# Week 7

# COMP3231 Operating Systems

2005 S2

### Slide 1

# - IO Management — Part 2

- Scheduling

# I/O MANAGEMENT

- → Categories of I/O devices and their integration with processor and bus
- Slide 2 → Design of I/O subsystems
  - → I/O buffering
  - → Disk scheduling
  - → RAID

# **DISK SCHEDULING**

- → Disk performance is critical for system performance
- → Management and ordering of disk access requests have strong influence on
- access time
- bandwidth

Slide 3

Slide 4

- → Important to optimise because:
  - huge speed gap between memory and disk
  - disk throughput extremely sensitive to
    - request order  $\Rightarrow$  disk scheduling
  - placement of data on disk  $\Rightarrow$  file system design
  - → Request scheduler must be aware of disk geometry

### Disk performance parameters:

- → Disk is moving device  $\Rightarrow$  must position correctly for I/O
- → Execution of a disk operation involves:
  - Wait time: the process waits to be granted device access
  - Wait for device: time the request spends in a wait queue
  - Wait for channel: time until a shared I/O channel is available
  - Access time: time the hardware needs to position the head
  - Seek time: position the head at the desired track
  - Rotational delay (latency): spin disk to the desired sector
  - Transfer time: sectors to be read/written rotate below the head

### **DISK SCHEDULING**

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2



## **PERFORMANCE PARAMETERS**

- → Seek time  $T_s$ : Moving the head to the required track
  - not linear in the number of tracks to traverse:
    - startup and settling time
  - Typical average seek time: a few milliseconds
- $\rightarrow$  Rotational delay:
  - rotational speed, r, of 5,000 to 10,000rpm
  - At 10,000 rpm, one revolution per 6ms  $\Rightarrow$  average delay 3ms
- → Transfer time:

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• to transfer b bytes, with N bytes per track:

$$T = \frac{b}{rN}$$

• Total average access time:

$$T_a = T_s + \frac{1}{2r} + \frac{b}{rN}$$

### A Timing Comparison:

- →  $T_s = 2 \text{ ms}, r = 10,000 \text{ rpm}, 512B \text{ sect}, 320 \text{ sect/track}$
- → Read a file with 2560 sectors (= 1.3MB)
- → File stored compactly (8 adjacent tracks):

	Read first trac	ck	
	Average seek	2ms	
	Rot. delay	3ms	
Slide 7	Read 320 sectors	6ms	
		11ms	$\Rightarrow$ All sectors: $11 + 7 * 9 = 74ms$
	→ Sectors distributed r	randomly	over the disk:
	Read any se	ctor	
	Average seek	2ms	-
	Rot. delay	3ms	
	Read 1 sector 0	.01875ms	

5.01875ms  $\Rightarrow$  All: 2560 \* 5.01875 = 12,848ms

# **DISK SCHEDULING POLICY**

#### Observation from the calculation:

- Slide 8 → Seek time is the reason for differences in performance
  - $\rightarrow$  For a single disk there will be a number of I/O requests
  - → Processing in random order leads to worst possible performance
  - → We need better strategies

### First-in, first-out (FIFO):

→ Process requests as they come in



### DISK SCHEDULING POLICY

SCAN (Elevator): Move head in one direction

reverse direction

→ services requests in track order until it reaches last track, then

			Disk scheduling algorithms:			
			Name	Description	Remarks	
			Selection according to requestor			
			RSS	Random scheduling	For analysis and simulation	
			FIFO	First in, first out	Fairest	
Slide 13		Slide 15	PRI	By process priority	Control outside disk magmt	
	<ul> <li>▶ Process issues many requests to same track</li> <li>▶ N-step-SCAN segments request queue:</li> </ul>		LIFO	Last in, first out	Maximise locality & utilisation	
	• subqueues of length $N$		Selection according to requested item			
	<ul> <li>process one queue at a time, using SCAN</li> </ul>		SSTF	Shortest seek time first	High utilisation, small queues	
	<ul> <li>added new requests to other queue</li> </ul>		SCAN	Back and forth over disk	Better service distribution	
			C-SCAN	One-way with fast return	Better worst-case time	
			N-SCAN	SCAN of N recs at once	Service guarantee	
			FSCAN	N-SCAN (N=init. queue)	Load sensitive	

### FSCAN:

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### → Two queues

- one being presently processed
- other to hold new incoming requests

# **DISK SCHEDULING**

- ➔ Modern disks:
  - seek and rotational delay dominate performance
  - not efficient to read only few sectors
  - cache contains substantial part of currently read track
- → assume real disk geometry is same as virtual geometry
- ightarrow if not, controller can use scheduling algorithm internally

So, does OS disk scheduling make any difference at all?

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### LINUX 2.4.

- → Used a version of C-SCAN
- **Slide 17**  $\rightarrow$  no real-time support
  - → Write and read handled in the same way read requests have to be prioritised

### Anticipatory Scheduling:

- → Same, but anticipates dependent read requests
- → After read request: waits for a few ms
- → Performance

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- ✓ can dramatically reduce the number of seek operations
- 🗴 if no requests follow, time is wasted

LINUX 2.6.

