Week 10

Persistent Storage: Intro to File Systems

Max Kopinsky 11 March, 2025

Key Concepts

- I/O devices
 - OS role for integrating I/O devices in systems
 - Polling, Interrupts, Drivers
- Notion of "permanent" storage
- File system interface
- Disk Management for HDDs
 - Disk Allocation, Disk Scheduling, Optimizations

How should I/O be integrated into systems?

- I/O = Input/Output
- For computer systems to be interesting, both input and output are required.
- Many, many I/O devices



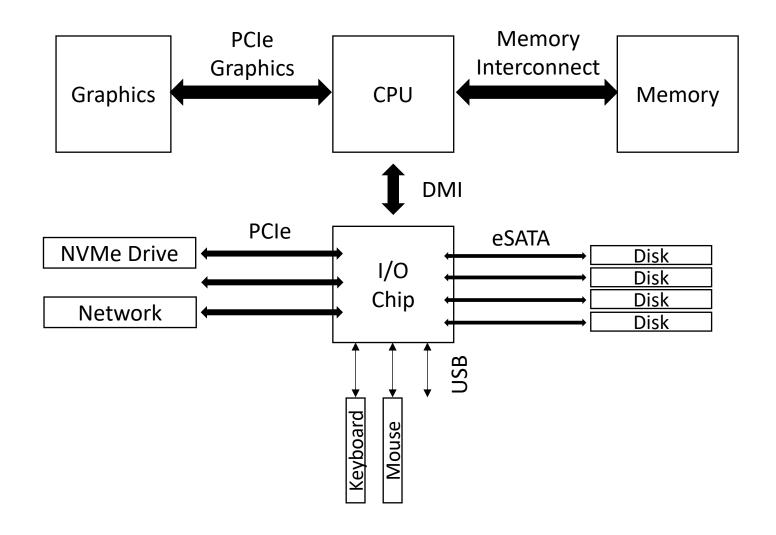




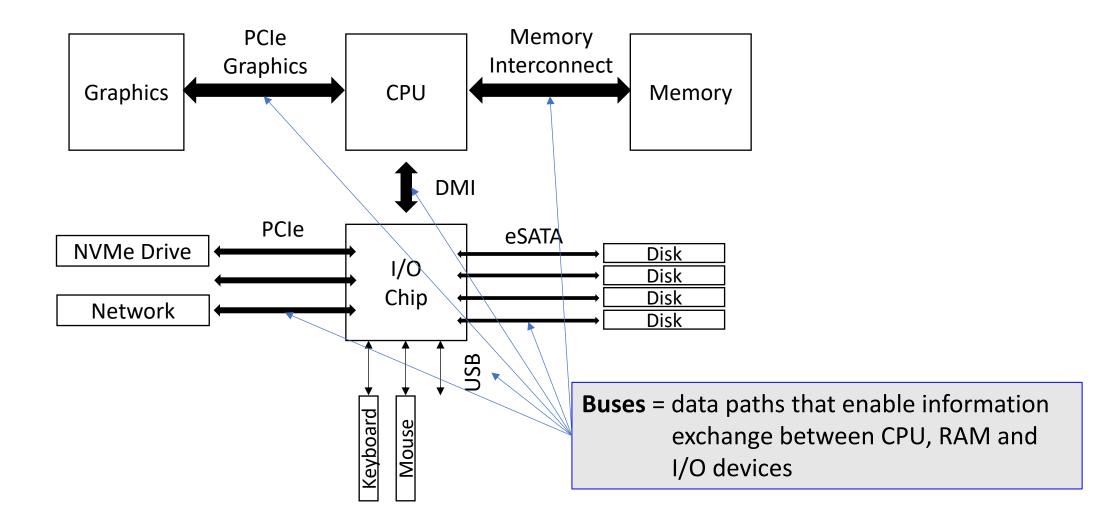




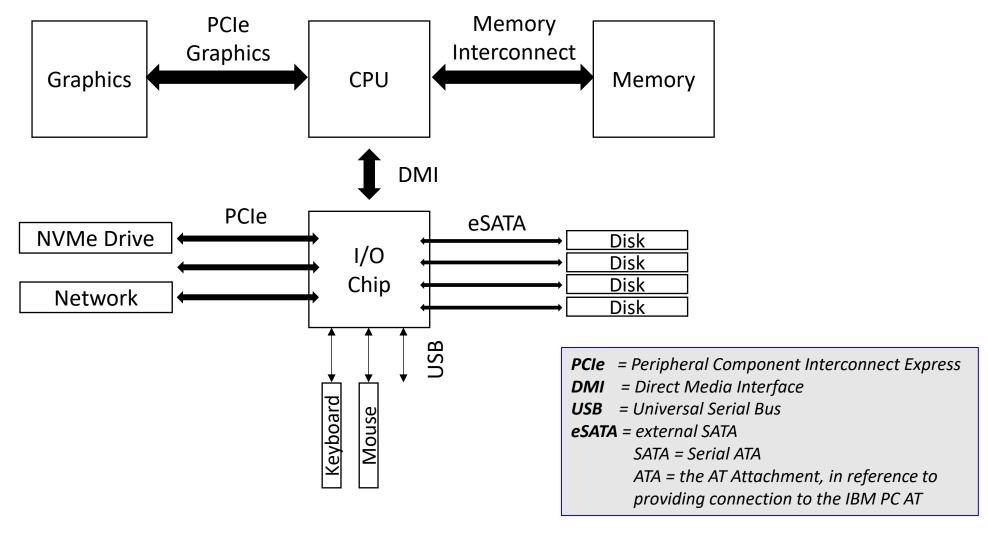
I/O System Architecture (typical modern)



I/O System Architecture (typical modern)



I/O System Architecture (typical modern)



How does OS communicate with I/O devices?

Canonical Device Interface

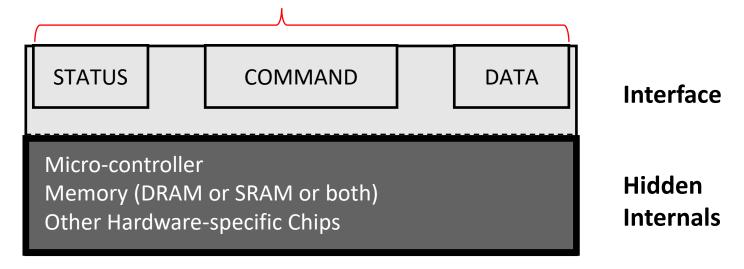
Interface made of 3 registers:

- **Status** current status of device
- **Command** OS tells device what command to perform
- Data send/receive data to/from device

By reading and writing these **3 registers**, the OS can **control device behavior**.

Canonical Device Interface

OS reads/writes to these to control device behavior



How does OS use device interface?

- Polling
- Interrupts

Polling

OS waits until device is ready

• OS repeatedly checks the STATUS register in a loop

Advantage: Simple, works

Disadvantage: Wasted CPU cycles

Polling

```
write data to DATA register

write command to COMMAND register

Doing so starts the device and executes the command
while ( STATUS == BUSY)

; //spin-wait until device is done with your request
```

Polling

```
write data to DATA register

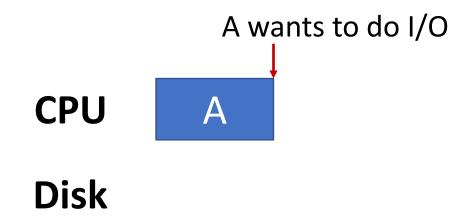
write command to COMMAND register

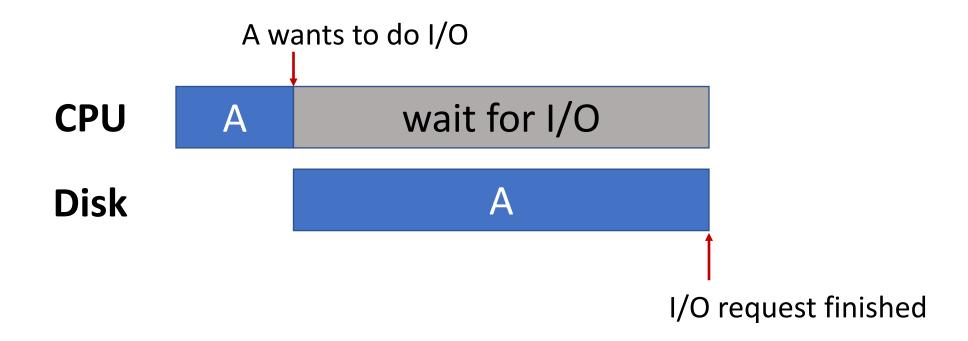
Doing so starts the device and executes the command

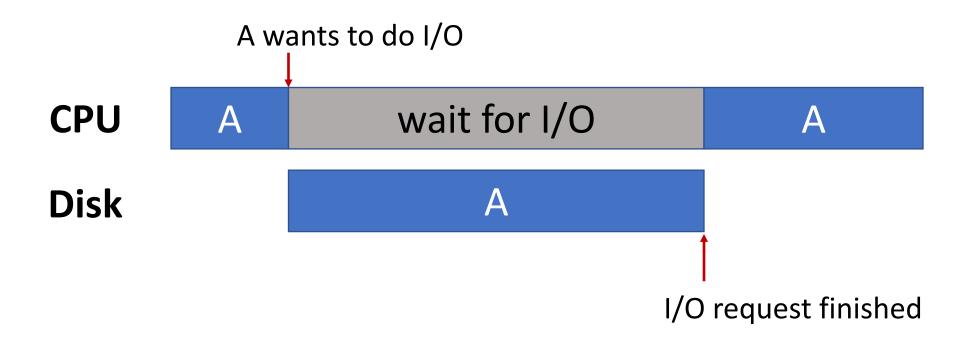
while (STATUS == BUSY)

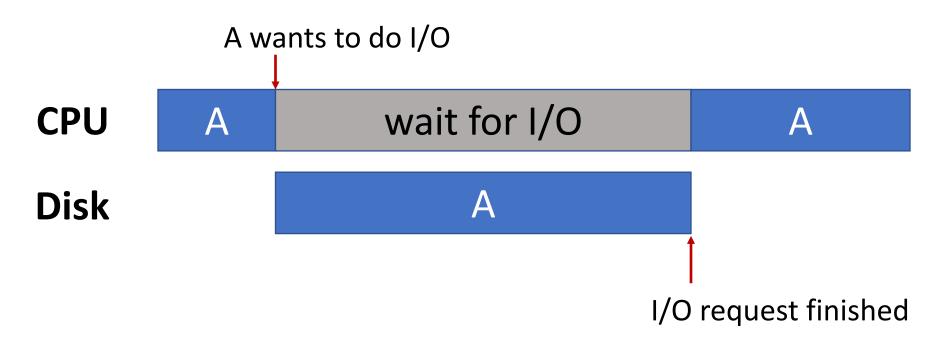
; //spin-wait until device is done with your request
```

Wasted CPU cycles









→ How can we avoid waiting for I/O?

- Put process requesting I/O to sleep
- Context switch to a different process
- When I/O finishes, alert OS with an interrupt
- CPU jumps to **Interrupt Handler** in the OS

Remember: Same interrupt mechanism used for demand paging last week.

- Put process requesting I/O to sleep
- Context switch to a different process
- When I/O finishes, alert OS with an **interrupt**
- CPU jumps to Interrupt Handler in the OS

Remember: Same interrupt mechanism used for demand paging last week.

Remember: Interrupts vs Syscalls.

- Interrupt: generated by hardware. OS handler will often cause context switch.
- **Syscall:** generated by process, to request functionality from kernel mode. Can also result in context switches, but most "fast" system calls won't.

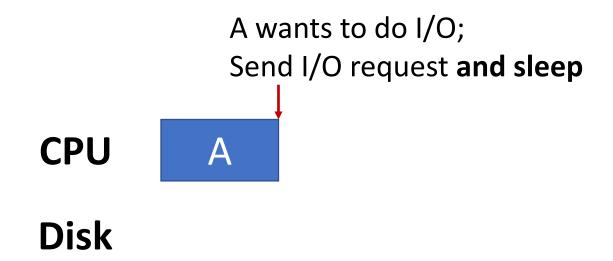
```
write data to DATA register

write command to COMMAND register

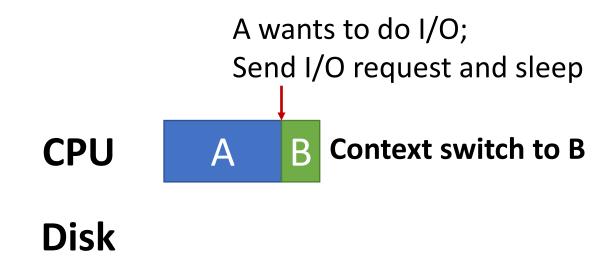
Doing so starts the device and executes the command
while (STATUS == BUSY)

go to sleep; wait for interrupt
```

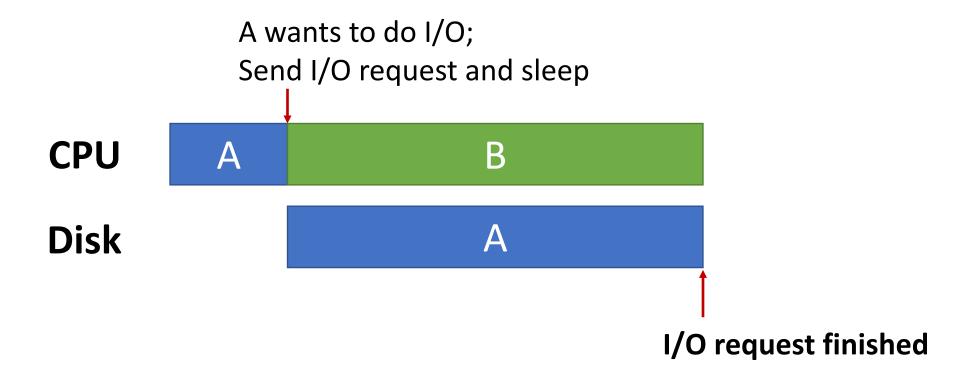
Interrupts Example



Interrupts Example

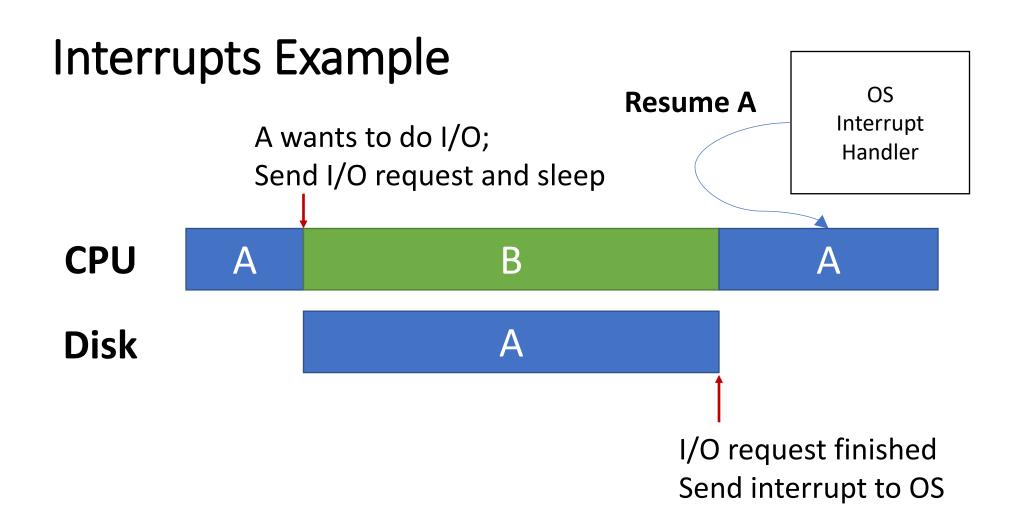


Interrupts Example



Interrupts Example OS Interrupt A wants to do I/O; Handler Send I/O request and sleep **CPU** B Disk I/O request finished

Send interrupt to OS



Advantage: No waste of CPU cycles

Disadvantages:

- Expensive to context switch
 - → polling can be better for fast devices

Problem: How to handle different devices in OS?

