TCSS 422: OPERATING SYSTEMS

I/O Devices,
Hard Disk Drives,
Final Exam Practice Questions

Wes J. Lloyd
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OBJECTIVES – 5/28

- **Questions from 5/23**
- Assignment 2 – May 31
- Assignment 3: (Tutorial) Introduction to Linux Kernel Modules
- Memory Segmentation Activity + answers (available in Canvas)
- Quiz 4 – Page Tables - Due June 6 @ 11:59am
- Final exam – June 6 @ 3:40pm
- Tutorial 3 - File Systems (Optional, Extra Credit)
- Chapter 21/22: Beyond Physical Memory
  - Swapping Mechanisms, Swapping Policies
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ONLINE DAILY FEEDBACK SURVEY

- Daily Feedback Quiz in Canvas – Available After Each Class
- Extra credit available for completing surveys ***ON TIME***
- Tuesday surveys: due by ~ Wed @ 11:59p
- Thursday surveys: due ~ Mon @ 11:59p

TCSS 422 A > Assignments

Spring 2021
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Discussions

Search for Assignment

▾ Upcoming Assignments

TCSS 422 - Online Daily Feedback Survey - 4/1
Available until Apr 5 at 11:59pm | Due Apr 5 at 10pm | -/1 pts

Quiz 0 - C background survey

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TCSS 422 - Online Daily Feedback Survey - 4/1

Quiz Instructions

Question 1 — 0.5 pts

On a scale of 1 to 10, please classify your perspective on material covered in today's class:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Mostly Review To Me — Equal New and Review — Mostly New to Me

Question 2 — 0.5 pts

Please rate the pace of today's class:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
Slow — Just Right — Fast

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MATERIAL / PACE

- Please classify your perspective on material covered in today's class (26 respondents):
- 1-mostly review, 5-equal new/review, 10-mostly new
- Average – 6.35 (↑ - previous 5.90)

- Please rate the pace of today's class:
- 1-slow, 5-just right, 10-fast
- Average – 5.31 (↑ - previous 5.14)

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FEEDBACK FROM 5/23

- ***Which method of memory segmentation is best for an online multiplayer game?***
- Starting with early Intel 32-bit processors (i386) paging support was added to CPUs (~1986), and segmentation largely was replaced with paging throughout operating systems
- Pure segmentation based approaches were used to manage memory on earlier systems:
  - Intel 16-bit i286
  - Mainframes

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ASSIGNMENT 3: INTRODUCTION TO LINUX KERNEL MODULES

- Assignment 3 provides an introduction to kernel programming by demonstrating how to create a Linux Kernel Module
- Kernel modules are commonly used to write device drivers and can access protected operating system data structures
  - For example: Linux `task_struct` process data structure
- Assignment 3 Survey - select:
  - Assignment category (40%)
  - Quizzes / Activities / Tutorials category (15%)
    - Lowest two grades in this category are dropped

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FINAL EXAM – THURSDAY JUNE 6 @ 3:40PM^TH

- Thursday June 6 from 3:40 to 5:40 pm
  - Final (100 points)
  - SHORT: similar number of questions as the midterm
  - 2-hours
  - Focus on new content - since the midterm (~70% new, 30% before)
- Final Exam Review -
  - Complete Memory Segmentation Activity
  - Complete Quiz 4
  - Practice Final Exam Questions – 2nd hour of May 31st class session
  - Individual work
  - 2 pages of notes (any sized paper), double sided
  - Basic calculators allowed
  - NO smartphones, laptop, book, Internet, group work

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FROM LECTURE 17

- Chapter 20: Paging: Smaller Tables
  - Smaller Tables, Multi-level Page Tables, **N-level Page Tables**
    - Refer to Slides starting at L17.66

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CHAPTER 21/22: BEYOND PHYSICAL MEMORY

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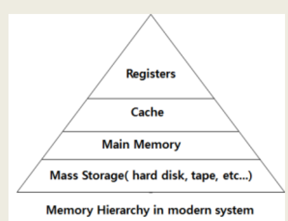
MEMORY HIERARCHY

- Disks (HDD, SSD) provide another level of storage in the memory hierarchy



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MOTIVATION FOR EXPANDING THE ADDRESS SPACE

- Provide the illusion of an address space larger than physical RAM
- For a single process
  - Convenience
  - Ease of use
- For multiple processes
  - Large virtual memory space supports running *many concurrent processes. . .*

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LATENCY TIMES

- Design considerations:
  - SSDs 4x the time of DRAM
  - HDDs 80x the time of DRAM

