CS162
Operating Systems and Systems Programming
Lecture 17

Disk Management and File Systems

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Review: Want Standard Interfaces to Devices

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

Review: How Does User Deal with Timing?

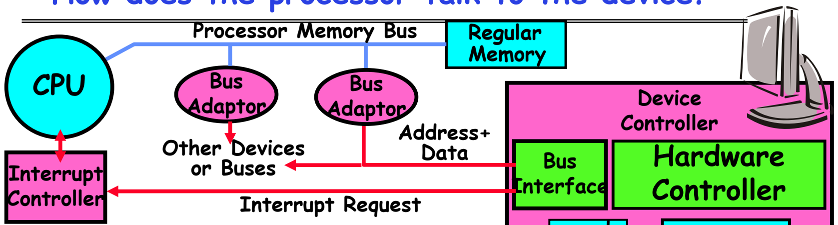
- **Blocking Interface:** "Wait"
  - When request data (e.g. `read()` system call), put process to sleep until data is ready
  - When write data (e.g. `write()` system call), put process to sleep until device is ready for data
- **Non-blocking Interface:** "Don't Wait"
  - Returns quickly from read or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

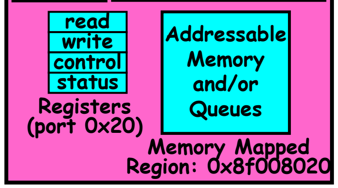
Goals for Today

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

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

How does the processor talk to the device?

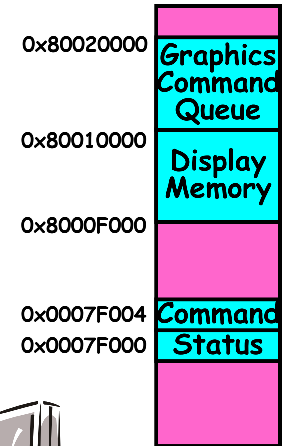




- CPU interacts with a *Controller*
  - Contains a set of *registers* that can be read and written
  - May contain memory for request queues or bit-mapped images
- Regardless of the complexity of the connections and buses, processor accesses registers in two ways:
  - **I/O instructions:** in/out instructions
    - » Example from the Intel architecture: `out 0x21,AL`
  - **Memory mapped I/O:** load/store instructions
    - » Registers/memory appear in physical address space
    - » I/O accomplished with load and store instructions

Memory-Mapped Display Controller Example

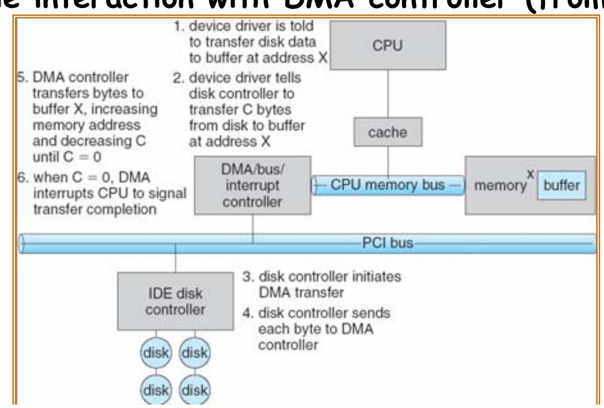
- Memory-Mapped:
  - Hardware maps control registers and display memory to physical address space
    - » Addresses set by hardware jumpers or programming at boot time
  - Simply writing to display memory (also called the "frame buffer") changes image on screen
    - » Addr: 0x8000F000—0x8000FFFF
  - Writing graphics description to command-queue area
    - » Say enter a set of triangles that describe some scene
    - » Addr: 0x80010000—0x8001FFFF
  - Writing to the command register may cause on-board graphics hardware to do something
    - » Say render the above scene
    - » Addr: 0x0007F004
- Can protect with page tables



