## Systems and Networking I

Applied Computer Science and Artificial Intelligence 2024–2025

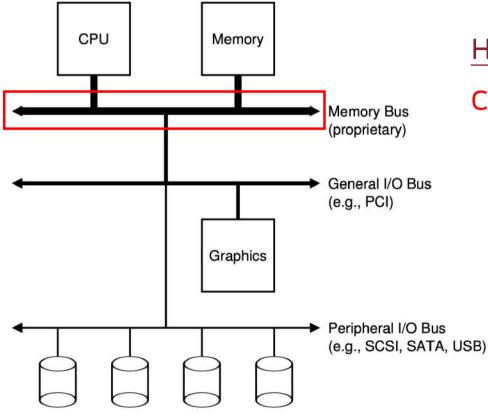


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# A Quick Recap on I/O

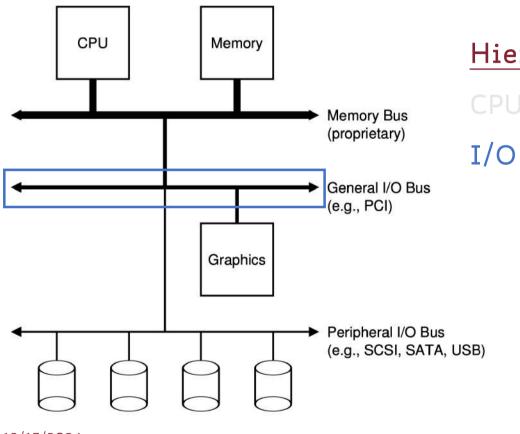


Hierarchy of Communication Buses

CPU-Memory high-speed bus

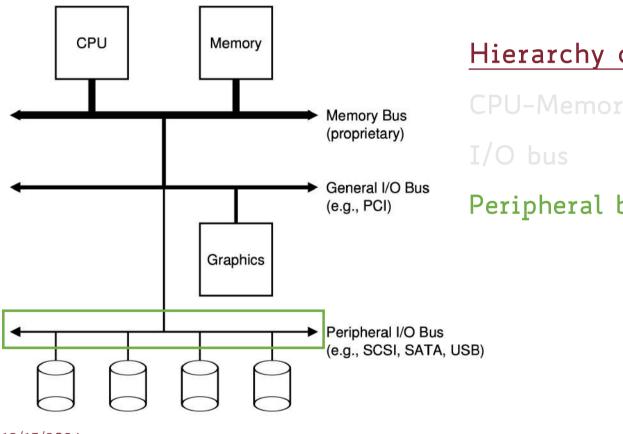
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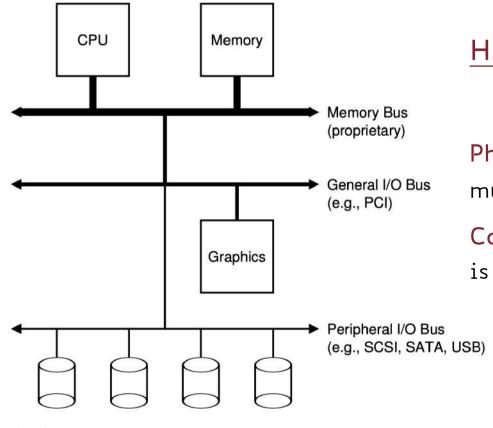
#### Hierarchy of Communication Buses

I/O bus



#### Hierarchy of Communication Buses

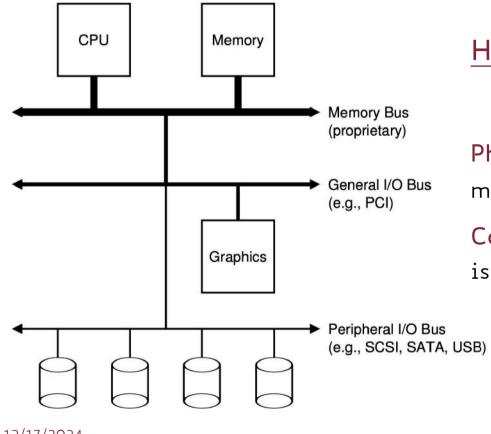
Peripheral bus



# Hierarchy of Communication Buses Why?

Physics: The faster a bus is, the shorter it must be!

Costs: Engineering a high-performance bus is expensive!



# Hierarchy of Communication Buses Why?

**Physics**: The faster a bus is, the shorter it must be!

Costs: Engineering a high-performance bus is expensive!

High-speed I/O devices are closer to the CPU (e.g., graphics card)

Low-speed I/O devices are closer to the CPU (e.g., hard disks)

### A Canonical I/O Device: Components

- Each I/O device is made of 2 parts:
  - the physical device itself
  - the **device controller** (chip or set of chips controlling a family of physical devices)

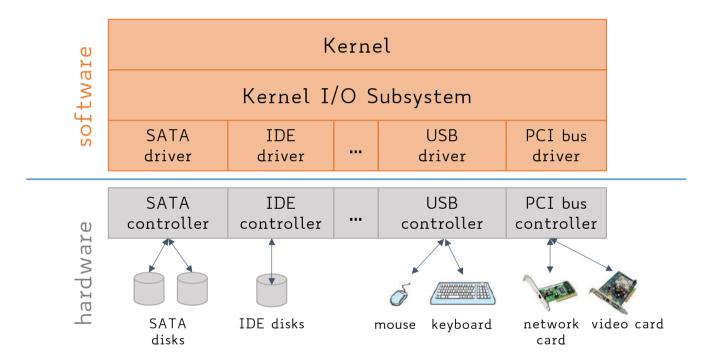
### A Canonical I/O Device: Components

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- Can be categorized as:
  - storage, communications, user-interface, etc.

