# CS162 Operating Systems and Systems Programming Lecture 19

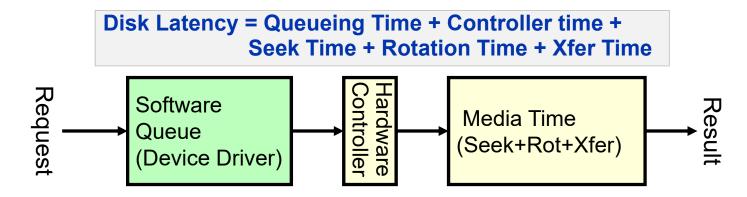
Filesystems 1: Performance (Con't), Queueing Theory, Filesystem Design

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#### Recall: Magnetic Disks

- Cylinders: all the tracks under the head at a given point on all surfaces
- Read/write data is a three-stage process:
  - Seek time: position the head/arm over the proper track
  - Rotational latency: wait for desired sector to rotate under r/w head
  - Transfer time: transfer a block of bits (sector) under r/w head



Track

Head

Sector

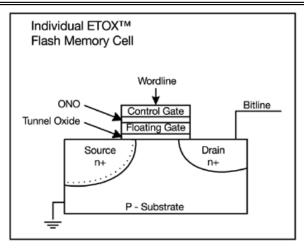
-Cylinder

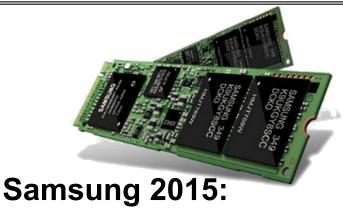
Platter

# Recall: Typical Numbers for Magnetic Disk

Parameter	Info/Range
Space/Density	Space: 18TB (Seagate), 9 platters, in 3½ inch form factor!  Areal Density: ≥ 1 Terabit/square inch! (PMR, Helium,)
Average Seek Time	Typically 4-6 milliseconds
Average Rotational Latency	Most laptop/desktop disks rotate at 3600-7200 RPM (16-8 ms/rotation). Server disks up to 15,000 RPM. Average latency is halfway around disk so 4-8 milliseconds
Controller Time	Depends on controller hardware
Transfer Time	<ul> <li>Typically 50 to 250 MB/s. Depends on:</li> <li>Transfer size (usually a sector): 512B – 1KB per sector</li> <li>Rotation speed: 3600 RPM to 15000 RPM</li> <li>Recording density: bits per inch on a track</li> <li>Diameter: ranges from 1 in to 5.25 in</li> </ul>
Cost	Used to drop by a factor of two every 1.5 years (or faster), now slowing down

#### Recall: FLASH Memory





512GB, NAND Flash

- Like a normal transistor but:
  - Has a floating gate that can hold charge
  - To write: raise or lower wordline high enough to cause charges to tunnel
  - To read: turn on wordline as if normal transistor
    - » presence of charge changes threshold and thus measured current
- Two varieties:
  - NAND: denser, must be read and written in blocks
  - NOR: much less dense, fast to read and write
- V-NAND: 3D stacking (Samsung claims 1TB possible in 1 chip)

## Recall: SSD Summary

- Pros (vs. hard disk drives):
  - Low latency, high throughput (eliminate seek/rotational delay)
  - No moving parts:
    - » Very light weight, low power, silent, very shock insensitive
  - Read at memory speeds (limited by controller and I/O bus)
- Cons
  - Small storage (0.1-0.5x disk), expensive (3-20x disk)
    - » Hybrid alternative: combine small SSD with large HDD

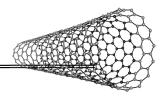
# Recall: SSD Summary

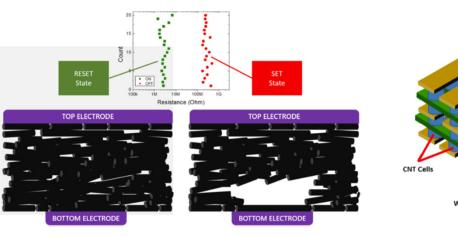
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  - Read at memory speeds (limited by controller and I/O bus
- Cons
  - Small storage (0.1-0.5x disk), expensive to zer alon, true!
    - » Hybrid alternative: combine small SSD with large HDD
  - Asymmetric block write performance: read pg/erase/write pg
    - » Controller garbage collection (GC) algorithms have major effect on performance

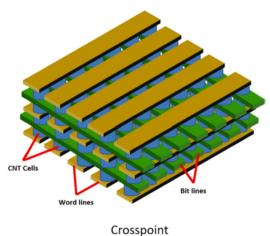
No

- I imited drive lifetime
  - » 1-10K writes/page for MLC NAND
  - » Avg failure rate is 6 years, life expectancy is 9–11 years
- These are changing rapidly!

# Nano-Tube Memory (NANTERO)







- Yet another possibility: Nanotube memory
  - NanoTubes between two electrodes, slight conductivity difference between ones and zeros
  - No wearout!
- Better than DRAM?
  - Speed of DRAM, no wearout, non-volatile!
  - Nantero promises 512Gb/dice for 8Tb/chip! (with 16 die stacking)

# Ways of Measuring Performance: Times (s) and Rates (op/s)

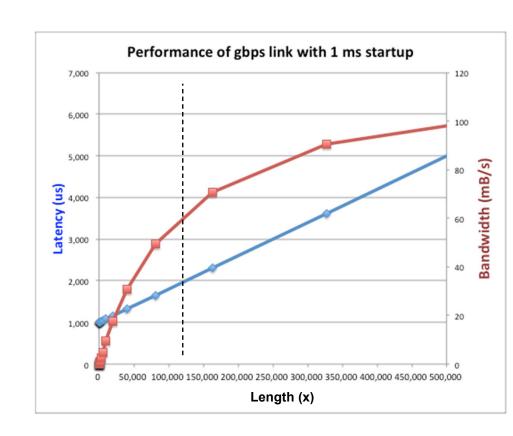
- Latency time to complete a task
  - Measured in units of time (s, ms, us, ..., hours, years)
- Response Time time to initiate and operation and get its response
  - Able to issue one that depends on the result
  - Know that it is done (anti-dependence, resource usage)
- Throughput or Bandwidth rate at which tasks are performed
  - Measured in units of things per unit time (ops/s, GFLOP/s)
- Start up or "Overhead" time to initiate an operation
- Most I/O operations are roughly linear in b bytes
  - Latency(b) = Overhead + b/TransferCapacity
- Performance???
  - Operation time (4 mins to run a mile...)
  - Rate (mph, mpg, ...)