#### Deadline I/O scheduler:

- → two additional queues: FIFO read queue with deadline of 5ms, FIFO write with deadline of 500ms
- → request submitted to both queues
- → if request expires, scheduler dispatches from FIFO queue
- → Performance:
  - ✓ seeks minimised
  - ✓ requests not starved
  - ✓ read requests handled faster
  - **X** can result in seek storm, everything read from FIFO queues

- PERFORMANCE
- → Writes
  - similar for writes
- deadline scheduler slightly better than AS
- → Reads

Slide 20

- deadline: about 10 times faster for reads
- as: 100 times faster for streaming reads

Slide 18

# DISK CACHE

- → Buffer in main memory for disk sectors
- → Contains a copy of some of the sectors on the disk

# Slide 21 Design Considerations:

- → transfer of data from cache to process memory
- → using shared memory approach to map memory area into process memory

#### Least frequently used:

Slide 23

- → The block that has experienced the fewest references is replaced
- $\rightarrow$  A counter is associated with each block
- → Counter is incremented each time block accessed
- → Block with smallest count is selected for replacement
- → Some blocks may be referenced many times in a short period of time and then not needed any more

### Least recently used:

- → The block that has been in the cache the longest with no reference to it is replaced
- → The cache consists of a stack of blocks
- → Most recently referenced block is on the top of the stack
- Slide 22 → When a block is referenced or brought into the cache, it is placed on the top of the stack
  - → The block on the bottom of the stack is removed when a new block is brought in
  - → Blocks don't actually move around in main memory
  - → A stack of pointers is used

- UNIX Buffer Cache: Three lists maintained to manage buffer:
- $\rightarrow$  Free list: free slots in the cache (LRU)
- Slide 24 → Device list: all buffers associated with each disk
  - → Driver I/O queue: list of all buffers waiting for the completion of an I/O request



## RAID

- → CPU performace has improved exponentially
- $\rightarrow$  disk performance only by a factor of 5 to 10
- ightarrow huge gap between CPU and disk performance

Slide 26

Parallel processing used to improve CPU performance.

Question: can parallel I/O be used to speed up and improve reliability of I/O?

# RAID: REDUNDANT ARRAY OF INEXPENSIVE/INDEPENDENT DISKS

## Multiple disks for improved performance or reliability:

- → Set of physical disks
- → Treated as a single logical drive by OS
- Slide 27 → Data is distributed over a number of physical disks
  - → Redundancy used to recover from disk failure (exception: RAID 0)
  - ightarrow There is a range of standard configurations
    - numbered 0 to 6
    - various redundancy and distribution arrangements

# RAID 0 (striped, non-redundant):



- → controller translates single request into separate requests to single disks
- ightarrow requests can be processed in parallel
- $\rightarrow$  simple, works well for large requests
- ightarrow does not improve on reliability, no redundancy

### Data mapping for RAID 0:



Slide 29

#### RAID 1 (mirrored, $2 \times$ redundancy):



- → duplicates all disks
- → write: each request is written twice
- $\rightarrow$  read: can be read from either disk

### RAID 2 (redundancy through Hamming code):



- → strips are very small (single byte or word)
- → error correction code across corresponding bit positions

f<sub>2</sub>(b)

- $\rightarrow$  for *n* disks,  $log_2n$  redundancy
- $\rightarrow$  expensive
- → high data rate, but only single request

**ERROR CORRECTION AND REDUNDANCY** 

Just keeping two copies doesn't necessarily help to correct the error:

#### Example:



- ightarrow it is not clear if the error occured in the copy or the original
- ightarrow no error correction possible

HAMMING CODE

For every four bits of data, three parity bits

	<ol> <li>Parity (3,5,7)</li> </ol>	
	② Parity (3,6,7)	
Slide 35	③ Data	
	④ Parity (5,6,7)	
	5 Data	

⑥ Data

⑦ Data

Slide 33 Hamming Distance between two bit-strings: The number of bits in which they differ.

→ One-bit error detection could be achieved much cheaper (parity bit)

#### Slide 34

→ How much redundancy is necessary for a one bit error correction?

	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	
	D		D		D			Parity bit 1
Slide 36	D	D			D			Parity bit 2
	D	D	D					Parity bit 4
	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	Data

7	6	5	4	3	2	1	
1	1	0	0	1	1	0	Data
0	1	0	0	1	1	0	Corrupted Data
D		D		D			1 : bit 1 not ok
D	D			D			1: bit 2 not ok
D	D	D					1: bit 4 not ok

## Error Correction:

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- $\rightarrow$  bit 111 (ie, 7) is corrupted
- → two bit errors can be detected, but not corrected

### RAID 4 (block-level parity):

Slide 39	block 0	block 1	block 2	block 3	P(0-3)
	block 4	block 5	block 6	block 7	P(4-7)
	block 8	block 9	block 10	block 11	P(8-11)
	block 12	block 13	block 14	block 15	P(12-15)
	N				

## RAID 3 (bit-interleaved parity):



- → strips are very small (single byte or word)
- → simple parity bit based redundancy
- $\rightarrow$  error detection
- → partial error correction (if offender is known)

# RAID 5 (block-level distributed parity):

Slide 40	block 0	block 1	block 2	block 3	P(0-3)
	block 4	block 5	block 6	P(4-7)	block 7
	block 8	block 9	P(8-11)	block 10	block 11
	block 12	P(12-15)	block 13	block 14	block 15
	P(16-19)	block 16	block 17	block 18	block 19
	1	1	1	in the	1

