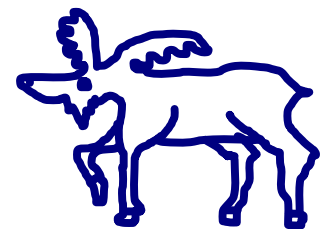


# Lecture 28

## DMA, IOP and RAID

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# 6. Storage and Other I/O Topics

6.1 Introduction

6.2 Dependability, Reliability, and Availability

6.3 Disk Storage

6.4 Flash Storage

6.5 Connecting Processors, Memory, and I/O Devices

6.6 Interfacing I/O Devices to the Processor, Memory, and Operating System

6.7 I/O Performance Measures: Examples from Disk and File Systems

6.8 Designing an I/O System

6.9 Parallelism and I/O: RAID

6.10 Real Stuff: Sun Fire x4150 Server

# Transferring the Data between a Device and Memory

## 1. Polling-based transfer (= programmed I/O)

- ❖ Periodical check of device status by CPU

```
while (not ready) get_status_of_the_device;  
load_data_from_I/O_device;  
store_the_data_into_memory;
```

- ❖ Best with lower-bandwidth devices
- ❖ More interested in reducing the cost of the device controller and interface than in providing a high-bandwidth transfer
- ❖ Put burden of moving data and managing the transfer on the processor

## 2. Interrupt Driven Transfer

- **Common characteristics with programmed I/O**

- ❖ OS still transfers data in small number of bytes.
- ❖ Best with lower-bandwidth devices
- ❖ More interested in reducing the cost

- **Difference**

- ❖ I/O device informs the processor when ready
- ❖ Relieving the processor from having to wait for every I/O

- **I/O operation**

- ❖ OS simply works on other tasks while data is being read from or written to the device.
- ❖ On interrupts, OS reads the status to check for errors.
- ❖ If none, OS transfers data.
- ❖ When I/O completed, OS can inform the program.

### 3. DMA (Direct Memory Access)

- Device controller transfers data directly to or from the memory without involving the processor
- High-bandwidth devices like hard disks
- Interrupt mechanism is used only on completion of the I/O transfer or when an error occurs.
- **DMA controller**
  - ❖ Special controller that transfers data between an I/O device and memory independent of the processor
  - ❖ Becomes the bus master when transferring data

# 3 Steps in a DMA Transfer

## 1. Initial setup of the DMA

- ❖ Device ID, operation, memory address, number of bytes

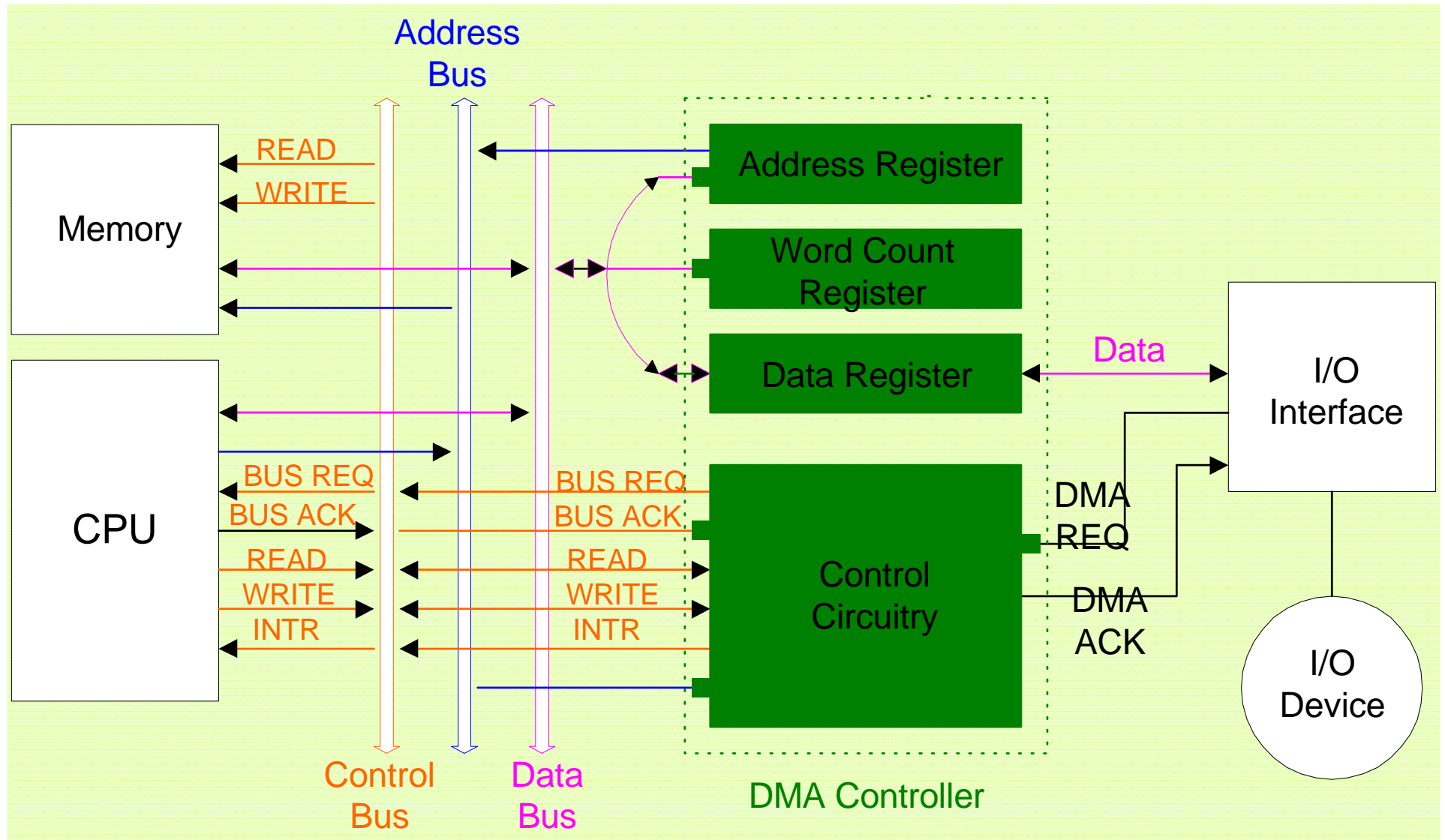
## 2. DMA operation (cf) cycle stealing

```
while (WCR>0) {acquire bus through arbitration;  
                transfer data;  
                WCR--; AR++;}
```

## 3. Interrupt request

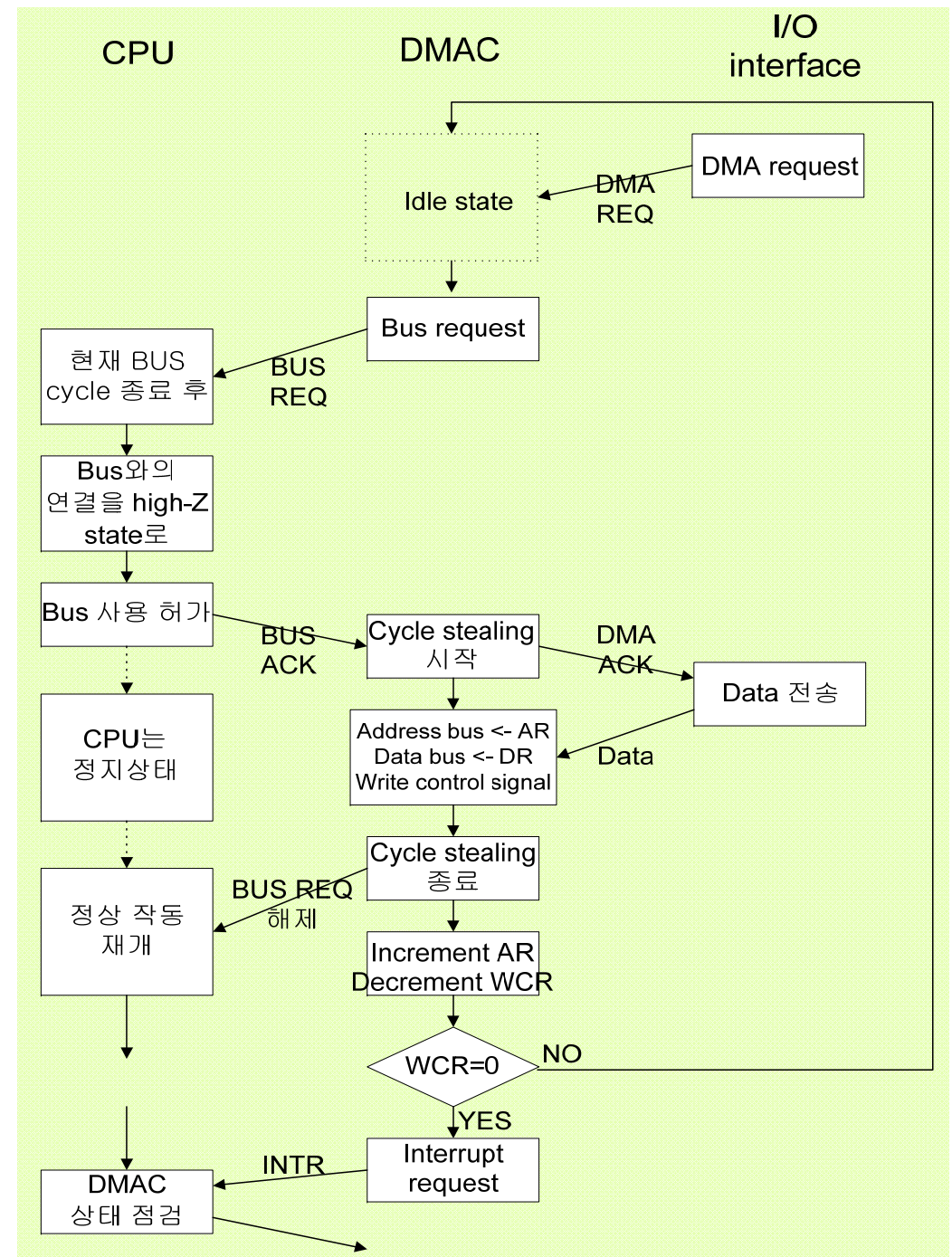
- ❖ When DMA transfer is complete
- ❖ Processor checks whether the entire operation completed successfully.