- Many, many devices
- Each has its own protocol
- Variety is a challenge

Solution: Device Drivers

- Driver is a piece of software in the OS
- Must know in detail how a device works
- Need a device driver for each device

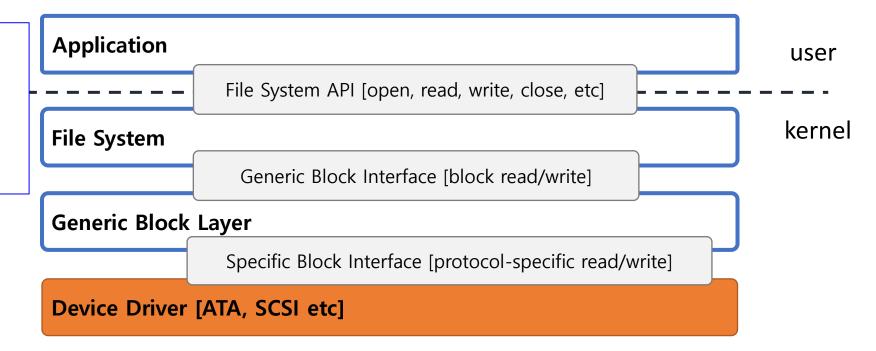
→ Drivers are ~70% of Linux source code

So when we say the OS has millions of lines of code, we're really saying that "the OS has millions of lines of device driver code."

(but Linux also uses device drivers for lots of non-hardware tasks)

Example: File System Stack

Applications &
File System
are oblivious to the
inner workings of the
storage device(s)



Summary – I/O Devices

- I/O System Architecture
- Canonical Device Interface
- Device Access
 - Polling, interrupts,
 - Direct memory access (DMA)
- Device driver abstraction

"Permanent" Storage

"Permanent" Storage

How permanent is permanent?

- Across program invocations
- Across login
- Across machine failures/restarts

For this course

- Across disk failures
- Across multiple disk (data center) failures

Permanent Storage Media

Main memory – not suitable

- Battery-backed memory
- Nonvolatile memory

For this course

- Flash SSDs
- 3DXpoint SSDs (2018-2022)
- Hard Disks (HDDs)
- Tapes
 - Surprisingly, tapes are used **a lot** even today.

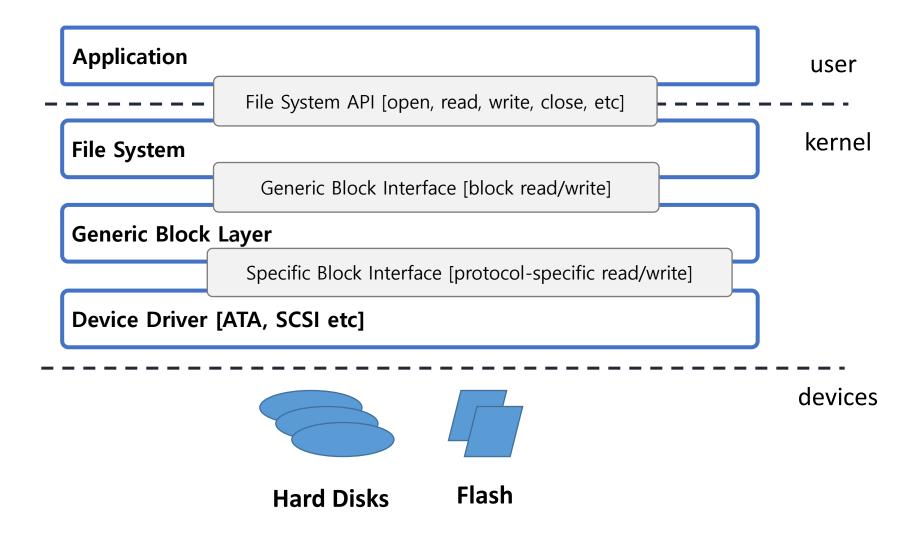




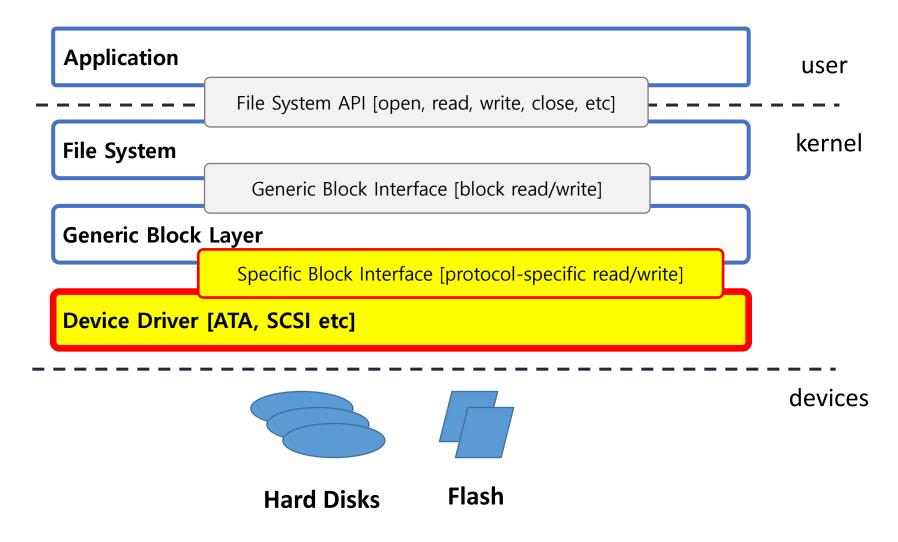




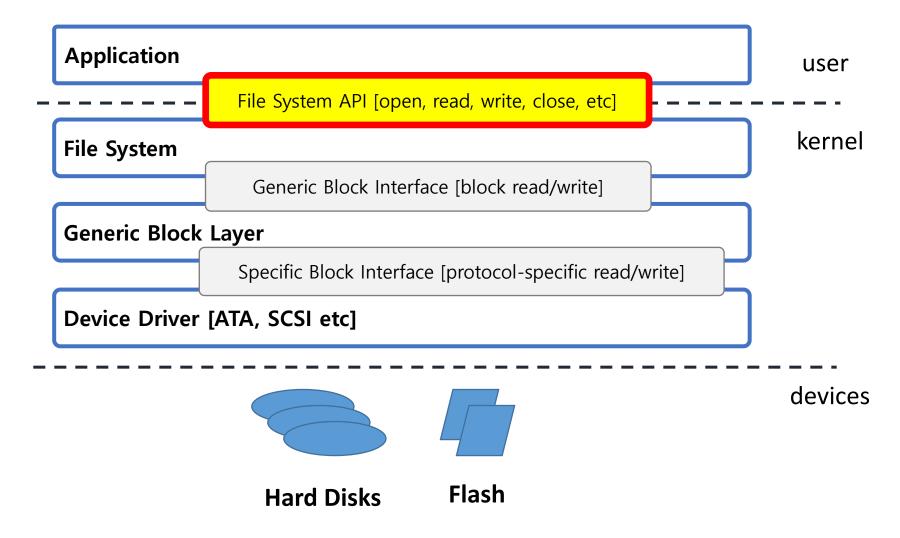
Overall Picture



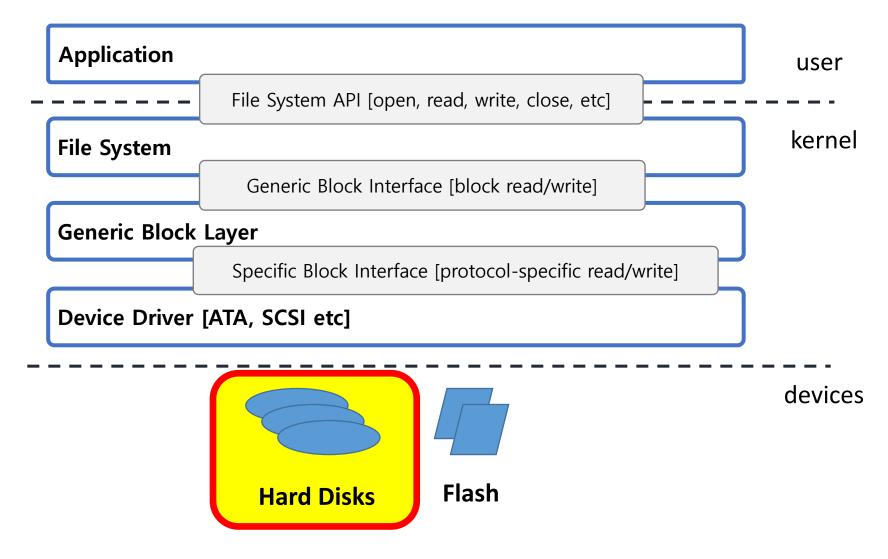
We just talked about this part



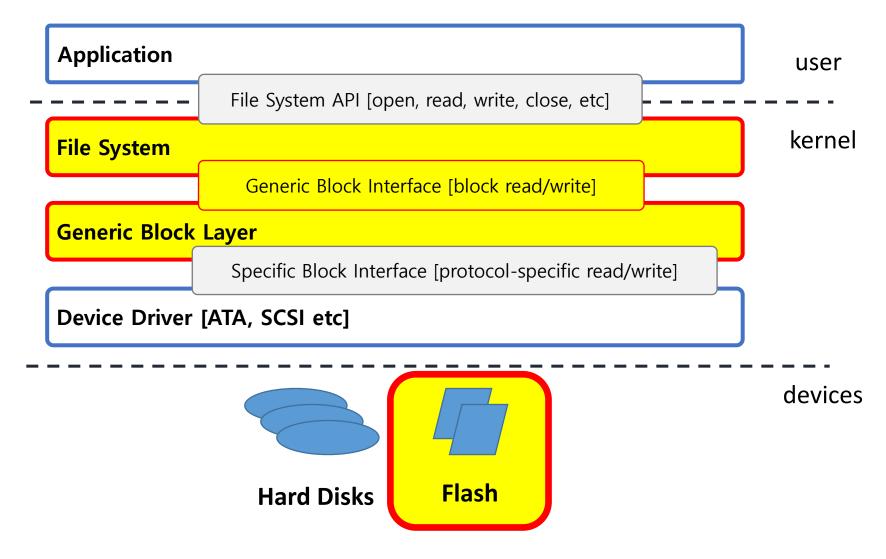
Now we will talk about this part



And then we will talk about this part



Next Weeks' Lectures



File System API

File System API

What is a file?

- Un-interpreted collection of objects
 - Bytes, records ...
 - → We will look at bytes (as in Linux)
- Un-interpreted ~=
 - File system does not know what data means
 - Only application knows

Typed or Untyped?

Typed = File System knows what the object means

Advantages:

- Invoke certain programs by default
- Prevent errors
- More efficient storage

→ We will look at untyped files

Disadvantages:

- Can be inflexible (typecast)
- Can become a lot of code (many types)

Aside: File Name Extensions = Types?

foo.txt

- Pure convention (Linux)
 - User knows, system does not do anything with it
 - System cannot know that a certain file is textual, binary, executable, etc
- Known to the system (Windows)
 - User knows, systems knows (and enforces)
 - Can make some filenames illegal in a way confusing to users
 - Can cause dangerous vulnerabilities (see windows .com extension)

File System Primitives

- Access
- Concurrency
- Naming
- Protection

File System Primitives

- Access
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- Protection

Main Access Primitives (minimal, conceptual)

- Create()
- Delete()

- Read()
- Write()

Create() and Delete()

```
uid = Create ( [optional arguments] )
```

- uid unique identifier, not human-readable string
- Creates an empty file

```
Delete ( uid )
```

- Deletes file with identifier uid
- Usually also deletes all of its contents

Read()

```
Read ( uid, buffer, from, to )
```

- Reads from file with identifier uid
- Starting from byte offset from and ending at offset to
 - Also ends at EOF (End-of-file) condition
- Into a memory buffer buffer
 - previously allocated by caller
 - must be of sufficient size

Write()

```
Write( uid, buffer, from, to )
```

- Write to file with identifier uid
- Into byte from to byte to
- From a memory buffer buffer

Sequential vs Random Access

Read() and Write() in previous slide:

- Random-access primitives
- No connection between two successive accesses

Sequential access is very common:

- Read from where you stopped reading
- Write to where you stopped writing
- In particular, whole file access is common
- Sequential access is also much faster (will see why)
- → For this reason, want sequential access methods

Sequential Read()

- File system keeps file pointer fp (initially 0) internally
- Read(uid, buffer, bytes)
 - Read from file with unique identifier uid
 - Starting from byte fp
 - Bytes bytes
 - Into memory buffer buffer
 - *fp* += *bytes*

Sequential can be built on Random

Maintain fp-equivalent in user code

```
myfp = 0
Read( uid, buffer, myfp+bytes-1 )
myfp += bytes
Read( uid, buffer, myfp+bytes-1 )
...
```

Can Random be built on Sequential?

Not without an additional primitives

```
• Seek( uid, to )
```

Using Seek() to implement Random Read(uid, from, to, buffer):

```
...
Seek( uid, from )
Read( uid, buffer, to-from+1 )
...
```

Sequential vs. Random

- Sequential access is very common
- All systems provide sequential access

- Some systems provide
 - Only sequential access
 - Plus Seek()

File System Primitives

- Access
- Concurrency
- Naming
- Protection

Concurrent (Sequential) Access

- Two processes access the same file
- What about *fp*?

Concurrent (Sequential) Access

- Two processes access the same file
- What about fp?
- → The notion of an "Open" File
- Open()
- Close()

Open()

Close()

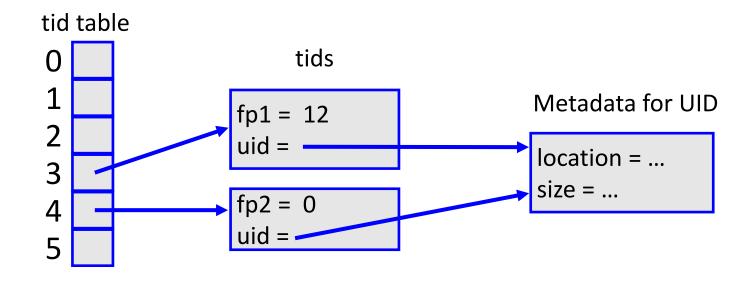
```
tid = Open(uid, [optional args])
```

- Creates an instance of file with uid
- Accessible by this process (or thread) only
- With the temporary process-unique id *tid*
- fp is associated with tid, not with uid
- tid is usually called fd or "file descriptor" but to avoid confusion with fp we will stick to tid for now.

Close (tid)

• Destroys the instance

Putting Open() together with Read()



Putting Open() together with Read()

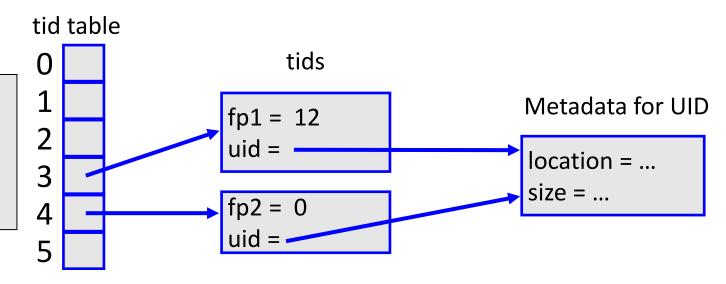
Why start at 3?

Each running process has 3 files open:

0: standard input

1: standard output

2: standard error



Putting Open() together with Write()

Different possible semantics:

- Separate file instances altogether
 - Writes by one process not visible to others
- Separate file instances until Close()
 - Writes visible after Close().
 - How to manage merging of instances after close?
- One single instance of the file
 - Writes visible immediately to others
- In all cases, fp is private!

