

TCSS 422: OPERATING SYSTEMS

Beyond Physical Memory, I/O Devices, Hard Disk Drives,



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OBJECTIVES – 3/12

- **Questions from 3/10**
- Assignment 2 - March 12 TODAY AOE
- Assignment 3 (as a Tutorial) - March 20 AOE
- Memory Segmentation Activity + answers (available in Canvas)
- Quiz 4 – Page Tables - Due March 12 TODAY AOE
- Final exam - Thurs March 19 @ 3:40pm JOY 215 w/ HEAT!
- Tutorial 3 - File Systems (Optional, Extra Credit)
- Chapter 21/22: Beyond Physical Memory
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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

Search for Assignment

Home

Announcements

Zoom

Syllabus

Assignments

Discussions

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 (33 of 46 respondents (7 online) – 71.7%):
- 1-mostly review, 5-equal new/review, 10-mostly new
- **Average – 6.45 (↑ - previous 4.73)**

- Please rate the pace of today's class:
- 1-slow, 5-just right, 10-fast
- **Average – 5.36 (↑ - previous 4.93)**

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FEEDBACK FROM 3/10

- **Why does every address translation have to go through the TLB?**
- Primarily to accelerate memory access. Without the TLB the OS would need to perform a costly 5-level page table look-up in memory for every instruction, memory access, etc. which is too slow.
- x86_64 machines with 64-bit Linux, have an addressable memory space of 128 PB which is addressable with 57-bits
- There are $2^{57} / 2^{12}$ pages, which is 2^{35} pages.
- 35-VPN bits are conveniently divided by 9 for 5-level page tables !!
 - Page Global Directory (PGD) = bits 56 to 48 (9 bits)
 - Page Level 4 Directory (P4D) = bits 47 to 39 (9 bits)
 - Page Upper Directory (PUD) = bits 38 to 30 (9 bits)
 - Page Middle Directory (PMD) = bits 29 to 21 (9 bits)
 - Page Table Entry (PTE) = bits 20 to 12 (9 bits)
 - Page Offset = final 12 bits of the 57-bit address

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TLB CACHING QUESTION

- Consider a computer that indexes memory using 4 KB pages
- The sizeof(int) in 64-bit Linux is 4 bytes
- Consider an array of 10,000 4-byte integers (40,000 bytes)

```
int big_array[10000];
```
- Assume static allocation on stack pages
- Assuming big_array[0] is allocated on the start of a 4K memory page, and array allocation is contiguous, how many TLB hits and misses will occur with the following code ?

```
for (int i=0;i<10000;i++)  
    big_array[i]=0;
```
- Array 40,000 byte array storage spans 10 memory pages
- 10 misses, 9,990 hits
- 999 hits to 1 miss ratio = 99.9% cache hit rate

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FEEDBACK - 2

- **Are there more efficient structures in development to replace 5-level paging schemes in Linux?**
- Huge Pages (2MB/1GB) and Transparent Huge Pages (THP) – an existing feature of Linux currently, Linux can merge 4KB pages into 2MB or 1GB pages to reduce the number of levels for address translation and also to increase TLB hits
 - Huge pages preconfigured and static at boot time (for libraries, etc)
 - Transparent huge pages (2MB) - kernel will allocate 2MB pages on demand as needed but defragmentation can introduce latency
- Huge pages help databases, VMs, HPC applications, but not required for typical use
- Enabled? `cat /sys/kernel/mm/transparent_hugepage/enabled`
- In Use? `cat /proc/meminfo | grep AnonHugePages`

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FEEDBACK - 3

- **Neural Page Table Indexing** – Researchers have proposed using neural networks to learn and predict page table indexes to speed up the translation process, aimed at alleviating performance for deeply nested page tables

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TUTORIAL - ASSIGNMENT 3: INTRODUCTION TO LINUX KERNEL MODULES

- Assignment 3 provides an introduction to kernel programming by demonstrating how to create a Linux Kernel Module as a tutorial
- 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