### A Canonical I/O Device: Components

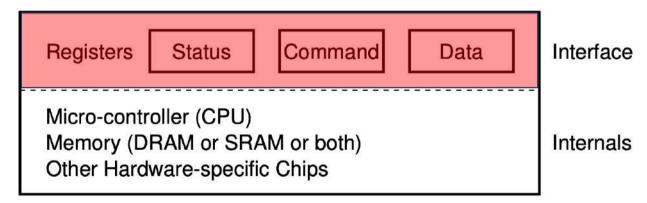
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  - the physical device itself
  - the **device controller** (chip or set of chips controlling a family of physical devices)
- Can be categorized as:
  - storage, communications, user-interface, etc.
- OS talks to a device controller using a specific device driver

#### Device Drivers: OS Abstraction



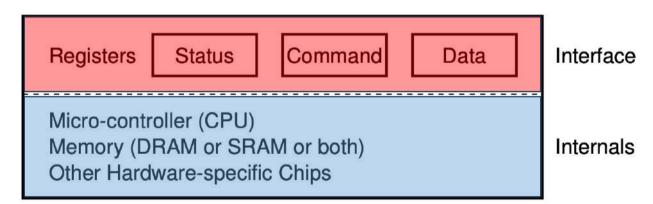
#### Device Controllers

- Every device controller has:
  - an interface → a number of dedicated registers to communicate with it



#### Device Controllers

- Every device controller has:
  - an interface → a number of dedicated registers to communicate with it
  - an internal structure → logic circuitry (vendor-specific)



#### Device Controllers

- Status registers → provide status information to the CPU about the I/O device (e.g., idle, ready for input, busy, error, transaction complete)
- Command/Configuration/Control registers → used by the CPU to configure and control the device
- Data registers → used to read data from or write data to the I/O device

```
While (STATUS == BUSY)

; // wait until device is not busy repeatedly checking the STATUS register

Write data to DATA register

Write command to COMMAND register

(starts the device and executes the command)

While (STATUS == BUSY)

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

```
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; // wait until device is not busy
Write data to DATA register
Write command to COMMAND register
    (starts the device and executes the command)
While (STATUS == BUSY)
; // wait until device is done with your request
Issue the command
```

The OS waits for the device to finish again by polling in a loop

polling