# DMA Controller



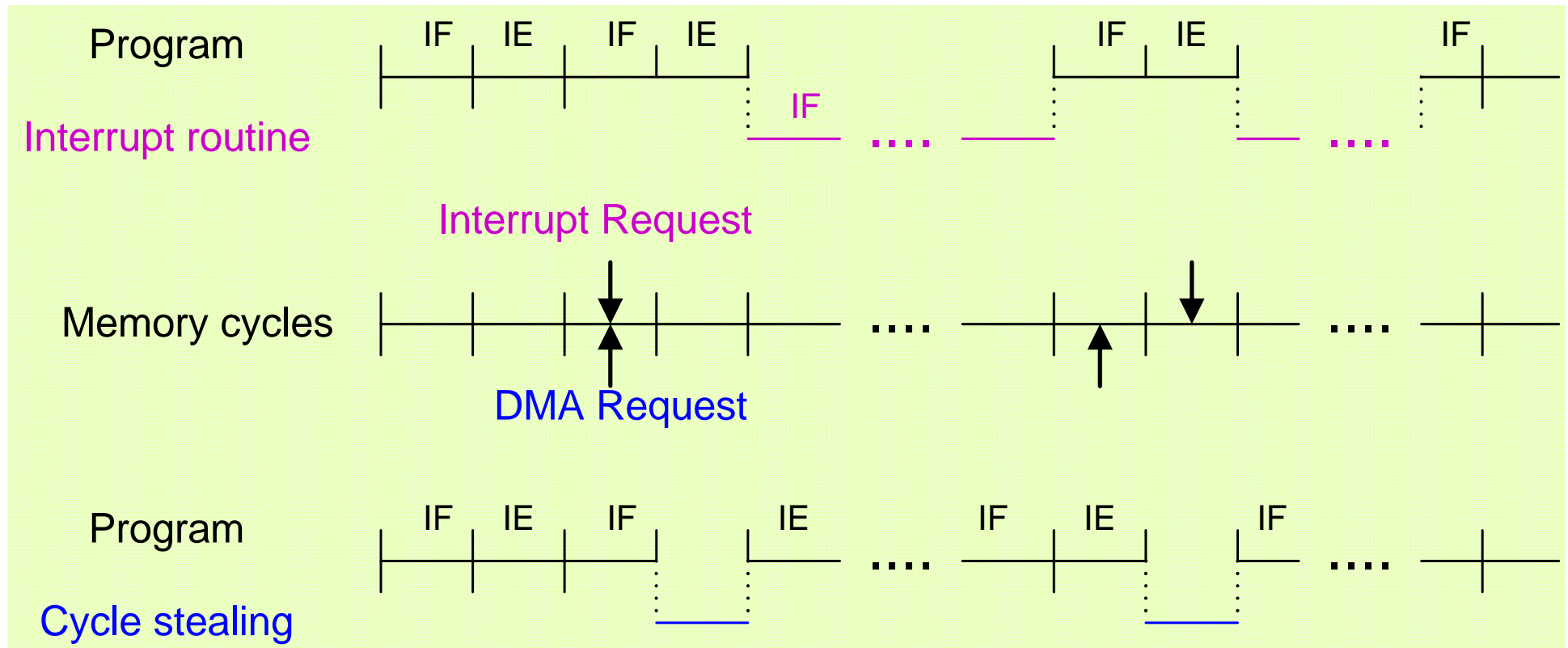


# DMA (Input)





# Interrupt vs. Cycle Stealing



# Elaboration

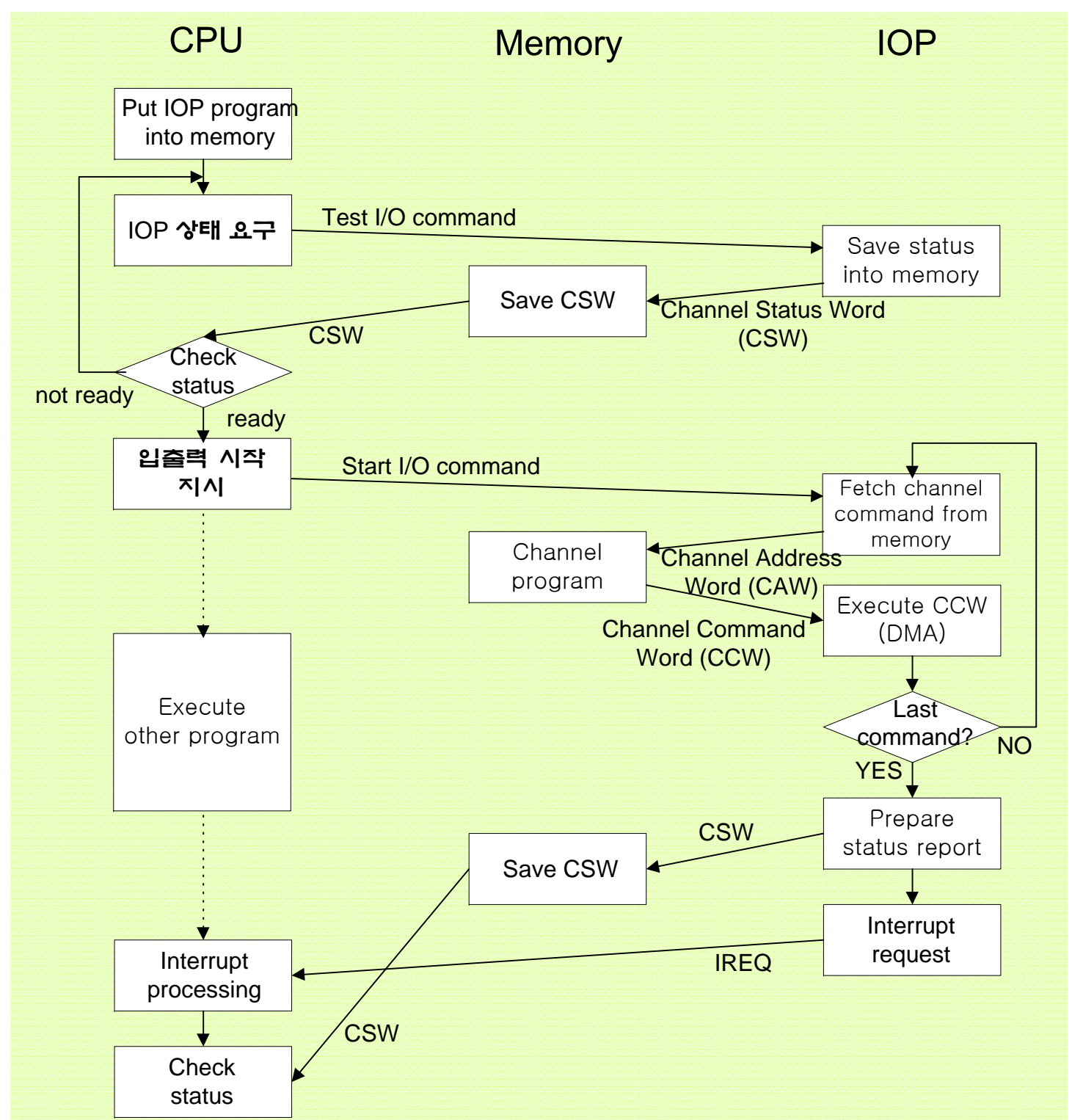
- **I/O processor (IOP)**

- ❖ I/O controller = channel controller = channel = I/O channel
- ❖ More intelligent I/O controller
- ❖ Reducing the need to interrupt the processor

