

SSD cont & Block Storage

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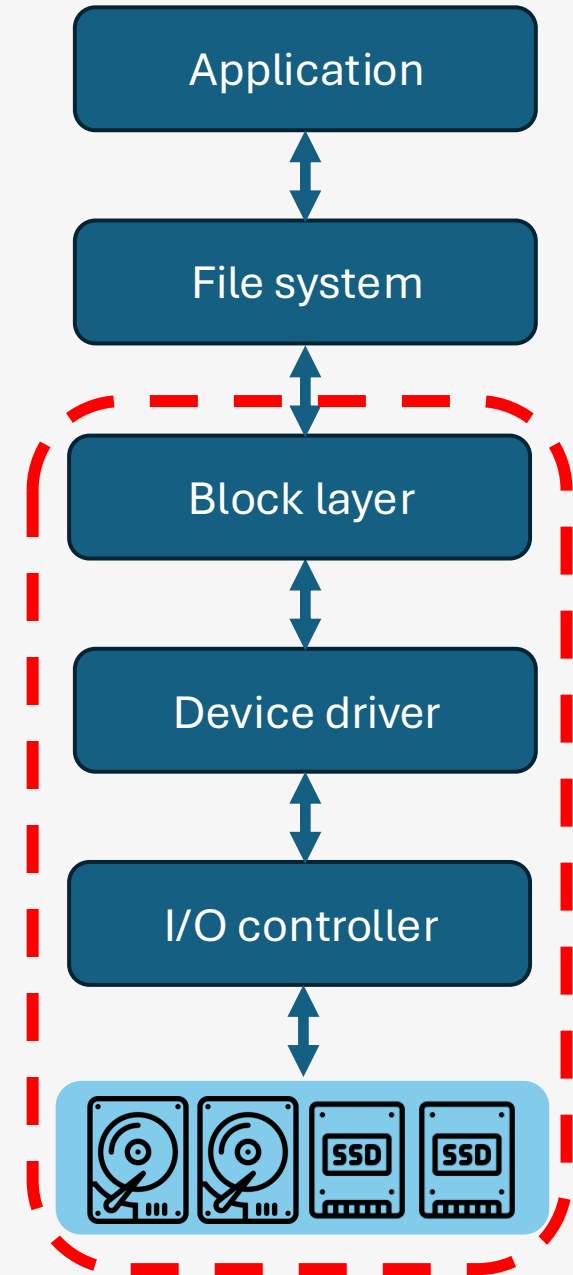


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Agenda

- Block layer
- Device driver and I/O controller
- Storage protocol: SATA and NVMe



Three key questions

- What is the role of block layer? What does the interface look like?
- If you are building a large-scale system and need to emulate failures, can you create a flaky disk for testing? How?
- Why do we need NVMe interface, how is it better than SATA?