```
While (STATUS == BUSY)
   ; // wait until device is not busy
Write data to DATA register
Write command to COMMAND register
      (starts the device and executes the command)
While (STATUS == BUSY)
   ; // wait until device is done with your request
```

The CPU is responsible for the whole data transfer

Programmed I/O

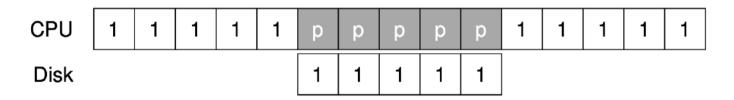
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```

The CPU wastes a lot of time checking a possibly slow I/O device

Programmed I/O + Polling

#### Lowering CPU Waste: How?

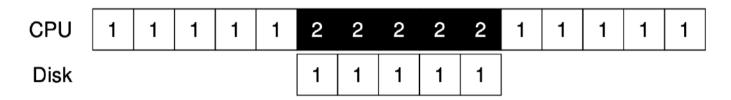
Polling: wastes CPU cycles waiting on a condition



**Process 1** runs for some time, issues the I/O request and, while the request is being served, the OS repeatedly checks the status of the device (p)

### Lowering CPU Waste: Interrupts!

Interrupt-driven I/O: allows overlap between CPU and I/O

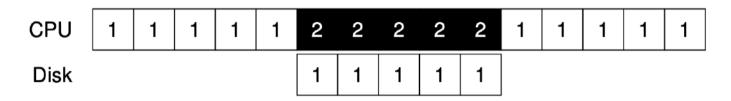


**Process 1** runs for some time, issues the I/O request and, while the request is being served, the OS switches to **Process 2** 

The I/O device will send an interrupt when done!

### Lowering CPU Waste: Interrupts!

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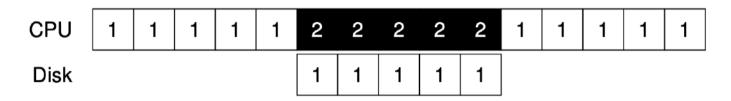


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Is Interrupt-driven I/O always better than Programmed I/O + Polling?

### Lowering CPU Waste: Interrupts!

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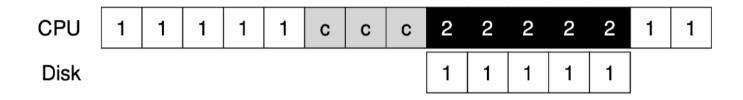
**Process 1** runs for some time, issues the I/O request and, while the request is being served, the OS switches to **Process 2** 

Is Interrupt-driven I/O **always** better than Programmed I/O + Polling?

NO! It depends on the speed of the I/O device/task

### Beyond Programmed-I/O

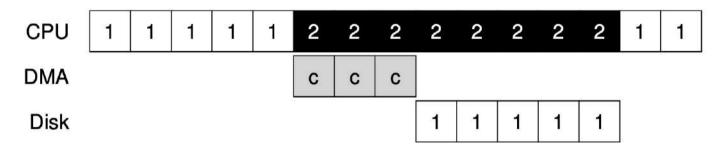
Programmed I/O: the CPU actually transfers data to I/O devices



**Process 1** runs for some time, starts the I/O request by copying data from main memory to the I/O device one word at a time (c); when this is done the I/O begins and the OS switches to **Process 2** 

#### Direct Memory Access (DMA)

DMA: a dedicated component to orchestrate memory-I/O transfers



**Process 1** runs for some time, the OS starts the I/O by issuing a DMA request, then immediately switches to **Process 2**. Once the whole I/O task is done, the DMA controller sends an interrupt

- Polling
  - CPU periodically checks for the I/O task status

#### Polling

• CPU periodically checks for the I/O task status

#### • Interrupt-driven

• CPU receives an interrupt from the controller (device or DMA) once the I/O task is done (either successfully or abnormally)

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#### Programmed I/O

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#### Programmed I/O

CPU does the actual work of moving data

#### Direct Memory Access (DMA)

• CPU delegates off the work to a dedicated DMA controller

#### Polling

HOW?

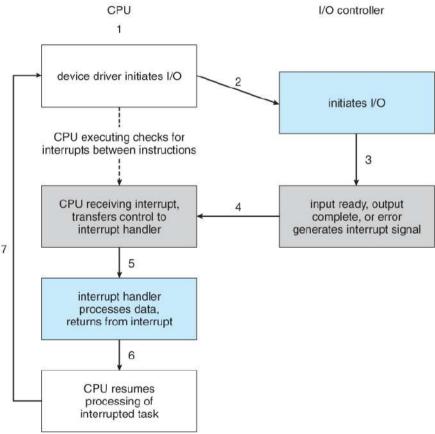
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  - CPU does the actual work of moving data
