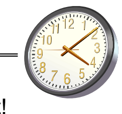
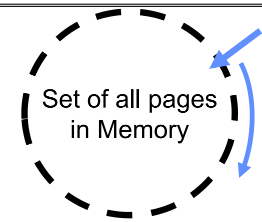
http://cs162.eecs.Berkeley.edu

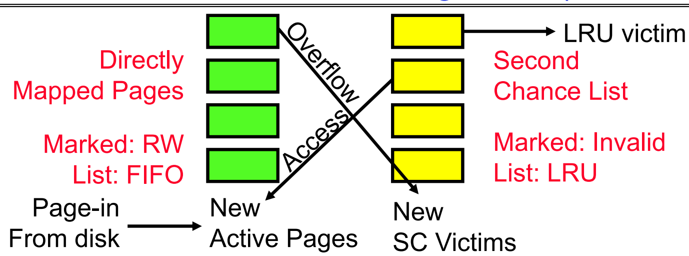
Recall: Clock Algorithm (Not Recently Used)





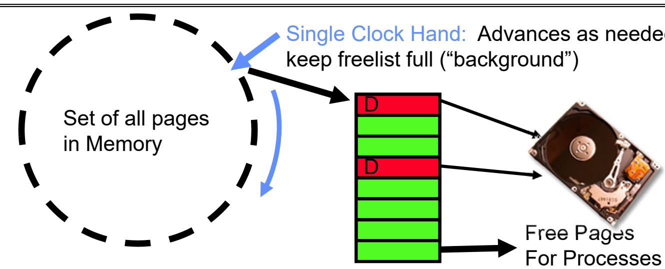
- Clock Algorithm: Arrange physical pages in circle with single clock hand
  – Approximate LRU (*approximation to approximation to MIN*)
  – Replace an old page, not the oldest page
- Details:
  – Hardware "use" bit per physical page (called "accessed" in Intel architecture):
    » Hardware sets use bit on each reference
    » If use bit isn't set, means not referenced in a long time
    » Some hardware sets use bit in the TLB; must be copied back to page TLB entry gets replaced
  – On page fault:
    » Advance clock hand (not real time)
    » Check use bit: 1→ used recently; clear and leave alone
      0→ selected candidate for replacement

Recall: Second-Chance List Algorithm (VAX/VMS)



- Split memory in two: Active list (RW), SC list (Invalid)
- Access pages in Active list at full speed
- Otherwise, Page Fault
  – Always move overflow page from end of Active list to front of Second-chance list (SC) and mark invalid
  – Desired Page On SC List: move to front of Active list, mark RW
  – Not on SC list: page in to front of Active list, mark RW; page out LRU victim at end of SC list

Free List



- Keep set of free pages ready for use in demand paging
  – Freelist filled in background by Clock algorithm or other technique ("Pageout demon")
  – Dirty pages start copying back to disk when enter list
- Like VAX second-chance list
  – If page needed before reused, just return to active set
- Advantage: faster for page fault
  – Can always use page (or pages) immediately on fault

Reverse Page Mapping (Sometimes called "Coremap")

- When evicting a page frame, how to know which PTEs to invalidate?
  - Hard in the presence of shared pages (forked processes, shared memory, …)
- Reverse mapping mechanism must be very fast
  - Must hunt down all page tables pointing at given page frame when freeing a page
  - Must hunt down all PTEs when seeing if pages "active"
- Implementation options:
  - For every page descriptor, keep linked list of page table entries that point to it
    - » Management nightmare – expensive
  - Linux: Object-based reverse mapping
    - » Link together memory region descriptors instead (much coarser granularity)

Allocation of Page Frames (Memory Pages)

- How do we allocate memory among different processes?
  - Does every process get the same fraction of memory? Different fractions?
  - Should we completely swap some processes out of memory?
- Each process needs *minimum* number of pages
  - Want to make sure that all processes that are loaded into memory can make forward progress
  - Example: IBM 370 – 6 pages to handle SS MOVE instruction:
    - » instruction is 6 bytes, might span 2 pages
    - » 2 pages to handle *from*
    - » 2 pages to handle *to*
- Possible Replacement Scopes:
  - Global replacement – process selects replacement frame from set of all frames; one process can take a frame from another
  - Local replacement – each process selects from only its own set of allocated frames