Action	Latency (ns)	(µs)	
L1 cache reference	0.5ns		
L2 cache reference	7 ns		14x L1 cache
Mutex lock/unlock	25 ns		
Main memory reference	100 ns		20x L2 cache, 200x L1
Read 4K randomly from SSD*	150,000 ns	150 µs	~1GB/sec SSD
Read 1 MB sequentially from memory	250,000 ns	250 µs	
Read 1 MB sequentially from SSD*	1,000,000 ns	1,000 µs	1 ms ~1GB/sec SSD, 4X memory
Read 1 MB sequentially from disk	20,000,000 ns	20,000 µs	20 ms 80x memory, 20X SSD

- *Latency numbers every programmer should know*
- From: https://gist.github.com/jboner/2841832#file-latency-txt

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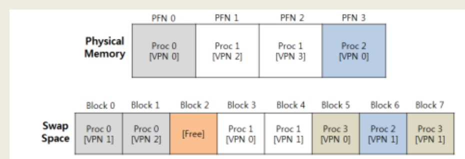
SWAP SPACE

- Disk space for storing memory pages
- "Swap" them in and out of memory to disk as needed



Physical Memory and Swap Space

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SWAP SPACE - 2

- The size of the swap space can be seen using the Linux free command: "free –h"

```
wlloyd@dione:~$ free -h
              total        used        free      shared  buff/cache   available
Mem:            30G         11G         14G        1.3G        4.4G         17G
Swap:           31G          0B         31G
```

- With sufficient disk space, a common allocation is to create Swap space greater than or equal to physical RAM

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SWAP SPACE - 3

- Swap space lives on a separate logical volume in Ubuntu Linux that is managed separately from the root file system
- Check logical volumes with "sudo lvdisplay" command:

```
--- Logical volume ---
LV Path                /dev/ubuntu-vg/swap_1
LV Name                swap_1
VG Name                ubuntu-vg
LV UUID                G1Ovj6-4M33-2YXY-YETH-wf7V-93vF-QRQytG
LV Write Access        read/write
LV Creation host, time ubuntu, 2018-09-30 15:44:16 -0700
LV Status              available
# open                 2
LV Size                976.00 MiB
Current LE             244
Segments               1
Allocation             inherit
Read ahead sectors     auto
- currently set to     256
Block device           253:1
```

- See also "lvm lvs" command

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PAGE LOCATION

- Memory pages are:
  - Stored in memory
  - Swapped to disk
- Present bit
  - In the page table entry (PTE) indicates if page is present
- Page fault
  - Memory page is accessed, but has been swapped to disk

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PAGE FAULT

- OS steps in to handle the page fault
- Loading page from disk requires a free memory page
- Page-Fault Algorithm

```
PFN = FindFreePhysicalPage()
if (PFN == -1)                    // no free page found
    PFN = EvictPage()             // run replacement algorithm
DiskRead(PTE.DiskAddr, pfn)       // sleep (waiting for I/O)
PTE.present = True                // set PTE bit to present
PTE.PFN = PFN                     // reference new loaded page
RetryInstruction()                // retry instruction
```


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PAGE REPLACEMENTS

- Page daemon
  - Background threads which monitors swapped pages
- Low watermark (LW)
  - Threshold for when to swap pages to disk
  - Daemon checks: free pages < LW
  - Begin swapping to disk until reaching the highwater mark
- High watermark (HW)
  - Target threshold of free memory pages
  - Daemon free until: free pages >= HW

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REPLACEMENT POLICIES

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CACHE MANAGEMENT

- Replacement policies apply to "any" cache
- Goal is to minimize the number of misses
- Average memory access time (AMAT) can be estimated:

$$AMAT = (P_{Hit} * T_M) + (P_{Miss} * T_D)$$

Argument	Meaning
T_M	The cost of accessing memory (time)
T_D	The cost of accessing disk (time)
P_{Hit}	The probability of finding the data item in the cache(a hit)
P_{Miss}	The probability of not finding the data in the cache(a miss)

- Consider T_M = 100 ns, T_D = 10ms
- Consider P_{hit} = .9 (90%), P_{miss} = .1
- Consider P_{hit} = .999 (99.9%), P_{miss} = .001

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OPTIMAL REPLACEMENT POLICY

- What if:
  - We could predict the future (… with a magical oracle)
  - All future page accesses are known
  - Always replace the page in the cache used farthest in the future
- Used for a comparison
- Provides a "best case" replacement policy
- Consider a 3-element empty cache with the following page accesses:

0 1 2 0 1 3 0 3 1 2 1

What is the hit/miss ratio?

6 hits

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FIFO REPLACEMENT

- Queue based
- <u>**Always replace the oldest element**</u> at the back of cache
- Simple to implement
- Doesn't consider importance… just arrival ordering
- Consider a 3-element empty cache with the following page accesses:

0 1 2 0 1 3 0 3 1 2 1

- What is the hit/miss ratio?
- How is FIFO different than LRU?