- **I/O program**

- ❖ Stored in the IOP or in main memory
- ❖ I/O operations to be done as well as the size and transfer address for any reads or writes

# IOP



# DMA Controller vs. I/O Processor

	<b>DMAC</b>	<b>IOP</b>
<b>own instruction set and I/O program</b>	no	yes
<b>interrupt request</b>	at the end of every block transfer	at the end of I/O program
<b>implementation</b>	special-purpose processor (usually single-chip and nonprogrammable)	general-purpose processor (general-purpose microprocessor, which runs a specialized I/O program)



# Comparison of I/O Transfer Methods

	<b>Polling</b>	<b>Interrupt-driven</b>	<b>DMA</b>
<b>I/O-to-memory transfer</b>	through CPU	through CPU	direct
<b>Interrupt</b>	no	every byte or word	every block
<b>Overhead</b>	busy waiting	context switches	bus cycles
<b>Data transfer</b>	by instruction execution	by instruction execution	cycle stealing
<b>Unit of transfer</b>	byte or word	byte or word	block

## 6.9 Parallelism and I/O: RAIDs

### Example: Impact of I/O on System Performance

- Benchmark
  - ❖ 90 sec. (CPU time) + 10 sec. (I/O time)
- Double the number of CPUs/2 years and I/O unchanged

### [Answer]

Years	CPU time	I/O time	Elapsed time	% I/O time	Speedup
0	90 sec	10 sec	100 sec	10%	$100/100 = 1.0$
2	$90/2 = 45$ sec	10 sec	55 sec	18%	$100/55 = 1.8$
4	$45/2 = 23$ sec	10 sec	33 sec	31%	$100/33 = 3.0$
6	$23/2 = 11$ sec	10 sec	21 sec	47%	$100/21 = 4.7$

# RAID

- Redundant Arrays of Inexpensive Disks
- Replacing a few large disks with many small disks
- Increase potential throughput by having many disk drives
  - ❖ Data is spread over multiple disk
  - ❖ Multiple accesses are made to several disks at a time
- Reliability is lower than a single disk
  - ❖ But availability can be improved by adding redundant disks
  - ❖ Lost information can be reconstructed from redundant information
  - ❖ Dependability is more affordable with RAID
- [ref] D. Patterson, G. Gibson and R. Katz, “A case for redundant arrays of inexpensive disks (RAID),” EECS/UCB Technical Report , UCB/CSD-87-391, Dec. 1997.



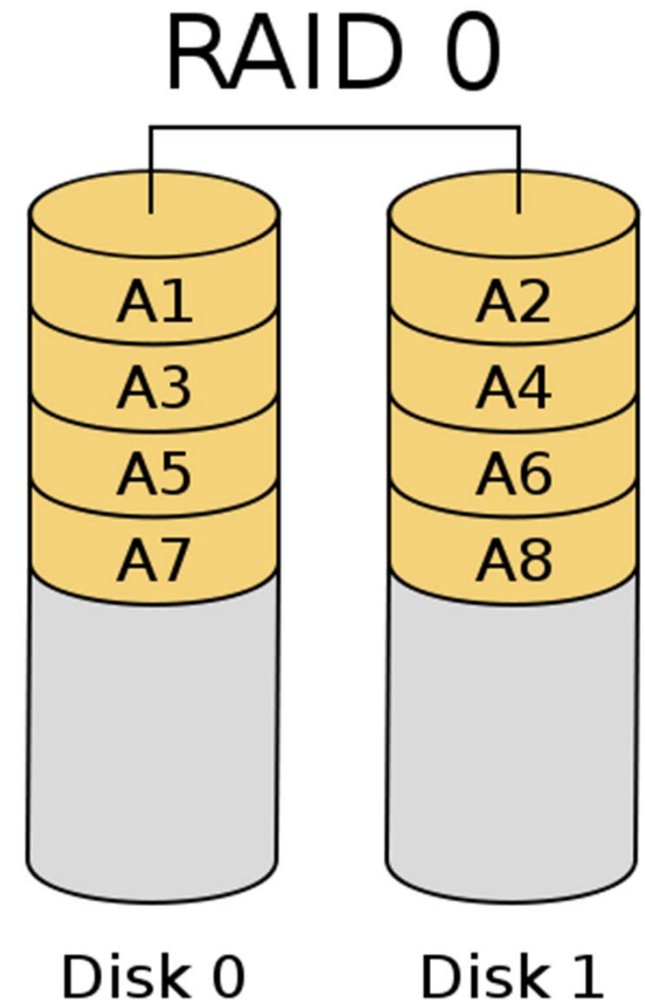
# Berkeley RAID-1

- **RAID-I (1989)**
  - ❖ Consisted of a Sun 4/280 workstation with 128 MB of DRAM, four dual-string SCSI controllers, 28 5.25-inch SCSI disks and specialized disk striping software
- Today RAID is > 32 billion dollar industry, 80% nonPC disks sold in RAIDs (in 2009)



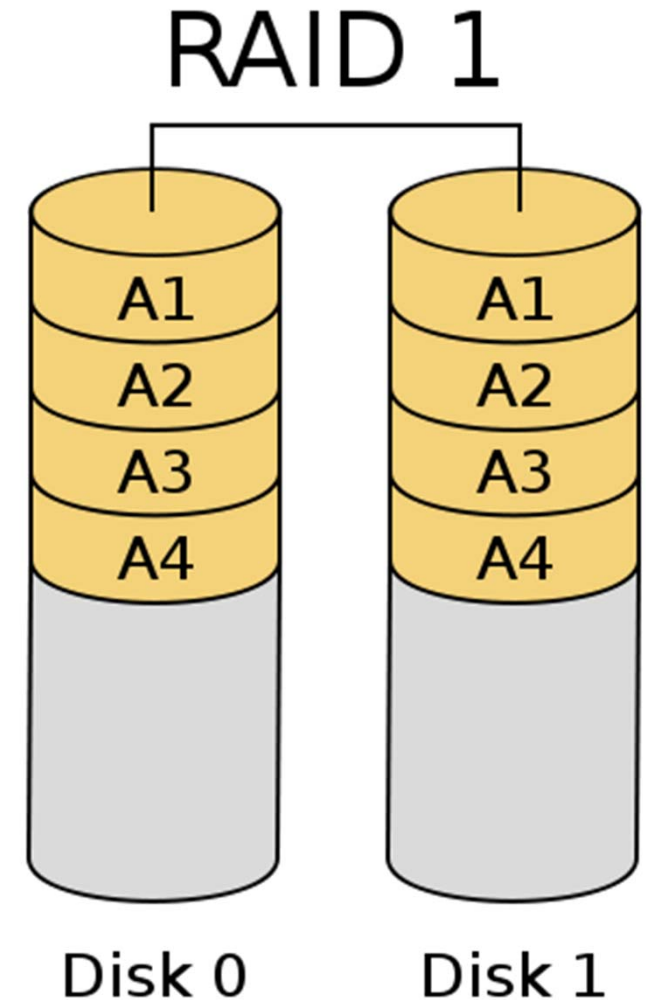
# No Redundancy (RAID 0)

- No redundancy = “AID”
- Block-level **striping** without parity or mirroring
- Multiple blocks can be accessed in parallel increasing the performance
- No redundancy, so what if one disk fails?
  - ❖ Failure of one or more disks is more likely as the number of disks in the system increases



