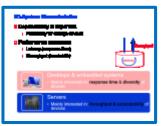
IT4272E-COMPUTER SYSTEMS

Storage and Other I/O Topics

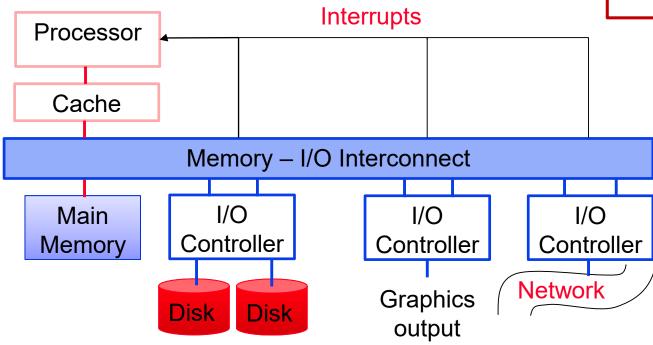
[with materials from Computer Organization and Design, 4th Edition, Patterson & Hennessy, © 2008, MK]

Introduction

- I/O devices can be characterized by
 - Behaviour: input, output, storage
 - Partner: human or machine
 - Data rate: bytes/sec, transfers/sec
- □ I/O bus connections

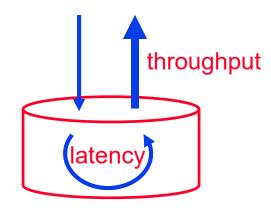






I/O System Characteristics

- Dependability is important
 - Particularly for storage devices
- Performance measures
 - Latency (response time)
 - Throughput (bandwidth)





Desktops & embedded systems

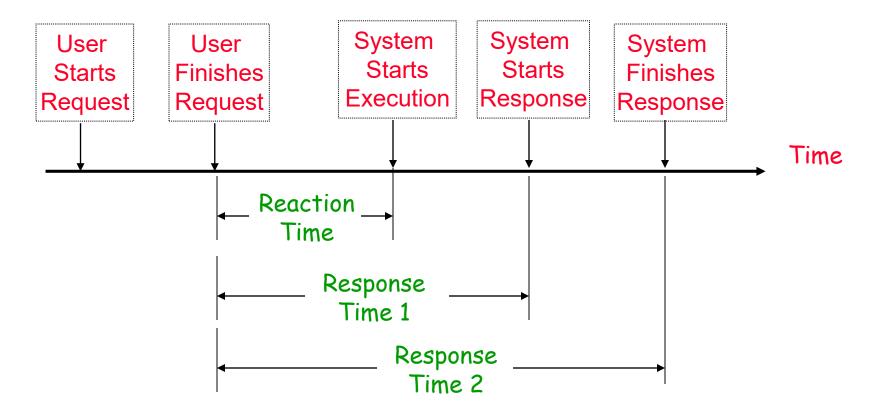
 Mainly interested in: response time & diversity of devices



Servers

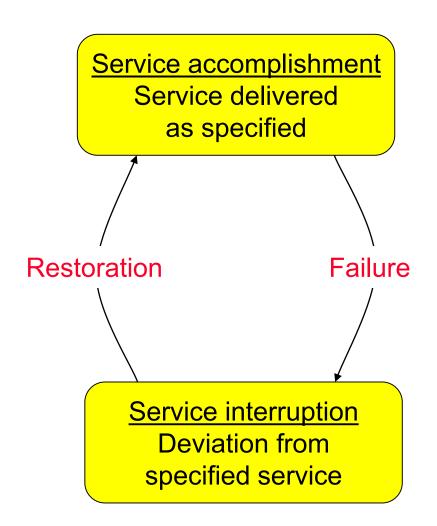
Mainly interested in: throughput & expandability of devices

Respond Time



- Can have two measures of response time
 - Both ok, but 2 preferred if execution long