- Direct Memory Access (DMA)
  - CPU delegates off the work to a dedicated DMA controller

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  - CPU periodically checks for the I/O task status
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- Programmed I/O

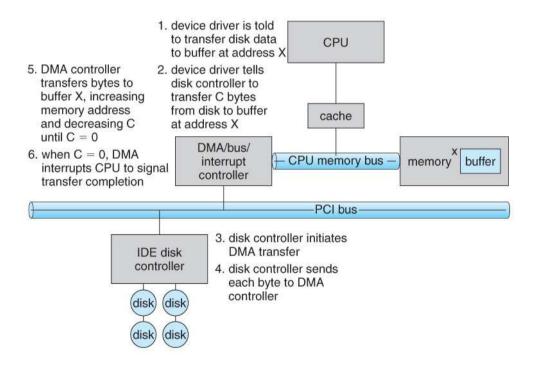
WHO?

- CPU does the actual work of moving data
- Direct Memory Access (DMA)
  - CPU delegates off the work to a dedicated DMA controller

### How: Interrupt-driven I/O



#### Who: Direct Memory Access (DMA)



Overcome the limitation of Programmed I/O

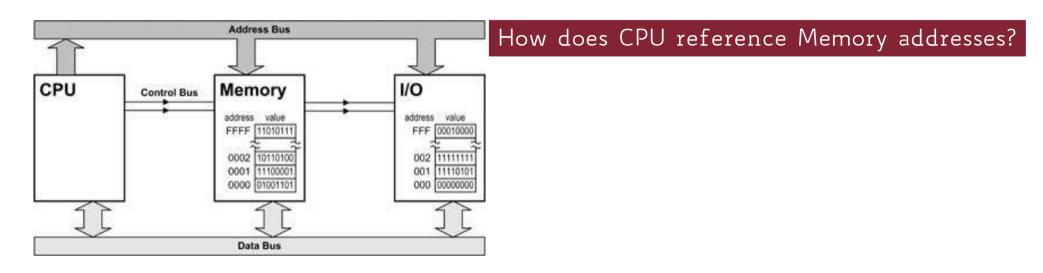
Maybe wasteful to tie up the CPU transferring data in and out of registers one word at a time

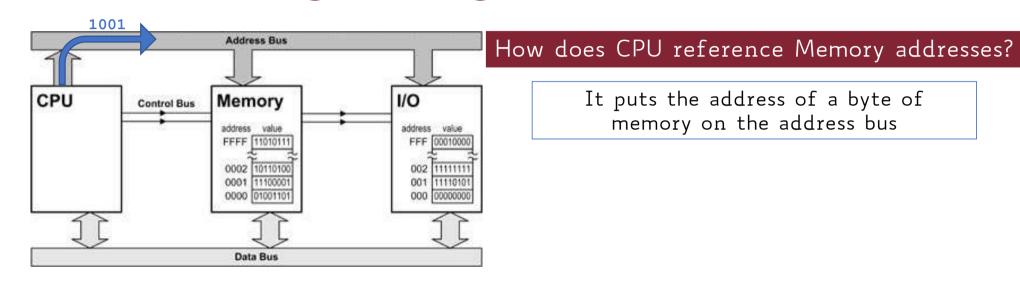
Useful for devices that transfer large quantities of data (such as disk controllers)

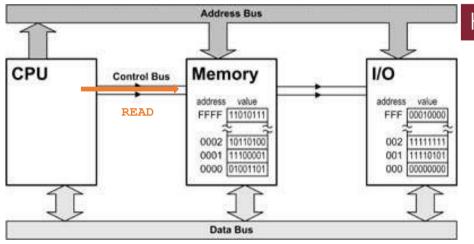
Typically, used in combination with interrupt-driven I/O

# But how does the CPU/OS actually communicate with I/O devices?

### Addressing Using the System Bus



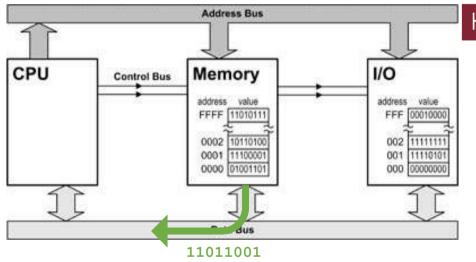




How does CPU reference Memory addresses?

It puts the address of a byte of memory on the address bus

It raises the **READ** signal on the control bus

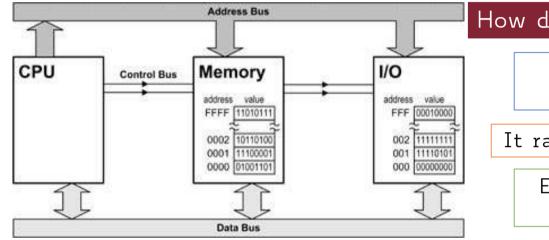


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It raises the **READ** signal on the control bus

Eventually, the RAM replies with the memory content on the data bus



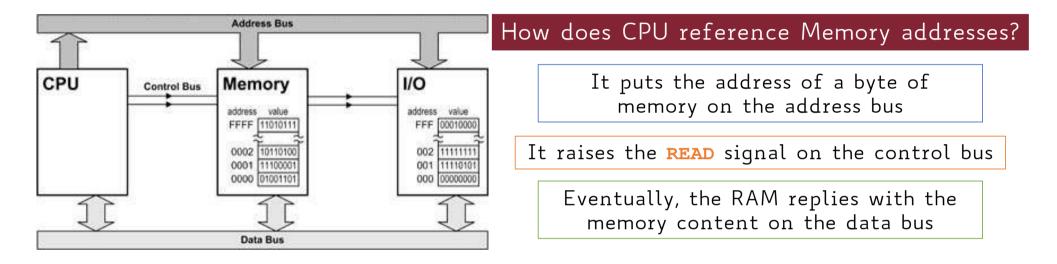
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Eventually, the RAM replies with the memory content on the data bus

How about I/O devices? How to distinguish between Memory and I/O devices?



If the control bus is shared between memory and I/O there is a special line called "M/#IO" that asserts whether the CPU wants to talk to memory or an I/O device

• CPU can talk to a device controller in 2 ways:

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  - Port-mapped I/O → referencing controller's registers using a separate I/O address space

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  - Port-mapped I/O → referencing controller's registers using a separate I/O address space
  - Memory-mapped I/O → mapping controller's registers to the same address space used for main memory

# Port-Mapped I/O

- Each I/O device controller's register is mapped to a specific port (address) at boot-up time
- Requires special class of CPU instructions (e.g., IN/OUT)
  - The IN instruction reads from an I/O device, OUT writes to it
- With the IN or OUT instructions, the M/#IO is not asserted, so memory does not respond and the I/O chip does

# Memory-Mapped I/O

- Memory-mapped I/O "wastes" some address space but doesn't need any special instruction
- To the CPU, I/O device ports are just like normal memory addresses mapped into RAM at boot-up time
- The CPU uses MOV-like instructions to access I/O device registers
- The M/#IO is always asserted indicating the address requested by the CPU refers to main memory