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<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Questions from 3/10▪ Assignment 2 - March 12 TODAY AOE▪ Assignment 3 (as a Tutorial) - March 20 AOE▪ Memory Segmentation Activity + answers (available in Canvas)▪ Quiz 4 – Page Tables - Due March 12 TODAY AOE▪ Final exam - Thurs March 19 @ 3:40pm JOY 215 w/ HEAT!▪ Tutorial 3 - File Systems (Optional, Extra Credit)▪ Chapter 21/22: Beyond Physical Memory<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Swapping Mechanisms, Swapping Policies▪ Ch. 36 I/O Devices, Ch. 37 Hard Disk Drives		
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FINAL EXAM – THURS MARCH 19 @ 3:40PM JOY 215		
<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Thursday March 19 from 3:40 to 5:40 pm<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Final (100 points), similar number of questions as the midterm▪ 2-hours, Joy 215 has heating !!▪ What to Review for the Final Exam:<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ *Final Exam Review Session* – Tuesday March 17 @ 6pm on Zoom▪ Focus on new content – 70% since the midterm, 30% before▪ Complete Memory Segmentation Activity (ungraded)▪ Complete Canvas Quiz 4▪ Review In-Class Quiz 2 (from March 5)▪ Format:<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Individual work▪ 3 pages of notes (any sized paper), double sided▪ Basic calculators allowed▪ NO smartphones, laptop, book, Internet, group work		
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TUTORIAL 3 - FILE SYSTEMS

- **(Optional, Extra Credit)**
- Due Saturday March 21 AOE time
- In Extra Credit Category
- Earn up to 2% extra credit added to overall course credit
- Topics:
 - Exploring the File API (Chapter 39)
 - File System Symbolic Links in Linux
 - File System types: ext2, ext4
 - Testing Performance Impact of File System Journaling w/ Sysbench
 - iNodes, iNode density on a file system

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CATCH UP FROM LECTURE 17

- Switch to Lecture 15 Slides
- Slides L15.86 to L15.90
(Chapter 20 – Paging – Smaller Tables)

- Switch to Lecture 17 Slides
- Slides 17.20 to 17.50
(Chapters 21/22 – Beyond Physical Memory)

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**WE WILL RETURN AT
5:07PM**



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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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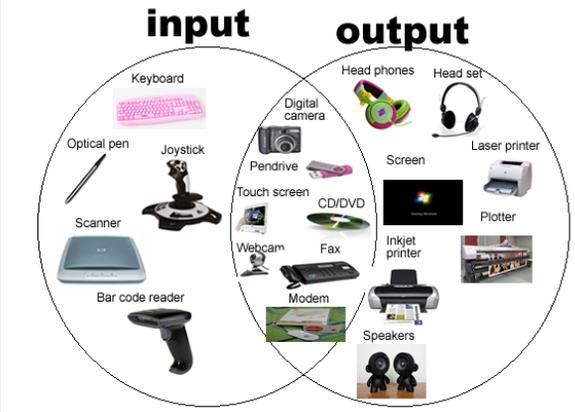
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I/O DEVICES

▪ Modern computer systems interact with a variety of devices

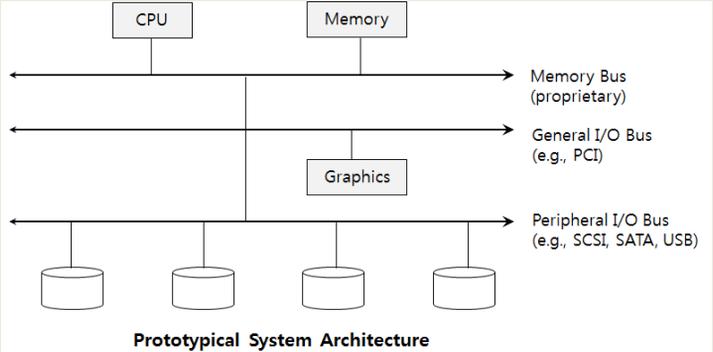


The diagram shows two overlapping circles labeled 'input' and 'output'. The 'input' circle contains: Keyboard, Optical pen, Joystick, Scanner, Bar code reader, and Pendrive. The 'output' circle contains: Head phones, Head set, Laser printer, Screen, Plotter, Inkjet printer, and Speakers. The intersection of the two circles contains: Digital camera, Touch screen, CD/DVD, Webcam, Fax, and Modem.