#### **Example: Overhead in Fast Network**

- Consider a 1 Gb/s link ( $B_w = 125 \text{ MB/s}$ ) with startup cost S = 1 ms
- Latency:  $L(x) = S + \frac{x}{B_W}$
- Effective Bandwidth:

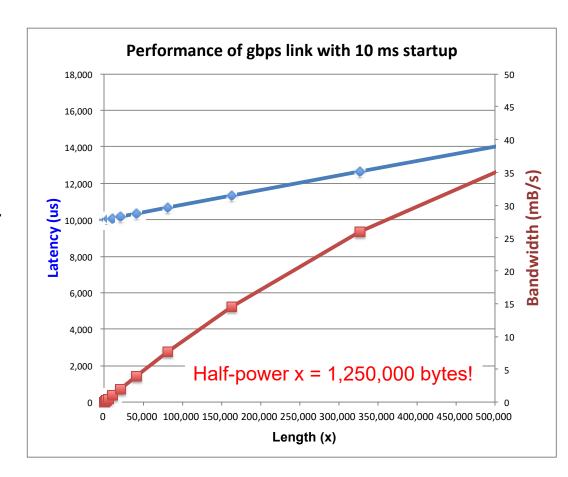
$$E(x) = \frac{x}{S + \frac{x}{B_w}} = \frac{B_w \cdot x}{B_w \cdot S + x} = \frac{B_w}{\frac{B_w \cdot S}{x} + 1}$$

- Half-power Bandwidth:  $E(x) = \frac{B_x}{2}$
- For this example, half-power bandwidth occurs at x = 125 KB



# Example: 10 ms Startup Cost (e.g., Disk)

- Half-power bandwidth at x = 1.25 MB
- Large startup cost can degrade effective bandwidth
- Amortize it by performing I/O in larger blocks



#### What Determines Peak BW for I/O?

- Bus Speed
  - PCI-X: 1064 MB/s = 133 MHz x 64 bit (per lane)
  - ULTRA WIDE SCSI: 40 MB/s
  - Serial Attached SCSI & Serial ATA & IEEE 1394 (firewire): 1.6 Gb/s full duplex (200 MB/s)
  - USB 3.0 5 Gb/s
  - Thunderbolt 3 40 Gb/s
- Device Transfer Bandwidth
  - Rotational speed of disk
  - Write / Read rate of NAND flash
  - Signaling rate of network link
- Whatever is the bottleneck in the path...

#### Sequential Server Performance



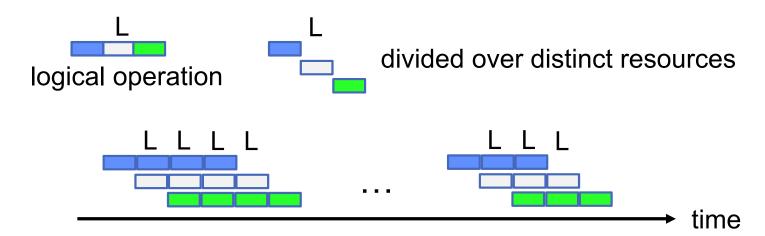
• Single sequential "server" that can deliver a task in time L operates at rate  $\leq \frac{1}{L}$  (on average, in steady state, ...)

$$-L = 10 \text{ ms} \rightarrow B = 100 \text{ op/s}$$

$$-L = 2 \text{ yr} \rightarrow B = 0.5 \text{ op/yr}$$

• Applies to a processor, a disk drive, a person, a TA, ...

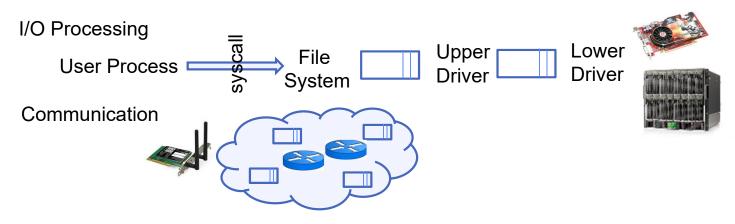
#### Single Pipelined Server



- Single pipelined server of k stages for tasks of length L (i.e., time L/k per stage) delivers at rate  $\leq k/L$ .
  - $-L = 10 \text{ ms}, k = 4 \rightarrow B = 400 \text{ op/s}$

$$-L = 2 \text{ yr}, k = 2 \rightarrow B = 1 \text{ op/yr}$$

# Example Systems "Pipelines"



- Anything with queues between operational process behaves roughly "pipeline like"
- Important difference is that "initiations" are decoupled from processing
  - May have to queue up a burst of operations
  - Not synchronous and deterministic like in 61C

#### Multiple Servers



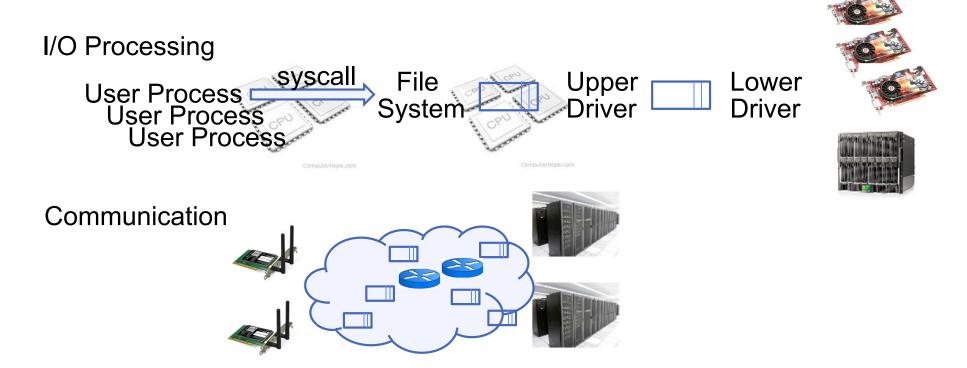
• k servers handling tasks of length L delivers at rate  $\leq k/L$ .