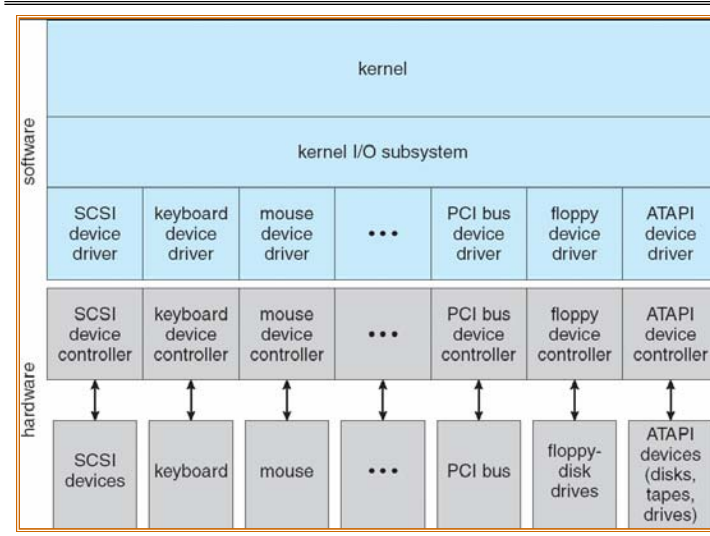
Physical Address Space

Transferring Data To/From Controller

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



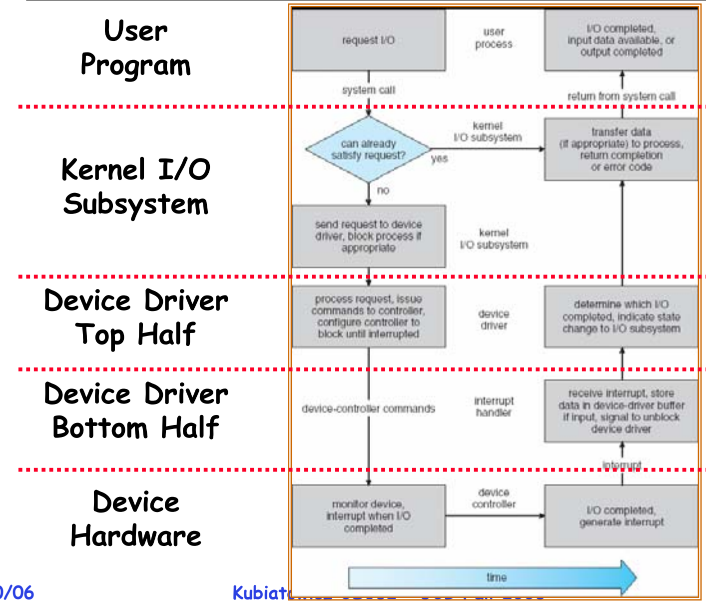
A Kernel I/O Structure



Device Drivers

- **Device Driver:** Device-specific code in the kernel that interacts directly with the device hardware
  - Supports a standard, internal interface
  - Same kernel I/O system can interact easily with different device drivers
  - Special device-specific configuration supported with the `ioctl()` system call
- Device Drivers typically divided into two pieces:
  - Top half: accessed in call path from system calls
    - » implements a set of standard, cross-device calls like `open()`, `close()`, `read()`, `write()`, `ioctl()`, `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

Life Cycle of An I/O Request



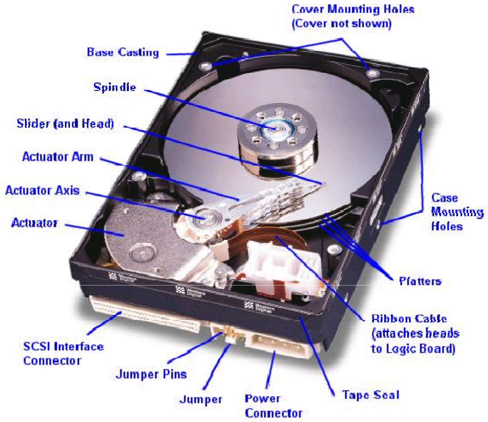
I/O Device Notifying the OS

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

Administrivia

- Group Evaluations (Both Projects 1 and 2)
  - These MUST be done: you will get a ZERO on your project score if you don't fill them out
  - We will be asking you about them, so make sure you are careful to fill them out honestly
- Thursday sections
  - Fill out a survey form to see how class is going
  - Give you an opportunity to give feedback
- Other things
  - Group problems? Don't wait.
  - Talk to TA/talk to me
    - » Let's get things fixed!