File System Primitives

- Access
- Concurrency
- Naming
- Protection

Naming Primitives

Naming = mapping
 human-readable string → uid

• Directory = collection of such mappings

Directory Structure

Different possibilities:

- **Flat** structure
- Two-level: [user] filename
- Hierarchical: /a/b/c ...
 - Root directory
 - Working directory
 - Modern standard

Directory Primitives

```
CreateDirectory(string)  // create new directory

DeleteDirectory(string)  // remove a directory

SetWorkingDirectory(string)  // set directory where you are currently working

string = ListWorkingDirectory()  // retrieve working directory

List(directory)  // display contents of directory
```

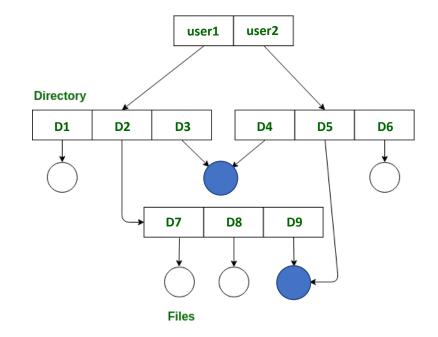
Hierarchical Directory Structures

Tree

Directory D1 D2 D3 D4 D5 D6 D7 D8 Files

(Acyclic) Graph

Allows sharing of *uid*s under different names



Hard Links vs Soft Links

Assume mapping (string1, uid) already exists

Hard Link Soft Link

HardLink(string2, uid)

SoftLink(string2, string1)

After HardLink, two mappings are equivalent

After SoftLink, two mappings are different

Hard/Soft Link Difference

Assume mapping (string1, uid) already exists

Hard Link

HardLink(string2, uid)
Remove(string1, uid)

Soft Link

SoftLink(string2, string1)
Remove(string1, uid)

Hard/Soft Link Difference

Assume mapping (string1, uid) already exists

Hard Link	Soft Link
HardLink(string2, uid)	SoftLink(string2, string1)
Remove(string1, uid)	Remove(string1, uid)
Mapping (string2, uid) remains	Mapping (string2, string1) dangling reference

After the following sequence of file system primitives are executed

```
Create( name1 )
HardLink( name2, name1 )
SoftLink( name3, name2 )
SoftLink( name4, name2 )
HardLink( name5, name3 )
Delete( name3 )
Open( name5 )
Delete( name2 )
Open( name4 )
```

Describe the result of each of the two Open()s, and explain your answer.

```
Create( name1 )
HardLink( name2, name1 )
SoftLink( name3, name2 )
SoftLink( name4, name2 )
HardLink( name5, name3 )
Delete( name3 )
Open( name5 )
Delete( name2 )
Open( name4 )
```

Create(name1)

HardLink(name2, name1)

SoftLink(name3, name2)

SoftLink(name4, name2)

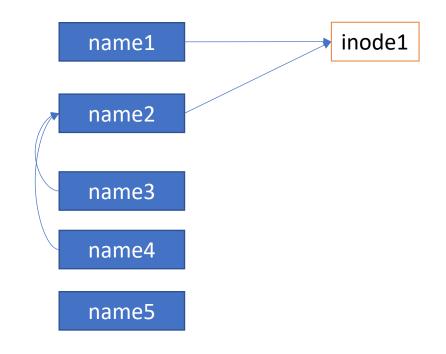
HardLink(name5, name3)

Delete(name3)

Open(name5)

Delete(name2)

Open(name4)



Create(name1)

HardLink(name2, name1)

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SoftLink(name4, name2)

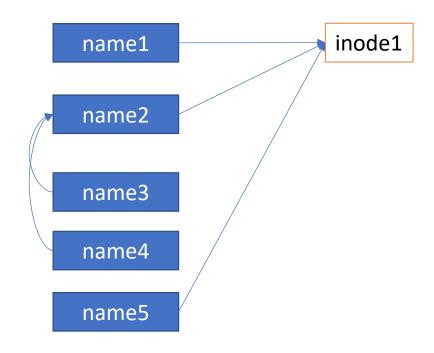
HardLink(name5, name3)

Delete(name3)

Open(name5)

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Create(name1)

HardLink(name2, name1)

SoftLink(name3, name2)

SoftLink(name4, name2)

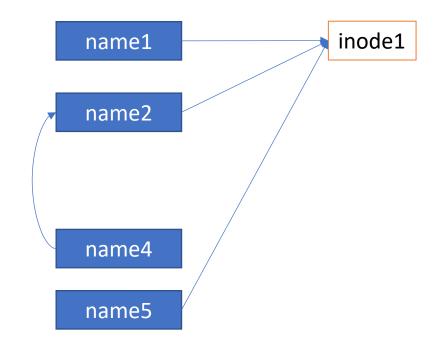
HardLink(name5, name3)

Delete(name3)

Open(name5)

Delete(name2)

Open(name4)



Hard Links and Soft Links

Create(name1)

HardLink(name2, name1)

SoftLink(name3, name2)

SoftLink(name4, name2)

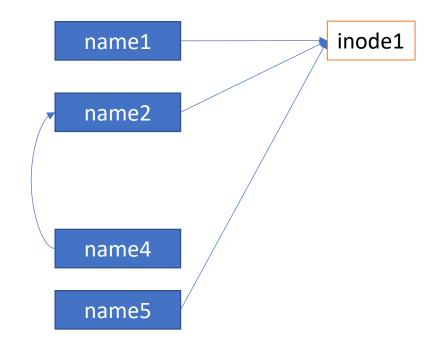
HardLink(name5, name3)

Delete(name3)

Open(name5) ← opens file

Delete(name2)

Open(name4)



Hard Links and Soft Links

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SoftLink(name3, name2)

SoftLink(name4, name2)

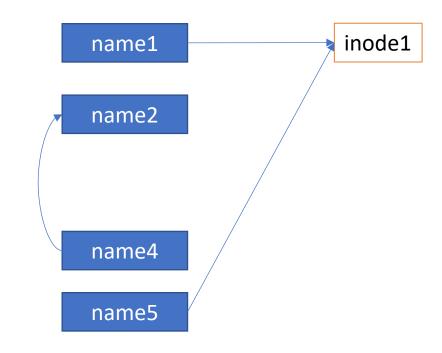
HardLink(name5, name3)

Delete(name3)

Open(name5) ← opens file

Delete(name2)

Open(name4)



Hard Links and Soft Links

```
Create( name1 )

HardLink( name2, name1 )

SoftLink( name3, name2 )

SoftLink( name4, name2 )

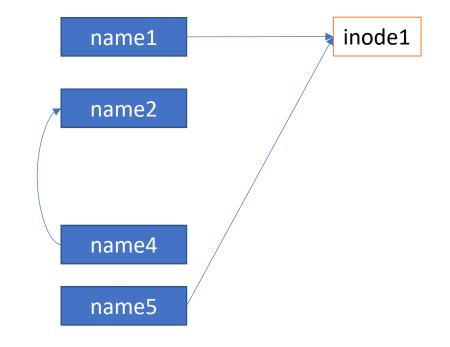
HardLink( name5, name3 )

Delete( name3 )

Open( name5 ) ← opens file

Delete( name2 )

Open( name4 ) ← dangling reference
```



Linux Primitives



Collapses in a single interface:

- Access
- Concurrency
- Naming

Creat(string)

- uid = Create()
- Insert(string, uid)

fd = Open(string, [optional args])

- uid = Lookup(string)
- fd = (tid =) Open(uid, [optional args])

• • •

uid is never visible at the user level

File System Primitives

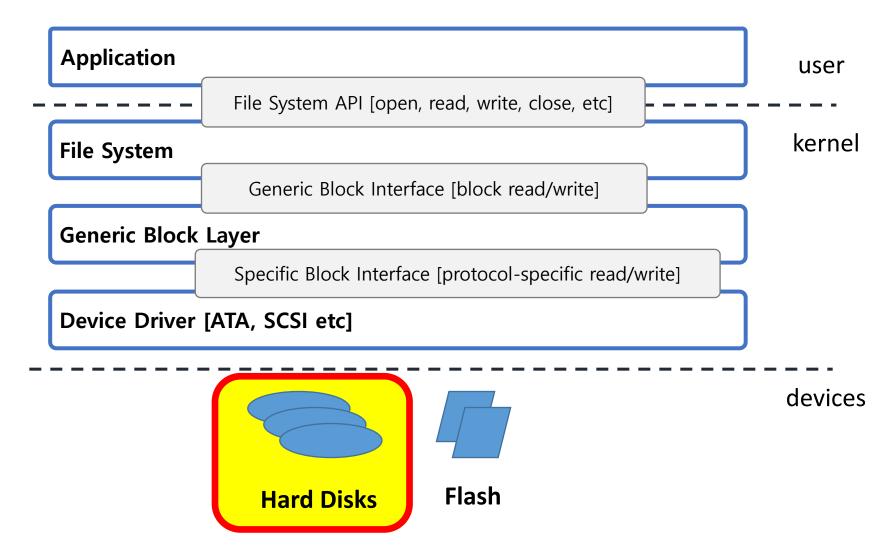
- Access
- Concurrency
- Naming
- **Protection** ← Later in the course

Summary – File System Interface

- Permanent storage
- Notion of File
- File system primitives
 - Access, concurrency, naming (, protection)

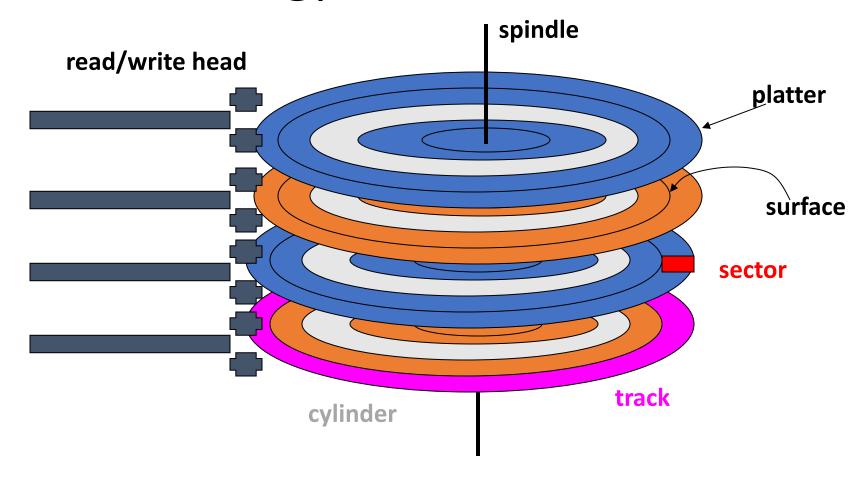
Persistent Storage: Disks

Disks



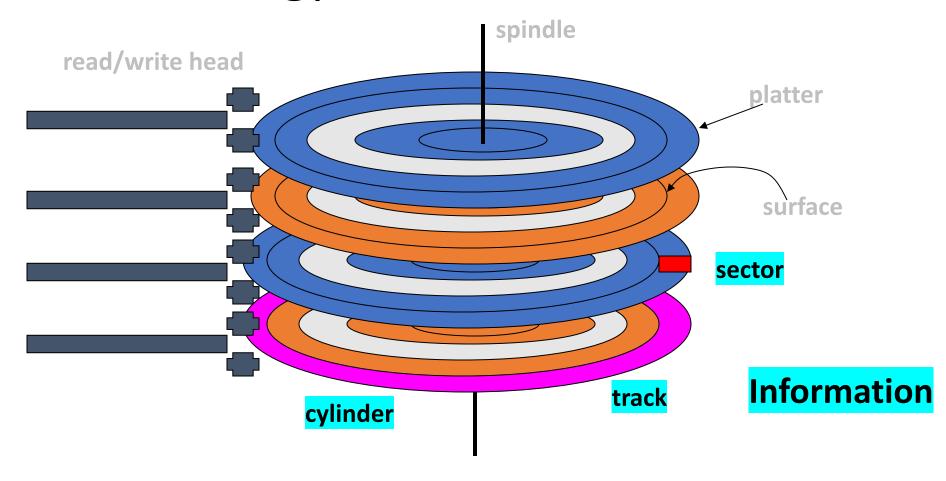
Disk

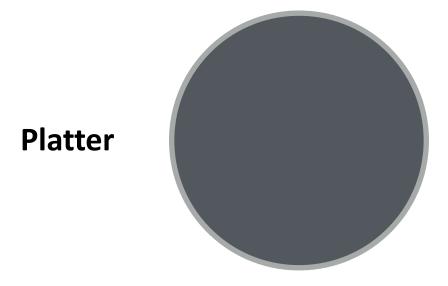
Disk Terminology

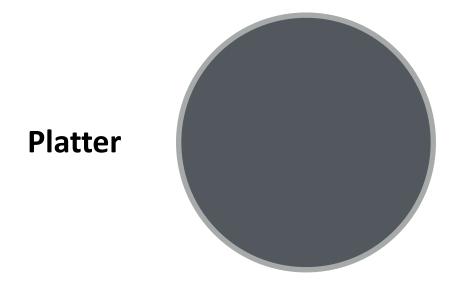


Disk Terminology **Mechanical** <mark>spindle</mark> read/write head <mark>platter</mark> **surface** sector track cylinder

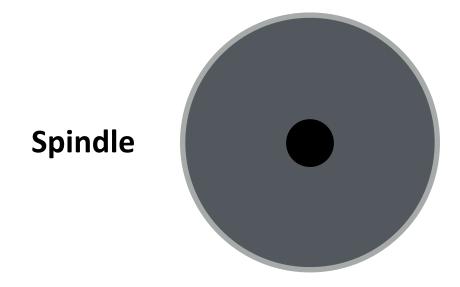
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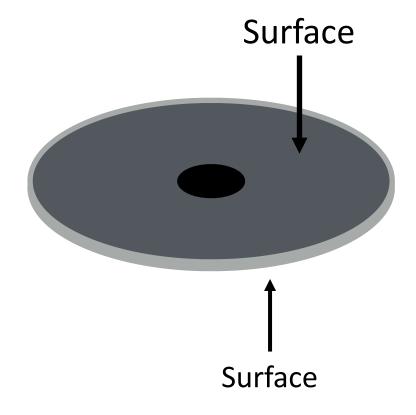


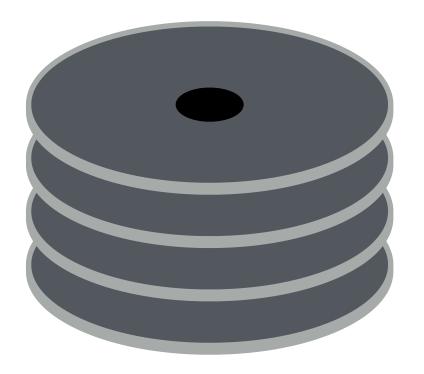




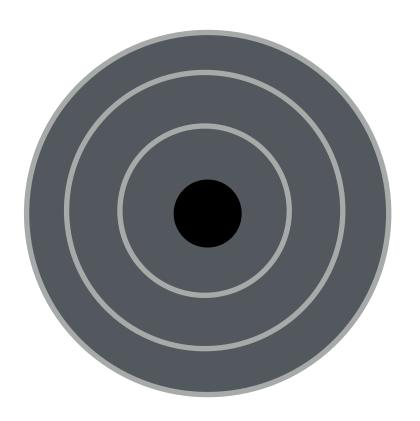
Platter is covered with a magnetic film.



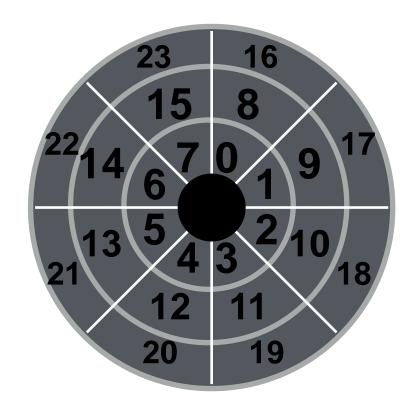




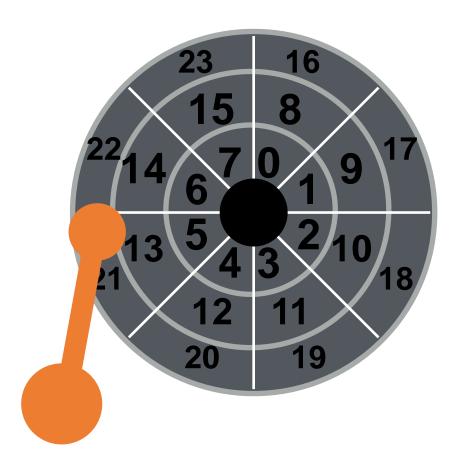
Many platters may be bound to the spindle.



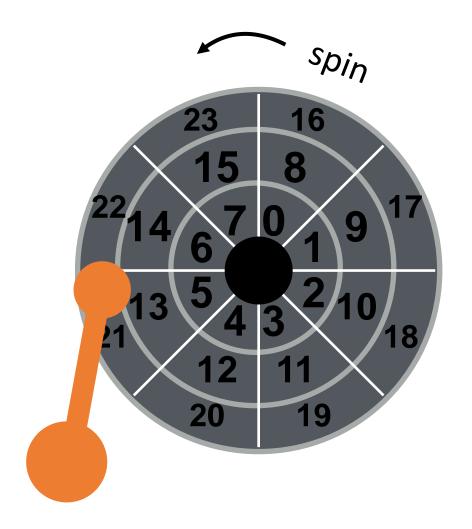
Each surface is logically divided into rings called **tracks**. A stack of tracks (across platters) is called a **cylinder**.