4 hits

LRU incorporates history

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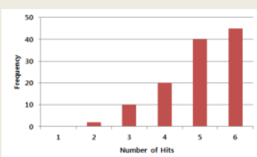
RANDOM REPLACEMENT

- Pick a page at random to replace
- Simple and fast implementation
- Performance depends on luck of random choices

0 1 2 0 1 3 0 3 1 2 1



Random Performance over 10,000 Trials

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HISTORY-BASED POLICIES

- LRU: Least recently used
- Always replace page with oldest access time (front)
- Always move end of cache when element is read again
- LRU requires constant reorganization of the cache
- Considers temporal locality (*when pg was last accessed*)

0 1 2 0 1 3 0 3 1 2 1

What is the hit/miss ratio?

6 hits

- LFU: Least frequently used
- Always replace page with the fewest # of accesses (front)
- Incorporates frequency of use - *must track pg accesses*
- Consider frequency of page accesses

0 1 2 0 1 3 0 3 1 2 1

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LFU

- LFU: Least frequently used
- Always replace page with the fewest # of accesses (front)
- Incorporates frequency of use - *must track pg accesses*
- Consider frequency of page accesses

0 1 2 0 1 3 0 3 1 2 1

What is the hit/miss ratio?

Hit/miss ratio is=6 hits

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WE WILL RETURN AT 4:55PM

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Consider a 3-element cache. With a FIFO replacement policy, how many hits occur with the following page access sequence:
1 2 0 1 3 1 2 0 2 1 3

- 2 hits
- 3 hits
- 4 hits
- 5 hits
- 6 hits

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Consider a 3-element cache. With an LRU replacement policy, how many hits occur with the following page access sequence:
1 2 0 1 3 1 2 0 2 1 3

- 2 hits
- 3 hits
- 4 hits
- 5 hits
- 6 hits

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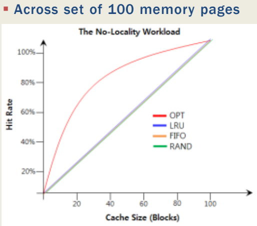
WORKLOAD EXAMPLES: NO-LOCALITY

- No-Locality (Random Access) Workload
  - Perform 10,000 random page accesses
  - Across set of 100 memory pages



When the cache is large enough to fit the entire workload, it doesn't matter which policy you use.

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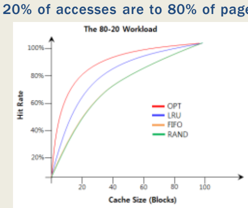
WORKLOAD EXAMPLES: 80/20

- 80/20 Workload
  - Perform 10,000 page accesses, against set of 100 pages
  - 80% of accesses are to 20% of pages (hot pages)
  - 20% of accesses are to 80% of pages (cold pages)



LRU is more likely to hold onto hot pages

(recalls history)

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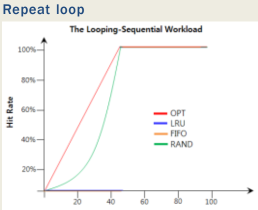
WORKLOAD EXAMPLES: SEQUENTIAL

- Looping sequential workload
  - Refer to 50 pages in sequence: 0, 1, …, 49
  - Repeat loop



Random performs better than FIFO and LRU for cache sizes < 50

Algorithms should provide "scan resistance"

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With small cache sizes, for the looping sequential workload, why do FIFO and LRU fail to provide cache hits?

- Cache hits in this scenario require consideration of how frequently accessed memory is for cache replacement
- Memory accesses are unpredictable and too random. Unpredictable accesses require a random cache replacement policy for cache hits
- Memory accesses to elements that are accessed repeatedly are too spread apart temporally to benefit from caching
- Unlike Random cache replacement, both FIFO and LRU fail to speculate memory accesses in advance to improve caching
- None of the above

Start the presentation to see live content. For screen share software, share the entire screen. Get help at pollev.com/app

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IMPLEMENTING LRU

- Implementing last recently used (LRU) requires tracking access time for all system memory pages
- Times can be tracked with a list
- For cache eviction, we must scan an entire list
- Consider: 4GB memory system (2^{32}), with 4KB pages (2^{12})
- This requires 2^{20} comparisons !!!
- Simplification is needed
  - Consider how to approximate the oldest page access

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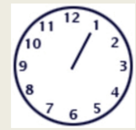
IMPLEMENTING LRU - 2

- Harness the Page Table Entry (PTE) Use Bit
- HW sets to 1 when page is used
- OS sets to 0
- Clock algorithm (*approximate LRU*)
  - Refer to pages in a circular list
  - Clock hand points to current page
  - Loops around
    - IF USE_BIT=1 set to USE_BIT = 0
    - IF USE_BIT=0 replace page



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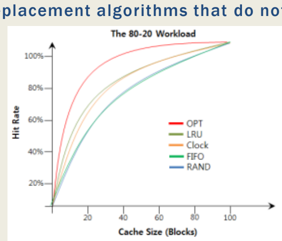
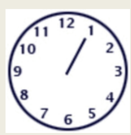
CLOCK ALGORITHM