Hard Disk Drives

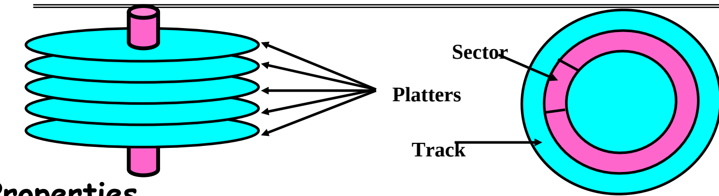


Western Digital Drive
http://www.storagereview.com/guide/

Read/Write Head
Side View

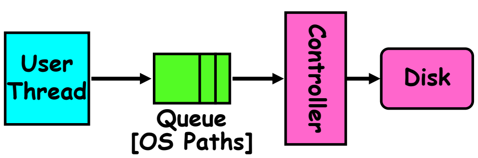
IBM/Hitachi Microdrive

Properties of a Hard Magnetic Disk

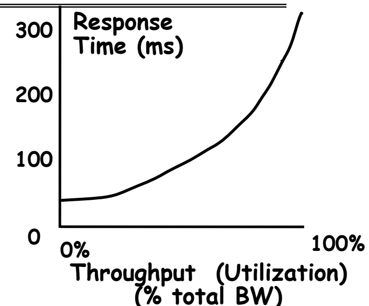


- Properties
  - Independently addressable element: sector
    - » OS always transfers groups of sectors together—"blocks"
  - A disk can access directly any given block of information it contains (random access). Can access any file either sequentially or randomly.
  - A disk can be rewritten in place: it is possible to read/modify/write a block from the disk
- Typical numbers (depending on the disk size):
  - 500 to more than 20,000 tracks per surface
  - 32 to 800 sectors per track
    - » A sector is the smallest unit that can be read or written
- Zoned bit recording
  - Constant bit density: more sectors on outer tracks
  - Speed varies with track location

Disk I/O Performance

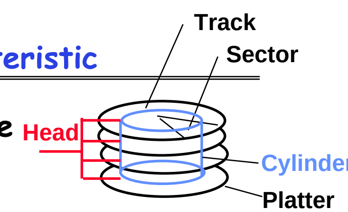


Response Time = Queue+Disk Service Time

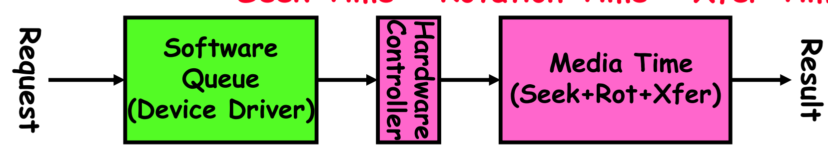


- Performance of disk drive/file system
  - Metrics: Response Time, Throughput
  - Contributing factors to latency:
    - » Software paths (can be loosely modeled by a queue)
    - » Hardware controller
    - » Physical disk media
- Queuing behavior:
  - Can lead to big increases of latency as utilization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

Magnetic Disk Characteristic



- Cylinder: all the tracks under the head at a given point on all surface
- Read/write data is a three-stage process:
  - Seek time: position the head/arm over the proper track (into proper cylinder)
  - Rotational latency: wait for the desired sector to rotate under the read/write head
  - Transfer time: transfer a block of bits (sector) under the read-write head
- Disk Latency = Queueing Time + Controller time + Seek Time + Rotation Time + Xfer Time



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

Typical Numbers of a Magnetic Disk

- Average seek time as reported by the industry:
  - Typically in the range of 8 ms to 12 ms
  - Due to locality of disk reference may only be 25% to 33% of the advertised number
- Rotational Latency:
  - *Most* disks rotate at 3,600 to 7200 RPM (Up to 15,000RPM or more)
  - Approximately 16 ms to 8 ms per revolution, respectively
  - An average latency to the desired information is halfway around the disk: 8 ms at 3600 RPM, 4 ms at 7200 RPM
- Transfer Time is a function of:
  - Transfer size (usually a sector): 512B – 1KB per sector
  - Rotation speed: 3600 RPM to 15000 RPM
  - Recording density: bits per inch on a track
  - Diameter: ranges from 1 in to 5.25 in
  - Typical values: 2 to 50 MB per second
- Controller time depends on controller hardware
- Cost drops by factor of two per year (since 1991)