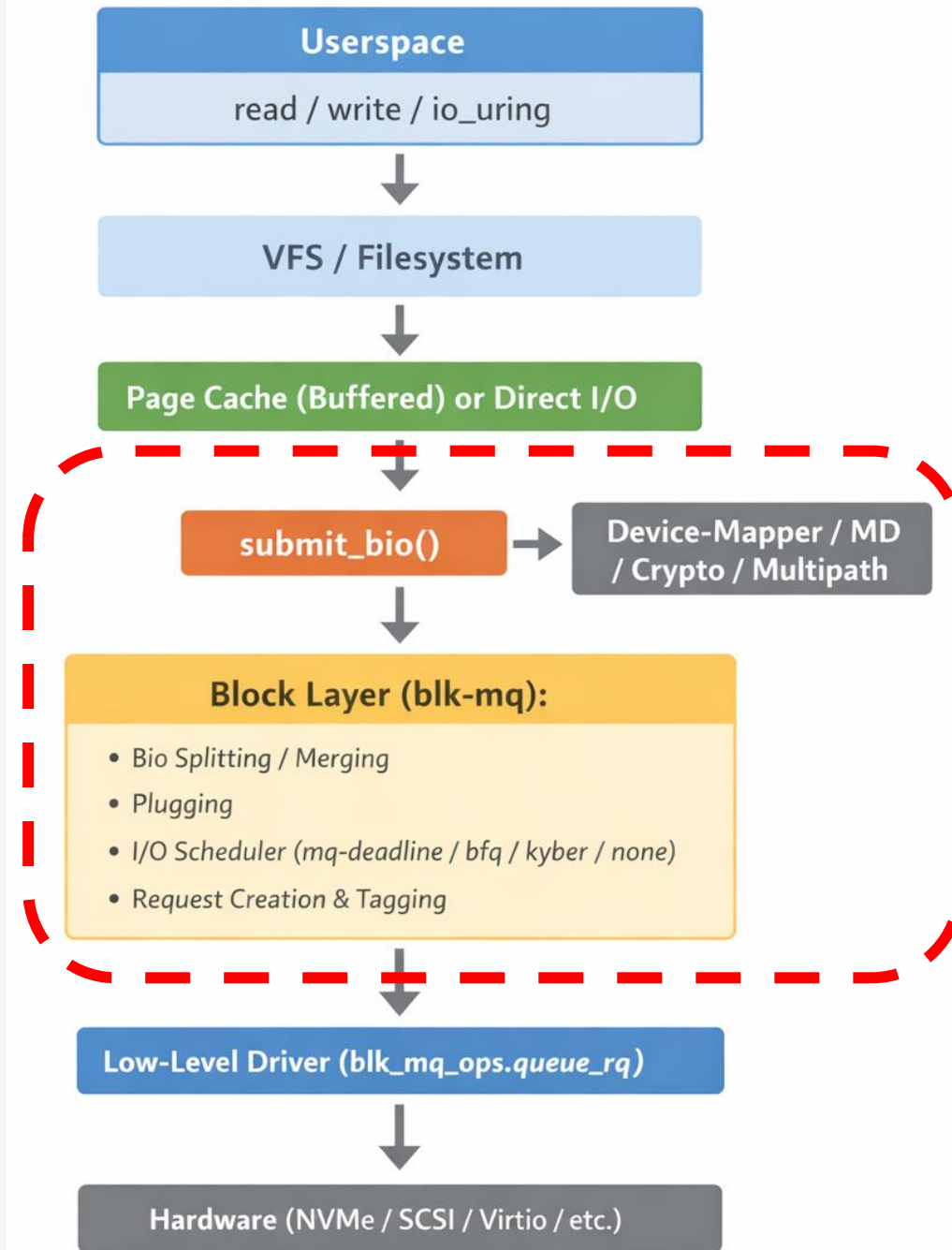
Block layer

Block layer: air traffic controller

- Sit between high-level file systems and low-level drivers / device
- Two roles
 - an abstraction and unified interface: logical block device
 - different hardware: HDD, SSD
 - composed and virtualized device: RAID, remote storage...
 - volume management, partitioning, slicing, mirroring, integrity checking
 - request management
 - I/O representation: setting up bio structure
 - I/O lifecycle management: request submission, dispatch, routing...
 - I/O transformation: translation, split, merge
 - I/O queueing and multiprocessor scaling
 - I/O scheduling: priority, fairness, performance
 - I/O accounting, control and observability

Block layer I/O flow

- File systems: submit a `bio` request
- Block layer
 - split
 - merge
 - batch
 - schedule (re-order)
 - generate request to driver (output)



User-space interface

- Block device is exposed as special files under **/dev**
 - e.g. `/dev/sda`, `/dev/nvme0n1`
- Operations (on `/dev/<blockdev>`)
 - `open()` / `close()`
 - `read()` / `write()` / `lseek()`
 - `ioctl()` for control, geometry, block size, flushing, discard, etc.
 - higher-level tooling uses sysfs and udev: `/sys/block/<dev>/`,
`/sys/class/block/<dev>/`
 - `/dev/` - Device Nodes (Data)
 - `/sys/` - Device Attributes (Metadata)

Comparing Block Layer API vs. POSIX APIs

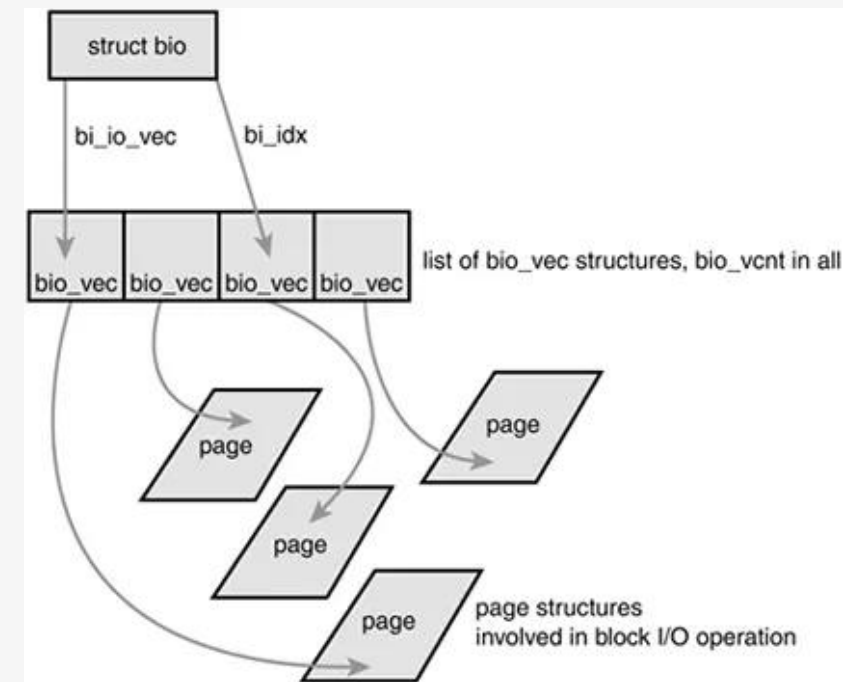
- POSIX APIs
 - user-space facing *file* and *process* interfaces
 - operate on paths, files, directories...
- Block layer operations
 - kernel/driver facing interfaces
 - operate on fixed-size blocks addressed by logical block address (LBA) on a block device
- Different responsibilities for user
 - block: manage layout, consistency, crash recovery
 - block is useful for application that
 - manages their own layout and caching, e.g., database
 - low-level function: imaging, recovery, partitioning