- Not as efficient as LRU, but better than other replacement algorithms that do not consider history





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CLOCK ALGORITHM - 2

- Consider dirty pages in cache
- If DIRTY (modified) bit is FALSE
  - No cost to evict page from cache
- If DIRTY (modified) bit is TRUE
  - Cache eviction requires updating memory
  - Contents have changed
- Clock algorithm should favor no cost eviction

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WHEN TO LOAD PAGES

- On demand → demand paging
- Prefetching
  - Preload pages based on anticipated demand
  - Prediction based on locality
  - Access page P, suggest page P+1 may be used
- What other techniques might help anticipate required memory pages?
  - Prediction models, historical analysis
  - In general: accuracy vs. effort tradeoff
  - High analysis techniques struggle to respond in real time

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OTHER SWAPPING POLICIES

- Page swaps / writes
  - Group/cluster pages together
  - Collect pending writes, perform as batch
  - Grouping disk writes helps amortize latency costs
- Thrashing
  - Occurs when system runs many memory intensive processes and is low in memory
  - Everything is constantly swapped to-and-from disk

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OTHER SWAPPING POLICIES - 2

- Working sets
  - Groups of related processes
  - When thrashing: prevent one or more working set(s) from running
  - Temporarily reduces memory burden
  - Allows some processes to run, reduces thrashing

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CHAPTER 36: I/O DEVICES

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OBJECTIVES

- Chapter 36
  - I/O: Polling vs Interrupts
  - Programmed I/O (PIO)
    - Port-mapped I/O (PMIO)
    - Memory-mapped I/O (MMIO)
  - Direct memory Access (DMA)

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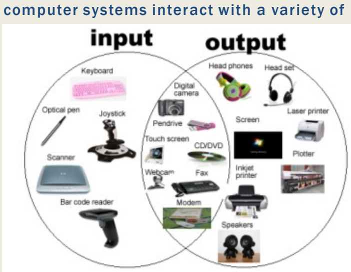
I/O DEVICES

- Modern computer systems interact with a variety of devices



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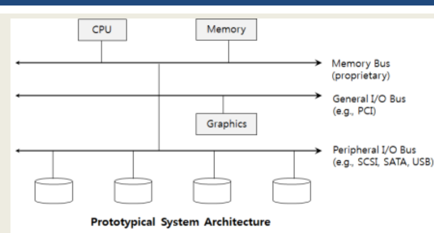
COMPUTER SYSTEM ARCHITECTURE



VERY FAST: CPU is attached to main memory via a Memory bus.
FAST: High speed devices (e.g. video) are connected via a General I/O bus.
SLOWER: Disks are connected via a Peripheral I/O bus.

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I/O BUSES

- Buses
  - Buses closer to the CPU are faster
  - Can support fewer devices
  - Further buses are slower, but support more devices
- Physics and costs dictate "levels"
  - Memory bus
  - General I/O bus
  - Peripheral I/O bus
- Tradeoff space: speed vs. locality

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CANONICAL DEVICE

- Consider an arbitrary canonical ***"standard/generic"*** device

- Two primary components
  - Interface (registers for communication)
  - Internals: Local CPU, memory, specific chips, firmware (embedded software)

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CANONICAL DEVICE: HARDWARE INTERFACE

- Status register
  - Maintains current device status
- Command register
  - Where commands for interaction are sent
- Data register
  - Used to send and receive data to the device

General concept:
The OS interacts and controls device behavior by reading and writing the device registers.

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OS DEVICE INTERACTION

- Common example of device interaction

```
while ( STATUS == BUSY)                      ← Poll- Is device available?
    ; //wait until device is not busy
write data to data register                  ← Command parameterization
write command to command register            ← Send command
    Doing so starts the device and executes the command
while ( STATUS == BUSY)                      ← Poll – Is device done?
    ; //wait until device is done with your request
```


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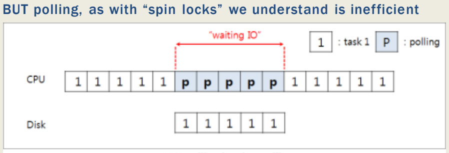
POLLING

- OS checks if device is *READY* by repeatedly checking the STATUS register
  - Simple approach
  - CPU cycles are wasted without doing meaningful work
  - Ok if only a few cycles, for rapid devices that are often READY
  - BUT polling, as with "spin locks" we understand is inefficient



CPU utilization by polling

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INTERRUPTS VS POLLING

- For longer waits, put process waiting on I/O to sleep
- Context switch (C/S) to another process
- When I/O completes, fire an interrupt to initiate C/S back
  - Advantage: better multi-tasking and CPU utilization
  - Avoids: unproductive CPU cycles (polling)

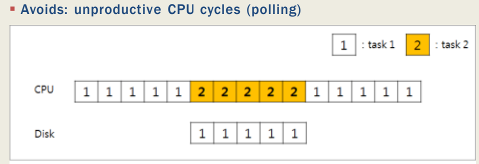

Diagram of CPU utilization by interrupt

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INTERRUPTS VS POLLING - 2

What is the tradeoff space ?