Fixed/Priority Allocation

- Equal allocation (Fixed Scheme):
  - Every process gets same amount of memory
  - Example: 100 frames, 5 processes → process gets 20 frames
- Proportional allocation (Fixed Scheme)
  - Allocate according to the size of process
  - Computation proceeds as follows:

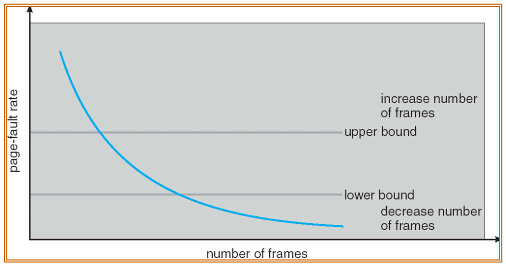
    s_i = size of process p_i and $S = \sum s_i$

    m = total number of physical frames in the system

    a_i = (allocation for p_i) $= \frac{s_i}{S} \times m$
- Priority Allocation:
  - Proportional scheme using priorities rather than size
    - » Same type of computation as previous scheme
  - Possible behavior: If process p_i generates a page fault, select for replacement a frame from a process with lower priority number
- Perhaps we should use an adaptive scheme instead???
  - What if some application just needs more memory?

Page-Fault Frequency Allocation

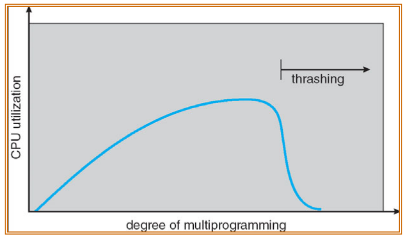
- Can we reduce Capacity misses by dynamically changing the number of pages/application?



- Establish "acceptable" page-fault rate
  - If actual rate too low, process loses frame
  - If actual rate too high, process gains frame
- Question: What if we just don't have enough memory?

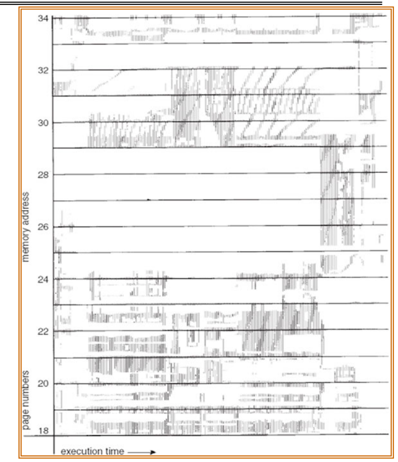
Thrashing

- If a process does not have "enough" pages, the page-fault rate is very high. This leads to:
  - low CPU utilization
  - operating system spends most of its time swapping to disk
- Thrashing ≡ a process is busy swapping pages in and out with little or no actual progress
- Questions:
  - How do we detect Thrashing?
  - What is best response to Thrashing?

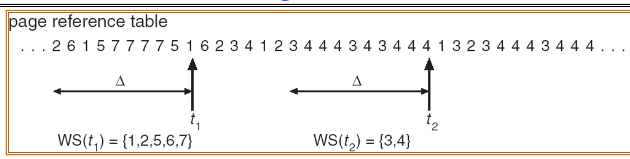


Locality In A Memory-Reference Pattern

- Program Memory Access Patterns have temporal and spatial locality
  - Group of Pages accessed along a given time slice called the "Working Set"
  - Working Set defines minimum number of pages for process to behave well
- Not enough memory for Working Set ⇒ Thrashing
  - Better to swap out process?



Working-Set Model



- Δ ≡ working-set window ≡ fixed number of page references
  - Example: 10,000 instructions
- WSi (working set of Process Pi) = total set of pages referenced in the most recent Δ (varies in time)
  - if Δ too small will not encompass entire locality
  - if Δ too large will encompass several localities
  - if Δ = ∞ ⇒ will encompass entire program
- D = Σ|WSi| ≡ total demand frames
- if D > m ⇒ Thrashing
  - Policy: if D > m, then suspend/swap out processes
  - This can improve overall system behavior by a lot!