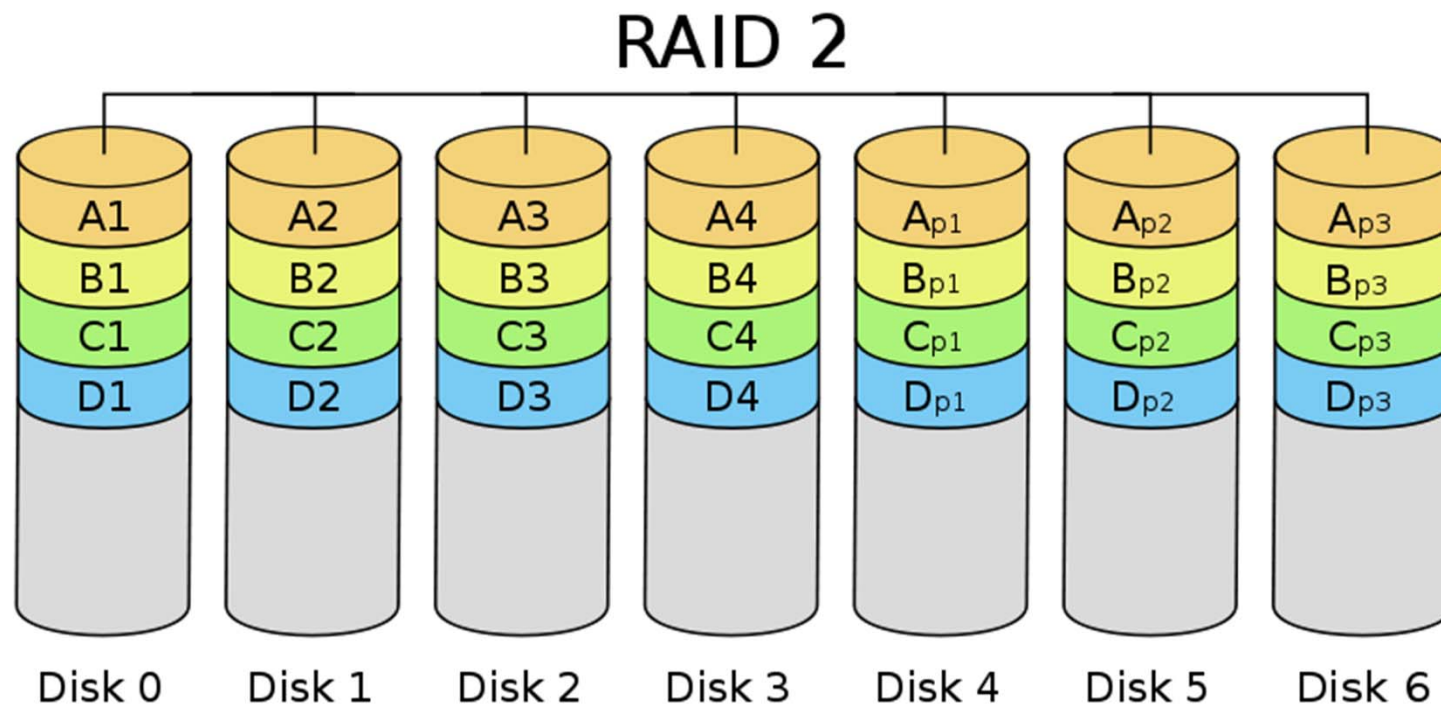
# Mirroring (RAID 1)

- Each disk is fully duplicated onto its “mirror”
  - ❖ On disk failure, read from mirror
  - ❖ Very high availability can be achieved
- Bandwidth reduced on write:
  - ❖ Write data to both data disk and mirror disk
  - ❖ 1 Logical write = 2 physical writes
- Most expensive solution
  - ❖ 100% capacity overhead



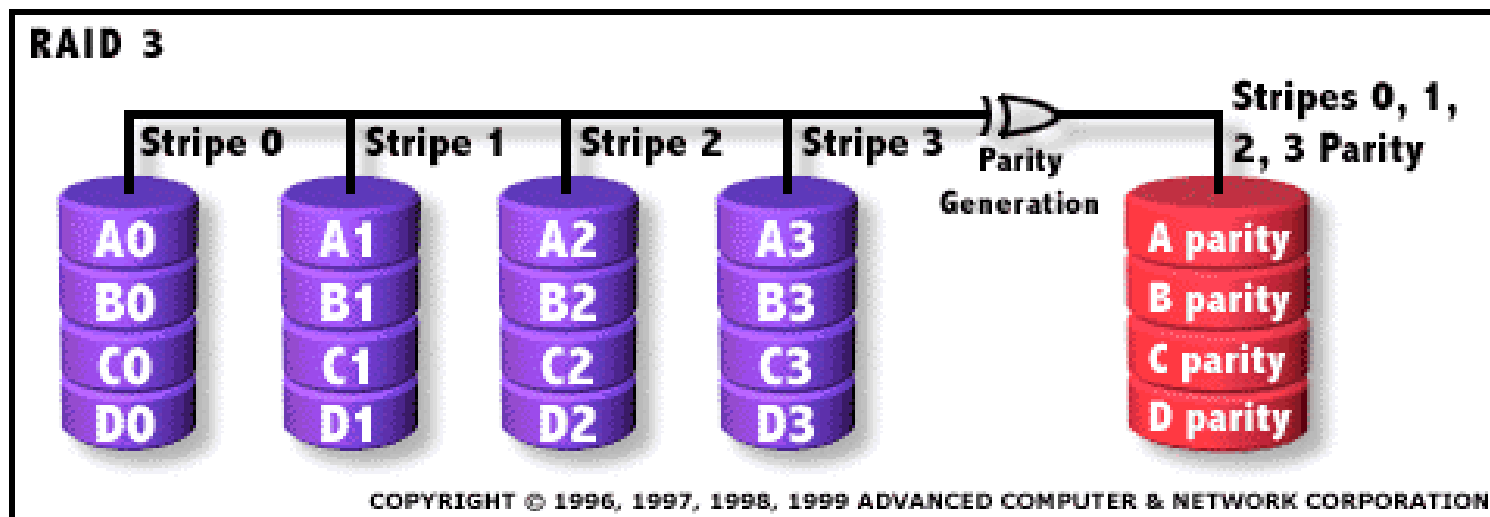
# Error Detecting and Correcting Code (RAID 2)

- $N + E$  disks (e.g.,  $10 + 4$ )
- Split data at bit level across  $N$  disks
- Generate  $E$ -bit ECC
- Too complex, not used in practice



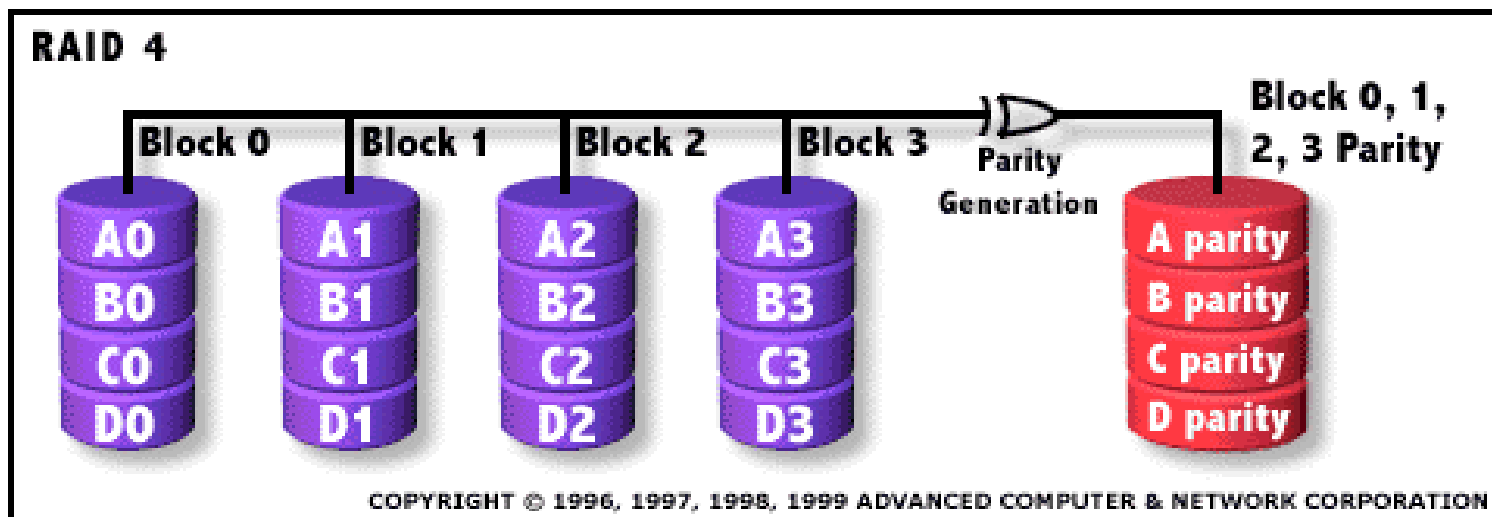
# Bit-Interleaved Parity (RAID 3)

- Byte-level striping with dedicated parity
- All disk spindle rotation is synchronized
- Data is striped such that each sequential byte is on a different disk.
- Popular in applications with large data sets, such as multimedia and some scientific codes