$$-L = 10 \text{ ms}, k = 4 \rightarrow B = 400 \text{ op/s}$$

$$-L = 2 \text{ yr}, k = 2 \rightarrow B = 1 \text{ op/yr}$$

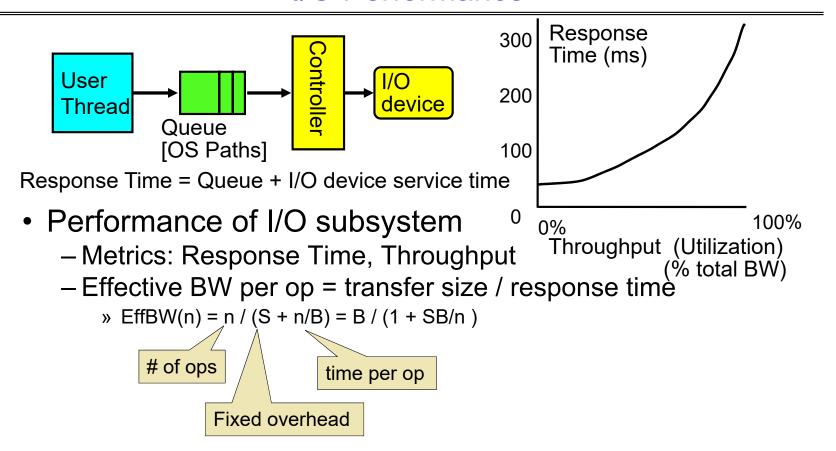
- In 61C you saw multiple processors (cores)
  - Systems present lots of multiple parallel servers
  - Often with lots of queues

# Example Systems "Parallelism"

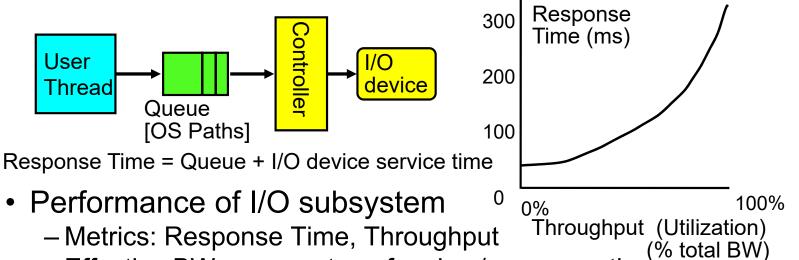


Parallel Computation, Databases, ...

#### I/O Performance

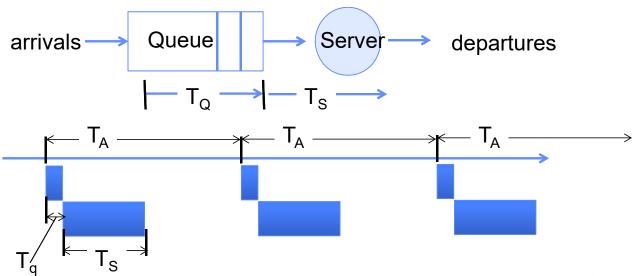


#### I/O Performance



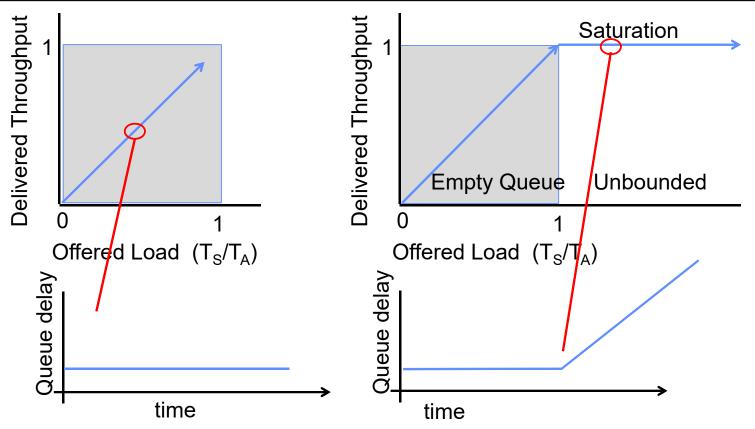
- Effective BW per op = transfer size / response timè
  - $\Rightarrow$  EffBW(n) = n / (S + n/B) = B / (1 + SB/n)
- Contributing factors to latency:
  - » Software paths (can be loosely modeled by a queue)
  - » Hardware controller
  - » I/O device service time
- Queuing behavior:
  - Can lead to big increases of latency as utilization increases
  - Solutions?

#### A Simple Deterministic World



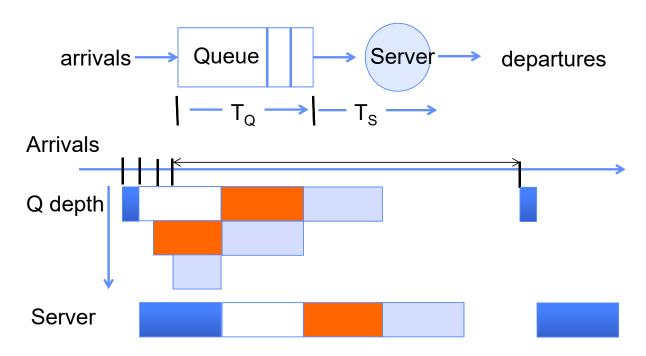
- Assume requests arrive at regular intervals, take a fixed time to process, with plenty of time between ...
- Service rate ( $\mu = 1/T_s$ ) operations per second
- Arrival rate:  $(\lambda = 1/T_A)$  requests per second
- Utilization:  $U = \lambda/\mu$ , where  $\lambda < \mu$
- Average rate is the complete story

#### A Ideal Linear World



- What does the queue wait time look like?
  - Grows unbounded at a rate  $\sim (T_s/T_A)$  till request rate subsides

#### A Bursty World



- Requests arrive in a burst, must queue up till served
- Same average arrival time, but almost all of the requests experience large queue delays
- Even though average utilization is low

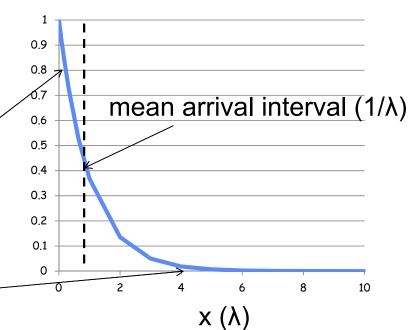
#### So how do we model the burstiness of arrival?