What about Compulsory Misses?

- Recall that compulsory misses are misses that occur the first time that a page is seen
  - Pages that are touched for the first time
  - Pages that are touched after process is swapped out/swapped back in
- Clustering:
  - On a page-fault, bring in multiple pages "around" the faulting page
  - Since efficiency of disk reads increases with sequential reads, makes sense to read several sequential pages
- Working Set Tracking:
  - Use algorithm to try to track working set of application
  - When swapping process back in, swap in working set

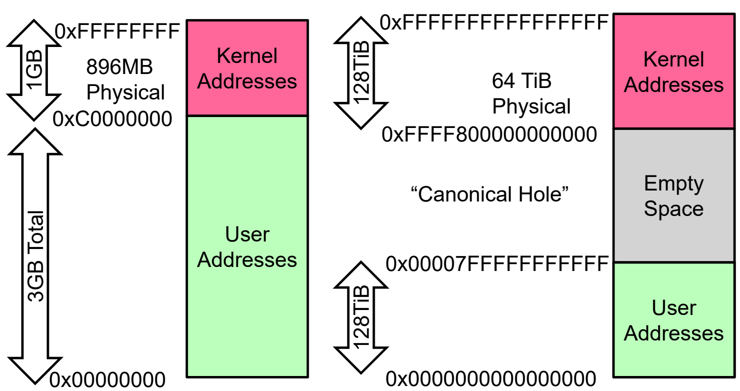
Administrivia

- Still Grading Midterm 2
  - Done tonight!!!
  - We will release solutions at the same time that we release grades
- Both Homework 4 and Project 2 are due in week after Spring break
  - Don't wait until end of Spring break!
- Midterm 3: April 27
  - Ok, so this is a while yet…!
- Enjoy Spring Break!!!

Linux Memory Details?

- Memory management in Linux considerably more complex than the examples we have been discussing
- Memory Zones: physical memory categories
  - ZONE_DMA: < 16MB memory, DMAable on ISA bus
  - ZONE_NORMAL: 16MB → 896MB (mapped at 0xC0000000)
  - ZONE_HIGHMEM: Everything else (> 896MB)
- Each zone has 1 freelist, 2 LRU lists (Active/Inactive)
- Many different types of allocation
  - SLAB allocators, per-page allocators, mapped/unmapped
- Many different types of allocated memory:
  - Anonymous memory (not backed by a file, heap/stack)
  - Mapped memory (backed by a file)
- Allocation priorities
  - Is blocking allowed/etc

Linux Virtual memory map (Pre-Meltdown)



32-Bit Virtual Address Space 64-Bit Virtual Address Space

Pre-Meltdown Virtual Map (Details)

- Kernel memory not generally visible to user
  - Exception: special VDSO (virtual dynamically linked shared objects) facility that maps kernel code into user space to aid in system calls (and to provide certain actual system calls such as `gettimeofday()`)
- Every physical page described by a "page" structure
  - Collected together in lower physical memory
  - Can be accessed in kernel virtual space
  - Linked together in various "LRU" lists
- For 32-bit virtual memory architectures:
  - When physical memory < 896MB
    - » All physical memory mapped at 0xC0000000
  - When physical memory >= 896MB
    - » Not all physical memory mapped in kernel space all the time
    - » Can be temporarily mapped with addresses > 0xCC000000
- For 64-bit virtual memory architectures:
  - All physical memory mapped above 0xFFFF800000000000

Post Meltdown Memory Map

- Meltdown flaw (2018, Intel x86, IBM Power, ARM)
  - Exploit speculative execution to observe contents of kernel memory

```
// Set up side channel (array flushed from cache)
uchar array[256 * 4096];
flush(array);       // Make sure array out of cache

try {          // … catch and ignore SIGSEGV (illegal access)
  uchar result = *(uchar *)kernel_address;// Try access!
  uchar dummy = array[result * 4096];      // leak info!
} catch(){;} // Could use signal() and setjmp/longjmp

// scan through 256 array slots to determine which loaded
```