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COMPUTER SYSTEM ARCHITECTURE



The diagram shows a CPU and Memory connected to a central vertical bus. Three horizontal buses branch off to the right: Memory Bus (proprietary), General I/O Bus (e.g., PCI), and Peripheral I/O Bus (e.g., SCSI, SATA, USB). The Peripheral I/O Bus is connected to four disk icons. A box labeled 'Graphics' is connected to the General I/O Bus.

Prototypical 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

<p>Registers: Status Command Data</p> <hr style="border-top: 1px dashed black;"/> <p>Micro-controller(CPU) Memory (DRAM or SRAM or both) Other Hardware-specific Chips</p>	interface
Canonical Device	internals

- 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

“waiting IO”

	<table border="1" style="border-collapse: collapse; text-align: center;"> <tr> <td style="width: 10%;">1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>p</td><td>p</td><td>p</td><td>p</td><td>p</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td> </tr> </table>	1	1	1	1	1	1	p	p	p	p	p	1	1	1	1	1	<table border="1" style="border-collapse: collapse; text-align: center;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20px;">1</td> : task 1 </tr> <tr> <td style="width: 20px;">P</td> : polling </tr> </table>	1	P
1	1	1	1	1	1	p	p	p	p	p	1	1	1	1	1					
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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)

	<table border="1" style="border-collapse: collapse; text-align: center;"> <tr> <td style="width: 10%;">1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>2</td><td>2</td><td>2</td><td>2</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td> </tr> </table>	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	<table border="1" style="border-collapse: collapse; text-align: center;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20px;">1</td> : task 1 </tr> <tr> <td style="width: 20px; background-color: yellow;">2</td> : task 2 </tr> </table>	1	2
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1	1	1	1	1																

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

PIO

"over-burdened"

Legend: 1 : task 1 2 : task 2
C : copy data from memory

CPU	1	1	1	1	C	C	C	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1
Disk	1					1									

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

	1	2													
	: task 1	: task 2													
	C		: copy data from memory												
CPU	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1
DMA					C	C	C								
Disk					1	1	1	1	1						

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 diagram illustrates the File System Stack, divided into user and kernel space by a dashed line. In the user space, the Application layer uses the POSIX API (open, read, write, close, etc) to communicate with the File System layer in the kernel space. The File System layer uses the Generic Block Interface (block read/write) to communicate with the Generic Block Layer. The Generic Block Layer uses the Specific Block Interface (protocol-specific read/write) to communicate with the Device Driver (SCSI, ATA, etc).

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 – 3/12

- Questions from 3/10
- Assignment 2 - March 12 TODAY AOE
- Assignment 3 (as a Tutorial) - March 20 AOE
- Memory Segmentation Activity + answers (available in Canvas)
- Quiz 4 – Page Tables - Due March 12 TODAY AOE
- Final exam - Thurs March 19 @ 3:40pm JOY 215 w/ HEAT!
- 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)

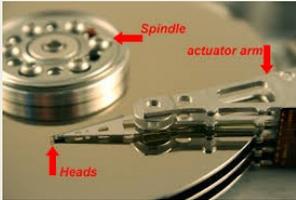
- Primary means of data storage (persistence) for decades
 - Remains inexpensive for high capacity storage
 - 2020: 16 TB HDD - \$400, ~15.3 TB SSD - \$4,380
- Consists of a large number of data **sectors**
- Sector size is 512-bytes
- An n sector HDD
can be is addressed as an array of $0..n-1$ sectors