- Elegant mathematical framework if you start with exponential distribution
  - Probability density function of a continuous random variable with a mean of  $1/\lambda$
  - $f(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}$
  - "Memoryless"

Likelihood of an event occurring is independent of how long we've been waiting

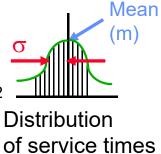
Lots of short arrival intervals (i.e., high instantaneous rate)

Few long gaps (i.e., low instantaneous rate)



# Background: General Use of Random Distributions

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

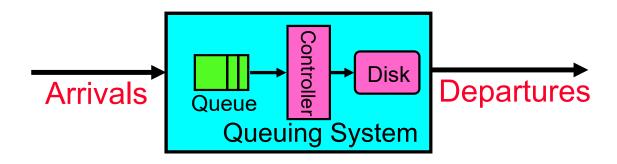


mean

Memoryless

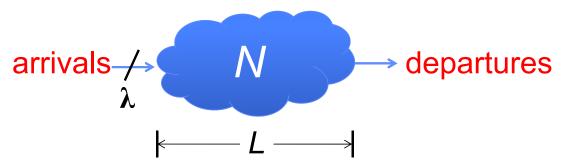
- Important values of C:
  - No variance or deterministic ⇒ C=0
  - "Memoryless" or exponential ⇒ C=1
    - » Past tells nothing about future
    - » Poisson process purely or completely random process
    - » Many complex systems (or aggregates) are well described as memoryless
  - Disk response times  $C \approx 1.5$  (majority seeks < average)

#### Introduction to Queuing Theory



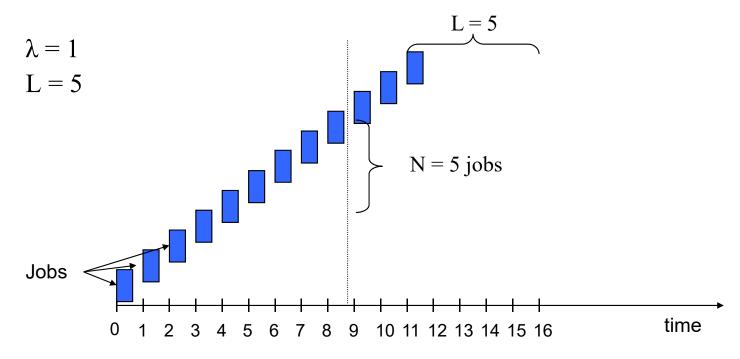
- What about queuing time??
  - Let's apply some queuing theory
  - Queuing Theory applies to long term, steady state behavior  $\Rightarrow$  Arrival rate = Departure rate
- Arrivals characterized by some probabilistic distribution
- Departures characterized by some probabilistic distribution

#### Little's Law



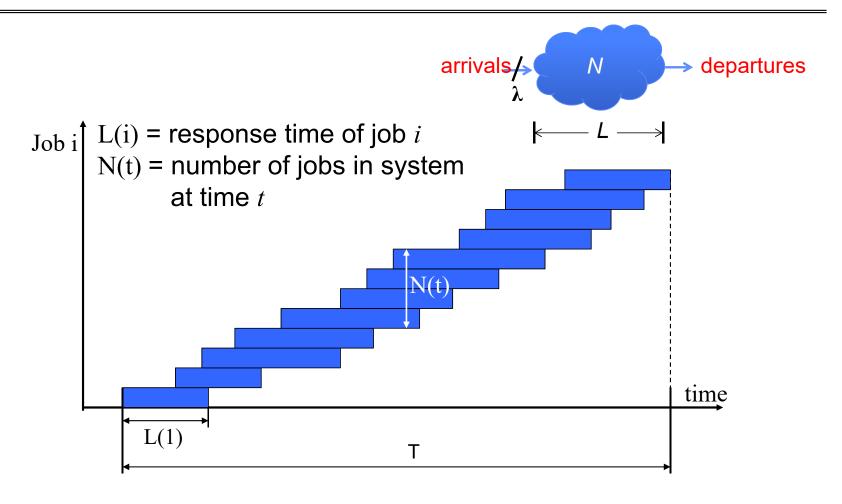
- In any stable system
  - Average arrival rate = Average departure rate
- The average number of jobs/tasks in the system (N) is equal to arrival time / throughput ( $\lambda$ ) times the response time (L)
  - $-N (jobs) = \lambda (jobs/s) \times L (s)$
- Regardless of structure, bursts of requests, variation in service
  - Instantaneous variations, but it washes out in the average
  - Overall, requests match departures