# Block-Interleaved Parity (RAID 4)

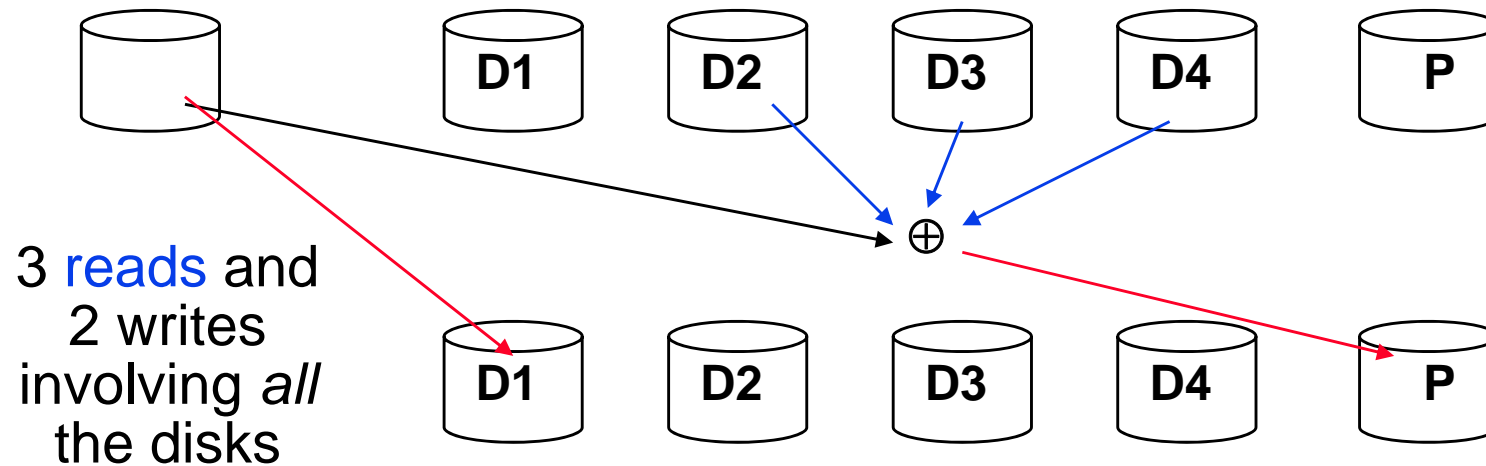
- Block-level striping with dedicated parity
- In RAID 3, every access goes to all disks.
- Each entire block is written onto a disk.
- Rely on error detection field to catch errors on read, not on the parity disk
- Allows small independent reads to different disks simultaneously



# Small Writes

## ■ RAID 3 writes

New D1 data



## ■ RAID 4 small writes

New D1 data

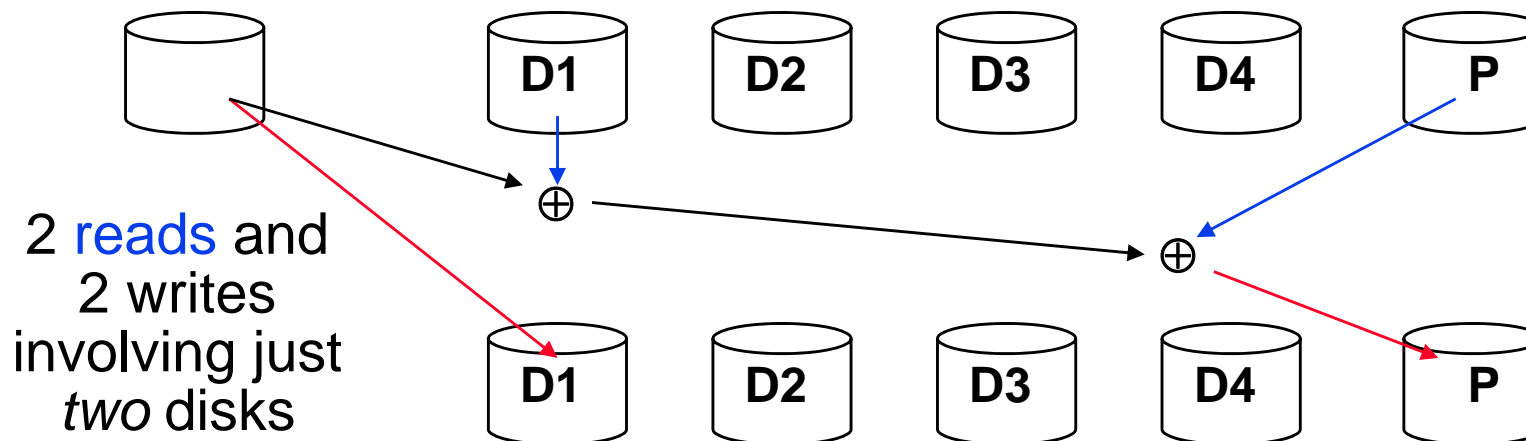


Figure 6.13



# Distributed Block-Interleaved Parity (RAID 5)

- Block-level striping with distributed parity
- Like RAID 4, but parity blocks distributed across disks
  - ❖ Avoids parity disk being a bottleneck
- Widely used

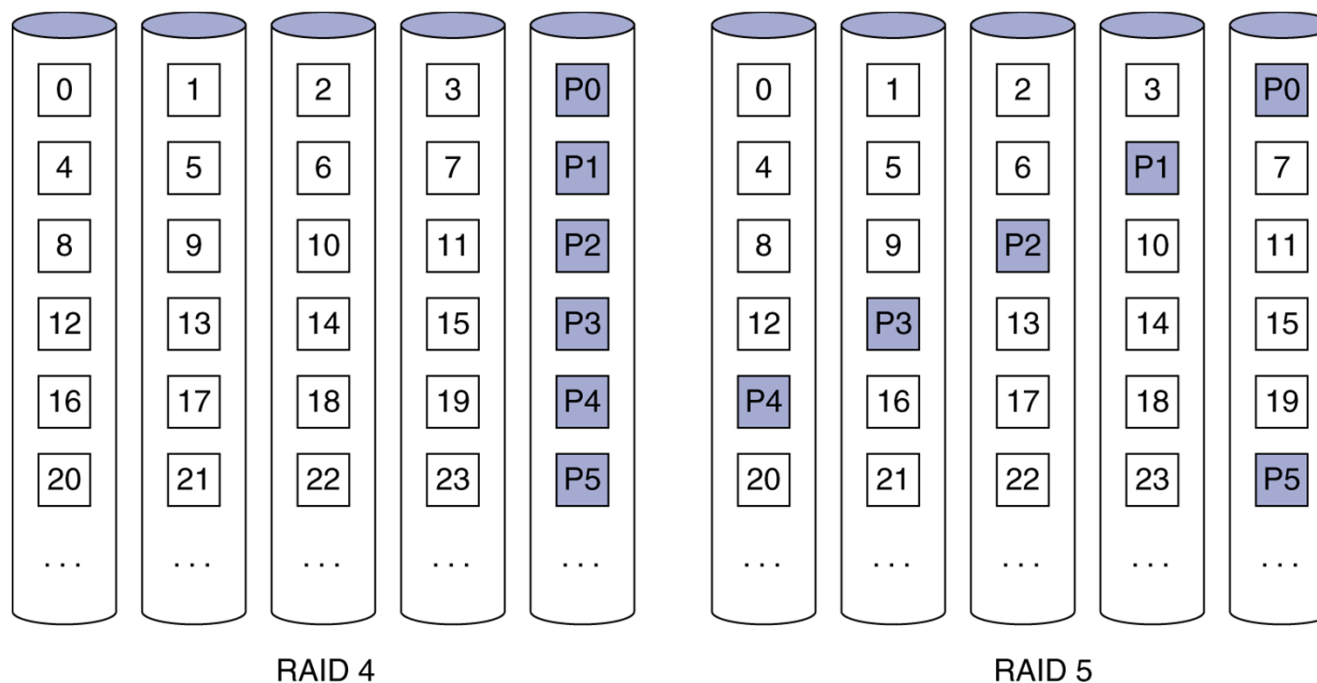
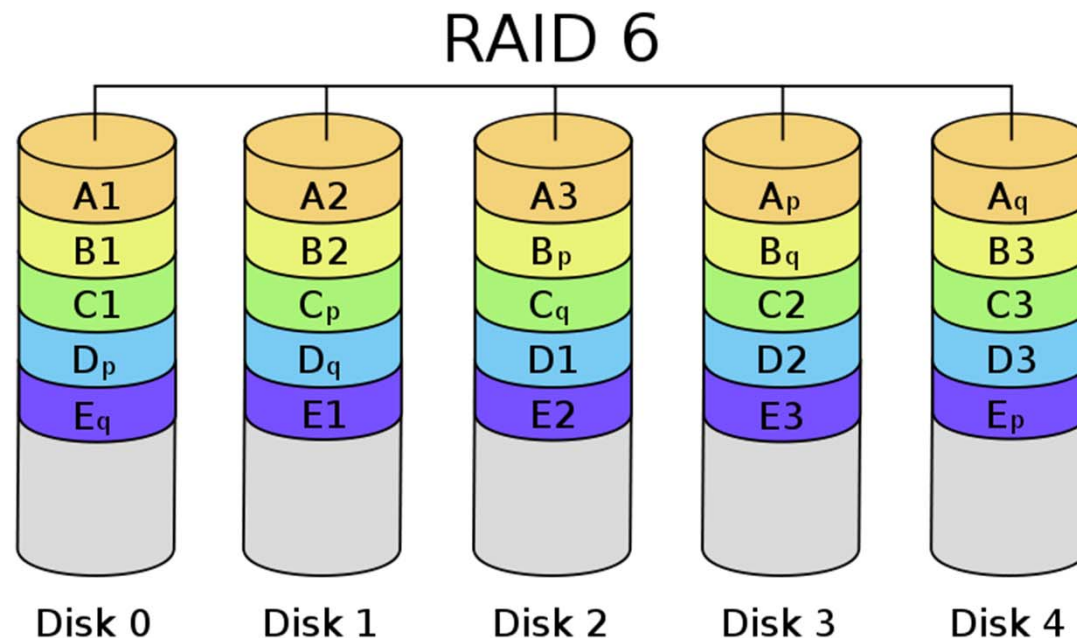