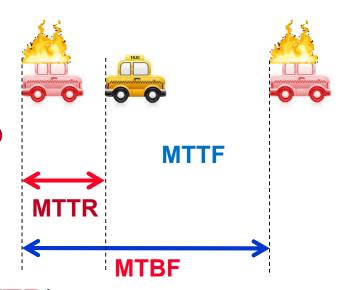
Dependability



- Fault: failure of a component
 - May or may not lead to system failure

Dependability Measures

- Reliability: mean time to failure (MTTF)
- Service interruption: mean time to repair (MTTR)
- Mean time between failuresMTBF = MTTF + MTTR



- Availability = MTTF / (MTTF + MTTR)
- Improving Availability



Increase MTTF: fault avoidance, fault tolerance, fault forecasting

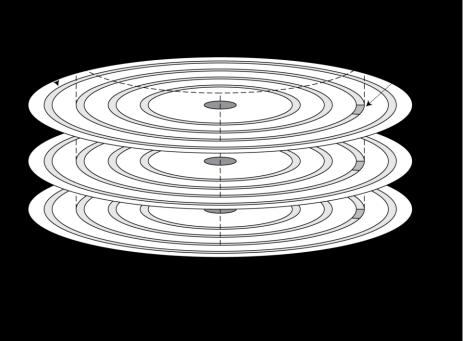


Reduce MTTR: improved tools and processes for diagnosis and repair

Disk Storage

■ Nonvolatile, rotating magnetic storage





Disk Sectors and Access

- Each sector records
 - Sector ID
 - Data (512 bytes, 4096 bytes proposed)
 - Error correcting code (ECC)
 - Used to hide defects and recording errors
 - Synchronization fields and gaps
- Access to a sector involves
 - Queuing delay if other accesses are pending
 - Seek: move the heads
 - Rotational latency
 - Data transfer
 - Controller overhead

Disk Access Example

Given

seek time 4ms controller delay 0.2ms

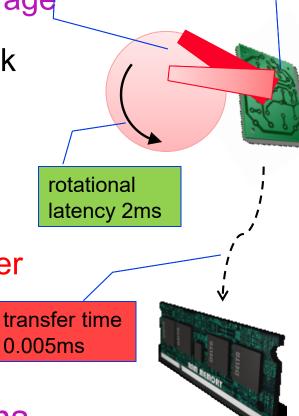
512B sector, 15,000rpm, 4ms average seek time, 100MB/s transfer rate,
 0.2ms controller overhead, idle disk

Average read time

- 1 4ms seek time
 - $+ \frac{1}{2} / (15,000/60) = 2$ ms rotational latency
 - + 512 / 100MB/s = 0.005ms transfer time
 - + 0.2ms controller delay
 - = 6.2 ms

□ If actual average seek time is 1ms

Average read time = 3.2ms



Disk Performance Issues

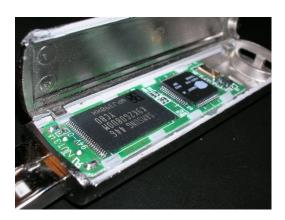
- Manufacturers quote average seek time
 - Based on all possible seeks
 - Locality and OS scheduling lead to smaller actual average seek times (25%~33%)
- Smart disk controller allocate physical sectors on disk
 - Present logical sector interface to host
 - SCSI, ATA, SATA
- Disk drives include caches
 - Prefetch sectors in anticipation of access
 - Avoid seek and rotational delay

anticipation /æn,tisi'peiʃn/:
sư đoán trước

Flash Storage

- Nonvolatile semiconductor storage
 - 100× 1000× faster than disk
 - Smaller, lower power, more robust
 - But more \$/GB (between disk and DRAM)





Flash Types

- □ NOR flash: bit cell like a NOR gate
 - Random read/write access
 - Used for instruction memory in embedded systems
- NAND flash: bit cell like a NAND gate
 - Denser (bits/area), but block-at-a-time access
 - Cheaper per GB
 - Used for USB keys, media storage, ...
- □ Flash bits wears out after 1000's of accesses
 - Not suitable for direct RAM or disk replacement
 - Wear leveling: remap data to less used blocks