  - Some details:
    - » Reason we skip 4096 for each value: avoid hardware cache prefetch
    - » Note that value detected by fact that one cache line is loaded
    - » Catch and ignore page fault: set signal handler for SIGSEGV, can use setjump/longjmp….
- Patch: Need different page tables for user and kernel
  - Without PCID tag in TLB, flush TLB *twice* on syscall (800% overhead!)
  - Need at least Linux v 4.14 which utilizes PCID tag in new hardware to avoid flushing when change address space
- Fix: better hardware without timing side-channels
  - Will be coming, but still in works

Recall: Five Components of a Computer

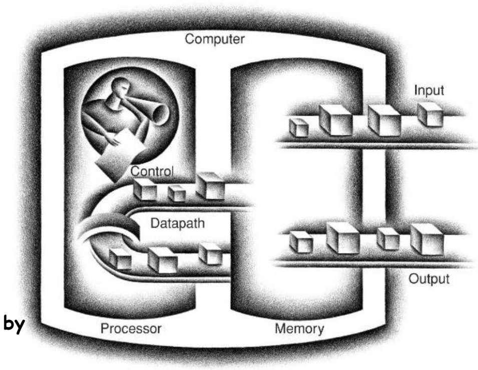


Diagram from "Computer Organization and Design" by Patterson and Hennessy

Requirements of I/O

- So far in CS 162, we have studied:
  - Abstractions: the APIs provided by the OS to applications running in a process
  - Synchronization/Scheduling: How to manage the CPU
- What about I/O?
  - Without I/O, computers are useless (disembodied brains?)
  - But… thousands of devices, each slightly different
    - » How can we standardize the interfaces to these devices?
  - Devices unreliable: media failures and transmission errors
    - » How can we make them reliable???
  - Devices unpredictable and/or slow
    - » How can we manage them if we don't know what they will do or how they will perform?

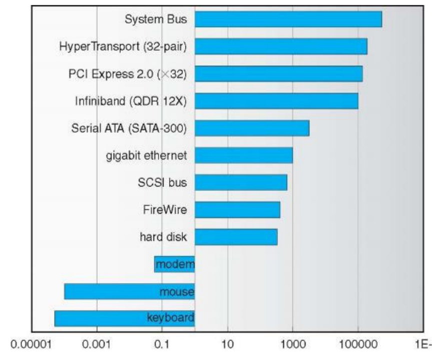
Recall: Range of Timescales

Jeff Dean: "Numbers Everyone Should Know"

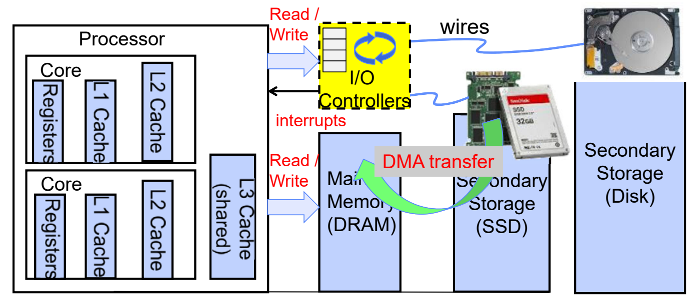
L1 cache reference	0.5 ns
Branch mispredict	5 ns
L2 cache reference	7 ns
Mutex lock/unlock	25 ns
Main memory reference	100 ns
Compress 1K bytes with Zippy	3,000 ns
Send 2K bytes over 1 Gbps network	20,000 ns
Read 1 MB sequentially from memory	250,000 ns
Round trip within same datacenter	500,000 ns
Disk seek	10,000,000 ns
Read 1 MB sequentially from disk	20,000,000 ns
Send packet CA->Netherlands->CA	150,000,000 ns

Example: Device Transfer Rates in Mb/s (Sun Enterprise 6000)