Comparing Block Layer API vs. POSIX APIs

- Key differences
 - Naming
 - POSIX: Locate data via path → inode → file offsets
 - block layer: Locate data via (device, LBA, length)
 - Semantics and guarantees
 - POSIX: more semantic information, block: primitives
 - Concurrency control
 - POSIX: file locking, block: more about request scheduling
 - Caching
 - Error model
 - POSIX: in terms of file, e.g., permission, quota
 - block layer: about device

Kernel interface: struct bio

- Interface provided by block layer to file system
- A request to read/write specific memory pages to specific addresses on a block device



```
struct bio {  
    struct bio      *bi_next;      // List of requests  
    struct block_device *bi_bdev;  // Target device  
    unsigned short  bi_flags;      // Read/Write, Sync/Async  
    struct bvec_iter bi_iter;      // Iterator for current position  
    struct bio_vec   *bi_io_vec;   // The array of memory pages  
    // ...  
};
```

Kernel interface: operations

- Primary Data Transfer Operations
 - `REQ_OP_READ`, `REQ_OP_WRITE`, `REQ_OP_FLUSH`
- Storage Space Management (Discard/Trim)
 - `REQ_OP_DISCARD`, `REQ_OP_SECURE_ERASE`
- Optimized Write Patterns
 - `REQ_OP_WRITE_ZEROES`, `REQ_OP_WRITE_SAME`
- Zoned Storage Operations (SMR HDDs & ZNS SSDs)

Kernel interface: `struct request`

- Dispatch unit to hardware
- A wrapper that groups one or more `bio` structures together
 - merge and batch to reduce overhead
- **`struct bio`**
 - represents a "Block I/O" unit, points to memory pages and a destination on disk
 - belongs to the **Submitter** (filesystem)
- **`struct request`**
 - represents a "Device I/O" unit
 - managed by the **I/O Scheduler** and the **Block Driver**

Kernel interface: from `bio` to `request`

- Entry: VFS calls `submit_bio()`
- Checks limits: device read-only? partition valid?
- Split: If too large for the hardware, split into smaller bios
- Plug/Merge: add to current request's list, try to merge with previous bio

`bio`

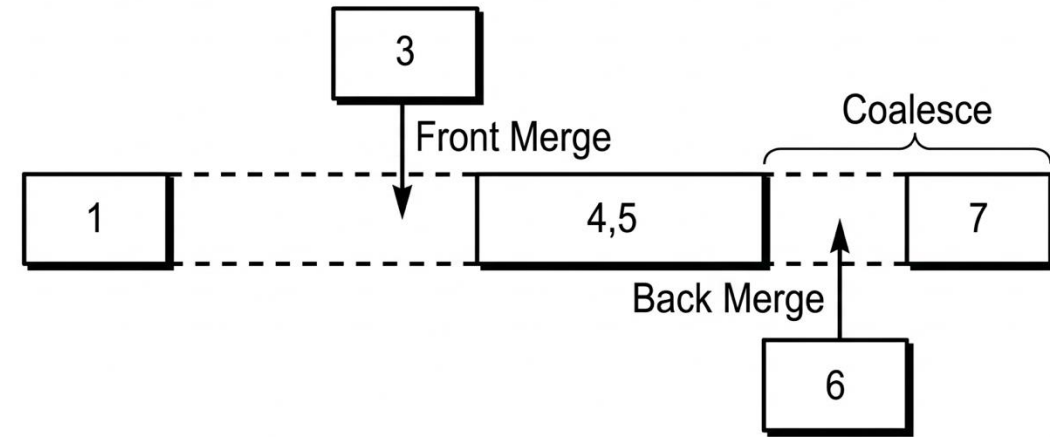
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- Scheduler: scheduler sorts/prioritizes request
 - Dispatch: send to device driver