The tracks are logically divided into numbered sectors.



Heads on a moving arm can read from each surface.



Spindle/platters rapidly spin

Disk Characteristics

• Size: typically from 1.8" to 3.5"

• Capacity: from tens of Gb to a few Tb

Disk Interface

- Accessible by sector only
 - ReadSector (logical_sector_number, buffer)
 - WriteSector(logical_sector_number, buffer)

Disk Interface

- Accessible by sector only
 - ReadSector (logical_sector_number, buffer)
 - WriteSector(logical_sector_number, buffer)

- Logical_sector_number =
 - Platter
 - Cylinder or track
 - Sector

A Look Ahead at File System Implementation

The main task of the file system is to translate

From user interface

• Read(uid, buffer, bytes)

To disk interface

• ReadSector(logical sector number, buffer)

Two Small Simplifications

- 1. User Read() allows arbitrary number of bytes
 - → Simplify to only allowing Read() of a block
 - Read(uid, block_number)
 - A block is fixed-size

Two Small Simplifications

- 1. User Read() allows arbitrary number of bytes
 - → Simplify to only allowing Read() of a block Read(uid, block_number)

 A block is fixed-size

- 2. Typically block_size = 2^n * sector_size

 Often: Block size = 4,096 bytes, Sector size = 512 bytes
 - → For simplicity of presentation in class block_size = sector_size

Back to Disk Interface

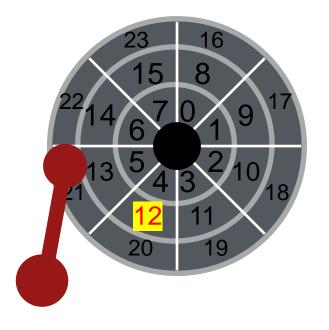
- Accessible by sector only
 - ReadSector (logical_sector_number, buffer)
 - WriteSector(logical_sector_number, buffer)

- Logical_sector_number =
 - Platter
 - Cylinder or track
 - Sector

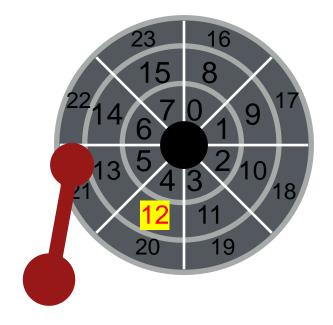
Disk Access

- Head selection select platter
- Seek move arm over cylinder
- Rotational latency move head over sector
- Transfer time read from sector

Let's Read 12!



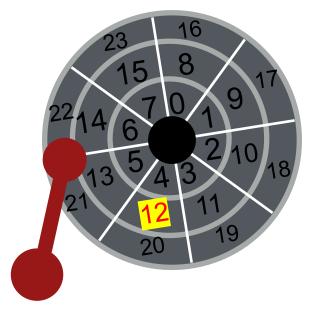
Select platter.



Head selection

- Electronic switch
- ~ nanoseconds

Seek to right track.



Seek Time

- Approx. linear in the number of cylinders
- 3 to 12 milliseconds

Seek to right track.



Seek Time

- Approx. linear in the number of cylinders
- 3 to 12 milliseconds

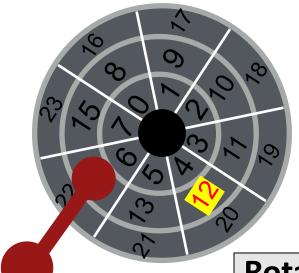
Seek to right track.



Seek Time

- Approx. linear in the number of cylinders
- 3 to 12 milliseconds

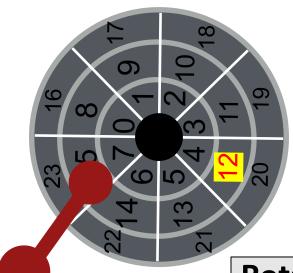
Wait for rotation.



Rotational Latency

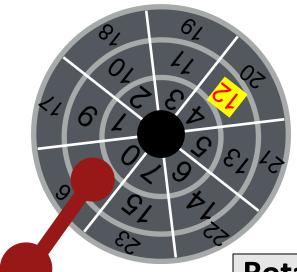
- Linear in the number of sectors
- Rotational speed: 4,500 -15,000 RPM
- One revolution = 1 / (RPM/60)sec
- Avg. rotational latency = ½ revolution
- From 2 to 7.1 milliseconds

Wait for rotation.

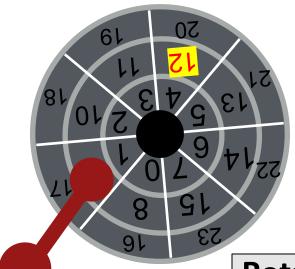


Rotational Latency

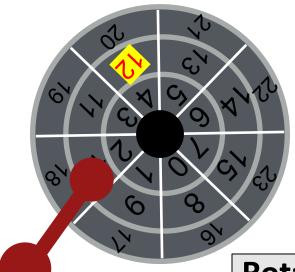
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- Avg. rotational latency = ½ revolution
- From 2 to 7.1 milliseconds



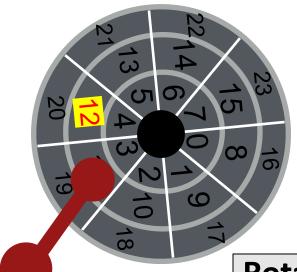
- Linear in the number of sectors
- Rotational speed: 4,500 -15,000 RPM
- One revolution = 1 / (RPM/60)sec
- Avg. rotational latency = ½ revolution
- From 2 to 7.1 milliseconds



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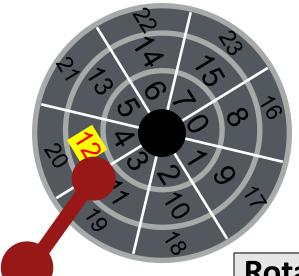


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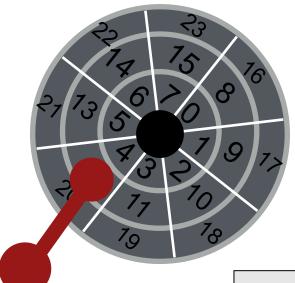
- Linear in the number of sectors
- Rotational speed: 4,500 -15,000 RPM
- One revolution = 1 / (RPM/60)sec
- Avg. rotational latency = ½ revolution
- From 2 to 7.1 milliseconds

Transfer data.



- **Rotational Latency**
- Linear in the number of sectors
- Rotational speed: 4,500 -15,000 RPM
- One revolution = 1 / (RPM/60)sec
- Avg. rotational latency = ½ revolution
- From 2 to 7.1 milliseconds

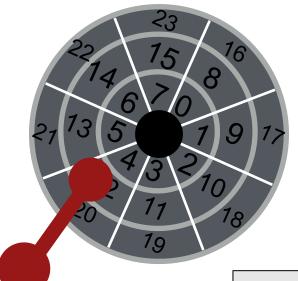
Transfer data.



Data Transfer

- Effective transfer rate ~ 1 Gbyte per second
- Sector = 512 bytes
- Transfer time ~ 0.5 microseconds

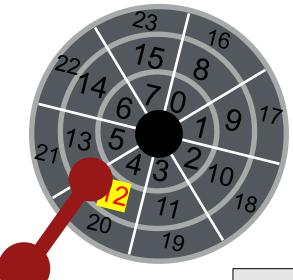
Transfer data.



Data Transfer

- Effective transfer rate ~ 1 Gbyte per second
- Sector = 512 bytes
- Transfer time ~ 0.5 microseconds

Done!



Data Transfer

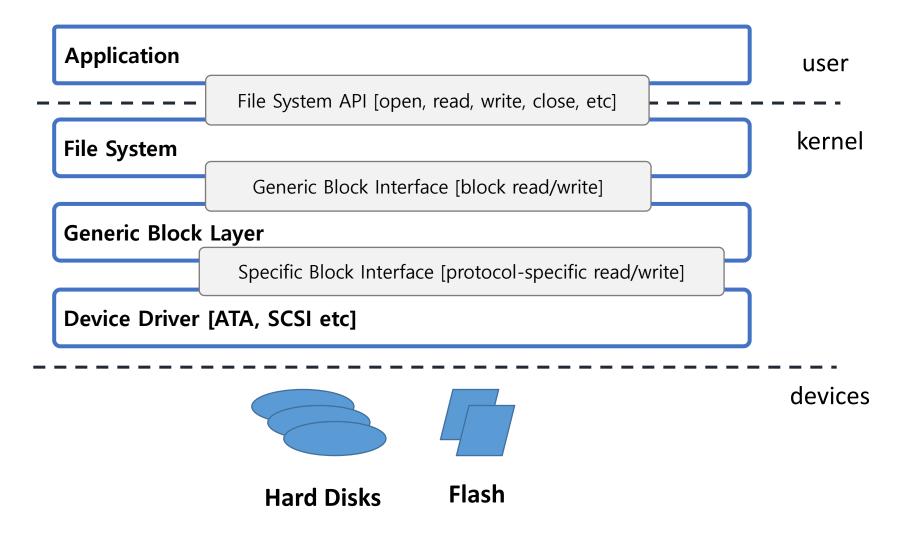
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Week 10

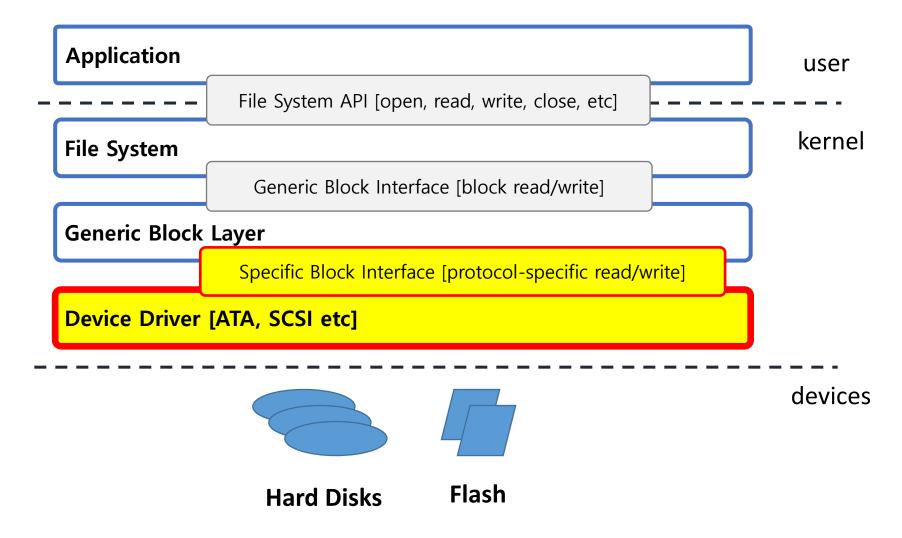
Persistent Storage: Intro to File Systems

Max Kopinsky 13 March, 2025

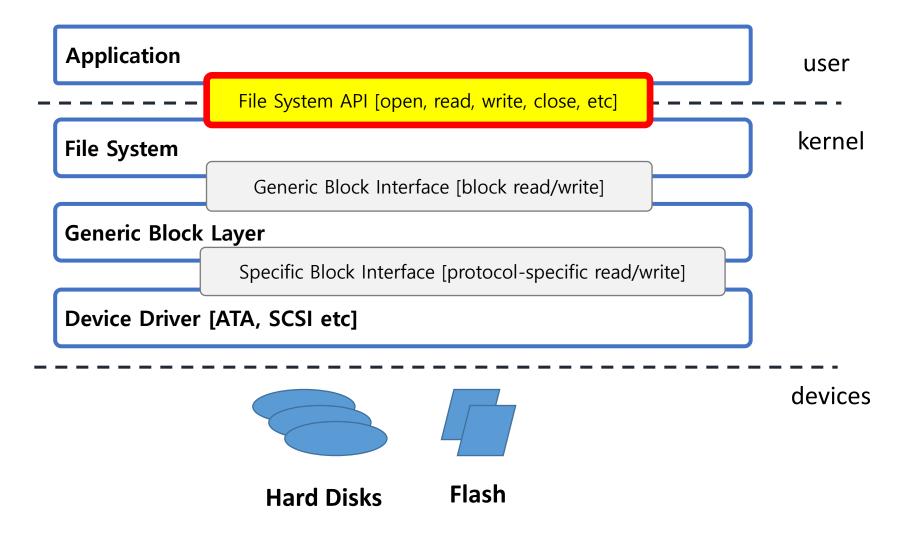
Recap: Overall Picture



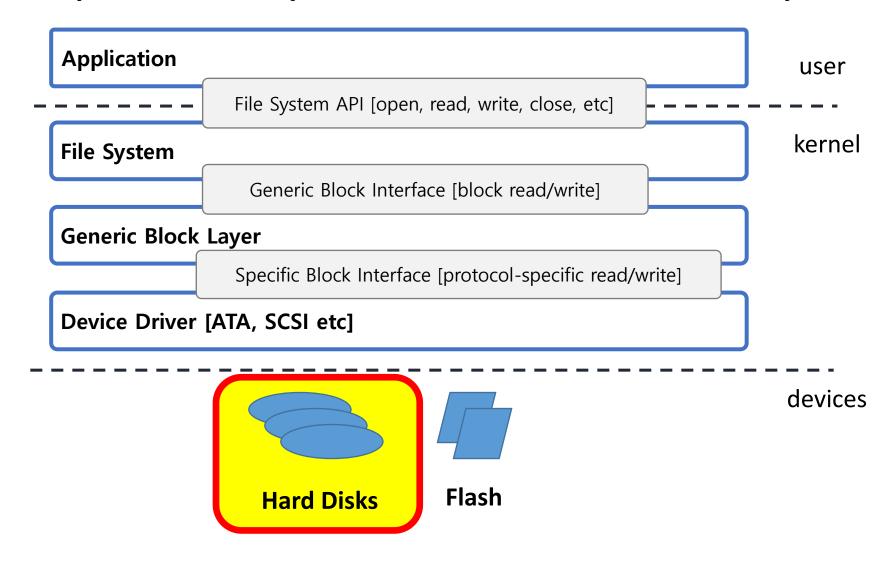
We talked about this part



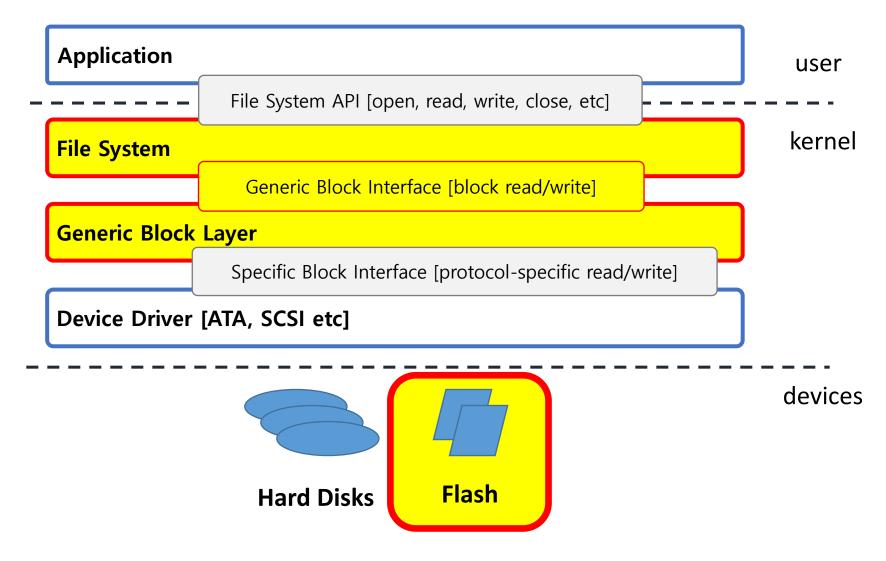
Then we talked about this part



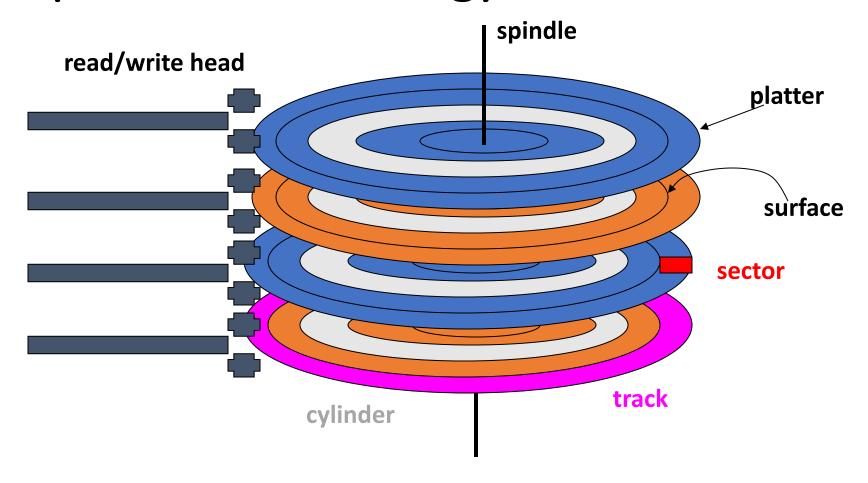
And this part. Today we continue with this part.