- Device rates vary over 12 orders of magnitude!!!
- System must be able to handle this wide range
  – Better not have high overhead/byte for fast devices
  – Better not waste time waiting for slow devices

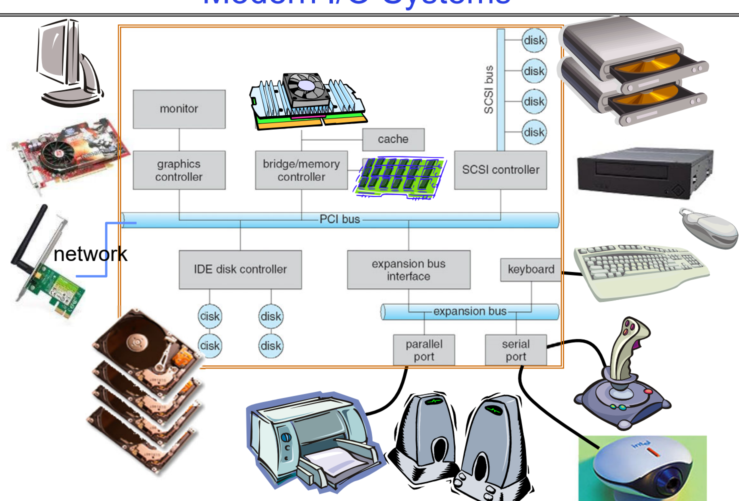


In a Picture

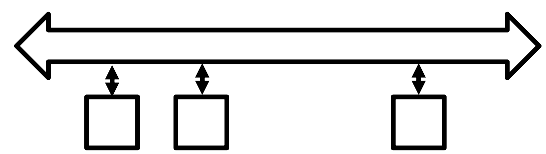


- I/O devices you recognize are supported by I/O Controllers
- Processors accesses them by reading and writing IO registers as if they were memory
  – Write commands and arguments, read status and results

Modern I/O Systems



What's a bus?

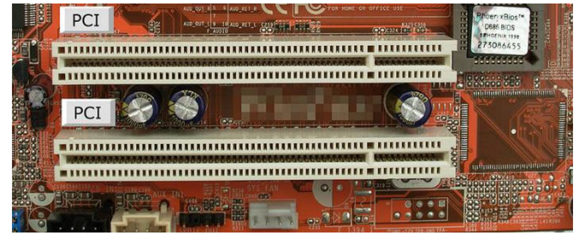


- Common set of wires for communication among hardware devices plus protocols for carrying out data transfer transactions
  – Operations: e.g., Read, Write
  – Control lines, Address lines, Data lines
  – Typically multiple devices
- Protocol: initiator requests access, arbitration to grant, identification of recipient, handshake to convey address, length, data
- Very high BW close to processor (wide, fast, and inflexible), low BW with high flexibility out in I/O subsystem

Why a Bus?

- Buses let us connect n devices over a single set of wires, connections, and protocols
  - $O(n^2)$ relationships with 1 set of wires (!)
- Downside: Only one transaction at a time
  - The rest must wait
  - “Arbitration” aspect of bus protocol ensures the rest wait

PCI Bus Evolution

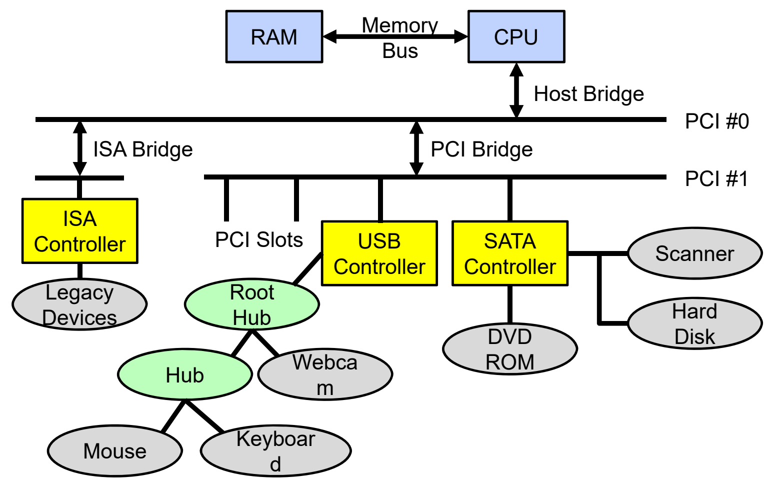


- PCI started life out as a bus
- But a parallel bus has many limitations
  - Multiplexing address/data for many requests
  - Slowest devices must be able to tell what’s happening (e.g., for arbitration)
  - **Bus speed is set to that of the slowest device**