`request`

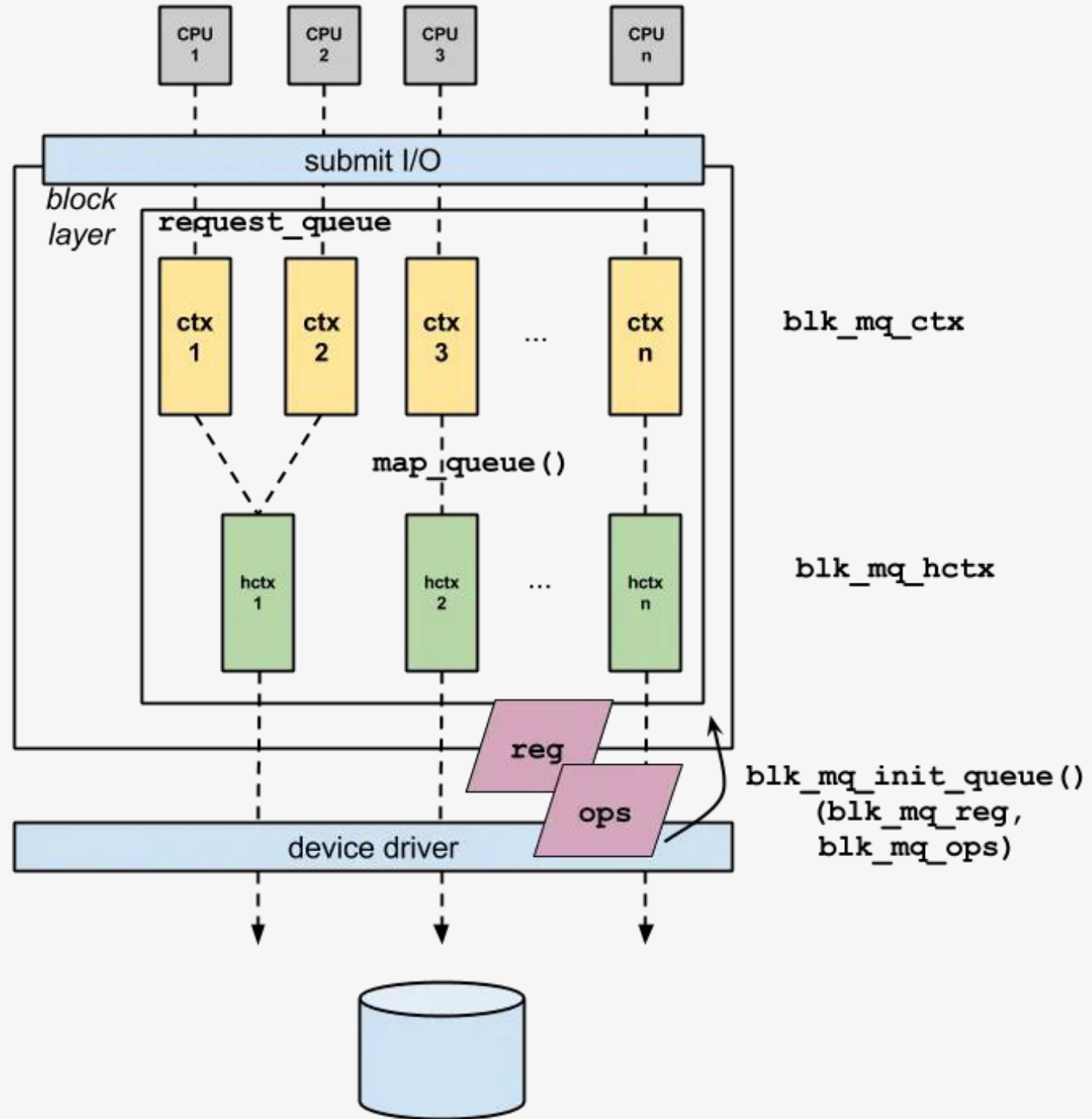
Block layer I/O queueing (Linux)

- The Old World: Single Queue
 - before v3.13 (~2014)
 - designed for HDDs (100 IOPS)
 - lock contention for modern NVMe drives (million IOPS)

Block layer I/O queueing



- The New World: Multi-Queue (`blk-mq`)
 - two levels: software queue and hardware queue
 - software queue (`struct blk_mq_ctx`)
 - per-CPU and no locking, bio is sent to local queue
 - I/O plugging (merging)
 - hardware queue (`struct blk_mq_hctx`)
 - per device and device specific (NVMe drive: 8-256)
 - one or more software queues map to one hardware queue
 - no I/O merge in hardware queue



Block layer I/O scheduling

- Goal: re-order `request` for better performance
- Past: schedulers acted like an elevator
 - request data sector 10 and then sector 10,000, scheduler would pick up sector 500 or 1,000 on the way if they come in later
- How about today? Guess?
- Today: *block layer I/O scheduling is less important*
 - SSDs have no moving parts and
 - SSDs have massive parallelism (merge is not necessary)
 - FTL also performs scheduling: waste work
 - overhead: SSD data access $< 10\ \mu\text{s}$ while scheduling could add a few μs