Next Weeks' Lectures



Recap: Disk Terminology



Disk Access Time

Component	Time
Head Selection	nanoseconds
Seek Time	3-12 milliseconds
Rotational Latency	2-7 milliseconds
Transfer Time	microseconds
Controller Overhead	< 1 millisecond

Disk Access Time

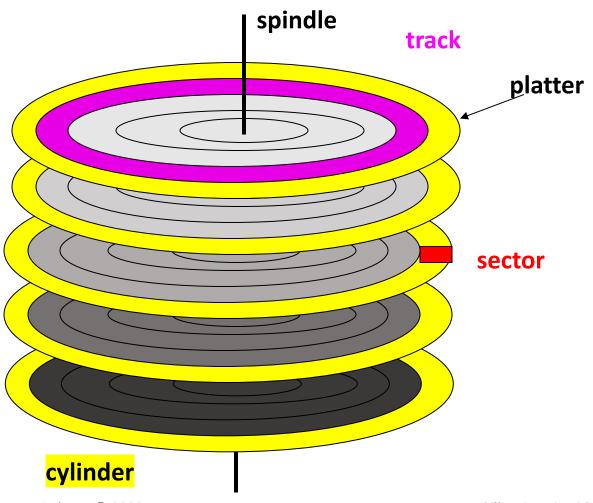
Seek time dominates

Component	Time
Head Selection	nanoseconds
Seek Time	3-12 milliseconds
Rotational Latency	2-7 milliseconds
Transfer Time	microseconds
Controller Overhead	< 1 millisecond

Note: Disk access time >> memory access time (nanoseconds)

Consider a disk with a sector size of 512 bytes, 1,000 tracks per surface, 100 sectors per track, 5 double-sided platters and a block size of 2,048 bytes. Suppose that the average seek time is 10ms, the average rotational delay is 5 ms, and the transfer rate is 200 MB per second. Suppose that a file containing 1,000,000 records of 100 bytes each is to be stored on such a disk and that no record is allowed to span two blocks.

- A. How many blocks are required to store the entire file?
- B. If the file is arranged sequentially on disk, how many cylinders are needed?
- C. What is the time required to read the file sequentially?



sector size of 512 bytes, 1,000 tracks per surface, 100 sectors per track, 5 double-sided platters and a block size of 2,048 bytes.

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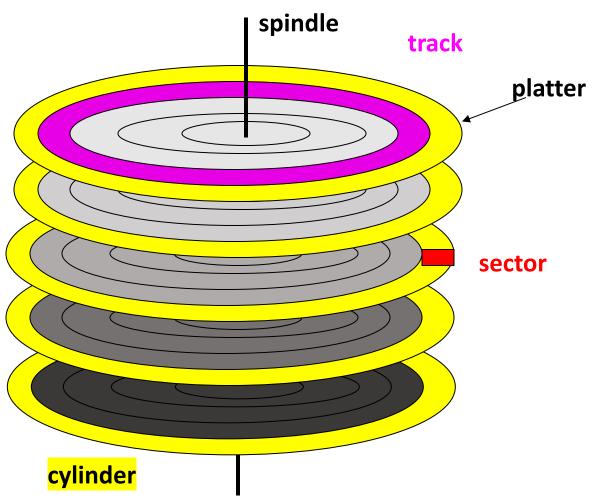
A. How many blocks are required to store the entire file?

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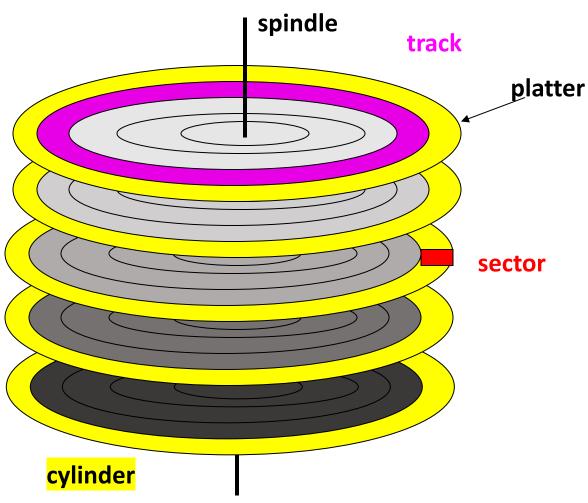
- A. How many blocks are required to store the entire file?
 - → How many records fit in a block?
 - 20 records (2048B can fully fit 20 records of 100B each)
 - \rightarrow 1,000,000 records are stored in 1,000,000 / 20 = **50,000 blocks**

Consider a disk with a sector size of 512 bytes, 1,000 tracks per surface, 100 sectors per track, 5 double-sided platters and a block size of 2,048 bytes. Suppose that the average seek time is 10ms, the average rotational delay is 5 ms, and the transfer rate is 200 MB per second. Suppose that a file containing 100,000 records of 100 bytes each is to be stored on such a disk and that no record is allowed to span two blocks.

- A. How many blocks are required to store the entire file? \rightarrow 50,000 blocks
- B. If the file is arranged sequentially on disk, how many cylinders are needed?

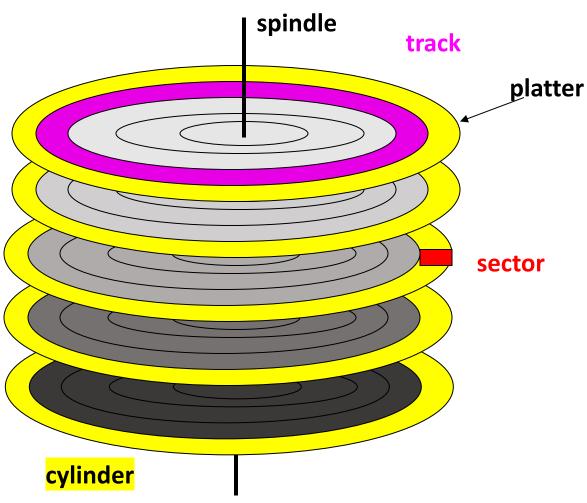


Need to place 50,000 blocks (computed in 2.A).



Need to place 50,000 blocks (computed in 2.A).

→ How de we arrange blocks for sequential access?

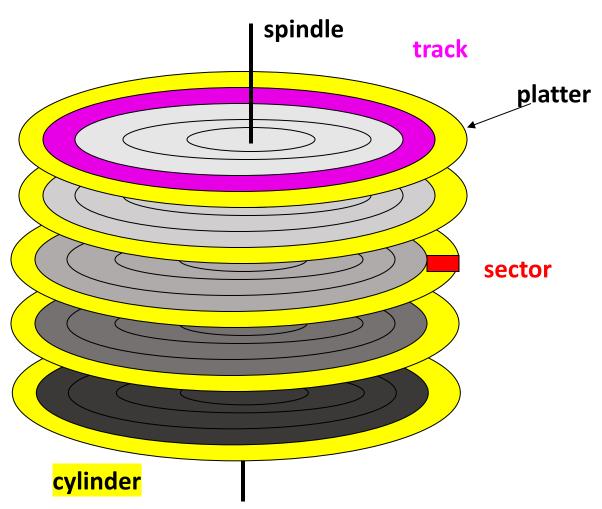


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→ How de we arrange blocks for sequential access?

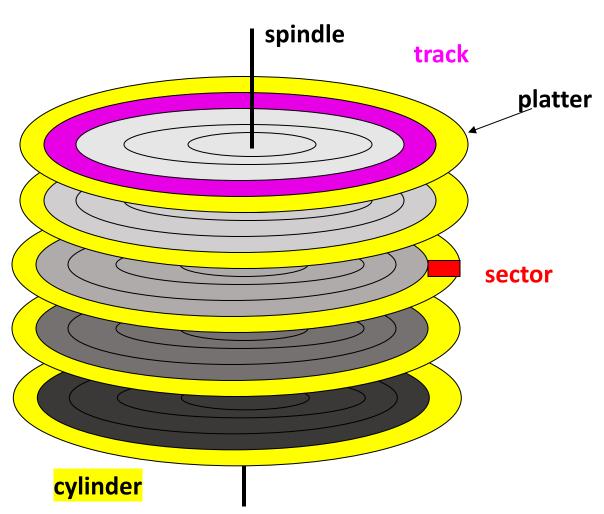
Next block concept:

- blocks on same track, followed by
- blocks on same cylinder, followed by
- blocks on adjacent cylinder



Need to place 50,000 blocks (computed in 2.A).

- → How de we arrange blocks for sequential access?
 Next block concept:
 - blocks on same track, followed by
 - blocks on same cylinder, followed by
 - blocks on adjacent cylinder
- → How many blocks can we place in a track?
- → How many blocks can we place in a cylinder?
- → How many cylinders do we need?



Need to place 50,000 blocks (computed in 2.A).

- → How de we arrange blocks for sequential access?

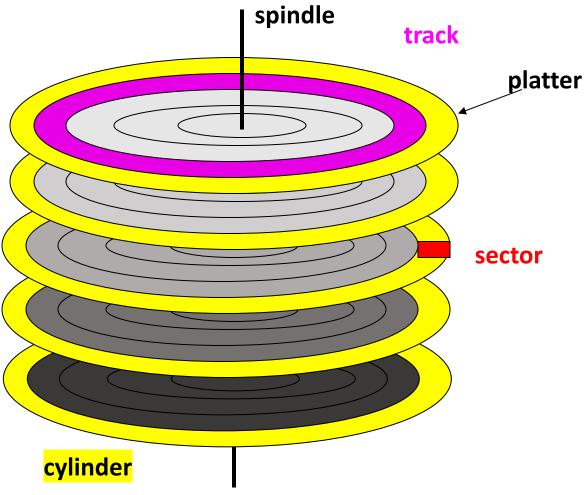
 Next block concept:
 - blocks on same track, followed by
 - blocks on same cylinder, followed by
 - blocks on adjacent cylinder
- → How many blocks can we place in a track?

Sector size: 512B, 100 sectors per track

- → 25 blocks per track
- → How many blocks can we place in a cylinder? $25 \times 2 \times 5 = 250$ blocks per cylinder
- → How many cylinders do we need?

50,000 / 250 = **200 cylinders**

2.C. What is the time required to read the file sequentially? Need to read 50,000 blocks; each block has size 2048B.



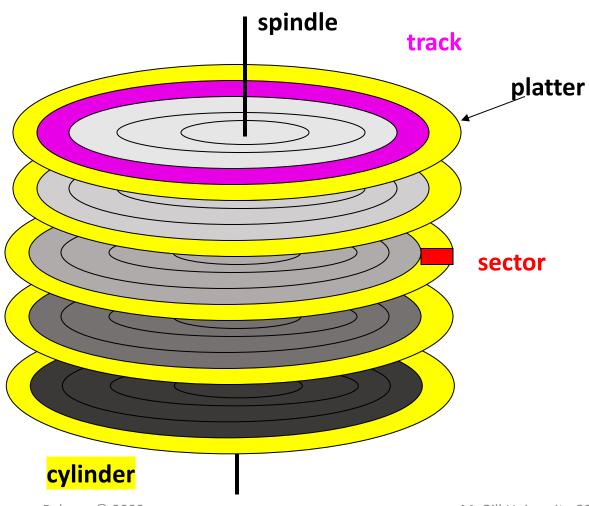
spindle track platter sector <mark>cylinder</mark>

2.C. What is the time required to read the file sequentially? Need to read 50,000 blocks; each block has size 2048B.

Seek time = 10ms

Avg rotational delay = 5ms

Transfer rate = 200 MB / second.



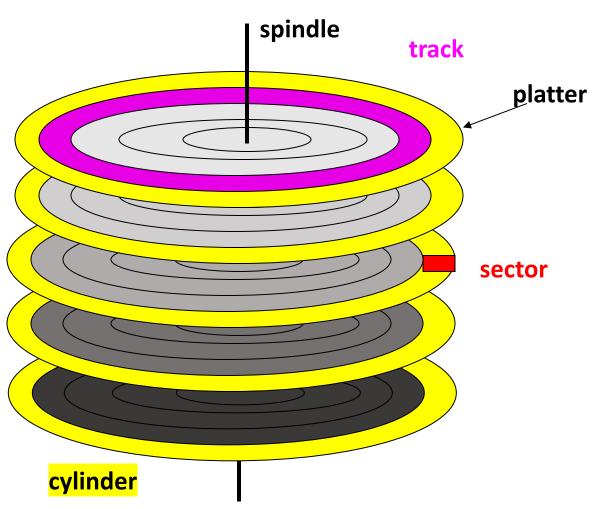
2.C. What is the time required to read the file sequentially? Need to read 50,000 blocks; each block has size 2048B.

Seek time = 10ms

Avg rotational delay = 5ms

Transfer rate = 200 MB / second.

- → What are the components of disk access?
- → How long do each of them take?
- → What is the total read time?



2.C. What is the time required to read the file sequentially? Need to read 50,000 blocks; each block has size 2048B.

Seek time = 10ms

Avg rotational delay = 5ms

Transfer rate = 200 MB / second.

→ What are the components of disk access?

Head selection (negligible)

Seek (one time cost because sequential access)

Rotational Delay (one time cost because sequential access)

Transfer time

Controller overhead (negligible)

→ What is the transfer time?

$$(50000 * 2^11 B) / (200 * 2^20 B/s) = 0.488 s$$

= 488 ms

→ What is the total read time?

Optimizing disk access

Remember:

- Disk access time >> memory access time
- If we go to disk, seek time dominates

Optimize Disk Access

Rule 1:

Do not access disk, use a cache

File System Cache (Buffer Cache)

What?

Keep recently accessed blocks in memory

Why?

- Reduce latency
- Reduce disk load

How?

- Reserve kernel memory for cache
- Cache entries: file blocks (of block size)

Read with a Cache

If in cache

Return data from cache

If not

- Find free cache slot
- Initiate disk read
- When disk read completes, return data

Write with a Cache

Always write in cache

How does it get to disk?

- Write-through
- Write-behind

Write with a Cache

Always write in cache

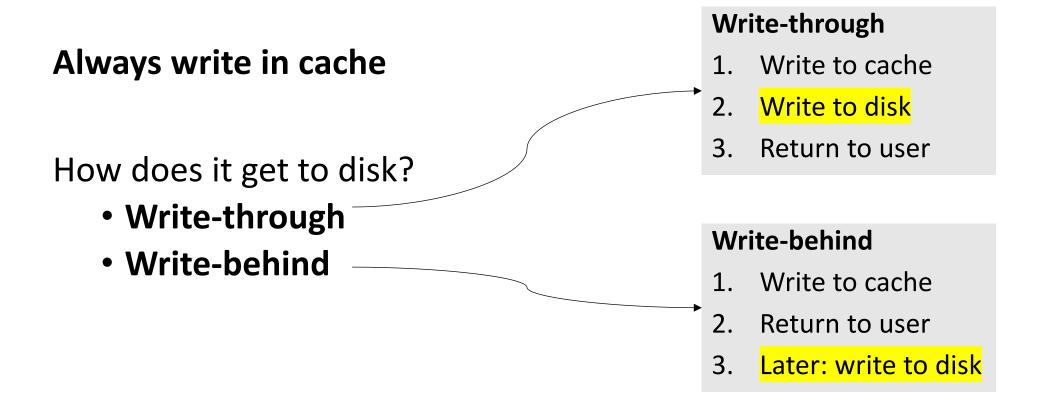
How does it get to disk?