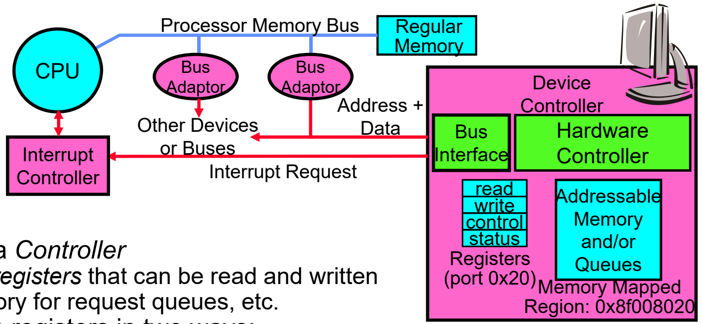
PCI Express “Bus”

- No longer a parallel bus
- Really a **collection of fast serial channels** or “lanes”
- Devices can use as many as they need to achieve a desired bandwidth
- Slow devices don’t have to share with fast ones
- One of the successes of device abstraction in Linux was the ability to migrate from PCI to PCI Express
  - The physical interconnect changed completely, but the old API still worked

Example: PCI Architecture



How does the Processor Talk to the Device?



- CPU interacts with a *Controller*
  - Contains a set of *registers* that can be read and written
  - May contain memory for request queues, etc.
- Processor accesses registers in two ways:
  - Port-Mapped I/O: 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

Port-Mapped I/O in Pintos Speaker Driver

Pintos: devices/speaker.c

```c
/* Sets the PC speaker to emit a tone at the given FREQUENCY, in
   Hz. */
void
speaker_on (int frequency)
{
  if (frequency >= 20 && frequency <= 20000)
    {
      /* Set the timer channel that's connected to the speaker to
         output a square wave at the given FREQUENCY, then
         connect the timer channel output to the speaker. */
      enum intr_level old_level = intr_disable ();
      pit_configure_channel (2, 3, frequency);
      outb (SPEAKER_PORT_GATE, inb (SPEAKER_PORT_GATE) | SPEAKER_GATE_ENABLE);
      intr_set_level (old_level);
    }
  else
    {
      /* FREQUENCY is outside the range of normal human hearing.
         Just turn off the speaker. */
      speaker_off ();
    }
}

/* Turn off the PC speaker, by disconnecting the timer channel's
   output from the speaker. */
void
speaker_off (void)
{
  enum intr_level old_level = intr_disable ();
  outb (SPEAKER_PORT_GATE, inb (SPEAKER_PORT_GATE) & ~SPEAKER_GATE_ENABLE);
  intr_set_level (old_level);
}
```

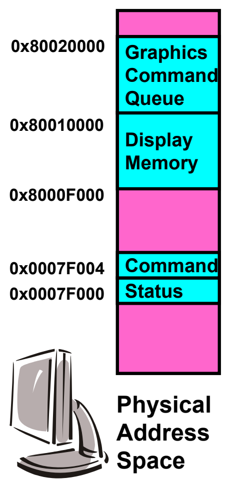
Pintos: threads/io.h

```c
/* Reads and returns a byte from PORT. */
static inline uint8_t
inb (uint16_t port)
{
  /* See [IA32-v2a] "IN". */
  uint8_t data;
  asm volatile ("inb %w1, %b0" : "=a" (data) : "Nd" (port));
  return data;
}
```

```c
/* Writes byte DATA to PORT. */
static inline void
outb (uint16_t port, uint8_t data)
{
  /* See [IA32-v2b] "OUT". */
  asm volatile ("outb %b0, %w1" : : "a" (data), "Nd" (port));
}
```