Interconnecting Components

- Need interconnections between
 - CPU, memory, I/O controllers
- Bus: shared communication channel
 - Parallel set of wires for data and synchronization of data transfer
 - Can become a bottleneck
- Performance limited by physical factors
 - Wire length, number of connections
- More recent alternative: high-speed serial connections with switches
 - Like networks

Bus Types

- Processor-Memory buses
 - Short, high speed
 - Design is matched to memory organization
- □ I/O buses
 - Longer, allowing multiple connections
 - Specified by standards for interoperability
 - Connect to processor-memory bus through a bridge

Bus Signals and Synchronization

Data lines

- Carry address and data
- Multiplexed or separate

Control lines

Indicate data type, synchronize transactions

Synchronous

Uses a bus clock

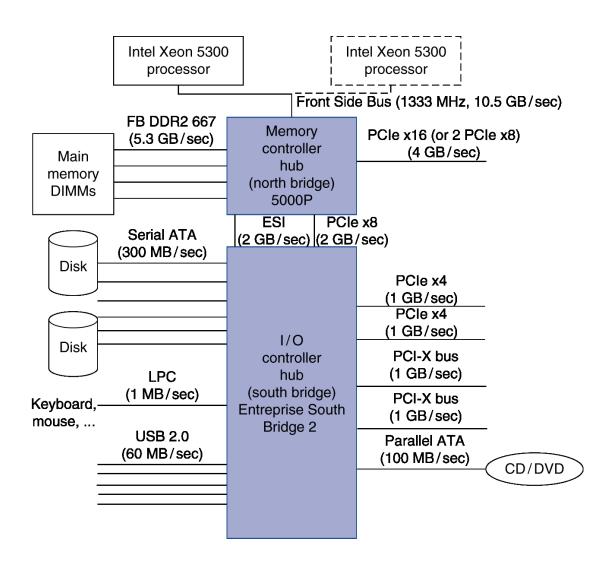
Asynchronous

Uses request/acknowledge control lines for handshaking

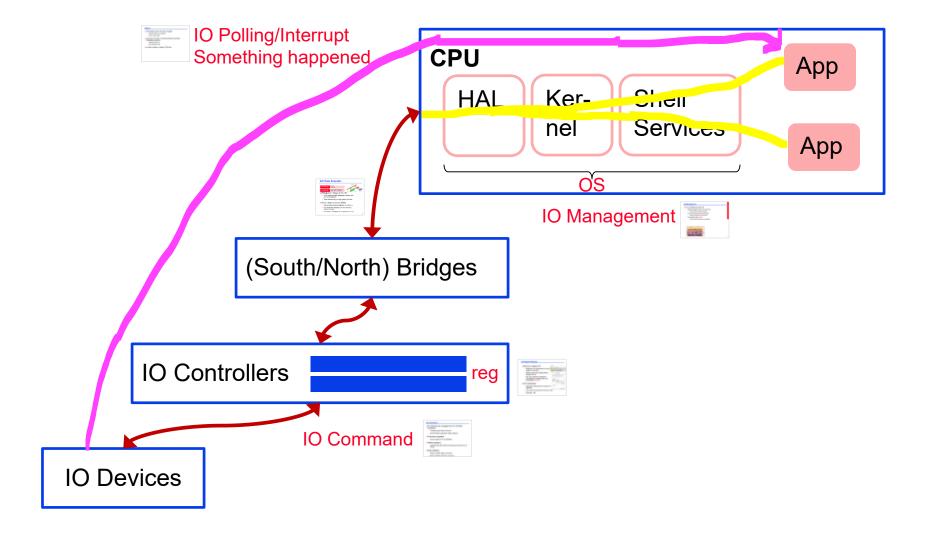
I/O Bus Examples

	Firewire	USB 2.0	PCI Express	Serial ATA	Serial Attached SCSI
Intended use	External	External	Internal	Internal	External
Devices per channel	63	127	1	1	4
Data width	4	2	2/lane	4	4
Peak bandwidth	50MB/s or 100MB/s	0.2MB/s, 1.5MB/s, or 60MB/s	250MB/s/lane 1×, 2×, 4×, 8×, 16×, 32×	300MB/s	300MB/s
Hot pluggable	Yes	Yes	Depends	Yes	Yes
Max length	4.5m	5m	0.5m	1m	8m
Standard	IEEE 1394	USB Implementers Forum	PCI-SIG	SATA-IO	INCITS TC T10