- Write-through
- Write-behind

Write-through

- 1. Write to cache
- 2. Write to disk
- 3. Return to user

Write with a Cache



Write-Through vs. Write-Behind

Response time:

• Write-behind is (much) better

Disk load:

- Write-behind is (much) better
- Much data overwritten before it gets to disk

Crash:

- Write-through is much better
- No "window of vulnerability"

Write-Through vs. Write-Behind

Response time:

• Write-behind is (much) better

Disk load:

- Write-behind is (much) better
- Much data overwritten before it gets to disk

Crash:

- Write-through is much better
- No "window of vulnerability"

In practice:

- Write-behind
- Periodic cache flush
- User primitive to flush data

Optimize Disk Access

Rule 2:

Do not wait for disk, read ahead

- Also called prefetching
- Only for sequential access

Read-Ahead

What?

- User request for block i of a file
- Also read block i+1 from disk

Why?

No disk I/O on (expected) user access to block i+1

How?

Put block i+1 in the buffer cache

→ Remember: Pre-paging uses read-ahead if neighboring virtual pages are also neighbors in physical memory.

Read-Ahead

Works for sequential access

- Most access is sequential
- In Linux it is the default

Caveat about Read-Ahead

- Does not reduce number of disk I/Os
- In fact, could increase them (if not sequential)

- In practice, very often a win
- Linux always reads one block ahead

Optimize Disk Access

Rule 3:

Minimize seeks

2 Approaches

- Clever disk allocation
- Clever scheduling

Clever Disk Allocation

Idea:

- Locate related data (same file) on same cylinder
- Allocate "related" blocks "together"

"together"

- On the same cylinder
- On a nearby cylinder

"related"

- Consecutive blocks in the same file
- Sequential access

Disk Scheduling

Idea: Reorder requests to seek as little as possible

Different disk scheduling policies:

- FCFS First-Come-First-Served
- SSTF Shortest-Seek-Time-First
- SCAN
- C-SCAN
- LOOK
- C-LOOK

Disk Scheduling Illustration

Initial position of the **head = cylinder 53**

Queue of requests:

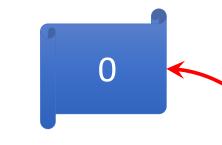
98, 193, 37, 122, 14, 124, 65, 67

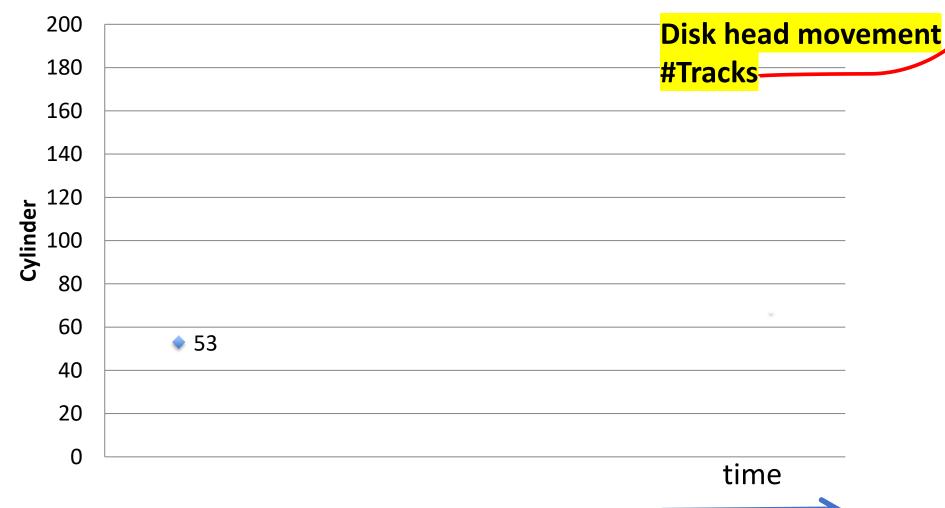
First Come, First Served (FCFS)

Serve **next request** in the queue



Queue = 98, 183, 37, 122, 14, 124, 65, 67



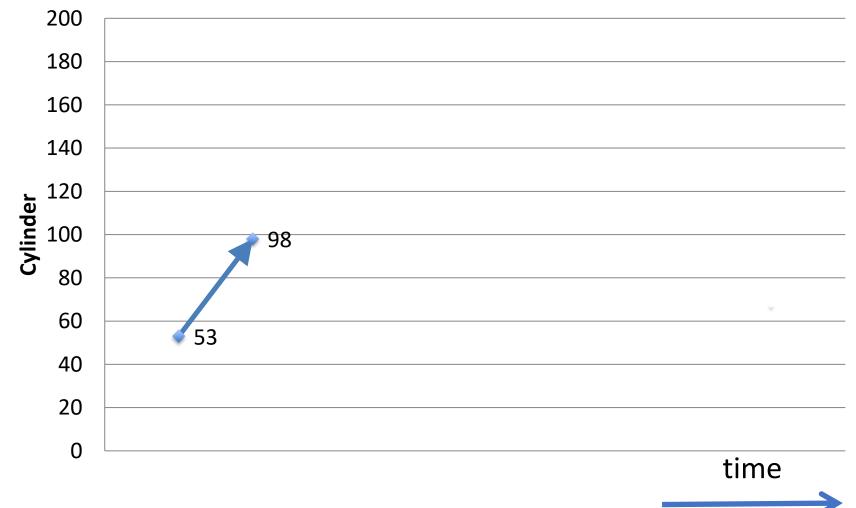




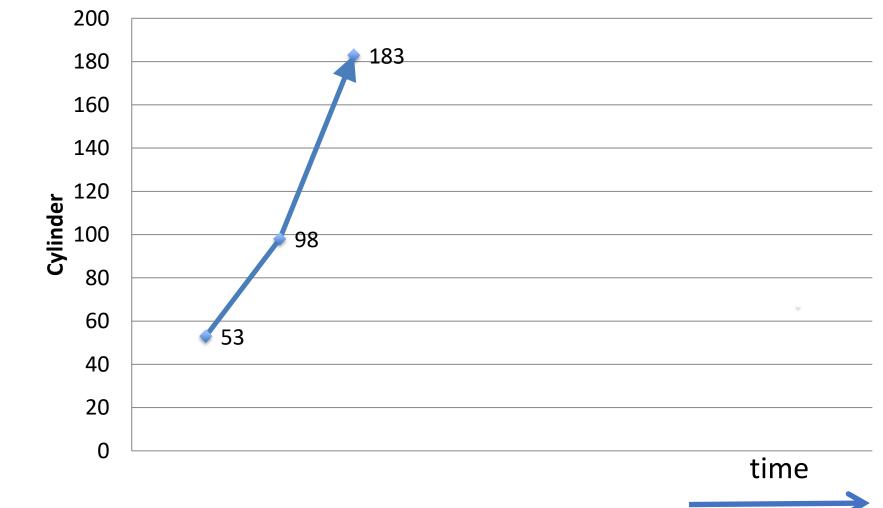
45

Queue = 98, 183, 37, 122, 14, 124, 65, 67

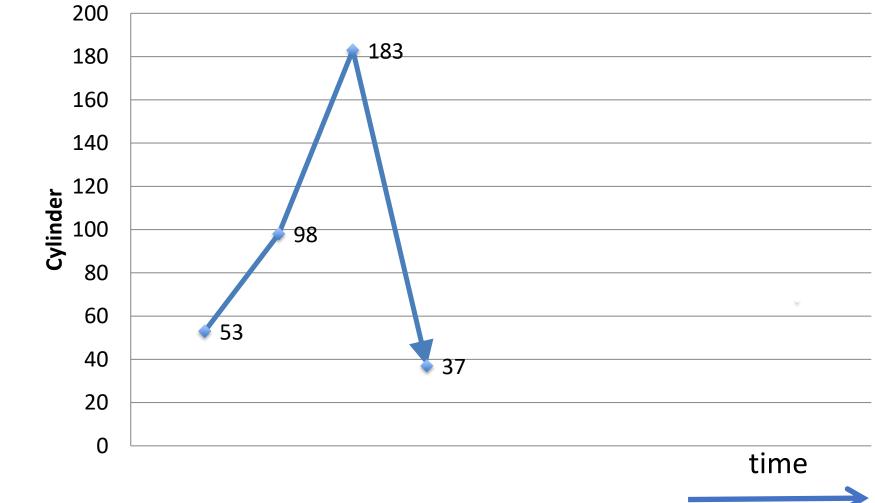




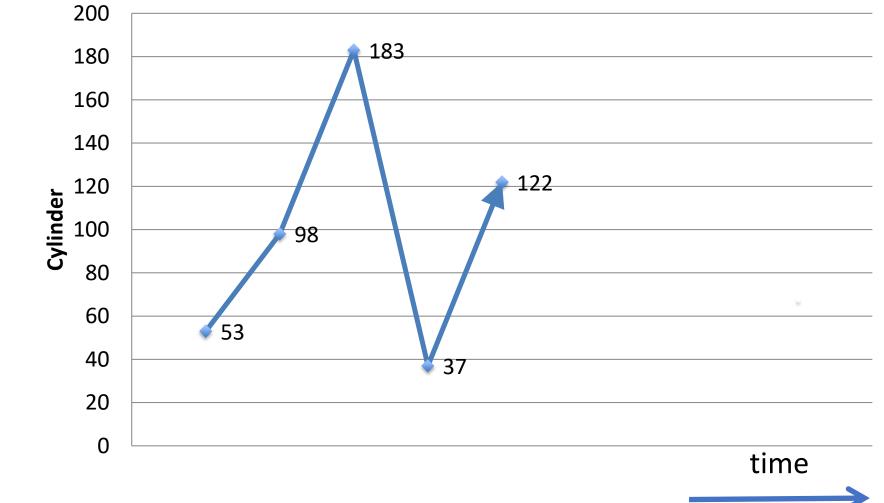




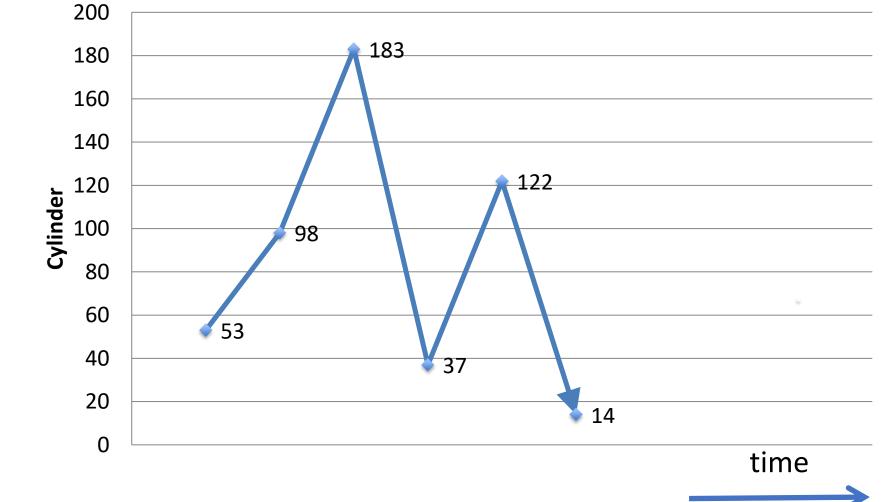




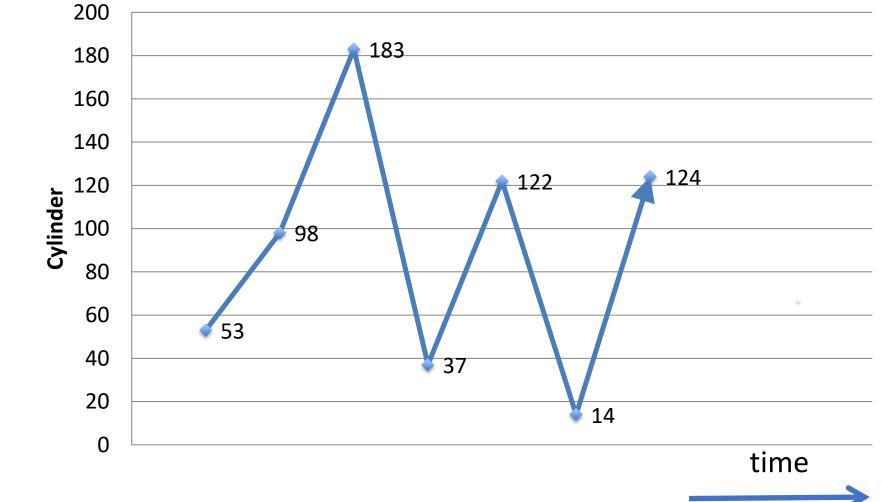




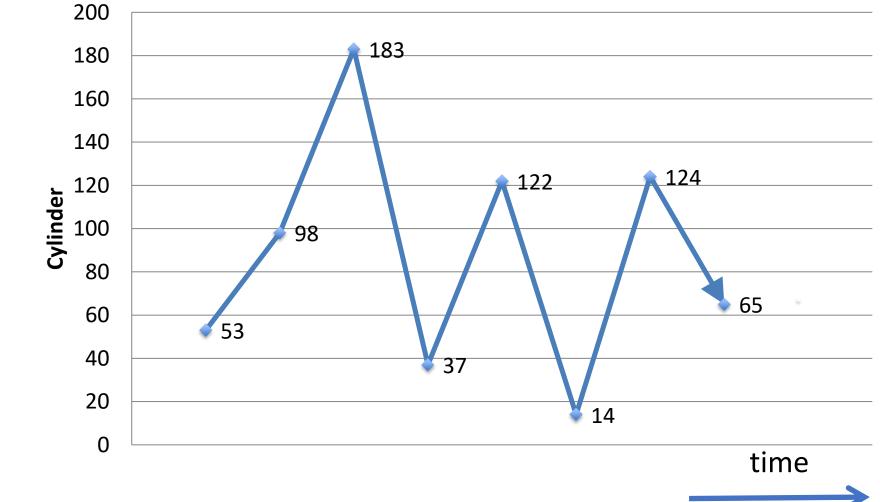




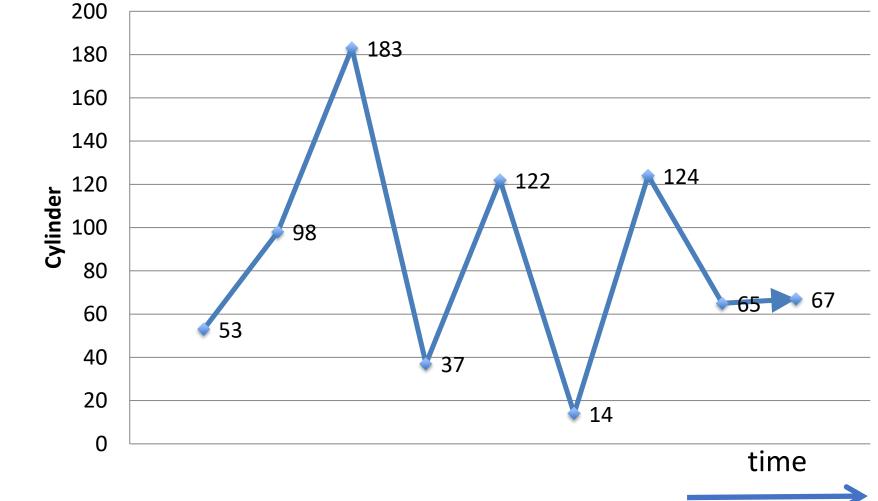












Shortest Seek Time First (SSTF)

Pick "nearest" request in queue

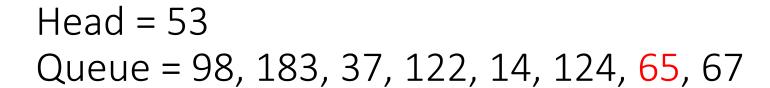
• "nearest" = closest to current head position