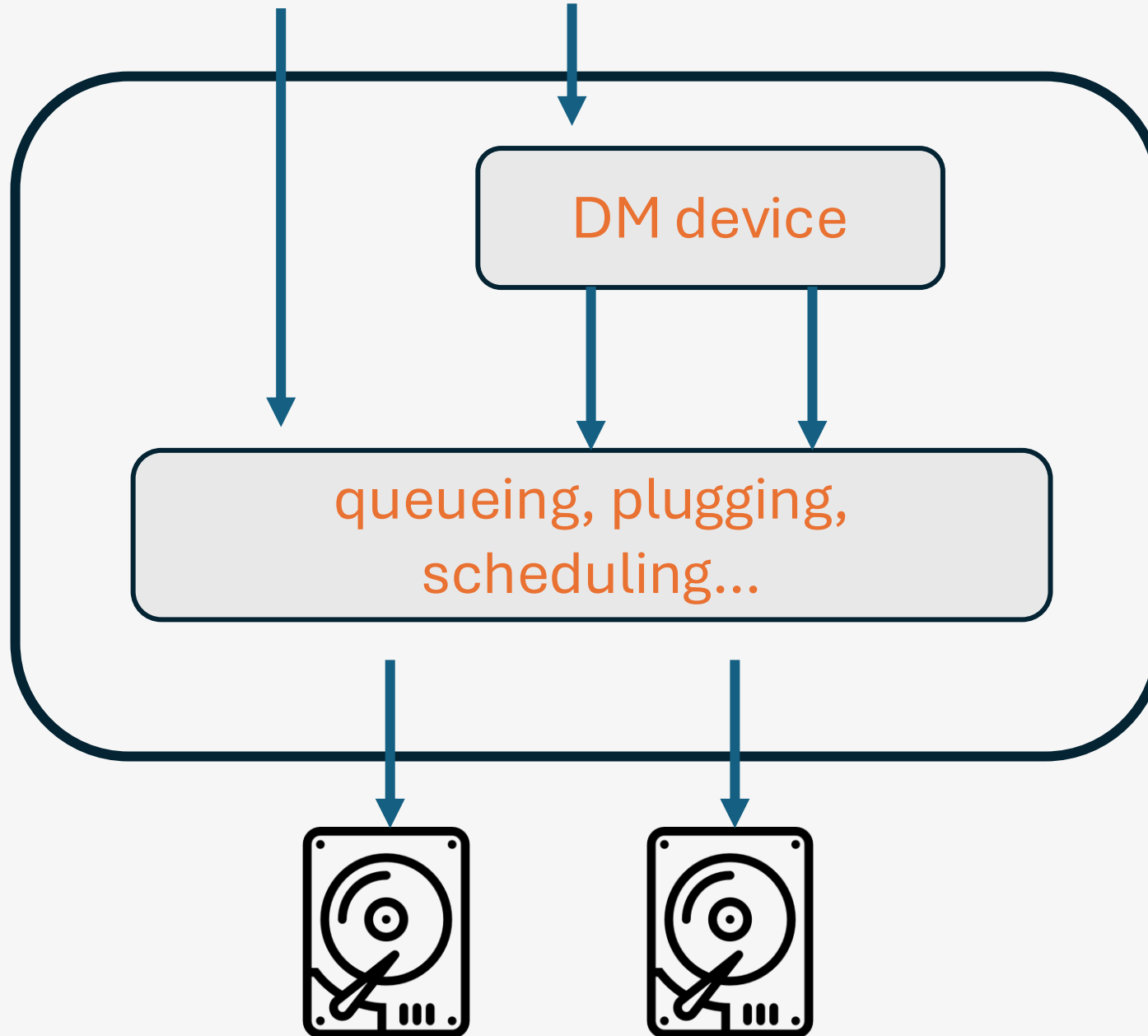
Block layer I/O scheduling

- Do we still need a scheduler today?
 - most of the systems use **None**
 - sometimes yes: fairness and tail latency
- Common schedulers
 - **mq-deadline**: prioritize read requests (interactive)
 - **Budget Fair Queueing (BFQ)**: complex and slow, assign weight to process
 - **Kyber** (from Meta): built for flash, limits incoming request when latency is high
 - **None**: bypass scheduler

Request transformation and remapping

- Perhaps the most powerful part of the block layer
- Enable virtual block device
- Allow one block device to be "built" on top of another
- Device-mapper (DM)
 - Linux kernel framework for building **virtual block devices** on top of other block devices by applying a **mapping table**
 - used to build LVM, dm-crypt, dm-multipath, and other
- Others
 - remap a partition's LBA to disk LBA
 - bad block management (deprecated)

`submit_bio()`



Device mapper (DM)

- A DM device is a normal block device
 - e.g. /dev/dm-0, and usually a symlink to /dev/mapper/<name>
- Internally it has
 - **mapped_device**: the kernel object representing the /dev/dm-X
 - **dm_table**: the active mapping table
 - **targets**: transformation or routing policy, e.g., linear, crypt, thin, cache
- The mapping table model
 - basically a list of rules of the form: “For logical sector range [start, start+len), use target T with parameters P.”

How I/O flows through DM

- A **bio** submitted to dm device
 - DM looks up which table entry covers the bio's logical sector range
 - DM calls the target's map function, which typically does one of:
 - **remap** sectors onto an underlying device (linear/striped)
 - **clone/split** bios
 - **transform** data
- underlying device(s) complete the bio(s)
- DM aggregates completion and completes the original bio

The power of DM

- Composability (“stacking”)
 - targets can be layered: LVM LV (dm-linear) → dm-crypt → NVMe
- Atomic table switching
 - support resize/snapshot/repair mappings online
- A stable user-space control plane
 - user-space talks to DM via `ioctl`s with `dmsetup` as the low-level admin tool

Common device mapper targets

- **linear / stripe / raid:** map to one or many devices
- **crypt (dm-crypt):** transparent block encryption
- **thin:** thin provisioning + snapshots
- **cache**
- **multipath:** path failover/aggregation
- **verity:** verified read-only block images

Case study: logical volume management (LVM)

- Physical Volume (PV)
 - a disk/partition initialized for LVM
 - LVM writes a label + metadata onto it so it can be tracked and grouped
- Volume Group (VG)
 - a VG is a **pool of storage** created from one or more PVs
- Logical Volume (LV)
 - an LV is what you use: a **virtual block device** allocated from a VG
 - you put filesystems on it, use it as swap, give it to databases, etc.