Figure 6.14

# P + Q Redundancy (RAID 6)

- Block-level striping with double distributed parity
- Two independent parities
- Recovery from a second failure
- Storage overhead is twice that of RAID 5
- Six disks accesses for small write



# RAID:

## Summary

- In case of 4 data disks

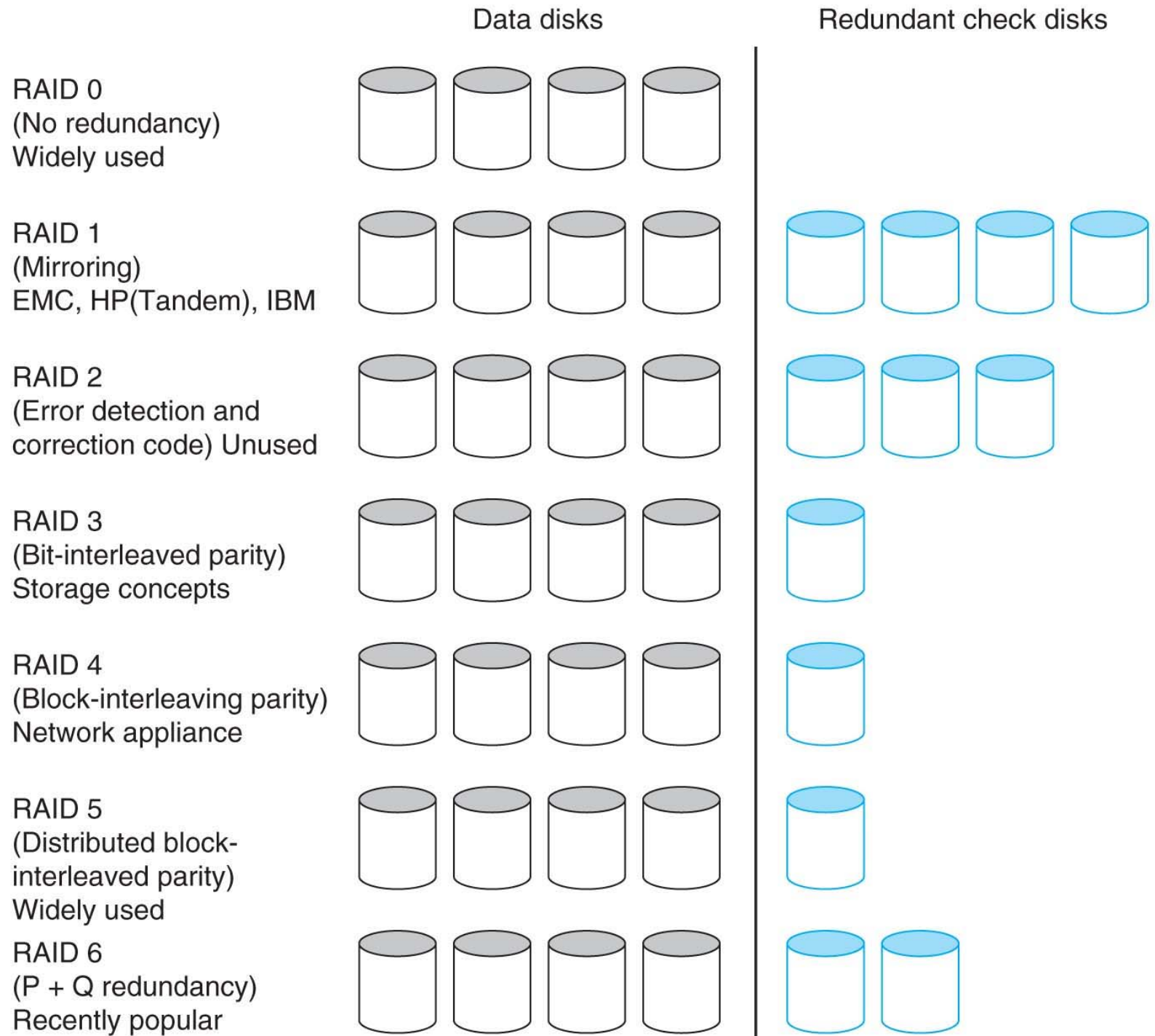


Figure 6.12

# Supplement

# DMA and the Memory System

- If DMA writes to a memory block that is cached
  - ❖ Cached copy becomes stale
- If write-back cache has dirty block, and DMA reads memory block
  - ❖ Reads stale data
- Solutions to ensure cache coherence
  1. Routing all I/O activity through the cache
    - ◆ Expensive and a large negative performance impact
  2. Cache flush
    - ◆ Having the OS invalidate all the entries in the cache for an I/O input or force write-backs for an I/O output
  3. Snooping cache controller
    - ◆ Providing hardware to *selectively* invalidate cache entries
  4. Non-cacheable memory locations for I/O

# 6.7 I/O Performance Measures: Examples from Disk and File Systems

## Transaction Processing I/O Benchmarks

- **Characteristics of TP applications**
  - ❖ Both a response time requirement and a performance measurement based on throughput
  - ❖ Chiefly concerned with I/O rate (disk accesses/sec) than data rate (bytes/sec)
- **Transaction Processing Council (TPC) benchmarks**
  - ❖ TPC-APP: B2B application server and web services
  - ❖ TCP-C: on-line order entry environment
  - ❖ TCP-E: on-line transaction processing for brokerage firm
  - ❖ TPC-H: decision support — business oriented ad-hoc queries
  - ❖ *<http://www.tpc.org>*

# File System and Web I/O Benchmarks

- **SPECSFS (SPEC System File System)**

- ❖ Synthetic workload for NFS server, based on monitoring real systems
- ❖ Throughput-oriented benchmark but with important response time requirements

- **SPECWeb**

- ❖ Simulating multiple clients requesting both static and dynamic pages from server, as well as clients posting data to the server

- **SPECPower**

- ❖ Power and performance characteristics of small servers

- **filebench**

- ❖ A file system benchmark framework from Sun
- ❖ Instead of a standard workload, it provides a language that lets you describe the workload you'd like to run on your file systems



## 6.8 Designing an I/O System

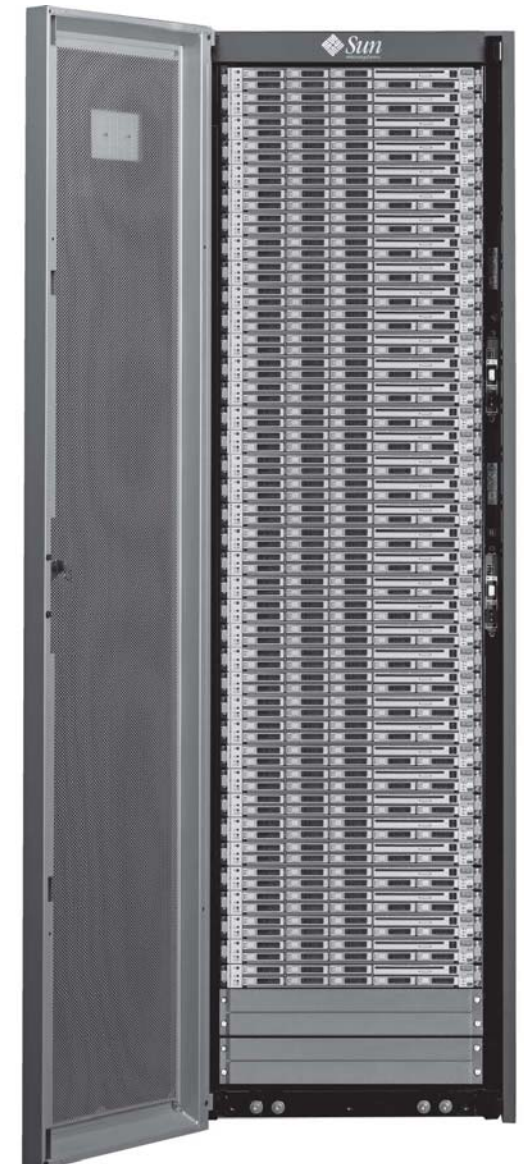
- **Two primary types of specifications**
  1. Latency constraints
  2. Bandwidth constraints
- **General approach**
  1. Find the weakest link in the I/O system.
  2. Configure it to sustain required bandwidth.
    - ◆ Workload and configuration limit may dictate the weakest link.
  3. Determine the requirements for the rest of the system and configure them to support this bandwidth.
- **Example in Section 6.10**
  - ❖ Analysis of the I/O system of the Sun Fire x4150 server