```
MOV DX,1234h
MOV AL,[DX] ; reads memory address 1234h (memory address space)
IN AL,DX ; reads I/O port 1234h (I/O address space)
```

Both put the value **1234h** on the CPU address bus, and both assert a **READ** operation on control bus

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MOV DX,1234h
MOV AL,[DX] ; reads memory address 1234h (memory address space)
IN AL,DX ; reads I/O port 1234h (I/O address space)
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The first one will assert M/#IO to indicate that the address belongs to memory address space

```
MOV DX,1234h
MOV AL,[DX] ; reads memory address 1234h (memory address space)
IN AL,DX ; reads I/O port 1234h (I/O address space)
```

The second one will **not** assert **M/#IO** to indicate that the address belongs to I/O address space

# Part V: Storage Management

File System API

OS Implementation

Physical Implementation

File System API

File creation, manipulation, protection, etc.

OS Implementation

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File creation, manipulation, protection, etc.

OS internal data structures and algorithms

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Second storage structure, disk scheduling algorithms

File System API

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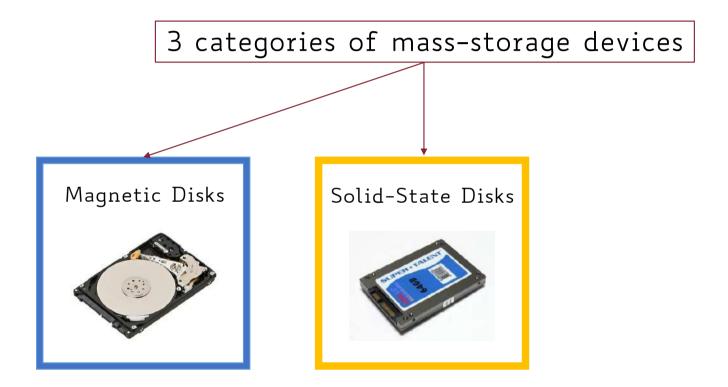
OS Implementation

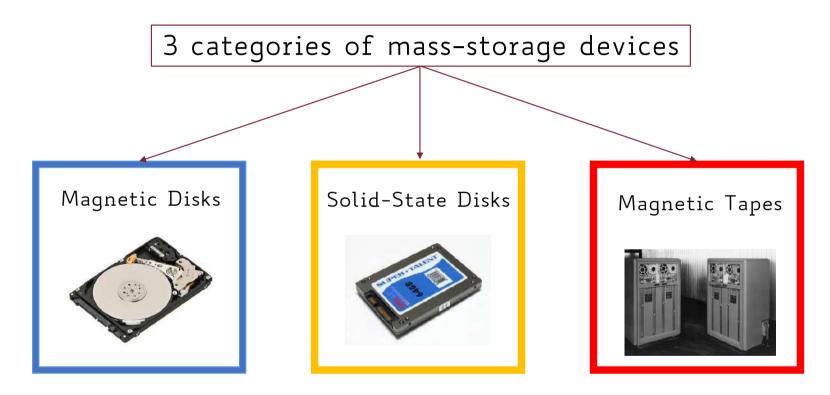
Second storage structure, disk scheduling algorithms

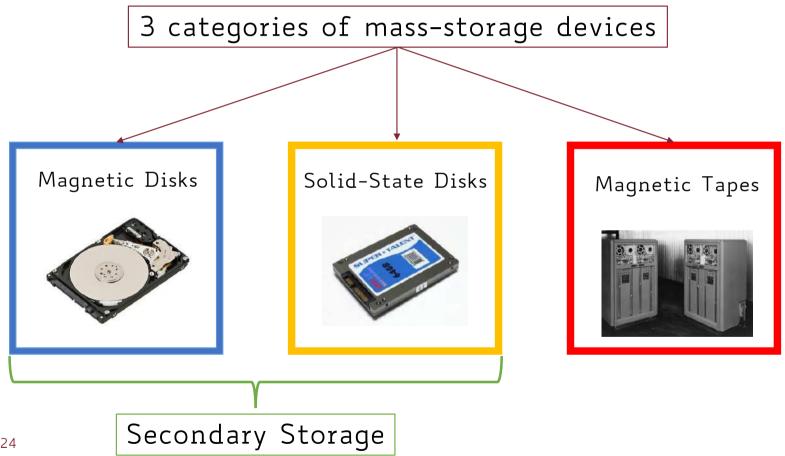
3 categories of mass-storage devices

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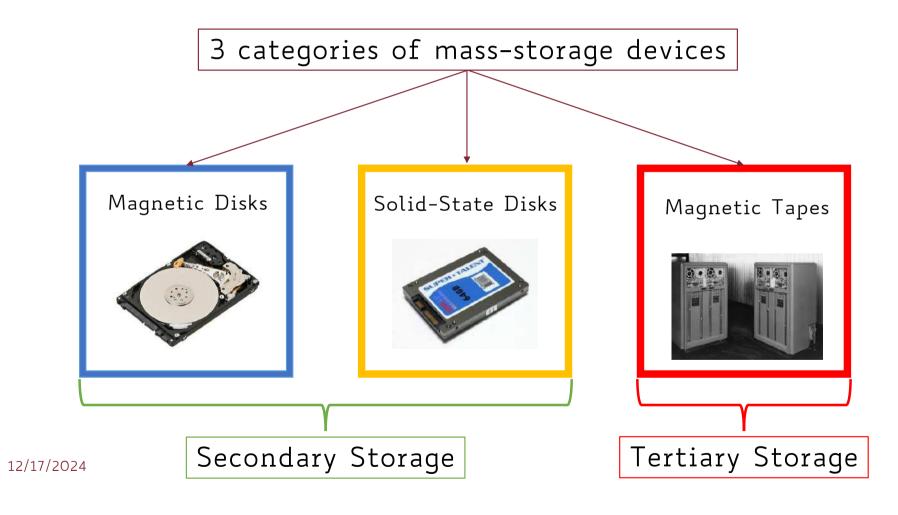


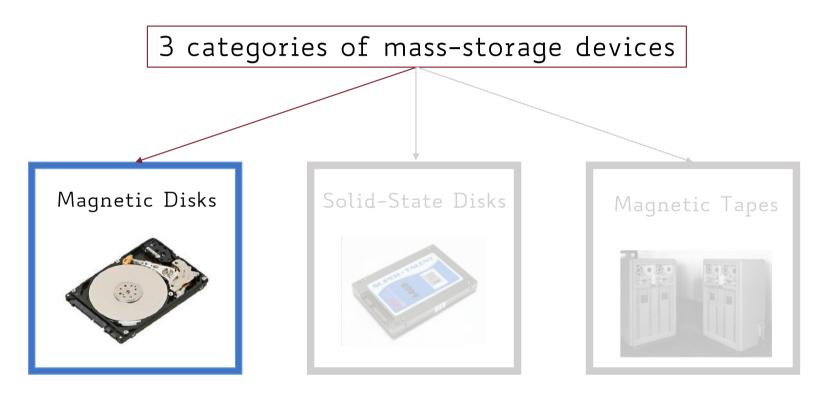


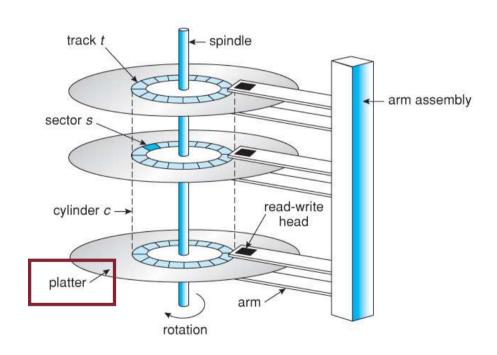


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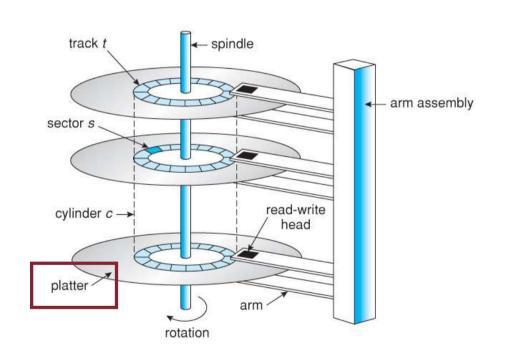
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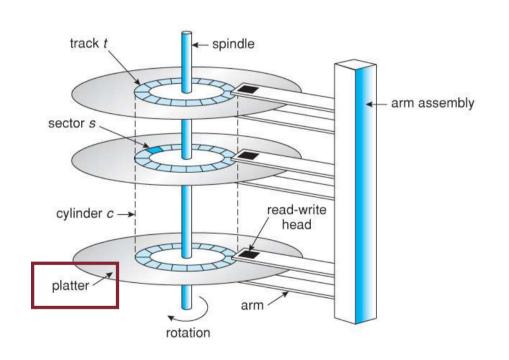


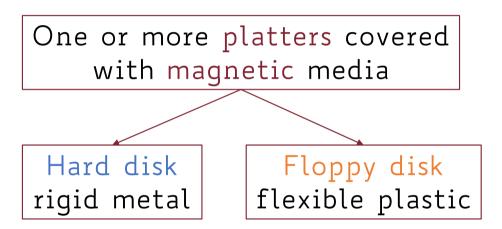
One or more platters covered with magnetic media

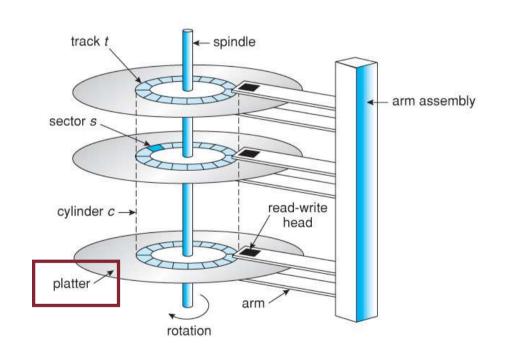


One or more platters covered with magnetic media

Hard disk rigid metal





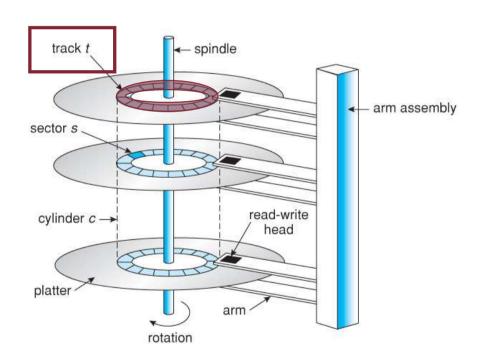


One or more platters covered with magnetic media

Hard disk rigid metal Floppy disk flexible plastic

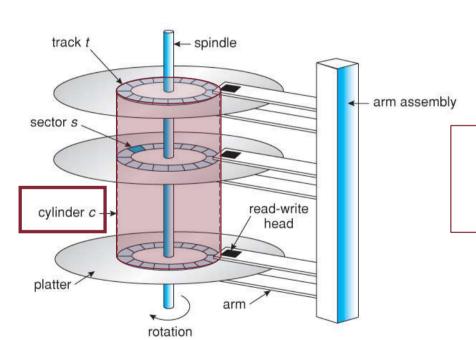
Each platter has 2 working surfaces

# Magnetic Disks: Tracks and Cylinders



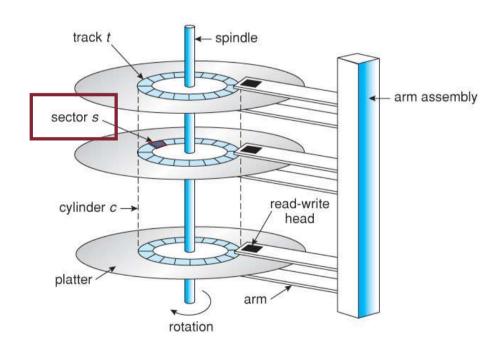
Each surface is divided into a number of concentric rings, called tracks

# Magnetic Disks: Tracks and Cylinders

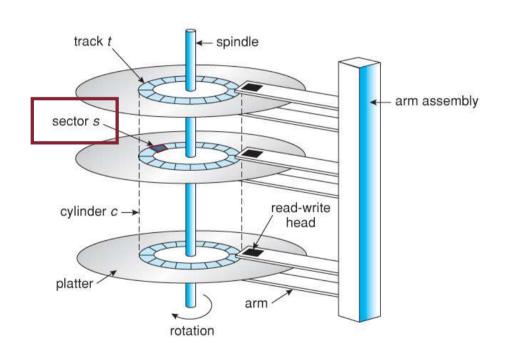