- Interrupts are not always the best solution
  - How long does the device I/O require?
  - What is the cost of context switching?

If device I/O is fast → polling is better.
When I/O time < 1 CPU time slice (e.g. 10 ms)

If device I/O is slow → interrupts are better.
When I/O time > 1 CPU time slice

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INTERRUPTS VS POLLING - 3

- Alternative: two-phase hybrid approach
  - Initially poll, then sleep and use interrupts
- Issue: livelock problem
  - Common with network I/O
  - Many arriving packets generate ***many many*** interrupts
  - Overloads the CPU!
  - No time to execute code, just interrupt handlers !
- Livelock optimization
  - Coalesce multiple arriving packets (for different processes) into fewer interrupts
  - Must consider number of interrupts a device could generate

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DEVICE I/O

- To interact with a device we must send/receive DATA
- There are two general approaches:
  - Programmed I/O (PIO):
    - Port mapped I/O (PMIO)
    - Memory mapped I/O (MMIO)
  - Direct memory access (DMA)

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Transfer Modes

Mode	#	Maximum transfer rate (MB/s)	cycle time
PIO	0	3.3	600 ns
	1	5.2	383 ns
	2	8.3	240 ns
	3	11.1	180 ns
	4	16.7	120 ns
Single-word DMA	0	2.1	960 ns
	1	4.2	480 ns
	2	8.3	240 ns
Multi-word DMA	0	4.2	480 ns
	1	13.3	150 ns
	2	16.7	120 ns
	3[34]	20	100 ns
	4[34]	25	80 ns
Ultra DMA	0	16.7	240 ns ÷ 2
	1	25.0	160 ns ÷ 2
	2 (Ultra ATA/33)	33.3	120 ns ÷ 2
	3	44.4	90 ns ÷ 2
	4 (Ultra ATA/66)	66.7	60 ns ÷ 2
	5 (Ultra ATA/100)	100	40 ns ÷ 2
	6 (Ultra ATA/133)	133	30 ns ÷ 2
	7 (Ultra ATA/167)[35]	167	24 ns ÷ 2

From https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Parallel_ATA

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PROGRAMMED I/O (PIO)

- I/O performed on the CPU
- CPU time is consumed performing I/O
- CPU supports data movement (input/output)
- PIO is slow: CPU is occupied with meaningless work

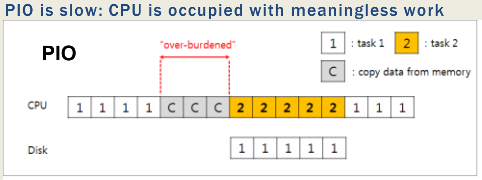

Diagram of CPU utilization

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PIO DEVICES

- Legacy serial ports
- Legacy parallel ports
- PS/2 keyboard and mouse
- Legacy MIDI, joysticks
- Old network interfaces

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PROGRAMMED I/O DEVICE (PIO) INTERACTION

- Two primary PIO methods
  - Port mapped I/O (PMIO)
  - Memory mapped I/O (MMIO)

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PORT MAPPED I/O (PMIO)

- Device specific CPU I/O Instructions
- Follows a CISC model: specific CPU instructions used for device I/O
- x86-x86-64: `in` and `out` instructions
- `outb`, `outw`, `outl`
- 1, 2, 4 byte copy from EAX → device's I/O port

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MEMORY MAPPED I/O (MMIO)

- Device's memory is mapped to standard memory addresses
- MMIO is common with RISC CPUs: Special CPU instructions for PIO eliminated
- Old days: 16-bit CPUs didn't have a lot of spare memory space
- Today's CPUs have LARGE address spaces: 32-bit (4GB addr space) & 64-bit (128 TB addr space)
- Device I/O uses regular CPU instructions usually used to read/write memory to access device
- Device is mapped to unique memory address **reserved** for I/O
  - Address must not be available for normal memory operations.
  - Generally very high addresses (out of range of type addresses)
- Device monitors CPU address bus and respond to instructions on their addresses

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DIRECT MEMORY ACCESS (DMA)

- Copy data in memory by ***offloading*** to "DMA controller"
- Many devices (including CPUs) integrate DMA controllers
- CPU gives DMA: memory address, size, and copy instruction
- DMA performs I/O independent of the CPU
- DMA controller generates CPU interrupt when I/O completes