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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 fileys 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

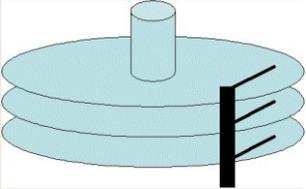
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HDD INTERFACE - 2

- **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

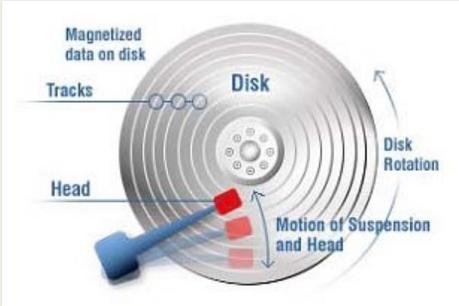


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HDD PLATTER

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

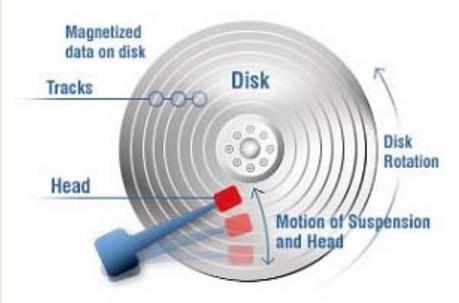


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HDD SPINDLE

- 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



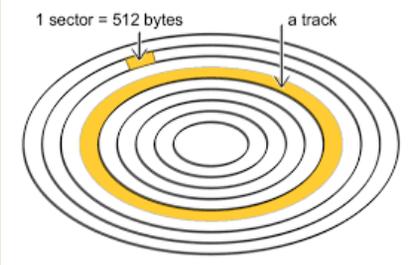
The diagram illustrates the components of an HDD spindle. It shows a central hub with a disk attached. The disk has concentric tracks. A head is shown moving across the tracks. Labels include: 'Magnetized data on disk', 'Tracks', 'Disk', 'Head', 'Disk Rotation', and 'Motion of Suspension and Head'.

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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



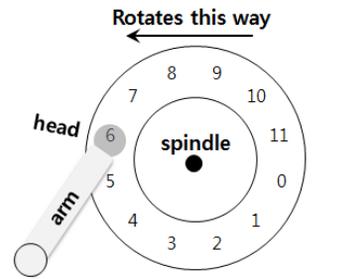
The diagram shows concentric circles representing tracks on a disk. A yellow highlight is on one of the tracks. Labels include: '1 sector = 512 bytes' and 'a track'. The text 'Outer tracks have More sectors' is written to the left of the diagram.

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EXAMPLE: SIMPLE DISK DRIVE

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



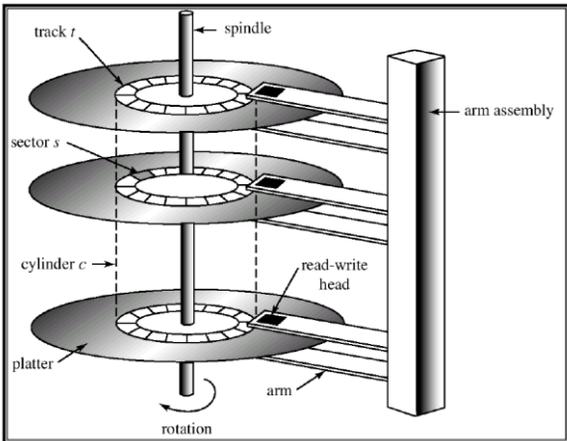
The diagram shows a circular disk with a central spindle. The disk is divided into 12 tracks, numbered 0 through 11. A head is positioned on track 6. An arm is attached to the head and extends outwards. An arrow above the disk indicates it rotates counter-clockwise.