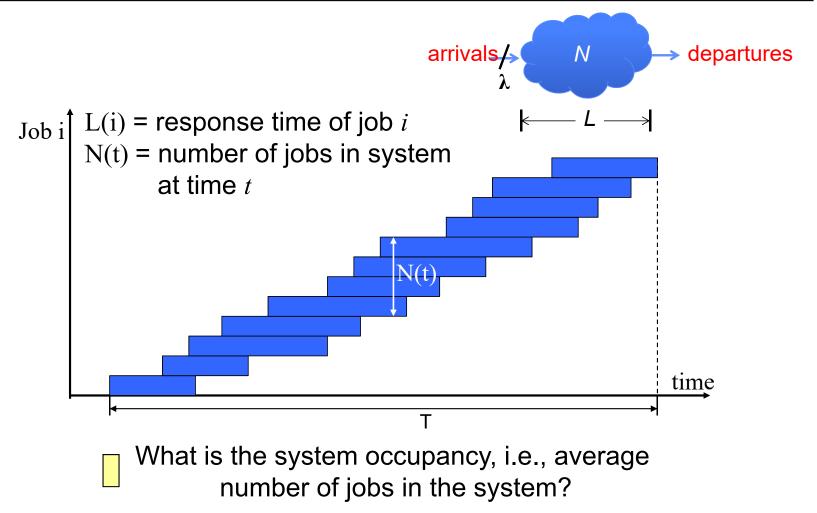
# Example

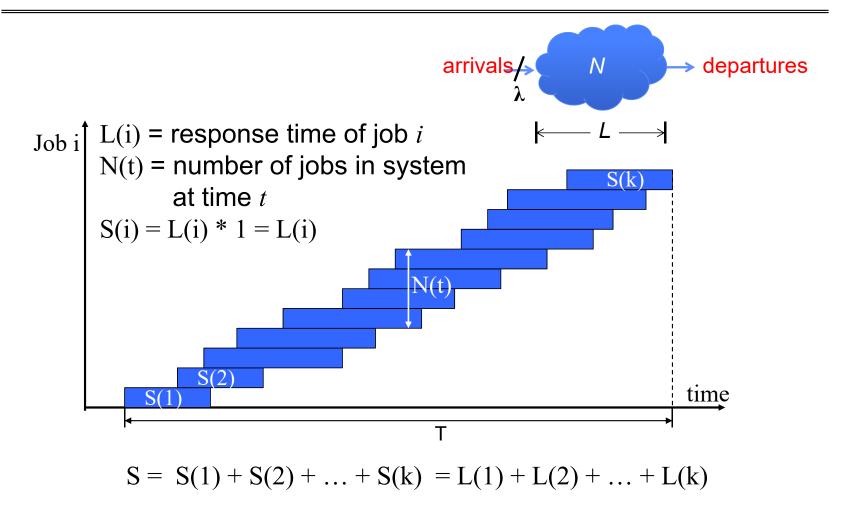


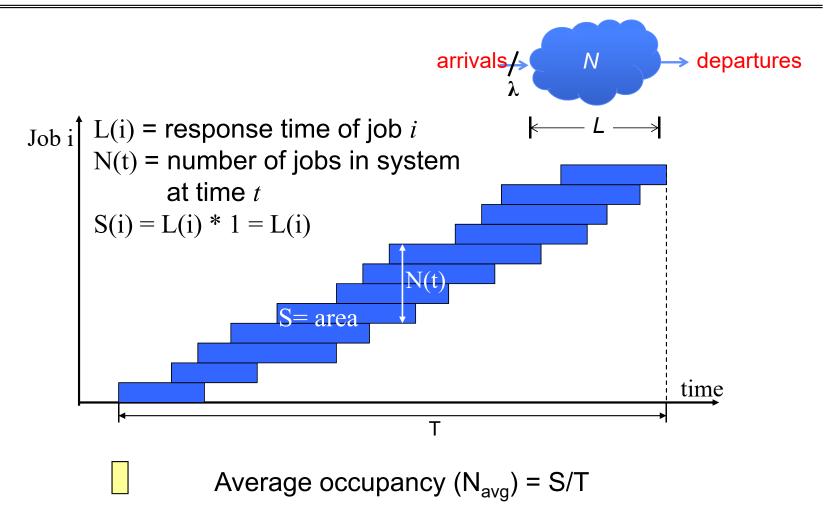
A: 
$$N = \lambda x L$$

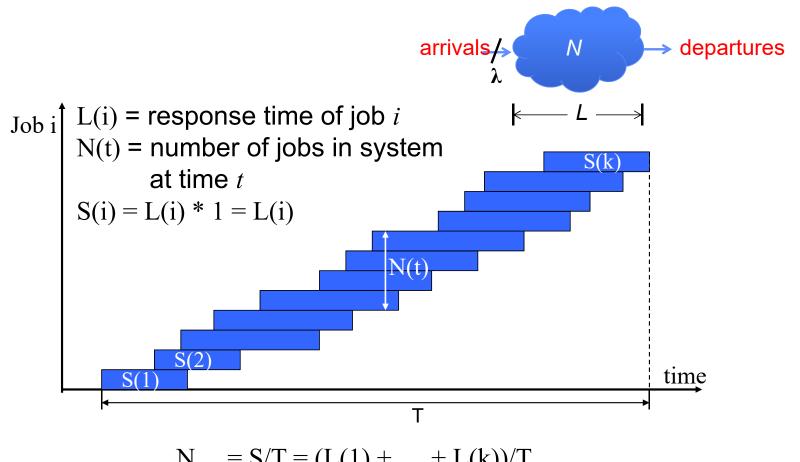
• E.g.,  $N = \lambda x L = 5$ 



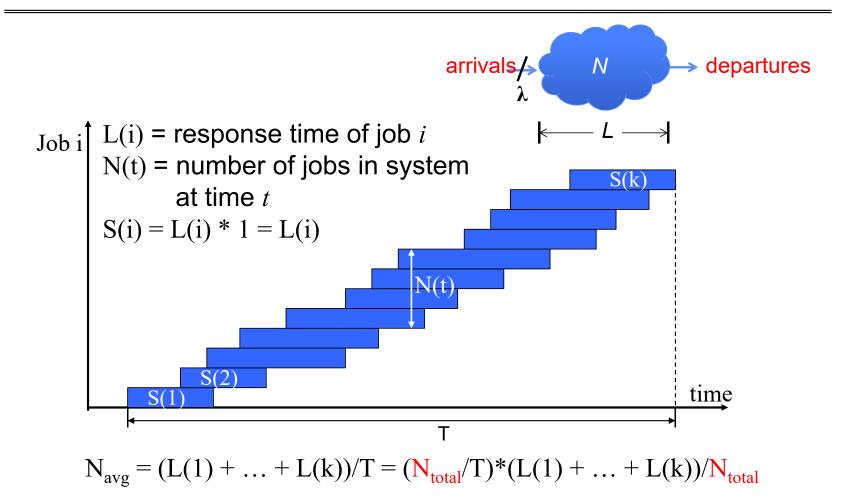


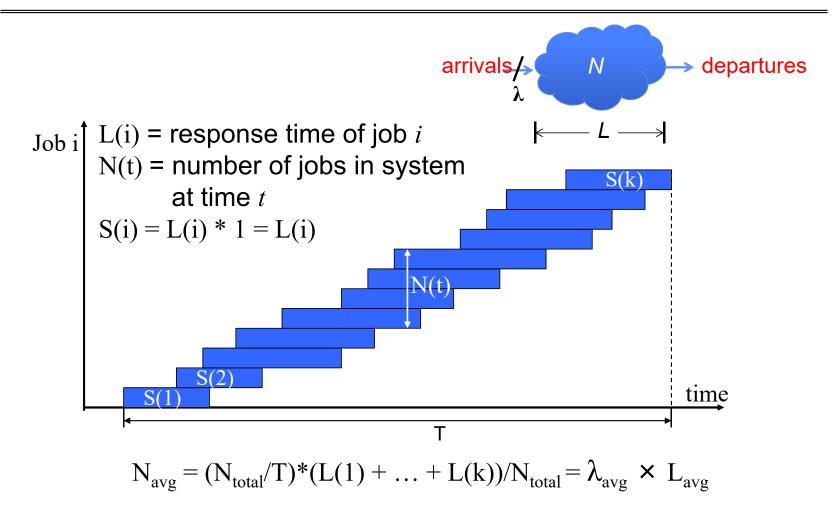


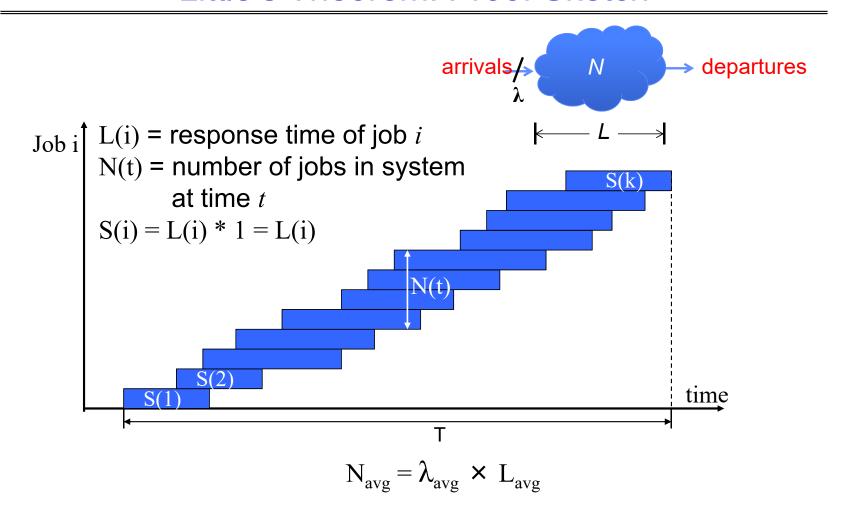




$$N_{avg} = S/T = (L(1) + ... + L(k))/T$$

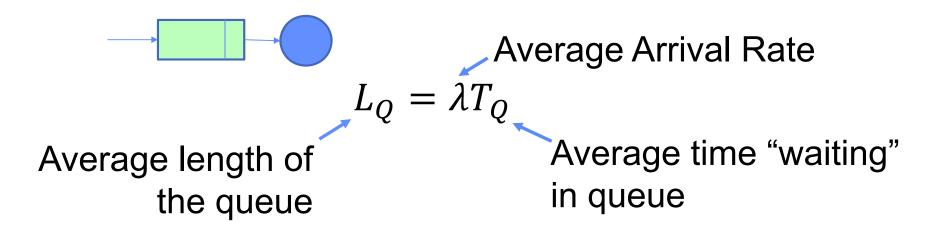






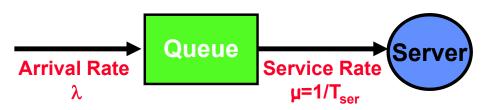
#### Little's Law Applied to a Queue

When Little's Law applied to a queue, we get:



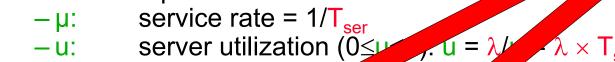
# A Little Queuing Theory: Computing T<sub>Q</sub>

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

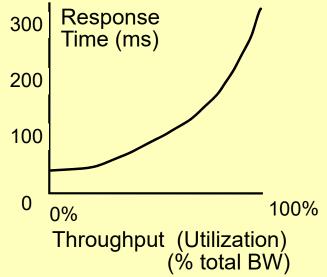


- Parameters that describe our system:
  - $-\lambda$ : mean number of arriving customers/second
  - T<sub>ser</sub>: mean time to service a customer ("

    ✓
  - -C: squared coefficient of variance //m



Why does response/queueing delay grow unboundedly even though the utilization is < 1?



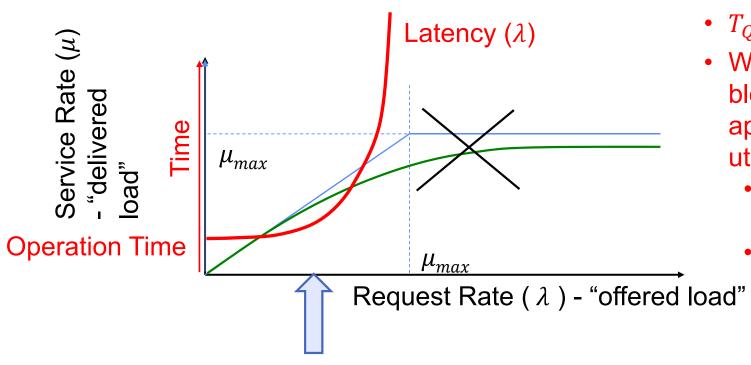
- Results:
  - Memoryless service stribution (2): (an "M/M/1 queue"):

$$T_{q} = T_{ser} x u/(1 - u)$$

- General service distribution, server (an "M/G/1 queue"):

$$T_{q} = T_{ser} x \frac{1}{2} (1+C) x \frac{u}{(1-u)}$$

# System Performance In presence of a Queue



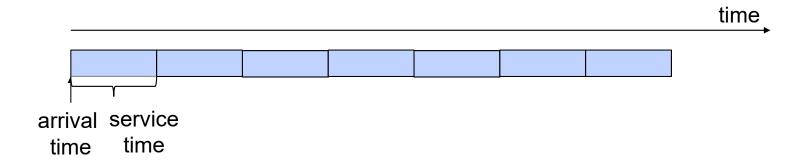
- $T_Q \sim \frac{u}{1-u}$ ,  $u = \lambda/\mu_{max}$
- Why does latency blow up as we approach 100% utilization?
  - Queue builds up on each burst
  - But very rarely (or never) gets a chance to drain