Queue = 98, 183, 37, 122, 14, 124, 65, 67

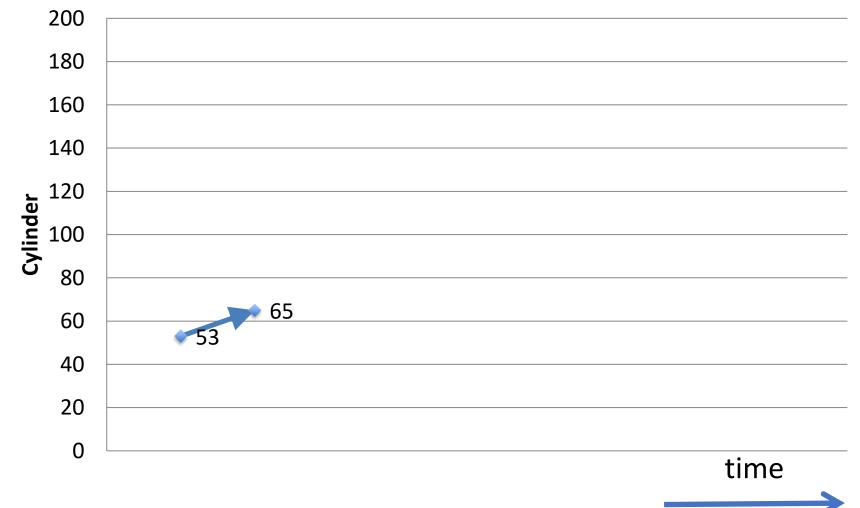


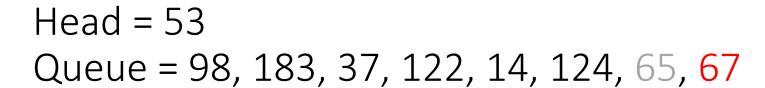






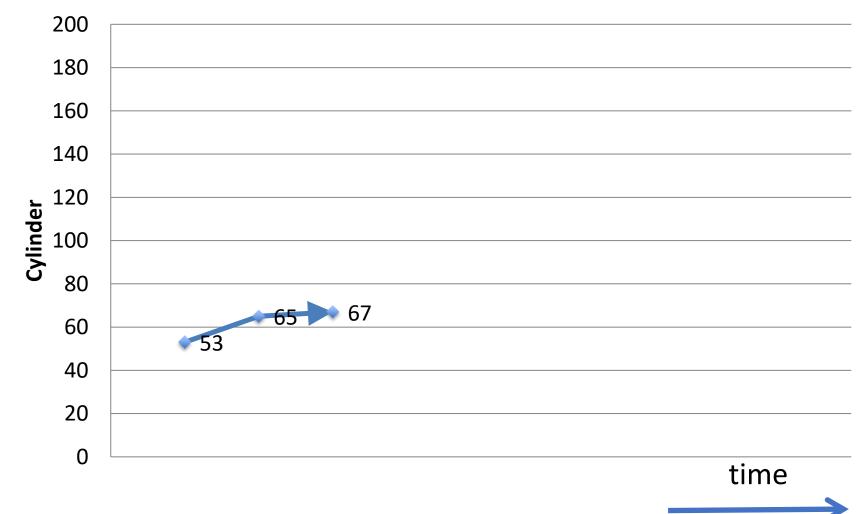








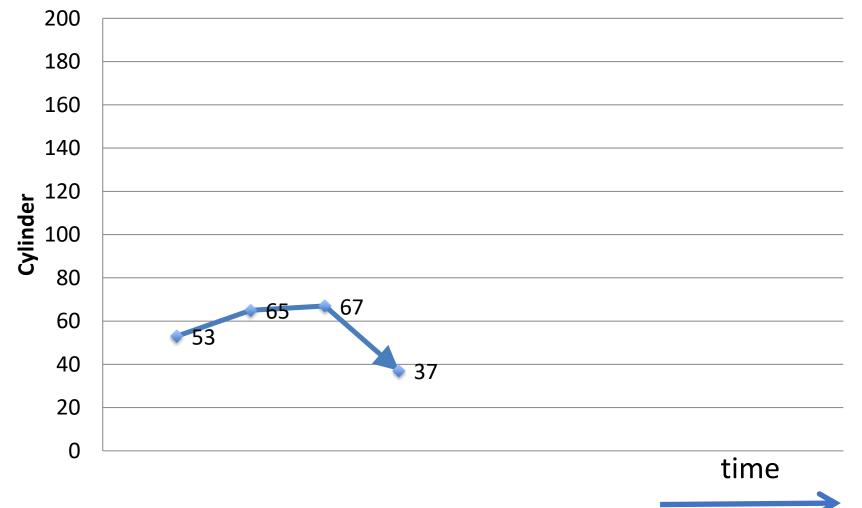




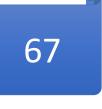




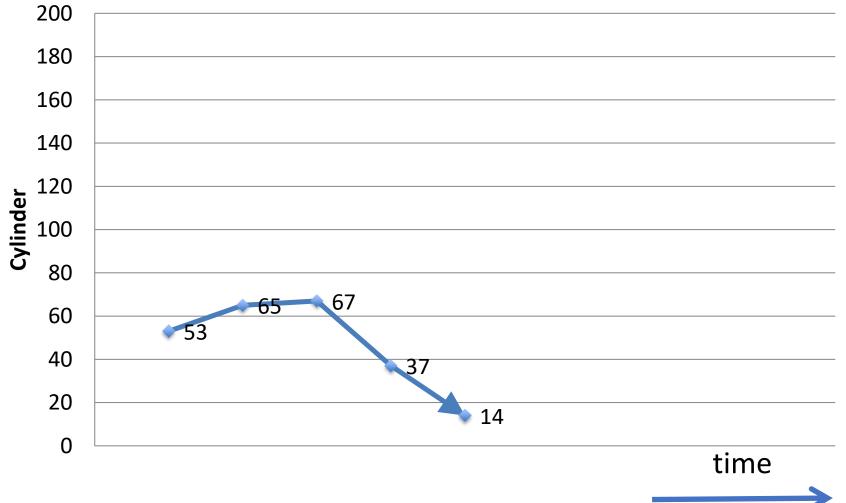








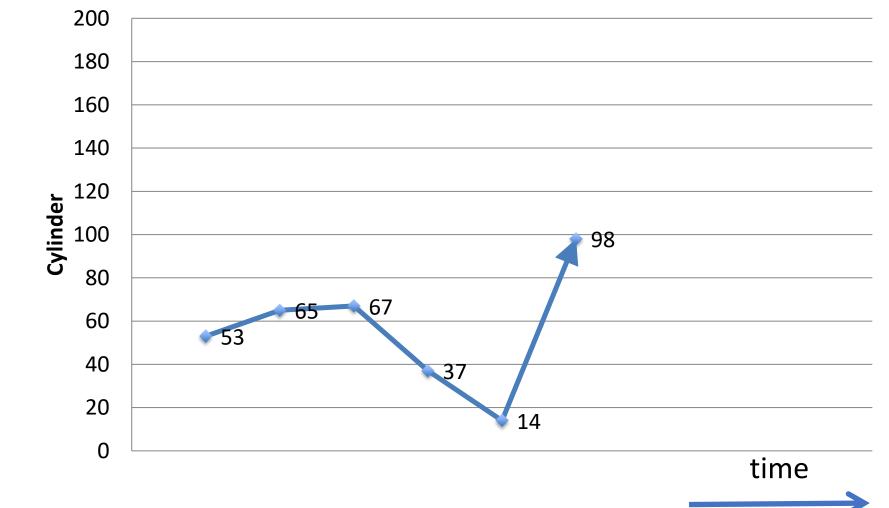




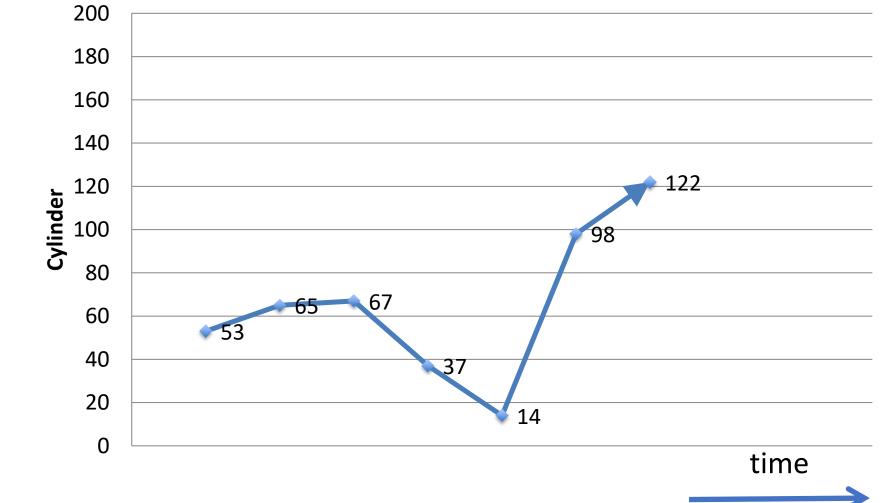
Head = 53

Queue = 98, 183, 37, 122, 14, 124, 65, 67

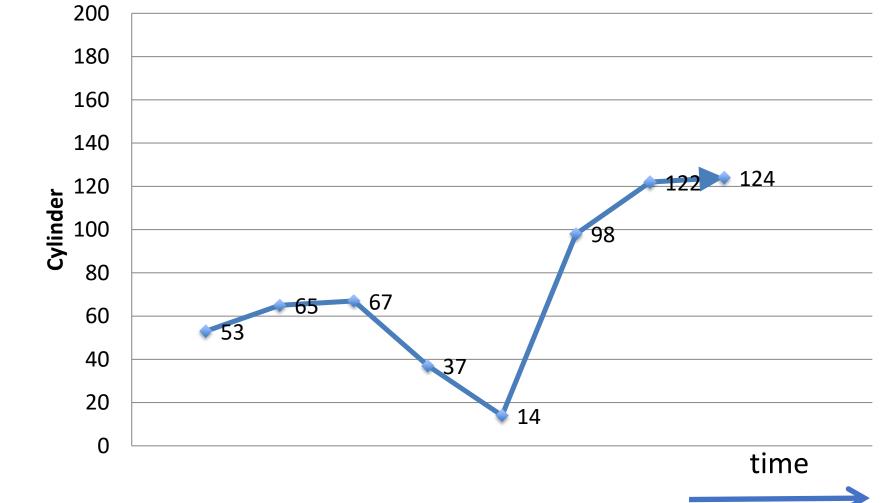








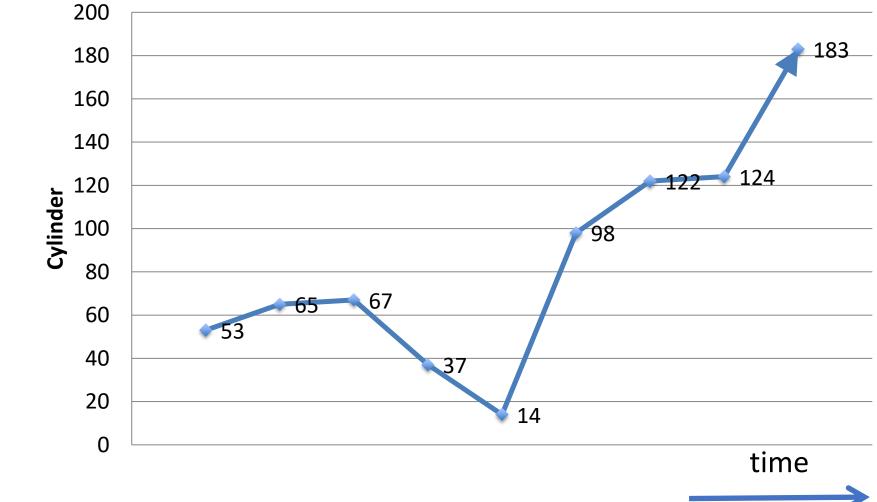








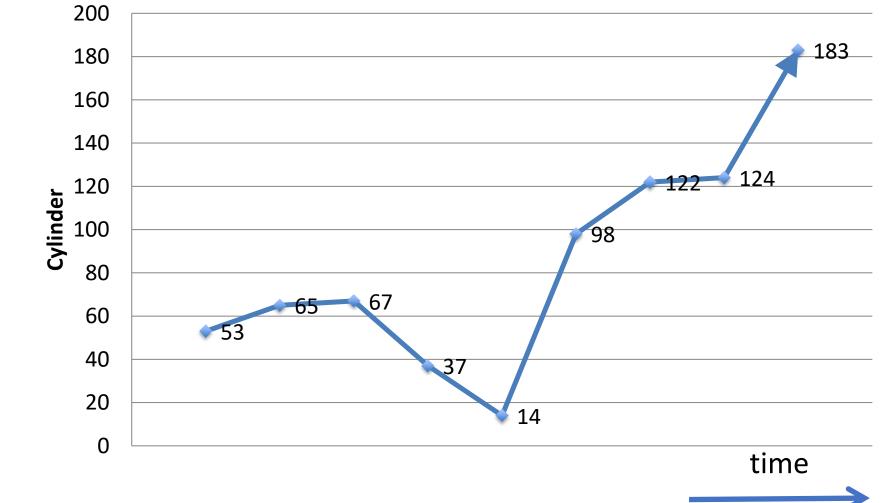












- + Very good seek times
- Subject to starvation
 - Request on inside or outside can get starved

SCAN

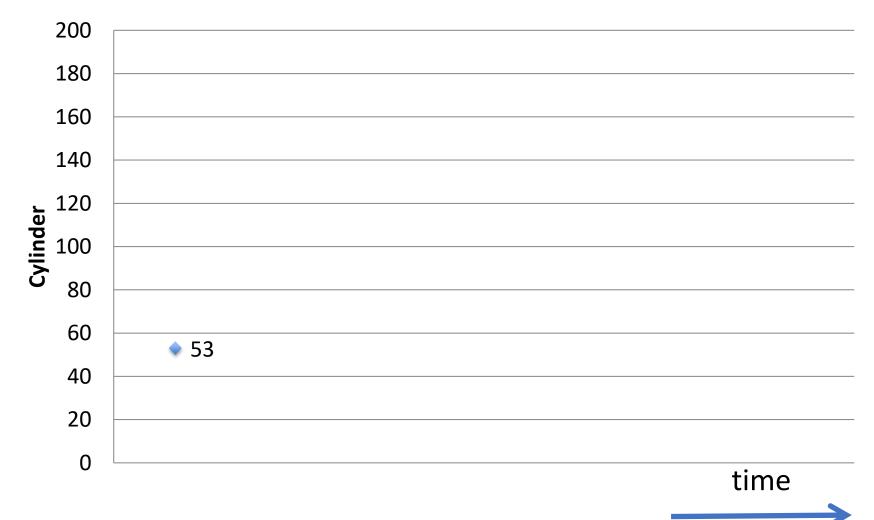
- Continue moving head in one direction
 - From 0 to MAX_CYL
 - Then, from MAX_CYL to 0
- Pick up requests as you move head