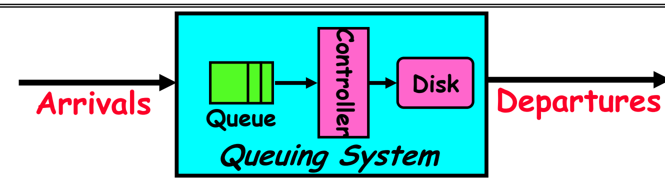
Disk Performance

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

Disk Tradeoffs

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

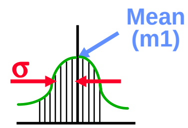
Introduction to Queuing Theory



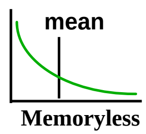
- What about queuing time??
  - Let's apply some queuing theory
  - Queuing Theory applies to long term, steady state behavior ⇒ Arrival rate = Departure rate
- Little's Law:
  Mean # tasks in system = arrival rate x mean response time
  - Observed by many, Little was first to prove
  - Simple interpretation: you should see the same number of tasks in queue when entering as when leaving.
- Applies to any system in equilibrium, as long as nothing in black box is creating or destroying tasks
  - Typical queuing theory doesn't deal with transient behavior, only steady-state behavior

Background: Use of random distributions

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

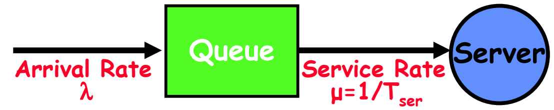


- Important values of C:
  - No variance or deterministic ⇒ C=0
  - "memoryless" or exponential ⇒ C=1
    - » Past tells nothing about future
    - » Many complex systems (or aggregates) well described as memoryless
  - Disk response times C ≈ 1.5 (majority seeks < avg)



A Little Queuing Theory: Some Results

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



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

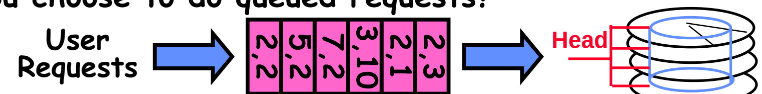
A Little Queuing Theory: An Example

- Example Usage Statistics:
  - User requests 10 x 8KB disk I/Os per second
  - Requests & service exponentially distributed (C=1.0)
  - Avg. service = 20 ms (From controller+seek+rot+trans)
- Questions:
  - How utilized is the disk?
    - » Ans: server utilization, $u = \lambda T_{ser}$
  - What is the average time spent in the queue?
    - » Ans: T_q
  - What is the number of requests in the queue?
    - » Ans: L_q
  - What is the avg response time for disk request?
    - » Ans: $T_{sys} = T_q + T_{ser}$
- Computation:

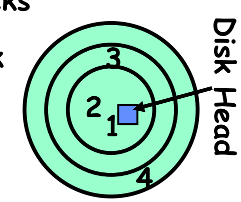
λ (avg # arriving customers/s) = 10/s
T_{ser} (avg time to service customer) = 20 ms (0.02s)
u (server utilization) = $\lambda \times T_{ser}$ = 10/s x .02s = 0.2
T_q (avg time/customer in queue) = $T_{ser} \times u/(1 - u)$
= 20 x 0.2/(1-0.2) = 20 x 0.25 = 5 ms (0 .005s)
L_q (avg length of queue) = $\lambda \times T_q$=10/s x .005s = 0.05
T_{sys} (avg time/customer in system) =$T_q + T_{ser}$= 25 ms

Disk Scheduling

- Disk can do only one request at a time; What order do you choose to do queued requests?