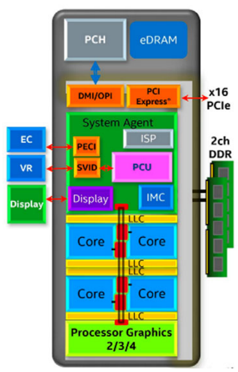

Example: Memory-Mapped Display Controller

- Memory-Mapped:
  - Hardware maps control registers and display memory into physical address space
    - Addresses set by HW jumpers or at boot time
  - Simply writing to display memory (also called the "frame buffer") changes image on screen
    - Addr: 0x8000F000 — 0x8000FFFF
  - Writing graphics description to cmd queue
    - Say enter a set of triangles describing 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 address translation



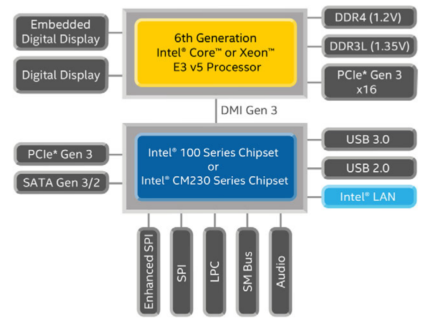
There's more than just a CPU in there!

Chip-scale Features of 2015 x86 (Sky Lake)



- Significant pieces:
  - Four OOO cores with deeper buffers
    - » Intel MPX (Memory Protection Extensions)
    - » Intel SGX (Software Guard Extensions)
    - » Issue up to 6 μ-ops/cycle
  - GPU, System Agent (Mem, Fast I/O)
  - Large shared L3 cache with on-chip ring bus
    - » 2 MB/core instead of 1.5 MB/core
    - » High-BW access to L3 Cache
- Integrated I/O
  - Integrated memory controller (IMC)
    - » Two independent channels of DRAM
  - High-speed PCI-Express (for Graphics cards)
  - Direct Media Interface (DMI) Connection to PCH (Platform Control Hub)

Sky Lake I/O: PCH



Sky Lake
System Configuration

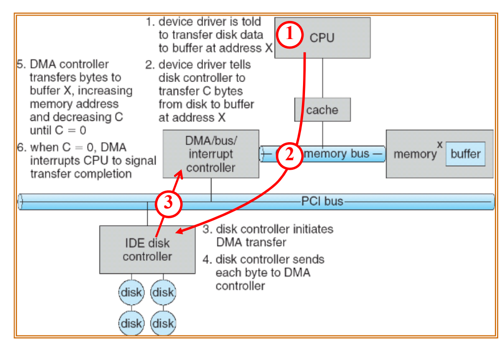
- Platform Controller Hub
  - Connected to processor with proprietary bus
    - » Direct Media Interface
- Types of I/O on PCH:
  - USB, Ethernet
  - Thunderbolt 3
  - Audio, BIOS support
  - More PCI Express (lower speed than on Processor)
  - SATA (for Disks)

Operational Parameters for I/O

- Data granularity: Byte vs. Block
  - Some devices provide single byte at a time (e.g., keyboard)
  - Others provide whole blocks (e.g., disks, networks, etc.)
- Access pattern: Sequential vs. Random
  - Some devices must be accessed sequentially (e.g., tape)
  - Others can be accessed "randomly" (e.g., disk, cd, etc.)
    - » Fixed overhead to start transfers
  - Some devices require continual monitoring
  - Others generate interrupts when they need service
- Transfer Mechanism: Programmed IO and DMA

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 blocks to/from memory directly
- Sample interaction with DMA controller (from OSC book):