Case study: logical volume management (LVM)

- Online growth
 - extend VGs by adding PVs, then extend LVs without rebuilding the whole layout
- Snapshots
 - **classic snapshots** (copy-on-write)
 - **thin snapshots** when using thin provisioning
- Thin provisioning (thin pools)
 - thin LVs allocate physical blocks **on demand** from a thin pool
- Caching (dm-cache)
 - LVM can build cache LVs: caches hot blocks on a faster device

Case study: logical volume management (LVM)

- DM is the kernel mapping engine
 - map a virtual block device (LV) to one or more underlying block devices based on a table
- **LVM**: user-space manager + metadata + policy
- **DM**: kernel data path that routes/transforms bio

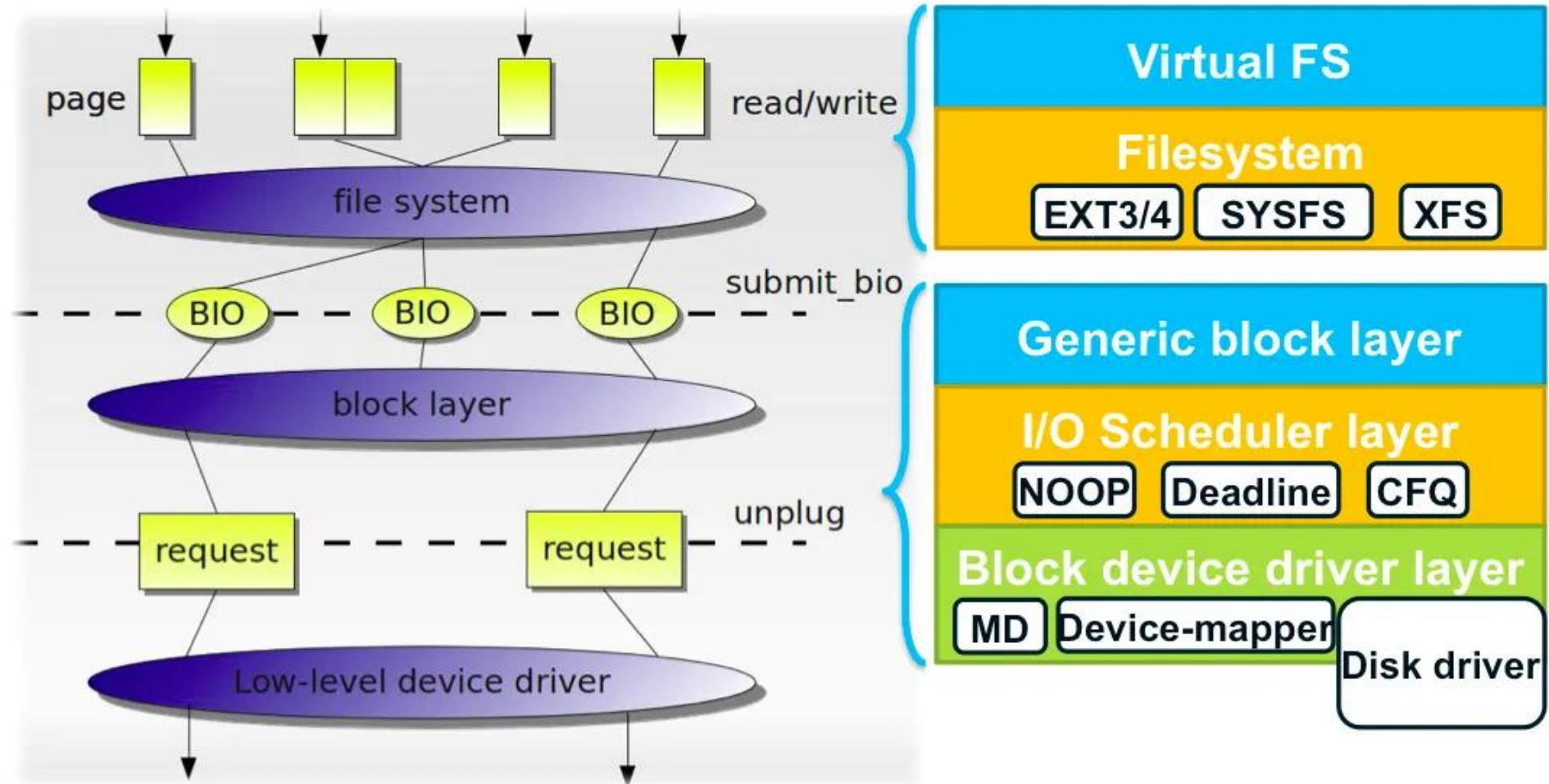
Case study: Loop

- Loop: file-backed block device
 - takes a regular file sitting on an existing filesystem and presents it to the kernel as a block device (`/dev/loop0`)
- How it works
 - when a bio is submitted, the loop driver translates that block request into a standard file `read()` or `write()` operation on the underlying file

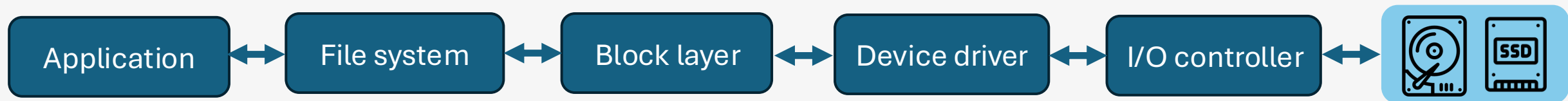
Case study: RAM-based devices

- RAM disk: fast but no persistence
- **brd**
 - carve out a fixed chunk of memory and map as a block device
- **zram**
 - compressed RAM disk
 - often used as a swap device