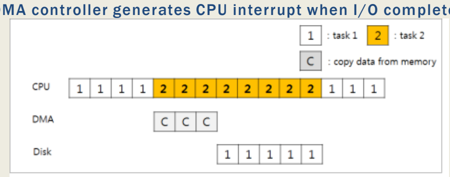

Diagram of CPU utilization by DMA

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DIRECTORY MEMORY ACCESS – 2

- Many devices use DMA
  - HDD/SSD controllers (ISA/PCI)
  - Graphics cards
  - Network cards
  - Sound cards
  - Intra-chip memory transfer for multi-core processors
- DMA allows computation and data transfer time to proceed in parallel

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DEVICE INTERACTION

- The OS must interact with a variety of devices
- Example: Consider a file system that works across a variety of types of disks:
  - SCSI, IDE, USB flash drive, DVD, etc.
- File system should be general purpose, where device specific I/O implementation details are abstracted
- **Device drivers** use abstraction to provide general interfaces for vendor specific hardware
- In Linux: block devices

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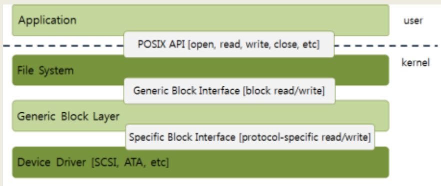
FILE SYSTEM ABSTRACTION

- Layers of I/O abstraction in Linux
- C functions (open, read, write) issue **block read** and **write** requests to the generic block layer



The File System Stack

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FILE SYSTEM ABSTRACTION ISSUES

- **Too much abstraction**
- Many devices provide special capabilities
- Example: SCSI Error handling
- SCSI devices provide extra details which are lost to the OS
- **Buggy device drivers**
- 70% of OS code is in device drivers
- Device drivers are required for every device plugged in
- Drivers are often 3rd party, which is not quality controlled at the same level as the OS (Linux, Windows, MacOS, etc.)

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OBJECTIVES – 5/28

- Questions from 5/23
- Assignment 2 – May 31
- Assignment 3: (Tutorial) Introduction to Linux Kernel Modules
- Memory Segmentation Activity + answers (available in Canvas)
- Quiz 4 – Page Tables - Due June 6 @ 11:59am
- Final exam – June 6 @ 3:40pm
- Tutorial 3 - File Systems (Optional, Extra Credit)
- Chapter 21/22: Beyond Physical Memory
  - Swapping Mechanisms, Swapping Policies
- Ch. 36 I/O Devices, Ch. 37 Hard Disk Drives

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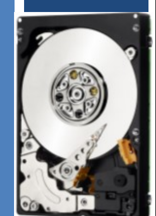
CH. 37: HARD DISK DRIVES



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OBJECTIVES

- Chapter 37
  - HDD Internals
  - Seek time
  - Rotational latency
  - Transfer speed
  - Capacity
  - Scheduling algorithms

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HARD DISK DRIVE (HDD)

- Primary means of data storage (persistence) for decades
  - Remains inexpensive for high capacity storage
  - 2020: 16 TB HDD - $400, ~15.3 TB SSD - $4,380
- Consists of a large number of data **sectors**
- Sector size is 512-bytes
- An n sector HDD can be is addressed as an array of 0..n-1 sectors

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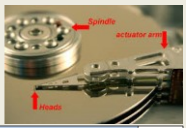
HDD INTERFACE

- Writing disk sectors is atomic (512 bytes)
- Sector writes are completely successful, or fail
- Many file systems will read/write 4KB at a time
  - Linux ext3/4 default filesystem blocksize – 4096
- Same as typical memory page size



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BLOCK SIZE IN LINUX EXT4

- `mkefs.ext4 -i <bytes-per-inode>`
- Formats disk w/ ext4 filesys with specified byte-to-inode ratio
- Today's disks are so large, some use cases with many small files can run out of inodes before running out of disk space
- Each inode record tracks a file on the disk
- Larger bytes-per-inode ratio results in fewer inodes
  - Default is around ~4096
- Value shouldn't be smaller than blocksize of filesystem
- **Note:** It is not possible to expand the number of inodes after the filesystem is created, - be careful deciding the value
- Check inode stats: `tune2fs -l /dev/sda1` *(← disk dev name)*

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EXAMPLE: USDA SOIL EROSION MODEL WEB SERVICE (RUSLE2)

- Host ~2,000,000 small XML files totaling 9.5 GB on a ~20GB filesystem on a cloud-based Virtual Machine
- With default inode ratio (4096 block size), only ~488,000 files will fit
- Drive less than half full, but files will not fit !
- HDDs support a minimum block size of 512 bytes
- OS filesystems such as ext3/ext4 can support "finer grained" management at the expense of a larger catalog size
  - Small inode ratio- inodes will considerable % of disk space

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EXAMPLE: USDA SOIL EROSION MODEL WEB SERVICE (RUSLE2) - 2

- Free space in bytes (df)

Device	total size	bytes-used	bytes-free	usage	
/dev/vda2	13315844	9556412	3049188	76%	/mnt