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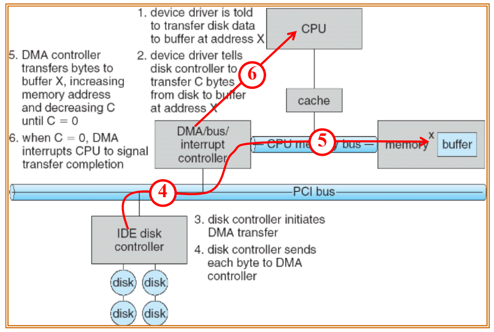
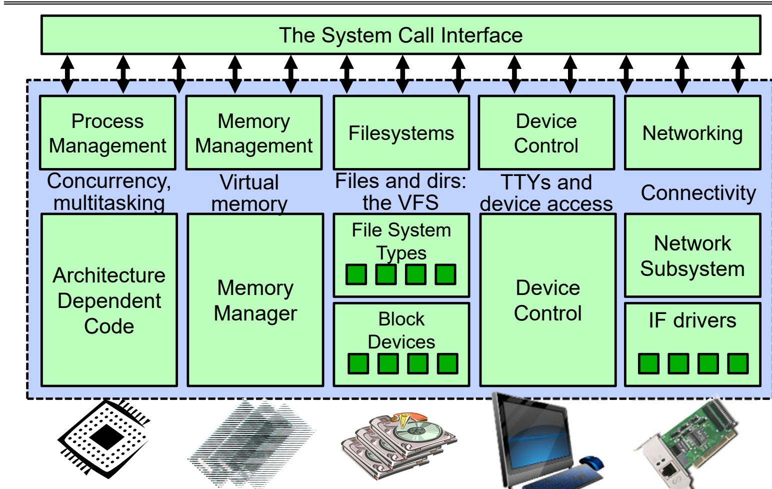


I/O Device Notifying the OS

- 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
  - 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
  - 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 adapter:
    - » Interrupt for first incoming packet
    - » Poll for following packets until hardware queues are empty

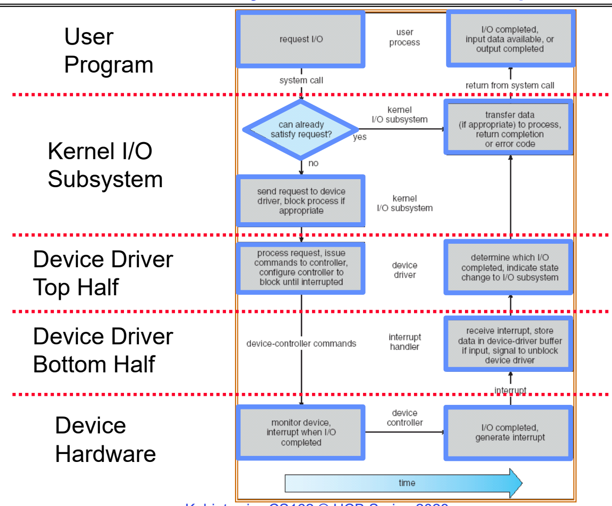
Kernel Device Structure



Recall: 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

Recall: Life Cycle of An I/O Request



The Goal of the I/O Subsystem

- Provide Uniform Interfaces, Despite Wide Range of Different Devices
  - This code works on many different devices:

```
FILE fd = fopen("/dev/something", "rw");
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
  fprintf(fd, "Count %d\n", i);
}
close(fd);
```

  - Why? Because code that controls devices ("device driver") implements standard interface
- We will try to get a flavor for what is involved in actually controlling devices in rest of lecture
  - Can only scratch surface!

Want Standard Interfaces to Devices

- Block Devices: *e.g.* disk drives, tape drives, DVD-ROM
  - 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

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

Conclusion

- I/O Devices Types:
  - Many different speeds (0.1 bytes/sec to GBytes/sec)
  - Different Access Patterns:
    - Block Devices, Character Devices, Network Devices
  - Different Access Timing:
    - Blocking, Non-blocking, Asynchronous
- I/O Controllers: Hardware that controls actual device
  - Processor Accesses through I/O instructions, load/store to special physical memory
- Notification mechanisms
  - Interrupts
  - Polling: Report results through status register that processor looks at periodically
- Device drivers interface to I/O devices
  - Provide clean Read/Write interface to OS above
  - Manipulate devices through PIO, DMA & interrupt handling
  - Three types: block, character, and network