Block layer summary



Device Driver and I/O Controller



Drive driver

- A piece of **kernel code** that knows the "secret language" of a specific I/O controller
- Role:
 - **binds** to a discovered hardware device
 - **exposes** a block device to the block layer
 - **translates** block-layer requests into hardware commands, then completes them back to the block layer

I/O controller

- **Hardware** that sits between the CPU and the storage medium and implements the command protocol + data movement
- Example
 - NVMe controller: on device
 - SATA/AHCI controller: on motherboard and on device
- Key functions
 - Protocol handling
 - Data transfer
 - Command queuing and execution
 - Error handling
 - Optional buffering

Storage protocol and interface

SATA/AHCI interface

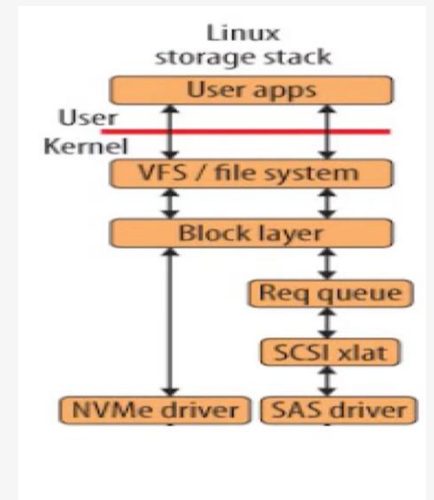
- Used by HDDs and some SSDs
- AHCI (Advanced Host Controller Interface) protocol
- Native Command Queuing (NCQ)
 - 32 outstanding commands (allow some limited re-ordering)
 - not enough parallelism to feed data to SSD
- Linux uses a translation layers in device driver layer to make SATA drives pretend to be SCSI drives
 - historical reason: when moving from IDE subsystem to SATA, many features have been implemented for SCSI

SAS (Serial Attached SCSI) protocol

- Used by enterprise HDDs
- Performance
 - SATA: half-duplex, can send OR receive data
 - SAS: full duplex, read and write simultaneously
- Reliability
 - two physical ports for redundancy
- Daisy chain
 - connect hundreds drives in a chain for easy extension

NVMe protocol

- NVMe: non-volatile memory express
- Designed for low-latency and high parallelism over PCIe
 - direct PCIe connection
 - no SATA/SAS controller overhead
 - bypass unnecessary layers
- 64K queues with 64K commands each
 - submission queue (SQ) and completion (CQ)
 - facilitates parallelism
 - placed in host memory
 - can be mapped to core for lock-avoidance and NUMA affinity



NVMe protocol: the setup

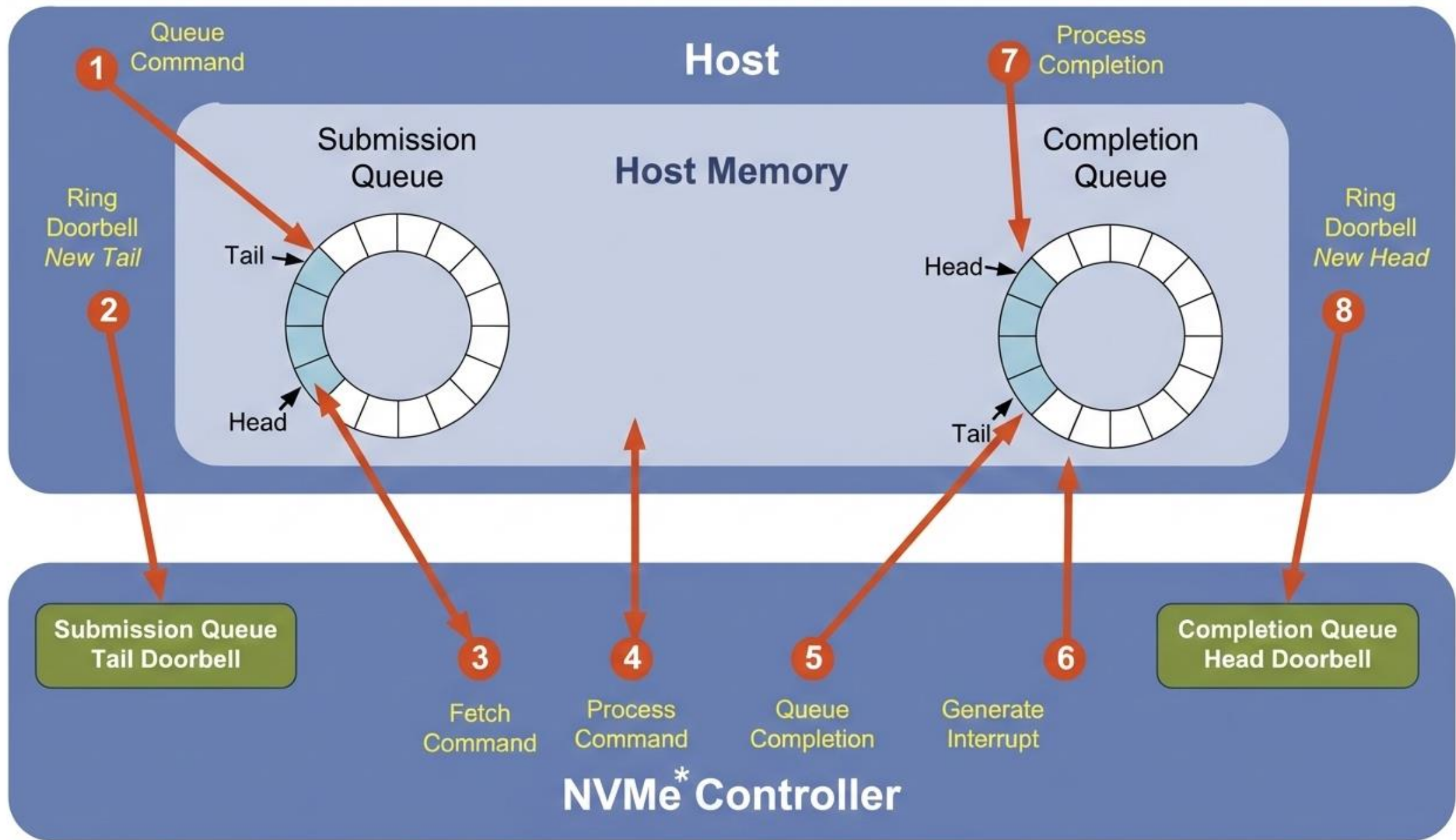
- **The Queue Pair (SQ & CQ):** NVMe communicates using pairs of queues located in **Host RAM**
- **Submission Queue (SQ):** A circular buffer where the Host places commands
- **Completion Queue (CQ):** A circular buffer where the Device places results
- **The Doorbell Registers:** The SSD exposes a small region of high-speed memory (BAR0) mapped into the CPU's address space. This contains the "Doorbell" registers