- Free inodes (df –i) @ 512 bytes / node

Device	total inodes	used	free	usage	
/dev/vda2	3552528	1999823	1552705	57%	/mnt

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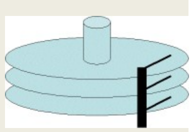
HDD INTERFACE - 2

- Torn write
  - When OS uses larger block size than HDD
  - Block writes not **atomic** - they SPAN multiple HDD sectors
  - Upon power failure only a portion of the OS block is written – *can lead to data corruption…*
- HDD access
  - Sequential reads of sectors is fastest
  - Random sector reads are slow
  - Disk head continuously must jump to different tracks



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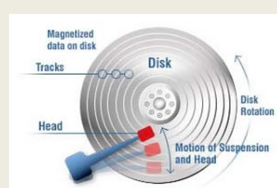
HDD PLATTER

- Made from aluminum coated with thin magnetic layer
- HDD records on both sides of each platter
- Data is stored by inducing magnetic changes



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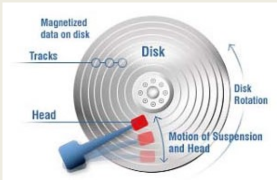
HDD SPINDLE

- Connected to motor which spins the disk
- Speed measures in RPM (rotations per minute)
- Typical: 7200-15000 rpm
- 10000 rpm – 1 rotation in 6ms; 15k rpm 1 rotation in 4ms



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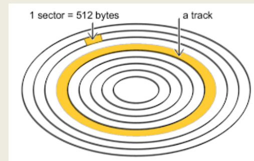
HDD TRACK

- Concentric circle of sectors
- Single side of platter contains 290 K tracks (2008)
- Zones: groups of tracks with same # of sectors

Outer tracks have More sectors



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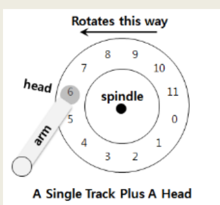
EXAMPLE: SIMPLE DISK DRIVE

- Single track disk
- Head: one per surface of drive
- Arm: moves heads across surface of platters



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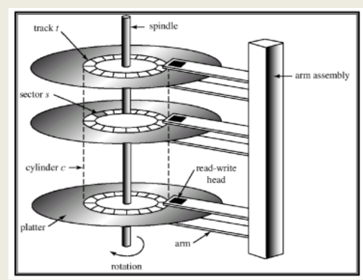
HARD DISK STRUCTURE



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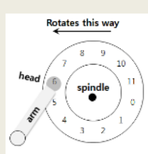
SINGLE-TRACK LATENCY: THE ROTATIONAL DELAY

- **Rotational latency** ($T_{rotation}$): time to rotate to desired sector
- Average $T_{rotation}$ is ~ about half the time of a full rotation
- How to calculate $T_{rotation}$ from rpm
  1. Calculate time for 1 rotation based on rpm
     - > Convert rpm to rps
  2. Divide by two (*average rotational latency*)
- 7200rpm = 8.33ms per rotation /2= ~4.166ms
- 10000rpm = 6ms per rotation /2= ~3ms
- 15000rpm = 4ms per rotation /2= ~2ms



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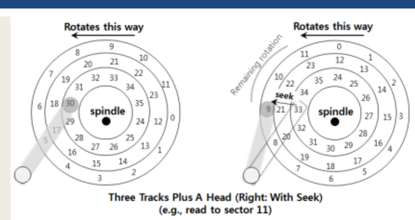
SEEK TIME



- **Seek time** (T_{seek}): time to move disk arm to proper track
- Most time consuming HDD operation

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FOUR PHASES OF SEEK

- Acceleration → coasting → deceleration →settling
- **Acceleration**: the arm gets moving
- **Coasting**: arm moving at full speed
- **Deceleration**: arm slow down
- **Settling**: Head is carefully positioned over track
  - Settling time is often high, from .5 to 2ms

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HDD I/O

- Data transfer
  - Final phase of I/O: time to read or write to disk surface
- Complete I/O cycle:
  1. Seek (accelerate, coast, decelerate, settle)
  2. Wait on rotational latency (*until track aligns*)
  3. Data transfer

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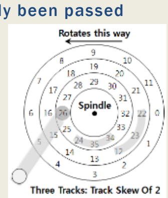
TRACK SKEW

- Sectors are offset across tracks to allow time for head to reposition for sequential reads
- Without track skew, when head is repositioned sector would have already been passed



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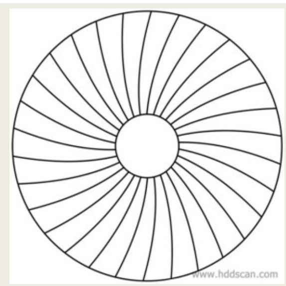
TRACK SKEW - 2