# 6.10 Real Stuff: Sun Fire x4150 Server

- **19-inch rack**
  - ❖ 19 inches wide(482.6 mm)
- **Rack mount = subrack = shelf**
  - ❖ Computers designed for the rack
- **Rack unit = unit (U)**
  - ❖ 1.75 inches (44.45 mm)
  - ❖ The most popular 19-inch rack is 42 U high
    - ◆  $42 \times 1.75 = 73.5$  inches high
- **1U computer = 1U server = pizza box**
  - ❖ The smallest rack mount computer
  - ❖ 19 inches wide and 1.75 inches tall

[Back to chapter overview](#)

Figure 6.15



# Sun Fire x4150 1U Server

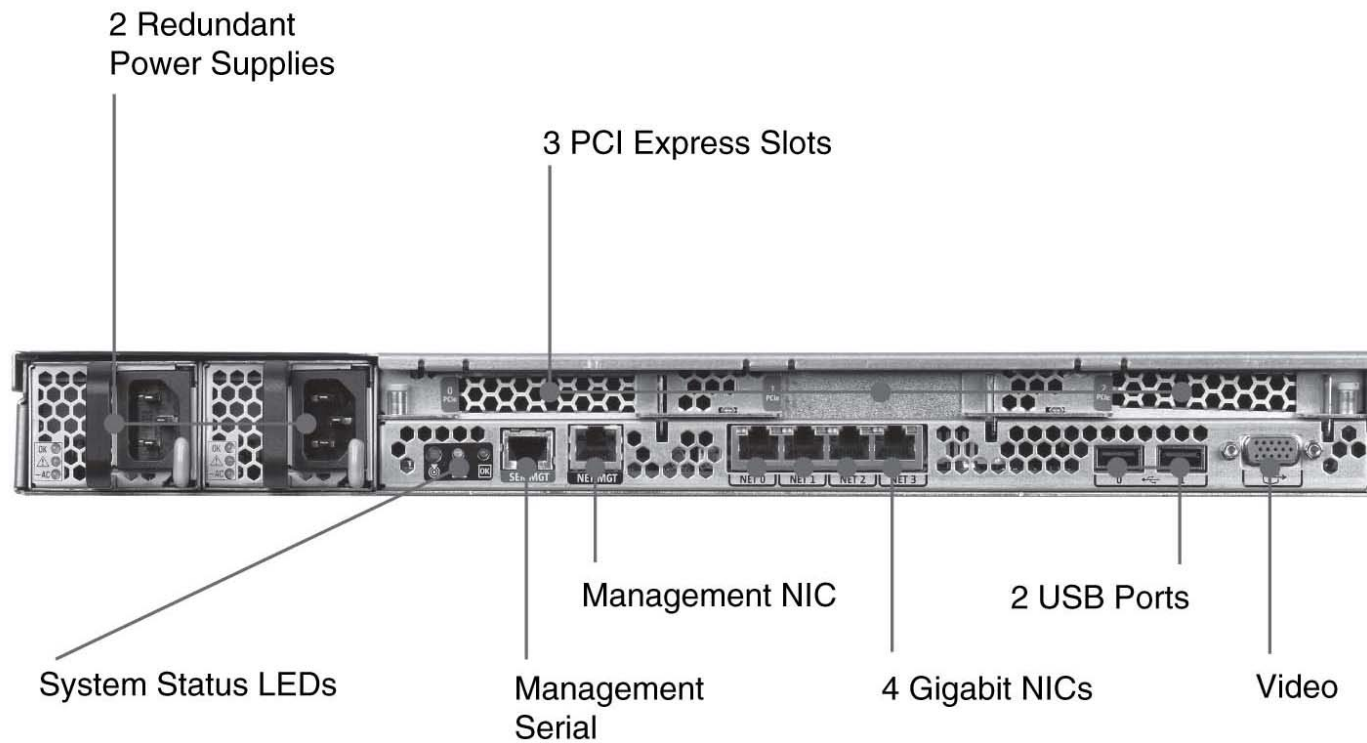


Figure 6.16

# Sun Fire x4150

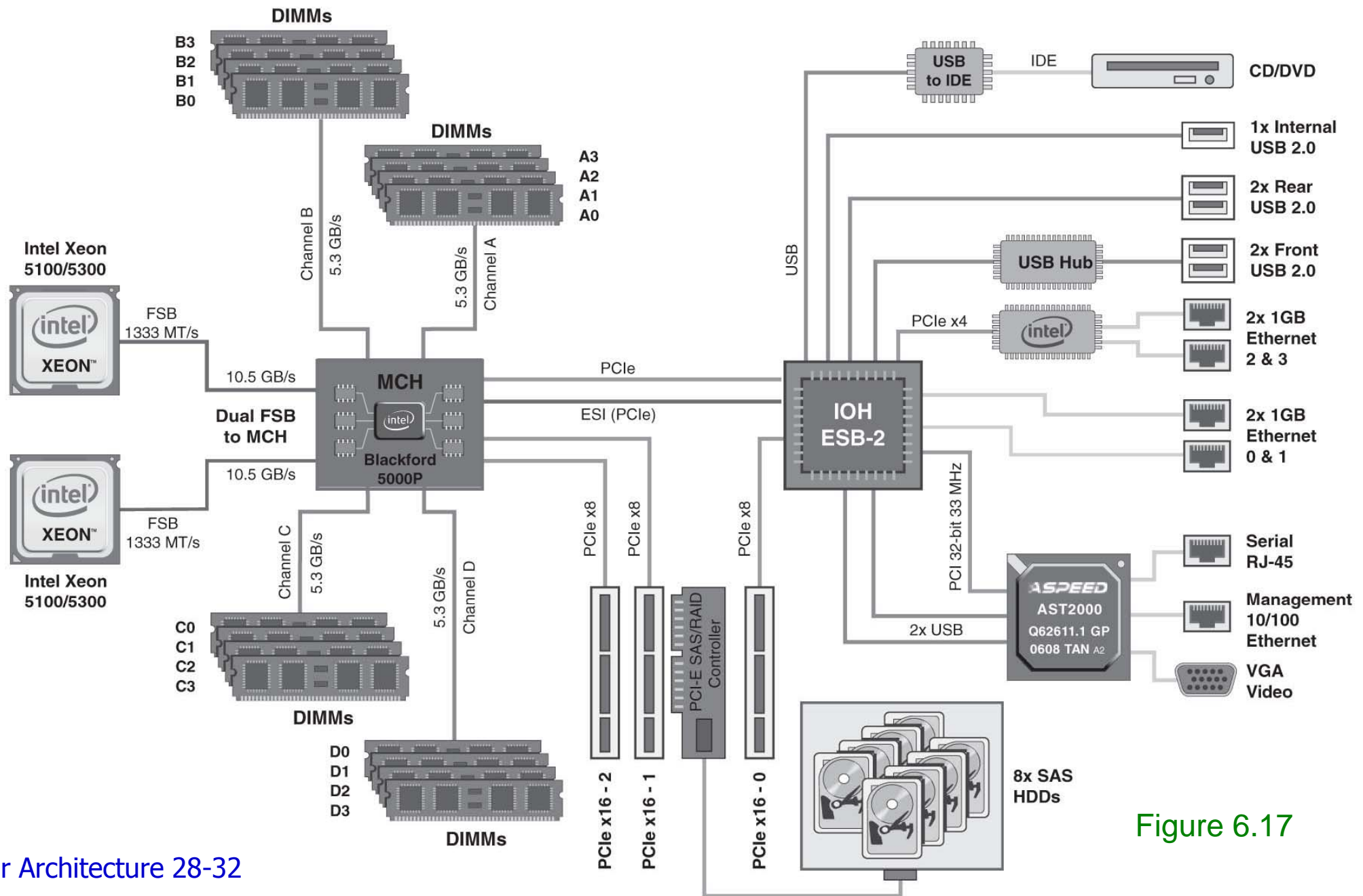


Figure 6.17

# Example: I/O System Design

- Workload of 64 KB reads
  - ❖ User program: 200,000 instructions per I/O
  - ❖ OS: 100,000 instructions per I/O operation
- Sun Fire x4150
  - ❖ Each processor: 1 billion instructions per second
  - ❖ FSB: 10.6 GB/sec peak
  - ❖ DRAM DDR2 667MHz: 5.336 GB/sec
  - ❖ PCI Express x8 ports:  $8 \times 250\text{MB/sec} = 2\text{GB/sec}$
  - ❖ 2.5" SAS disks: 15,000 rpm, 2.9ms avg. seek time, 112MB/s transfer rate
- Ignore disk conflicts
- RAID controller is not the bottleneck
- **Find maximum sustainable I/O rate for a fully loaded Sun Fire x4150 for random reads and sequential reads.**