Head = 53, moving down

Queue = 98, 183, 37, 122, 14, 124, 65, 67



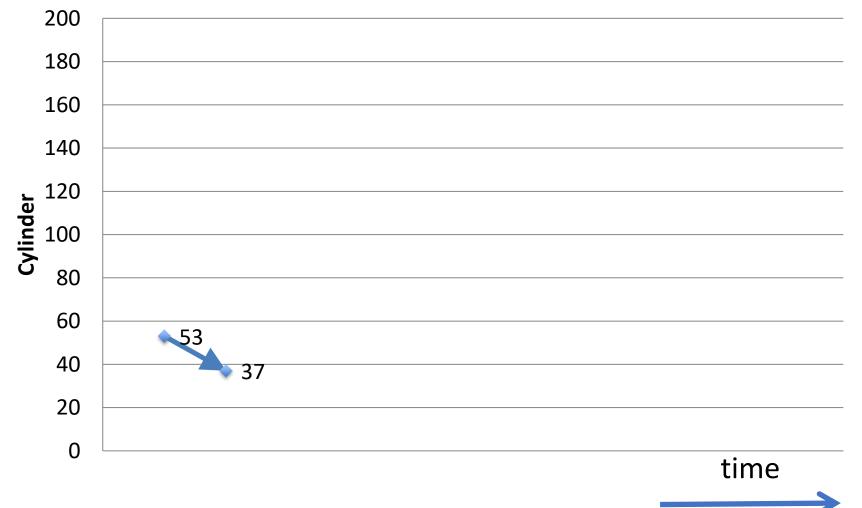
SCAN







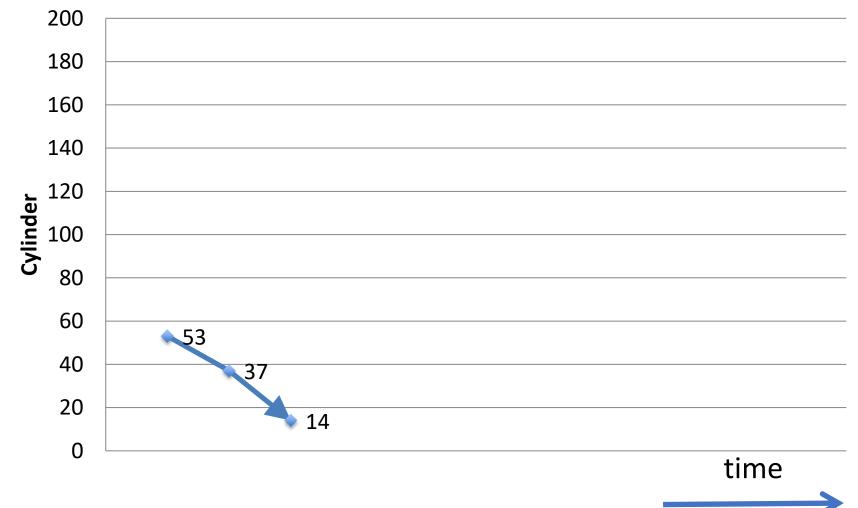








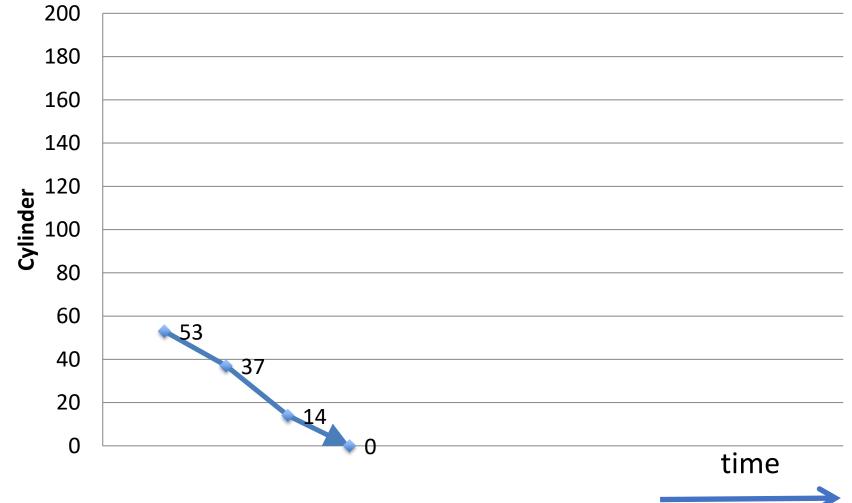








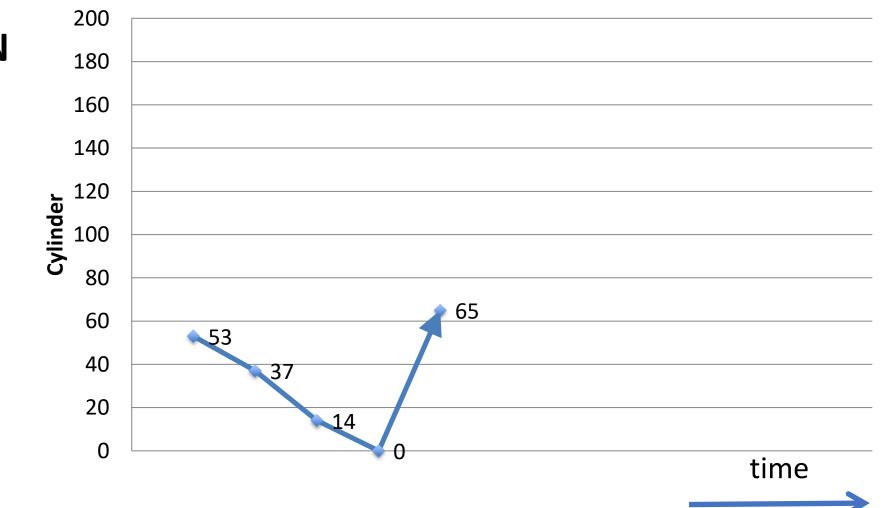








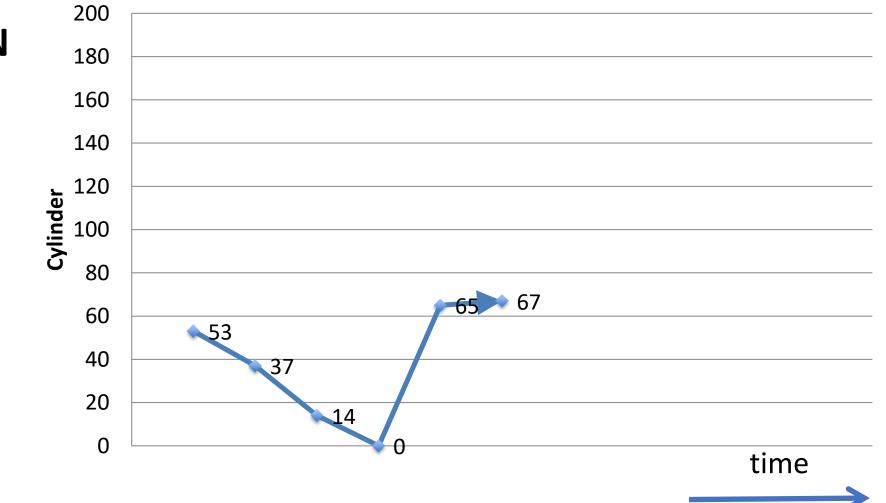










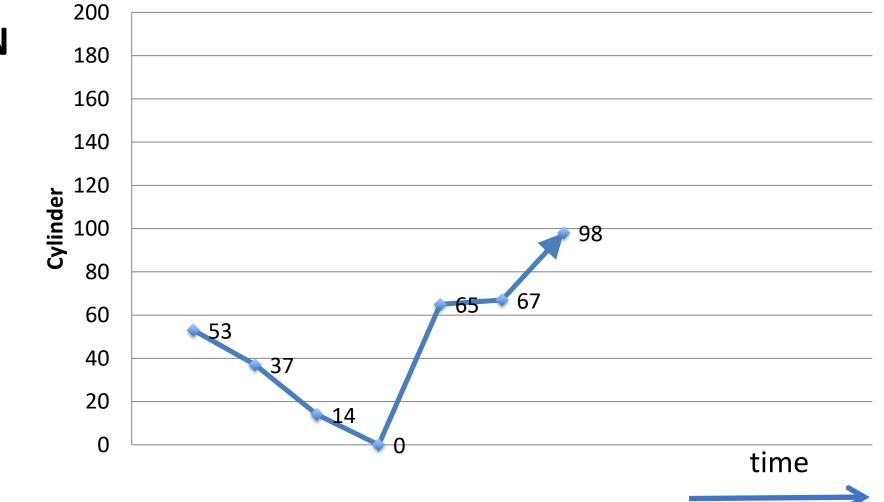




Queue = 98, 183, 37, 122, 14, 124, 65, 67



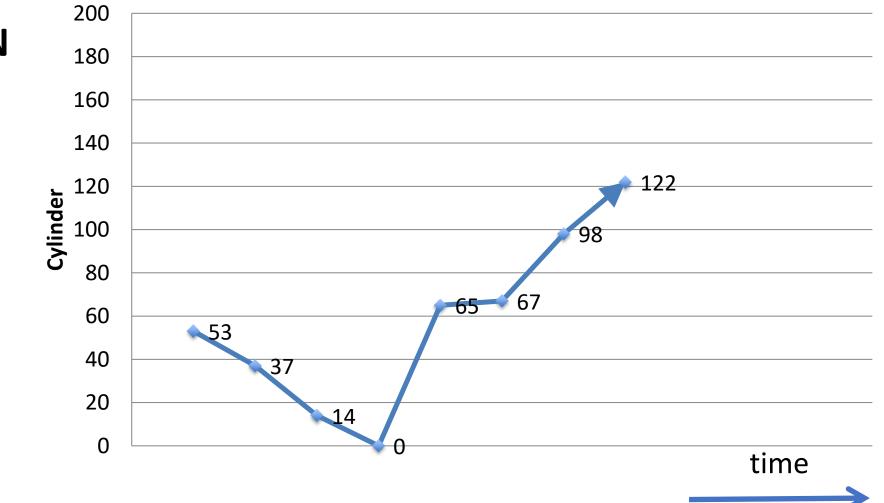
SCAN



Head = 53 Queue = 98, 183, 37, 122, 14, 124, 65, 67



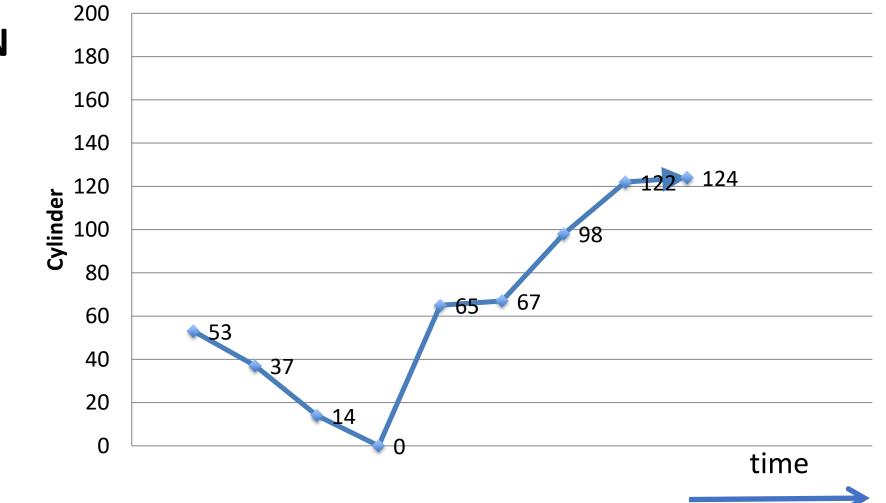
SCAN



Head = 53 Queue = 98, 183, 37, 122, 14, 124, 65, 67



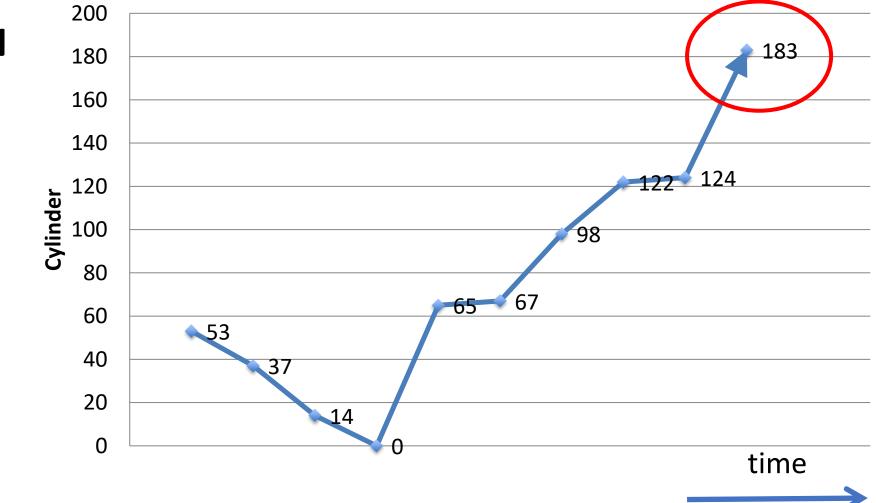








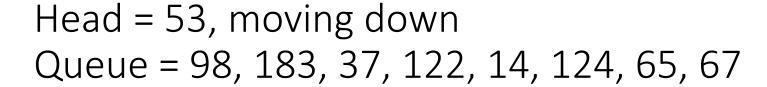
SCAN



Here we do not go all the way to MAX_CYL, because this is the last request in the queue.

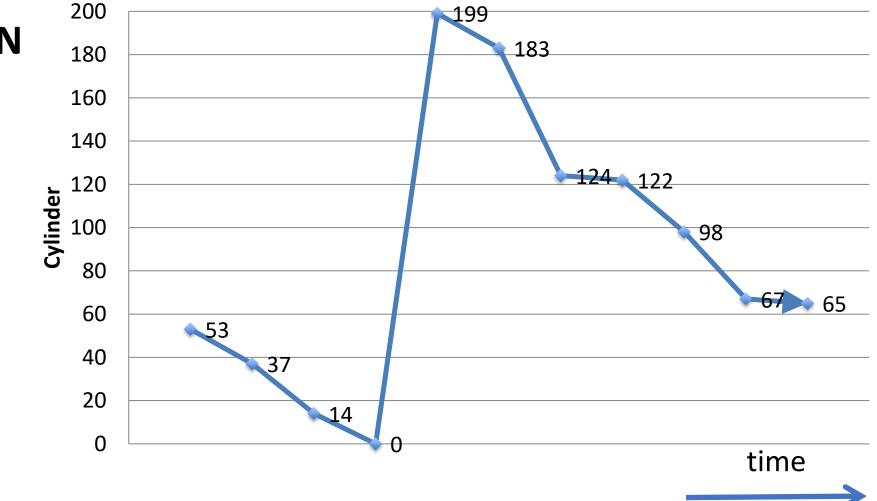
C-SCAN

- Similar to SCAN
- Always move head
 - From MAX_CYL to 0; pick up requests as head moves
 - From 0 to MAX_CYL; no requests served
- C-SCAN can also be implemented in reverse
 - From MAX_CYL to 0; no requests served
 - From 0 to MAX_CYL; pick up requests as head moves





C-SCAN



C-SCAN

- Number of cylinders slightly higher
- + More uniform wait time

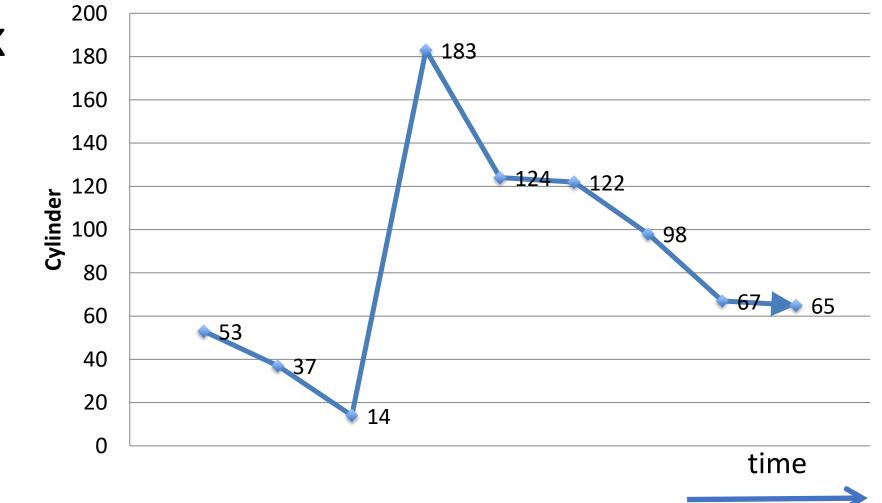
C-LOOK

- Similar to C-SCAN
- Always move head
 - From MAX_CYL_IN_QUEUE to MIN_CYL; serve requests as head moves
 - From MIN_CYL to MAX_CYL_IN_QUEUE; no requests served
- C-LOOK can also be implemented in reverse

Head = 53, moving down Queue = 98, 183, 37, 122, 14, 124, 65, 67



C-LOOK



In Practice

Some variation of C-LOOK is pretty common

Optimize Disk Access

Rule 4:

Avoid rotational latency

- Clever disk allocation
- Locate consecutive blocks of file on consecutive sectors in a cylinder

When does what work well?

• Low load: clever allocation

• High load: disk scheduling

Why? – Under High Load

- Many scheduling opportunities
 - Many requests in the queue
- Allocation gets defeated
 - By interleaved requests for different files

Why? – Under Low Load

- Not much scheduling opportunity
 - Not many requests in the queue
- Sequential user access -> sequential disk access

Cache tends to reduce load

Summary – Disk Management

- Disk characteristics
 - Access disk >> access memory
 - Seek > Rotational Latency > Transfer
- Optimizations
 - Cache
 - Read-ahead
 - Disk allocation
 - Disk scheduling

Summary – Key Concepts

- I/O devices
 - OS role for integrating I/O devices in systems
 - Polling, Interrupts
- Notion of "permanent" storage
- File system interface
- Disk Management for HDDs

Further Reading

Operating Systems: Three Easy Pieces by R. & A. Arpaci-Dusseau

Chapters 36, 37, 39.

https://pages.cs.wisc.edu/~remzi/OSTEP/

Credits:

Some slides adapted from the OS courses of Profs. Remzi and Andrea Arpaci-Dusseau (University of Wisconsin-Madison), Prof. Willy Zwaenepoel (University of Sydney), and Prof. Youjip Won (Hanyang University).