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HDD CACHE

- Buffer to support caching reads and writes
- Improves drive response time
- Up to 256 MB, slowly have been growing
- Two styles
  - Writeback cache
    - Report write complete immediately when data is transferred to HDD cache
    - Dangerous if power is lost
  - Writethrough cache
    - Reports write complete only when write is physically completed on disk

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TRANSFER SPEED

- Can calculate I/O transfer speed with:
- I/O Time: $T_{I/O} = T_{seek} + T_{rotation} + T_{transfer}$
- $T_{transfer}$ = $DATA_{size}$ x $Rate_{I/O}$
- Rate of I/O: $R_{I/O} = \frac{Size_{Transfer}}{T_{I/O}}$

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EXAMPLE: I/O SPEED

- Compare two disks:
1. Random workload: 4KB (random read on HDD)
2. Sequential workload: 100MB (contiguous sectors)
   - Calculate $T_{rotation}$ from rpm (rpm→rps, time for 1 rotation / 2)

	Cheetah 15K.5	Barracuda
Capacity	300 GB	1 TB
RPM	15,000	7,200
Average Seek	4 ms	9 ms
Max Transfer	125 MB/s	105 MB/s
Platters	4	4
Cache	16 MB	16/32 MB
Connects Via	SCSI	SATA

Disk Drive Specs: SCSI Versus SATA

EXAMPLE: I/O SPEED

1. Random workload: 4KB (random read on HDD)
2. Sequential workload: 100MB (contiguous sectors)

$$T_{I/O} = T_{seek} + T_{rotation} + T_{transfer}$$

$$T_{transfer} = Data_{size} \times Rate_{I/O}$$

$$R_{I/O} = \frac{Size_{Transfer}}{T_{I/O}}$$

		Cheetah 15K.5	Barracuda
	T_{seek}	4 ms	9 ms
	$T_{rotation}$	2 ms	4.2 ms
4 KB Random	$T_{transfer}$	30 microsecs	38 microsecs
	$T_{I/O}$	6 ms	13.2 ms
	$R_{I/O}$	0.66 MB/s	0.31 MB/s
100 MB Sequential	$T_{transfer}$	800 ms	950 ms
	$T_{I/O}$	806 ms	963.2 ms
	$R_{I/O}$	125 MB/s	105 MB/s

Disk Drive Performance: SCSI Versus SATA

There is a huge gap in drive throughput between random and sequential workloads

MODERN HDD SPECS

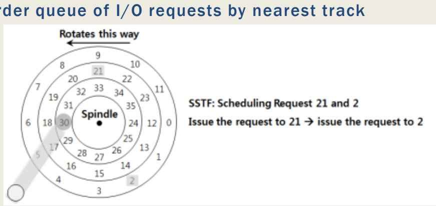
- See sample HDD configurations here:
  - Up to 20 TB
- https://www.westerndigital.com/products/data-center-drives#hard-disk-hdd

DISK SCHEDULING

- Disk scheduler: determine how to order I/O requests
- Multiple levels - OS and HW
- OS: provides ordering
- HW: further optimizes using intricate details of physical HDD implementation and state

SSTF – SHORTEST SEEK TIME FIRST

- Disk scheduling – which I/O request to schedule next
- Shortest Seek Time First (SSTF)
- Order queue of I/O requests by nearest track



SSTF ISSUES

- Problem 1: HDD abstraction
- Drive geometry not available to OS. Nearest-block-first is a comparable alternate algorithm.
- Problem 2: Starvation
- Steady stream of requests for local tracks may prevent arm from traversing to other side of platter

DISK SCHEDULING ALGORITHMS

- **SCAN (SWEEP)**
- Perform single repeated passes back and forth across disk
- Issue: if request arrives for a recently visited track it will not be revisited until a full cycle completes

- **F-SCAN**
- Freeze incoming requests by adding to queue during scan
- Cache arriving requests until later
- Delays help avoid starvation by postponing servicing nearby newly arriving requests vs. requests at edge of sweep
- Provides better fairness

- **Elevator (C-SCAN)** – circular scan
- Sweep only one direction (e.g. outer to inner) and repeat
- SCAN favors middle tracks vs. outer tracks with 2-way sweep

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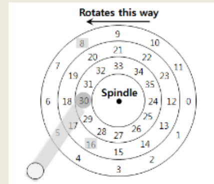
SHORTEST TIME POSITIONING FIRST

- Determine next sector to read?
  - Where: $T_{seek} = T_{rotation}$
- On which track?
- On which sector?



SSTF: Sometimes Not Good Enough

On modern drives, both seek and rotation are roughly equivalent:
Thus, SPTF (Shortest Positioning Time First) is useful.

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OPTIMIZATION: I/O MERGING

- Group temporary adjacent requests
- Reduce overhead
- Read (memory blocks): 33 8 34
- How long we should wait for I/O ?
- When do we know we have waited too long?

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QUESTIONS

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