# [Answer-1]

## ■ Maximum I/O rate of 1 processor =

$$\frac{\text{Instruction execution rate}}{\text{Instructions per I/O}} = \frac{1 \times 10^9}{(200 + 100) \times 10^3} = 3.333 \frac{\text{I/Os}}{\text{second}}$$

❖ I/O rate of 8 processors =  $3.333 \times 8 = 26,667$  IOPS

## ■ Random reads (as disk I/O rate)

❖ Time per I/O at disk = Seek + rotational time + Transfer time

$$= \frac{2.9}{4} \text{ms} + 2.0 \text{ms} + \frac{64 \text{KB}}{112 \text{MB/sec}} = 3.3 \text{ms}$$

❖ Each disk:  $1 \text{ s} / 3.3 \text{ ms IOPS} = 303$  IOPS

❖ 8 disks:  $303 \times 8 = 2,424$  random reads per second

## ■ Sequential reads (need transfer time only)

❖ Each disk:  $112 \text{MB/s} / 64 \text{KB} = 1750$  IOPS

❖ 8 disks:  $1750 \times 8 = 14,000$  sequential reads per second

# [Answer-2]

- **Max I/O rate of PCI Express x8 =**

$$\frac{\text{PCI bandwidth}}{\text{Bytes per I/O}} = \frac{2 \times 10^9}{64 \times 10^3} = 31,250 \text{ IOPS}$$

- **DRAM I/O rate =**

Bandwidth of a DIMM = 667 MHz x 2 x 4 bytes = 5,336 MB/sec

5,336 MB/sec / 64KB = 83,375 IOPS

16 DIMMs => 83,375 x 16 = 1,334,000 IOPS

- **FSB I/O rate**

- ❖ Assume we can sustain half the peak rate = 10.5 GB/s x 0.5 ≈ 5.3 GB/s

- ❖ 5.3 GB/s / 64KB = 81,540 IOPS per FSB

- ❖ 163,080 IOPS for 2 FSBs

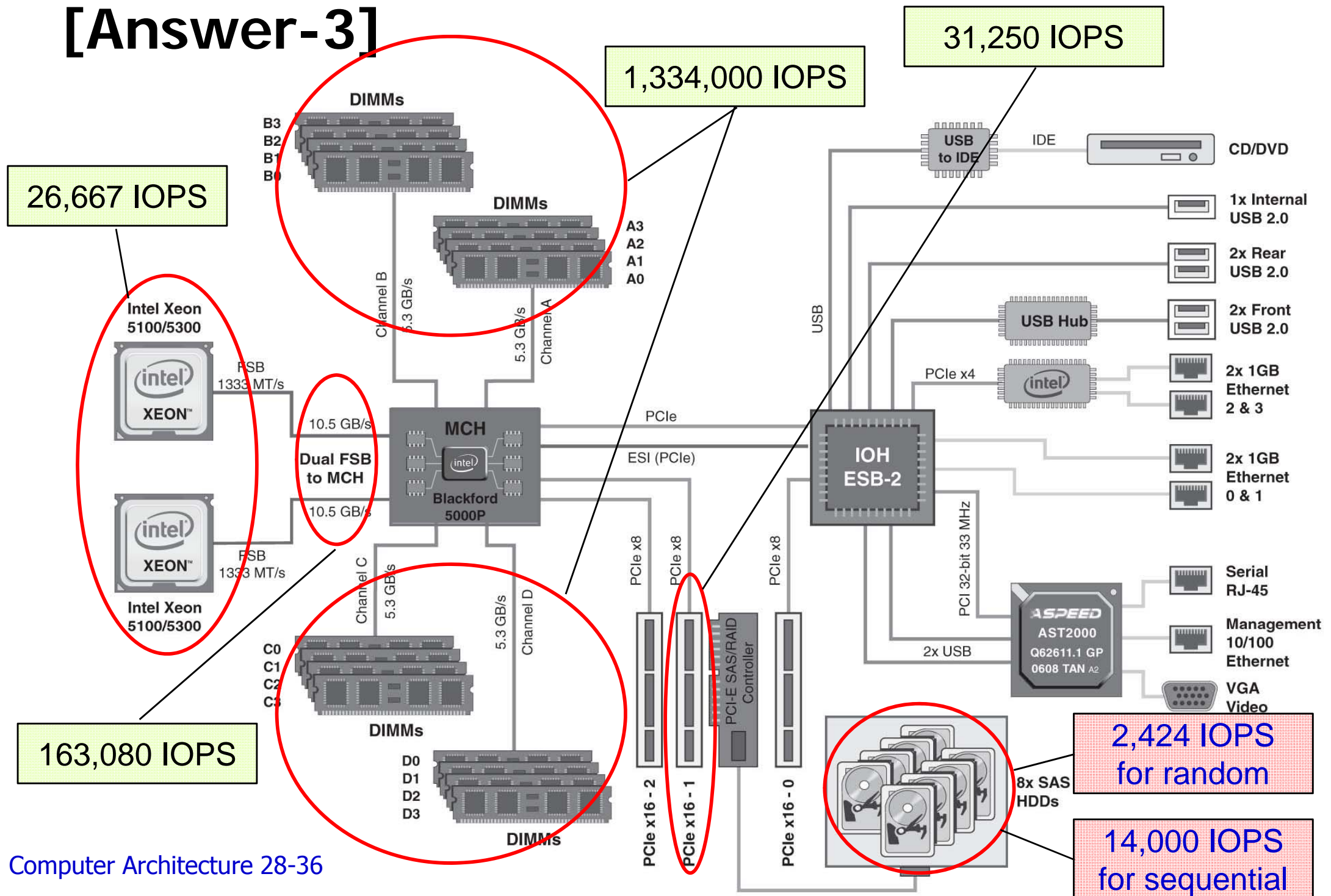
- **Weakest link => disks**

- ❖ 2,424 IOPS random

- ❖ 14,000 IOPS sequential



# [Answer-3]



# Idle and Peak Power of Sun Fire x4150

	Components			System			
Item	Idle	Peak	Number	Idle		Peak	
Single Intel 2.66 GHz E5345 socket, Intel 5000 MCB/IOH chip set, Ethernet controllers, power supplies, fans, . . .	154 W	215 W	1	154 W	37%	215 W	39%
Additional Intel 2.66 GHz E5345 socket	22 W	79 W	1	22 W	5%	79 W	14%
4 GB DDR2-667 5300 FBDIMM	10 W	11 W	16	160 W	39%	176 W	32%
73 GB SAS 15K Disk drives	8 W	8 W	8	64 W	15%	64 W	12%
PCIe x8 RAID Disk controller	15 W	15 W	1	15 W	4%	15 W	3%
Total	—	—	—	415 W	100%	549 W	100%

Figure 6.18

## 6.12 Fallacies and Pitfalls

**[Fallacy]** *The rated mean time to failure of disks is 1,200,000 hours or almost 140 years, so disks practically never fail.*

**[Fallacy]** *Disk failure rates in the field match their specifications.*

**[Fallacy]** *A GB/sec interconnect can transfer 1 GB of data in 1 second.*

**[Pitfall]** *Trying to provide features only within the network versus end to end.*

**[Pitfall]** *Moving functions from the CPU to the I/O processor, expecting to improve performance without a careful analysis.*

**[Pitfall]** *Using magnetic tapes to back up disks.*

**[Fallacy]** *Operating systems are the best place to schedule disk accesses.*

**[Pitfall]** *Using the peak transfer rate of a portion of the I/O system to make performance projections or performance comparisons.*

## 6.13 Concluding Remarks

- I/O systems are evaluated on several different characteristics.
  - ❖ Dependability
  - ❖ Variety of I/O devices supported
  - ❖ Maximum number of I/O devices
  - ❖ Cost
  - ❖ Performance
    - ◆ Measured both in latency and in throughput
- Storage and networking demands are growing at unprecedented rates [Lyman and Varian, 2003]
  - ❖ Amount of information created in 2002 was 5 exabytes ( $5 \times 10^{18}$  bytes)
    - ◆ Equivalent to 500,000 copies of the text in the U.S. Library of Congress
  - ❖ Total amount of information in the world was doubling every 3 years