"Half-Power Point": load at which system delivers half of peak performance

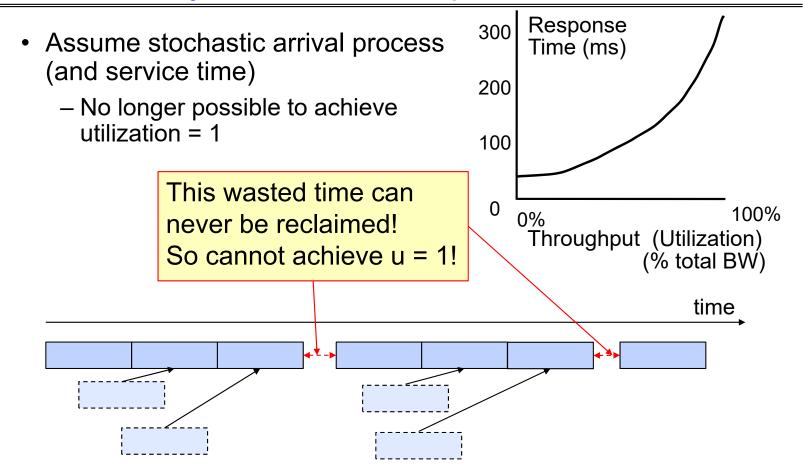
- Design and provision systems to operate roughly in this regime
- Latency low and predictable, utilization good: ~50%

# Why unbounded response time?

- Assume deterministic arrival process and service time
  - Possible to sustain utilization = 1 with bounded response time!



## Why unbounded response time?



#### A Little Queuing Theory: An Example

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

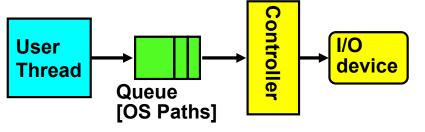
```
(avg # arriving customers/s) = 10/s
```

T<sub>ser</sub> (avg time to service customer) = 20 ms (0.02s) u (server utilization) =  $\lambda$  x T<sub>ser</sub> = 10/s x .02s = 0.2 T<sub>q</sub> (avg time/customer in queue) = T<sub>ser</sub> x u/(1 – u) = 20 x 0.2/(1-0.2) = 20 x 0.25 = 5 ms (0.005s) L<sub>q</sub> (avg length of queue) =  $\lambda$  x T<sub>q</sub>=10/s x .005s = 0.05 T<sub>sys</sub> (avg time/customer in system) = T<sub>q</sub> + T<sub>ser</sub> = 25 ms

#### **Queuing Theory Resources**

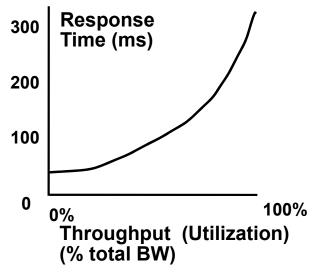
- Resources page contains Queueing Theory Resources (under Readings):
  - Scanned pages from Patterson and Hennessy book that gives further discussion and simple proof for general equation: <a href="https://cs162.eecs.berkeley.edu/static/readings/patterson\_queue.pdf">https://cs162.eecs.berkeley.edu/static/readings/patterson\_queue.pdf</a>
  - A complete website full of resources:
     <a href="http://web2.uwindsor.ca/math/hlynka/qonline.html">http://web2.uwindsor.ca/math/hlynka/qonline.html</a>
- Some previous midterms with queueing theory questions
- Assume that Queueing Theory is fair game for Midterm III!

# Optimize I/O Performance



Response Time = Queue + I/O device service time

- How to improve performance?
  - Make everything faster ☺
  - More Decoupled (Parallelism) systems
    - » multiple independent buses or controllers
  - Optimize the bottleneck to increase service rate
    - » Use the queue to optimize the service
  - Do other useful work while waiting
- Queues absorb bursts and smooth the flow
- Admissions control (finite queues)
  - Limits delays, but may introduce unfairness and livelock



#### When is Disk Performance Highest?

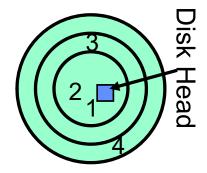
- When there are big sequential reads, or
- When there is so much work to do that they can be piggy backed (reordering queues—one moment)
- OK to be inefficient when things are mostly idle
- Bursts are both a threat and an opportunity
- <your idea for optimization goes here>
  - Waste space for speed?
- Other techniques:
  - Reduce overhead through user level drivers
  - Reduce the impact of I/O delays by doing other useful work in the meantime

## Disk Scheduling (1/3)

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

User Requests Head Read Requests

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

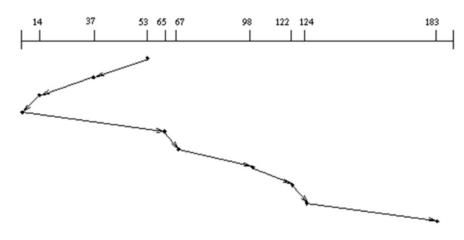


# Disk Scheduling (2/3)

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

User Requests Head Read Requests

- SCAN: Implements an Elevator Algorithm: take the closest request in the direction of travel
  - No starvation, but retains flavor of SSTF