Each surface is divided into a number of concentric rings, called tracks

The set of all tracks that are the same distance from the edge of the platter is called a cylinder

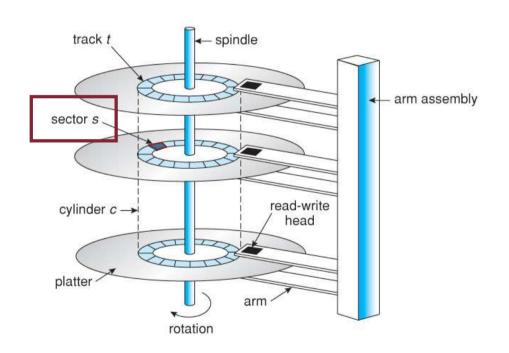


Each track is further divided into sectors



Each track is further divided into sectors

Each sector usually contains 512 bytes

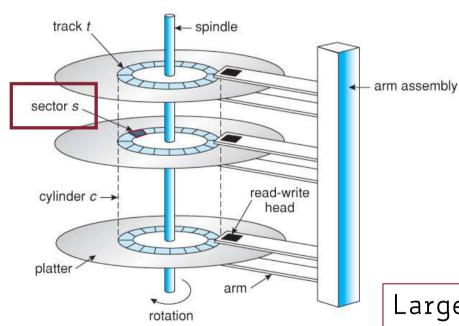


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Sectors also include a header and a trailer, and checksum information

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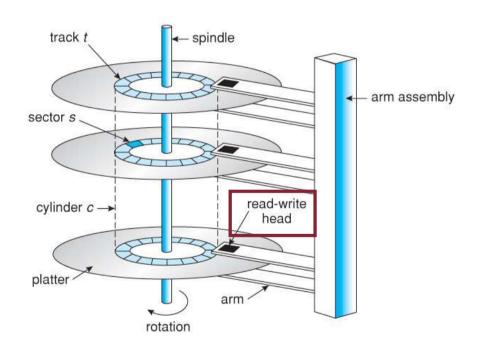


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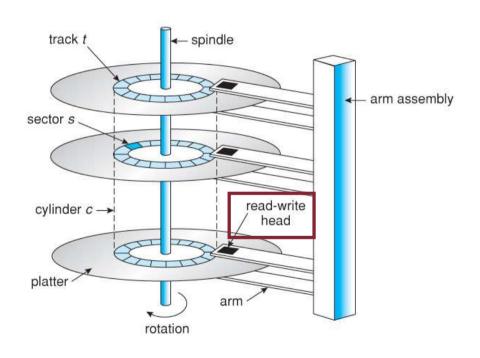
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Larger sector sizes reduce the space wasted by headers and trailers, but increase internal fragmentation

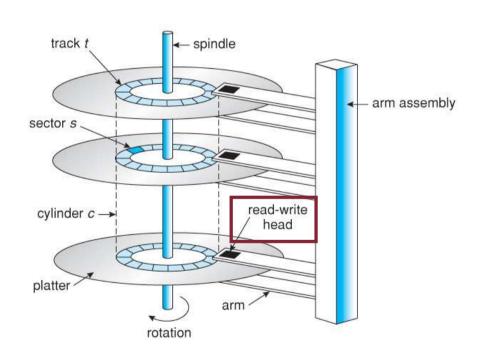


Data on hard drive is read by read-write heads



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Standard configuration uses one head per surface

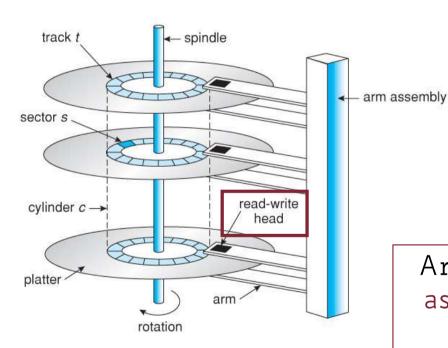


Data on hard drive is read by read-write heads

Standard configuration uses one head per surface

Each head is placed on a separate arm

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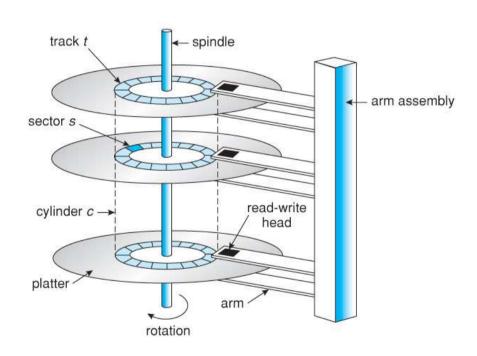
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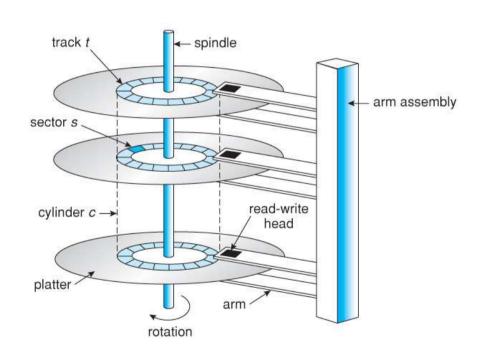
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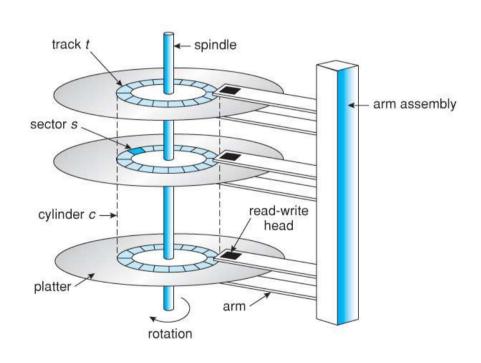
Arms are controlled by a common arm assembly moving simultaneously from one cylinder to another

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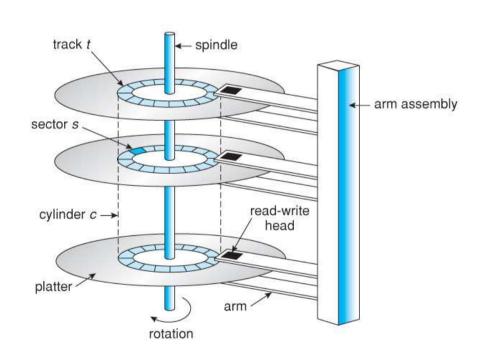


T = number of tracks per surface



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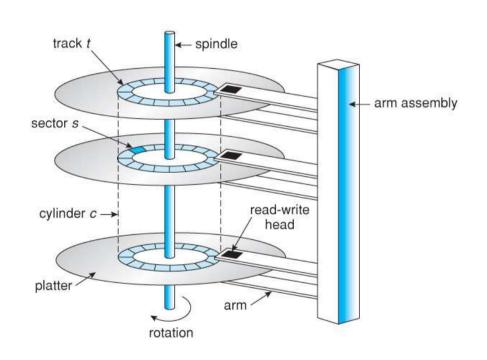
S = number of sectors per track



T = number of tracks per surface

S = number of sectors per track

B = number of bytes per sector



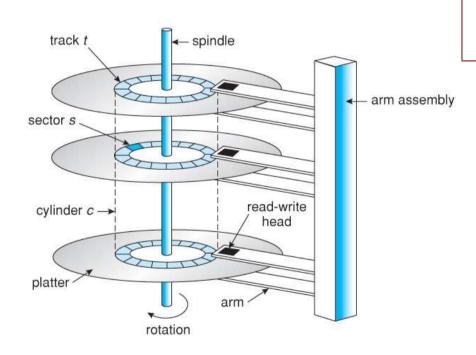
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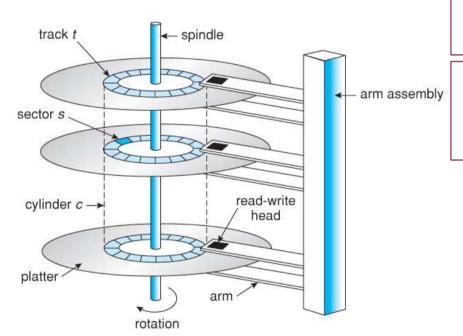
B = number of bytes per sector

C = H \* T \* S \* B

OVERALL CAPACITY

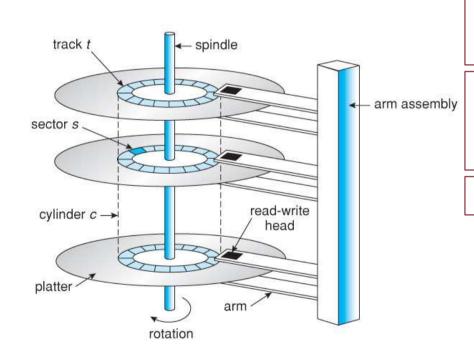


Until the end of 1980s, every track had the same number of sectors with the same number of bits



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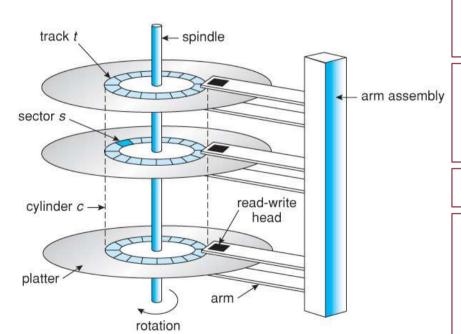
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Disk controllers have no "intelligence"



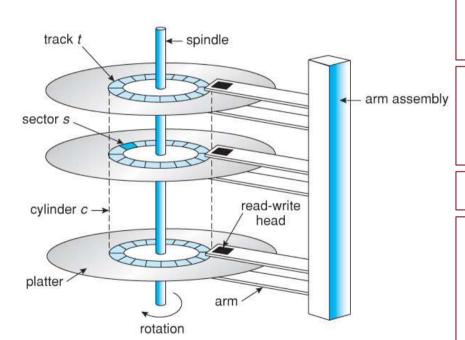
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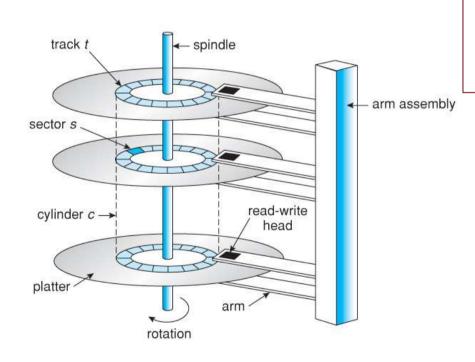