A Single Track Plus A Head

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HARD DISK STRUCTURE



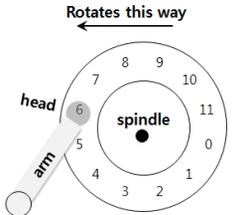
The diagram shows a vertical spindle with three platters. Each platter has a track labeled 't' and a sector labeled 's'. A read-write head is positioned on the surface of the platters. An arm assembly is attached to the heads. The spindle is labeled 'spindle' and the rotation is indicated by a curved arrow at the bottom.

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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



Rotates this way

head

arm

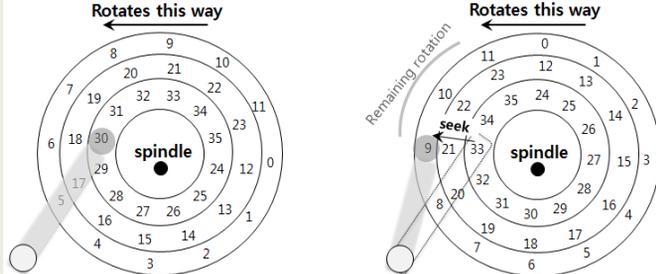
spindle

A Single Track Plus A Head

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SEEK TIME



Rotates this way

Rotates this way

Remaining rotation

seek

spindle

spindle

Three Tracks Plus A Head (Right: With Seek)
(e.g., read to sector 11)

- **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

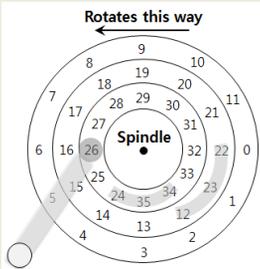
- Data transfer
 - Final phase of I/O: time to read or write to disk surface
- Complete I/O cycle:
 1. Seek (accelerate, coast, decelerate, settle)
 2. Wait on rotational latency (*until track aligns*)
 3. Data transfer

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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



Rotates this way ←

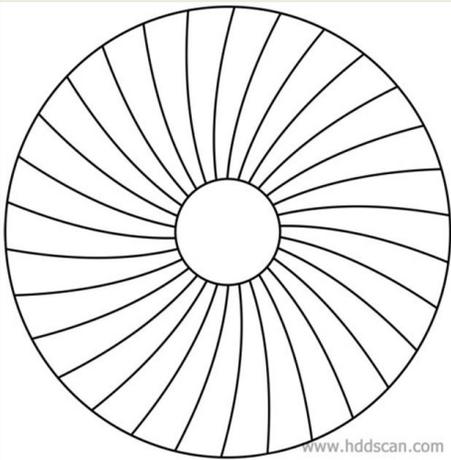
Spindle

Three Tracks: Track Skew Of 2

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TRACK SKEW - 2



www.hddscan.com

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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: $T_{I/O} = T_{seek} + T_{rotation} + T_{transfer}$
- $T_{transfer} = \text{DATA}_{size} \times \text{Rate}_{I/O}$
- Rate of I/O: $R_{I/O} = \frac{\text{Size}_{transfer}}{T_{I/O}}$

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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 \rightarrow 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

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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 microseconds	38 microseconds
	$T_{I/O}$	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

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MODERN HDD SPECS

- See sample HDD configurations here:
 - Up to 20 TB

- <https://www.westerndigital.com/products/data-center-drives#hard-disk-hdd>

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DISK SCHEDULING

- Disk scheduler: determine how to order I/O requests

- Multiple levels - OS and HW

- OS: provides ordering

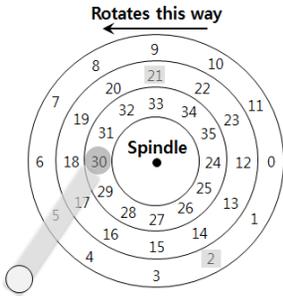
- HW: further optimizes using intricate details of physical HDD implementation and state

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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: Scheduling Request 21 and 2
Issue the request to 21 → issue the request to 2

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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

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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?

Rotates this way

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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