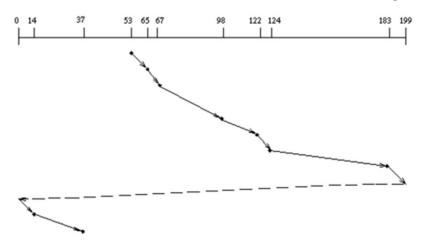


## Disk Scheduling (3/3)

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



- C-SCAN: Circular-Scan: only goes in one direction
  - Skips any requests on the way back
  - Fairer than SCAN, not biased towards pages in middle

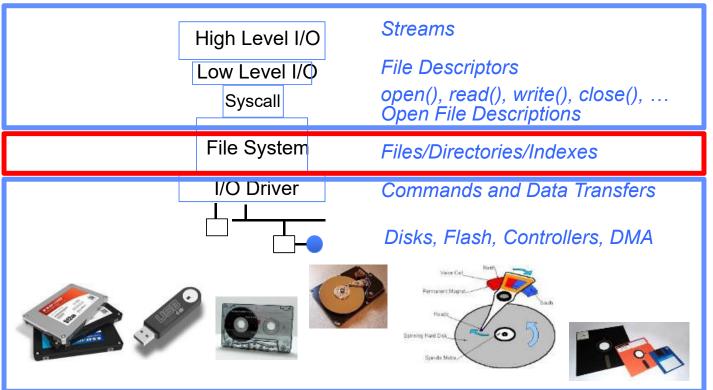


## Recall: How do we Hide I/O Latency?

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

## Recall: I/O and Storage Layers

#### Application / Service

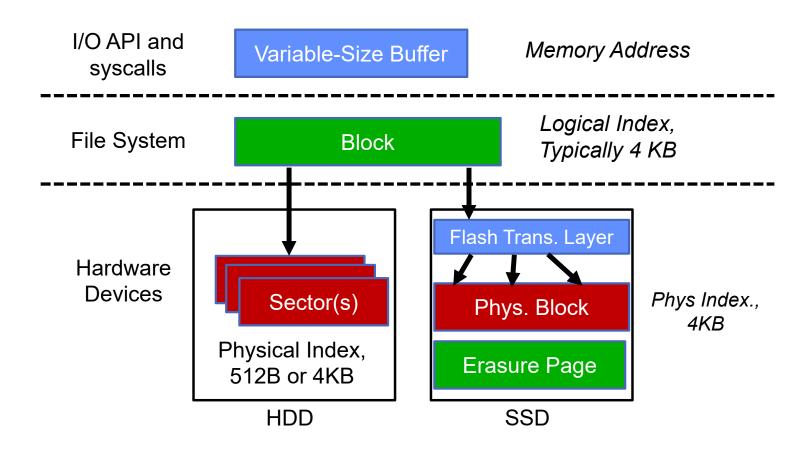


What we covered in Lecture 4

What we will cover next...

What we just covered...

## From Storage to File Systems



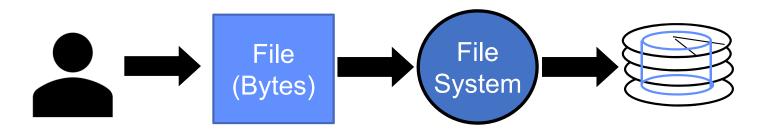
## Building a File System

- File System: Layer of OS that transforms block interface of disks (or other block devices) into Files, Directories, etc.
- Classic OS situation: Take limited hardware interface (array of blocks) and provide a more convenient/useful interface with:
  - Naming: Find file by name, not block numbers
  - Organize file names with directories
  - Organization: Map files to blocks
  - Protection: Enforce access restrictions
  - Reliability: Keep files intact despite crashes, hardware failures, etc.

#### Recall: User vs. System View of a File

- User's view:
  - Durable Data Structures
- System's view (system call interface):
  - Collection of Bytes (UNIX)
  - Doesn't matter to system what kind of data structures you want to store on disk!
- System's view (inside OS):
  - Collection of blocks (a block is a logical transfer unit, while a sector is the physical transfer unit)
  - Block size ≥ sector size; in UNIX, block size is 4KB

#### Translation from User to System View



- What happens if user says: "give me bytes 2 12?"
  - Fetch block corresponding to those bytes
  - Return just the correct portion of the block
- What about writing bytes 2 12?
  - Fetch block, modify relevant portion, write out block
- Everything inside file system is in terms of whole-size blocks
  - Actual disk I/O happens in blocks
  - read/write smaller than block size needs to translate and buffer

#### **Disk Management**

- Basic entities on a disk:
  - File: user-visible group of blocks arranged sequentially in logical space
  - Directory: user-visible index mapping names to files
- The disk is accessed as linear array of sectors
- How to identify a sector?
  - -Physical position
    - » Sectors is a vector [cylinder, surface, sector]
    - » Not used anymore
    - » OS/BIOS must deal with bad sectors
  - Logical Block Addressing (LBA)
    - » Every sector has integer address
    - » Controller translates from address ⇒ physical position
    - » Shields OS from structure of disk

## What Does the File System Need?

- Track free disk blocks
  - -Need to know where to put newly written data
- Track which blocks contain data for which files
  - –Need to know where to read a file from
- Track files in a directory
  - -Find list of file's blocks given its name
- Where do we maintain all of this?
  - -Somewhere on disk

#### Conclusion

- Disk Performance:
  - Queuing time + Controller + Seek + Rotational + Transfer
  - Rotational latency: on average ½ rotation
  - Transfer time: spec of disk depends on rotation speed and bit storage density
- Devices have complex interaction and performance characteristics
  - Response time (Latency) = Queue + Overhead + Transfer» Effective BW = BW \* T/(S+T)
  - HDD: Queuing time + controller + seek + rotation + transfer
  - SDD: Queuing time + controller + transfer (erasure & wear)
- Systems (e.g., file system) designed to optimize performance and reliability
  - Relative to performance characteristics of underlying device
- Bursts & High Utilization introduce queuing delays
- Queuing Latency:
  - M/M/1 and M/G/1 queues: simplest to analyze
  - As utilization approaches 100%, latency  $\rightarrow \infty$

$$T_a = T_{ser} \times \frac{1}{2} (1+C) \times \frac{u}{(1-u)}$$