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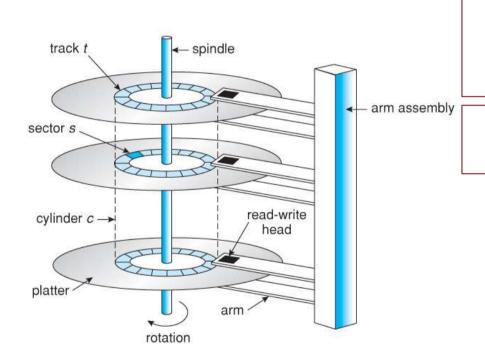
Disk controllers have no "intelligence"

#### Drawbacks:

- The capacity of the disk was determined by the maximum bit density a controller could handle
- Different frequencies and timing from innermost to outermost tracks

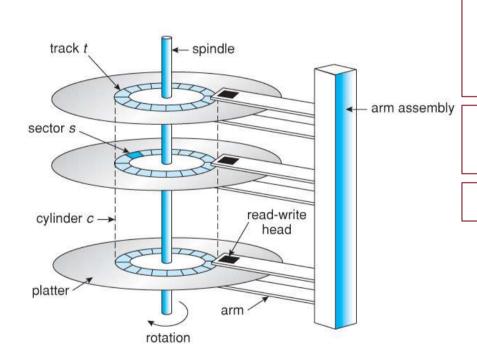


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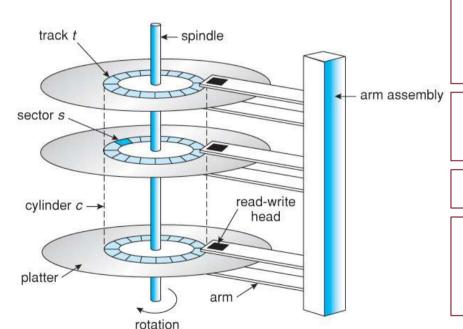
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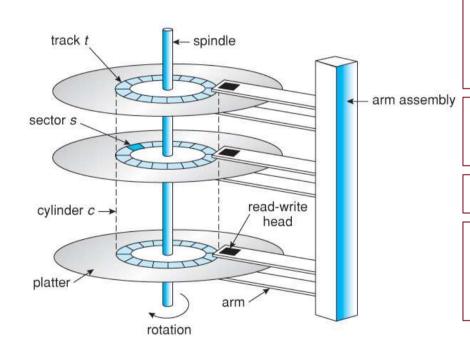


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The bit density is kept almost constant

Smarter disk controllers allow for logical addressing of sectors rather than physical



In practice, the number of sectors per track (S) varies with the radius of the track on the platter

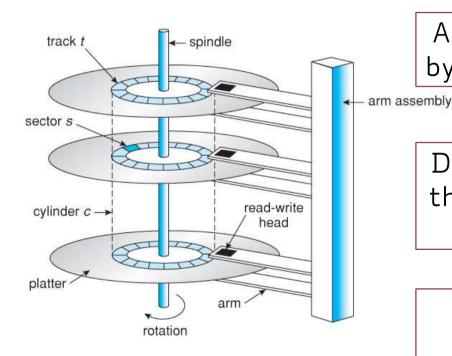
The outermost track is larger and can hold more sectors than the inner ones

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Zone Bit Recording (ZBR)

# Magnetic Disks: (Logical) Referencing



A physical block of data is specified by the (head, cylinder, sector) number

Disk blocks are numbered starting at the outermost cylinder, identified by

Note that cylinder coincides with track

The disk rotates at constant angular speed (e.g.,
 7200 rpm = 120 rps)

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   7200 rpm = 120 rps)
- Outer tracks spin faster than inner tracks (more sectors traversed in the same amount of time due to larger radius → more sectors per zone in ZBR)

- Data transfer from the disk to memory is made of 3 steps:
  - positioning time (seek time or random access time)
  - rotational delay
  - transfer time

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- Depends on how fast the hardware moves the arm
- Typically, the slowest step in the entire process

Bottleneck of overall disk data transfer

## Magnetic Disks: Rotational Delay

 The time required for the desired sector to rotate and come under the read-write head

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  - O → the sector is already underneath the head
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  - O → the sector is already underneath the head
  - full revolution → the sector is the one before but in the opposite direction
- On average, **0.5 revolutions** (r)
  - E.g., for a 7200 rpm (120 rps) disk this equals to 0.5 r/120 rps ~4 msec

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Data Transfer Time = Seek Time + Rotational Delay + Transfer Time