NVMe protocol: I/O flow

- Host writes to memory (RAM)
 - OS builds a NVMe Command and places it into the next free slot in the Submission Queue (SQ) in DRAM
- Host rings the Doorbell (MMIO)
 - OS writes the new index value to the SSD's SQ Tail Doorbell register to wake up SSD
 - mechanism: PCIe Memory Write (fast because the CPU doesn't wait for response)
- Controller fetches the command (DMA)
 - SSD Controller sees the doorbell register change
 - issues a PCIe Read Request (DMA) to fetch command
 - has the instruction and executes the data transfer (read flash and DMA data to the host buffer)

NVMe protocol: I/O flow

- Once the SSD finishes the read and puts the data in your buffer
- Device writes status to memory (RAM)
 - SSD creates a Completion Entry and DMA to the next free slot of the Completion Queue (CQ) in Host DRAM
- Device interrupts the Host (MSI-X)
- Host processes the completion
- Host rings the CQ Doorbell
 - The OS writes to the SSD's CQ Head Doorbell register indicating it has processed data



NVMe protocol: why faster than SATA?

- Lockless Parallelism
 - each CPU core can have its own private SQ/CQ pair
- Efficient MMIO
 - host only writes to the Doorbell (no wait for response)
 - never reads from the device registers in the critical path (hundreds of cycles)
- Variable Queue Depth
 - NVMe queues can hold up to 64,000 commands (SATA was limited to 32)

NVMe protocol: advanced capabilities

- Namespace management
 - *logical* partitioning of storage
 - noisy neighbors
- Virtualization support
 - efficiently share drive across VMs with direct hardware access, e.g., Single Root input/output virtualization (SR-IOV)
- Sanitize command: secure erasing

NVMe protocol: advanced capabilities

- Power management: up to 32 states (PS0-PS4+)
 - fine-grained control over power consumption vs performance tradeoff
 - PS0: operational, PS4+: deep sleep
 - PS1, PS2: intermediate (throttle performance)
 - PS3: sleep/suspend: stop handling I/O commands, but keep memory refreshed
- Atomic write unit (AWUN)
 - guarantee write size \leq AWUN to complete atomically, avoid “torn writes” due to power failure
 - *could* be useful for file systems and databases
- End-to-end data protection
- Reservation and locking: support multi-host use case

NVMe: an evolving standard

Version	Year	Important features
1.0	2011	Initial specification, defining the basic high-performance interface, queuing mechanisms, and end-to-end data protection
1.1	2012	Essential for early enterprise use cases, features include multipath I/O , namespace sharing for multi-host access to a single namespace
1.2	2014	NVMe Reservations for shared namespaces, Host Memory Buffer (HMB) for DRAM-less SSDs, and atomic write unit
1.3	2017	Sanitize command , Streams to hints for efficient data placement, and Telemetry logs
1.4	2019	Asymmetric Namespace Access (ANA) for optimized multipathing, Persistent Event Log , and Rebuild Assist
2.0	2021	A major architectural update that modularized the specification. New command sets: Zoned Namespaces (ZNS) , Key Value (KV) , and support for HDDs over NVMe interface.
2.1	2024	Key Per I/O encryption , Flexible Data Placement (FDP) for host-directed data placement, NVMe Network Boot

Open Compute Project (OCP) standard a superset for data center use case

Summary

- Block layer
 - user-space device interface
 - kernel interface
 - IO queueing
 - IO scheduling
 - IO transformation: device mapper
- Storage protocols
 - NVMe I/O request flow

Next time

- File systems
- By end of next week
 - sign up for one paper, TA will send out the signup sheet
 - you can choose the paper you are interested in if you sign up early