- FIFO Order
  - Fair among requesters, but order of arrival may be to random spots on the disk ⇒ Very long seeks
- SSTF: Shortest seek time first
  - Pick the request that's closest on the disk
  - Although called SSTF, today must include rotational delay in calculation, since rotation can be as long as seek
  - Con: SSTF good at reducing seeks, but may lead to starvation

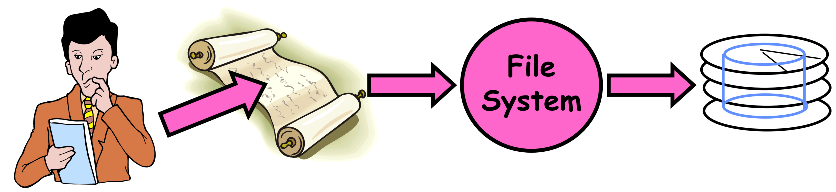


- SCAN: Implements an Elevator Algorithm: take the closest request in the direction of travel
  - No starvation, but retains flavor of SSTF
- S-SCAN: Circular-Scan: only goes in one direction
  - Skips any requests on the way back
  - Fairer than SCAN, not biased towards pages in middle

Building a File System

- **File System:** Layer of OS that transforms block interface of disks (or other block devices) into Files, Directories, etc.
- File System Components
  - Disk Management: collecting disk blocks into files
  - Naming: Interface to find files by name, not by blocks
  - Protection: Layers to keep data secure
  - Reliability/Durability: Keeping of files durable despite crashes, media failures, attacks, etc
- User vs. System View of a File
  - User's view:
    - » Durable Data Structures
  - System's view (system call interface):
    - » Collection of Bytes (UNIX)
    - » Doesn't matter to system what kind of data structures you want to store on disk!
  - System's view (inside OS):
    - » Collection of blocks (a block is a logical transfer unit, while a sector is the physical transfer unit)
    - » Block size ≥ sector size; in UNIX, block size is 4KB

Translating from User to System View



- What happens if user says: give me bytes 2—12?
  - Fetch block corresponding to those bytes
  - Return just the correct portion of the block
- What about: write bytes 2—12?
  - Fetch block
  - Modify portion
  - Write out Block
- Everything inside File System is in whole size blocks
  - For example, `getc()`, `putc()` ⇒ buffers something like 4096 bytes, even if interface is one byte at a time
- From now on, file is a collection of blocks

Disk Management Policies

- Basic entities on a disk:
  - **File:** user-visible group of blocks arranged sequentially in logical space
  - **Directory:** user-visible index mapping names to files (next lecture)
- Access disk as linear array of sectors. Two Options:
  - Identify sectors as vectors [cylinder, surface, sector]. Sort in cylinder-major order. Not used much anymore.
  - **Logical Block Addressing (LBA).** Every sector has integer address from zero up to max number of sectors.
  - Controller translates from address ⇒ physical position
    - » First case: OS/BIOS must deal with bad sectors
    - » Second case: hardware shields OS from structure of disk
- Need way to track free disk blocks
  - Link free blocks together ⇒ too slow today
  - Use bitmap to represent free space on disk
- Need way to structure files: **File Header**
  - Track which blocks belong at which offsets within the logical file structure
  - **Optimize placement of files' disk blocks to match access and usage patterns**

Designing the File System: Access Patterns

- How do users access files?
  - Need to know type of access patterns user is likely to throw at system
- Sequential Access: bytes read in order ("give me the next X bytes, then give me next, etc")
  - Almost all file access are of this flavor
- Random Access: read/write element out of middle of array ("give me bytes i—j")
  - Less frequent, but still important. For example, virtual memory backing file: page of memory stored in file
  - Want this to be fast – don't want to have to read all bytes to get to the middle of the file
- Content-based Access: ("find me 100 bytes starting with JOSEPH")
  - Example: employee records – once you find the bytes, increase my salary by a factor of 2
  - Many systems don't provide this; instead, databases are built on top of disk access to index content (requires efficient random access)