Sometimes the term transfer rate is used to refer to the overall data transfer time

#### Magnetic Disks: Structure

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- The array of blocks is mapped onto disk sectors sequentially

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- Then through the rest of tracks in the same cylinder
- Then through other cylinders (from the outermost to innermost)

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- If they accidentally contact the disk then a head crash occurs
- Head crash may permanently damage the disk or even destroy it
- To avoid such a risk, disk heads are "parked" when the computer is turned off

# Magnetic Disks: Interfaces

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  - they can be removed while the computer is running

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- Disk drives are connected to the computer via the I/O bus
- Some of the common interface formats include:
  - Enhanced Integrated Drive Electronics (EIDE);
  - Advanced Technology Attachment (ATA) and Serial ATA (SATA);
  - Universal Serial Bus (USB);
  - Fiber Channel (FC);
  - Small Computer Systems Interface (SCSI)

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- The disk controller is built into the disk itself
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- Data is transferred between the magnetic surface and onboard cache by the disk controller
- Finally, data is transferred from that cache to the host controller and the motherboard memory at electronic speeds

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  - Rotational Delay

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  - Seek Time
  - Rotational Delay
- To minimize data transfer time from disk we need to minimize those

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- Fast-spinning disks → lower rotational delay

Hardware Optimization

- How can the OS help minimize data transfer time?
- Schedule disk operations so as to minimize head movement
- Lay out data on disk so that related data are located on close tracks
- Place commonly-used data on a specific portion of the disk
- Pick carefully the block size contained on each sector:
  - Too small → more seeks are needed to transfer the same amount of data
  - Too large → more internal fragmentation and space wasted

## Summary

- Hard disks are slow devices compared to CPUs (and main memory)
- Manage those device efficiently is crucial
- Minimize seek and rotational delay on magnetic disks
- HW optimizations are limited → OS needs to take the lead here!