Designing the File System: Usage Patterns

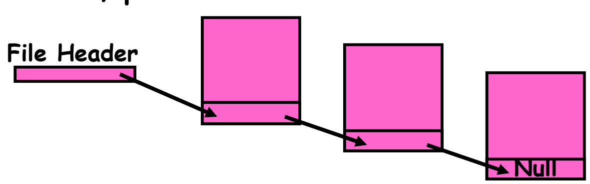
- Most files are small (for example, .login, .c files)
  - A few files are big – nachos, core files, etc.; the nachos executable is as big as all of your .class files combined
  - However, most files are small – .class's, .o's, .c's, etc.
- Large files use up most of the disk space and bandwidth to/from disk
  - May seem contradictory, but a few enormous files are equivalent to an immense # of small files
- Although we will use these observations, beware usage patterns:
  - Good idea to look at usage patterns: beat competitors by optimizing for frequent patterns
  - Except: changes in performance or cost can alter usage patterns. Maybe UNIX has lots of small files because big files are really inefficient?
- Digression, danger of predicting future:
  - In 1950's, marketing study by IBM said total worldwide need for computers was 7!
  - Company (that you haven't heard of) called "GenRad" invented oscilloscope; thought there was no market, so sold patent to Tektronix (bet you have heard of them!)

How to organize files on disk

- Goals:
  - Maximize sequential performance
  - Easy random access to file
  - Easy management of file (growth, truncation, etc)
- First Technique: Continuous Allocation
  - Use continuous range of blocks in logical block space
    - » Analogous to base+bounds in virtual memory
    - » User says in advance how big file will be (disadvantage)
  - Search bit-map for space using best fit/first fit
    - » What if not enough contiguous space for new file?
  - File Header Contains:
    - » First block/LBA in file
    - » File size (# of blocks)
  - Pros: Fast Sequential Access, Easy Random access
  - Cons: External Fragmentation/Hard to grow files
    - » Free holes get smaller and smaller
    - » Could compact space, but that would be *really* expensive
- Continuous Allocation used by IBM 360
  - Result of allocation and management cost: People would create a big file, put their file in the middle

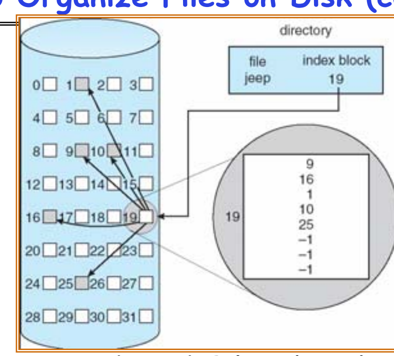
How to organize files on disk (continued)

- Second Technique: Linked List Approach
  - Each block, pointer to next on disk



  - Pros: Can grow files dynamically, Free list same as file
  - Cons: Bad Sequential Access (seek between each block), Unreliable (lose block, lose rest of file)
  - Serious Con: Bad random access!!!!
  - Technique originally from Alto (First PC, built at Xerox)
    - » No attempt to allocate contiguous blocks
- MSDOS used a similar linked approach
  - Links not in pages, but in the File Allocation Table (FAT)
    - » FAT contains an entry for each block on the disk
    - » FAT Entries corresponding to blocks of file linked together
  - Compare with Linked List Approach:
    - » Sequential access costs more unless FAT cached in memory
    - » Random access is better if FAT cached in memory

How to Organize Files on Disk (continued)



- Third Technique: Indexed Files (Nachos, VMS)
  - System Allocates file header block to hold array of pointers big enough to point to all blocks
    - » User pre-declares max file size;
  - Pros: Can easily grow up to space allocated for index Random access is fast
  - Cons: Clumsy to grow file bigger than table size Still lots of seeks: blocks may be spread over disk

Where do we still have to go?

- Still don't have good internal file structure
  - Want to minimize seeks, maximize sequential access
  - Want to be able to handle small and large files efficiently
- Don't yet know how to name/locate files
  - What is a directory?
  - How do we look up files?
- Don't yet know how to make file system fast
  - Must figure out how to use caching
- Will address these issues next time….

Summary

- I/O Controllers: Hardware that controls actual device
  - Processor Accesses through I/O instructions, load/store to special physical memory
  - Report their results through either interrupts or a status register that processor looks at occasionally (polling)
- Disk Performance:
  - Queuing time + Controller + Seek + Rotational + Transfer
  - Rotational latency: on average ½ rotation
  - Transfer time: spec of disk depends on rotation speed and bit storage density
- Queuing Latency:
  - M/M/1 and M/G/1 queues: simplest to analyze
  - As utilization approaches 100%, latency → ∞

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

- File System:
  - Transforms blocks into Files and Directories
  - Optimize for access and usage patterns
  - Maximize sequential access, allow efficient random access