Typical x86 PC I/O System

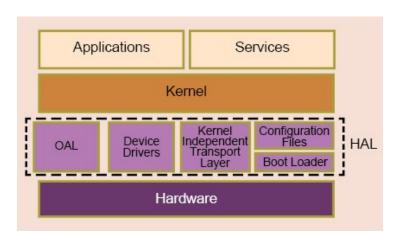


IO Model



I/O Management

- □ I/O is mediated by the OS
 - Multiple programs share I/O resources
 - Need protection and scheduling
 - I/O causes asynchronous interrupts
 - Same mechanism as exceptions
 - I/O programming is fiddly
 - OS provides abstractions to programs



I/O Commands

- I/O devices are managed by I/O controller hardware
 - Transfers data to/from device
 - Synchronizes operations with software
- Command registers
 - Cause device to do something
- Status registers
 - Indicate what the device is doing and occurrence of errors
- Data registers
 - Write: transfer data to a device
 - Read: transfer data from a device

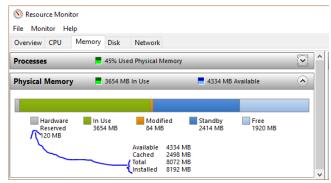
I/O Register Mapping

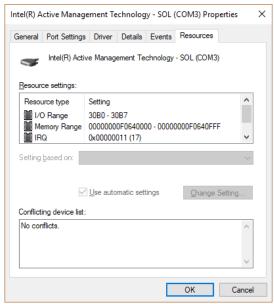
Memory mapped I/O

- Registers are addressed in same space as memory
- Address decoder distinguishes between them
- OS uses address translation mechanism to make them only accessible to kernel

□ I/O instructions

- Separate instructions to access I/O registers
- Can only be executed in kernel mode
- Example: x86





Polling

- Periodically check I/O status register
 - If device ready, do operation
 - If error, take action
- Common in small or low-performance real-time embedded systems
 - Predictable timing
 - Low hardware cost
- □ In other systems, wastes CPU time

Interrupts

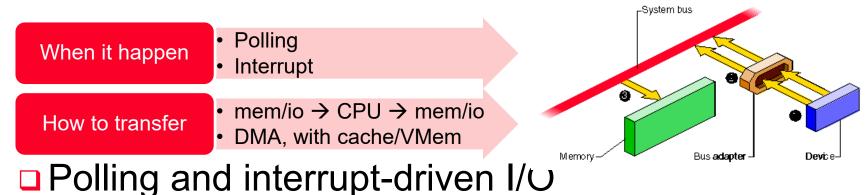
- When a device is ready or error occurs
 - Controller interrupts CPU
- Interrupt is like an exception
 - But not synchronized to instruction execution
 - Can invoke handler between instructions
 - Cause information often identifies the interrupting device
- Priority interrupts
 - Devices needing more urgent attention get higher priority
 - Can interrupt handler for a lower priority interrupt

Interrupts: Examples

tiennd@	tiennd:~\$	cat /proc/ir	terrupts				
	CPU0	CPU1	CPU2	CPU3			
0:	76	0	0	0	IO-APIC-edge	timer	
1:	13090	3	0	0	IO-APIC-edge	i8042	
8:	1	0	0	0	IO-APIC-edge	rtc0	
9:	1064	0	0	0	IO-APIC-fasteoi	acpi	
12:	213112	2	0	0	IO-APIC-edge	i8042	
16:	915415	0	0	0	IO-APIC-fasteoi	ehci_hcd:usb1, nvidia	
17:	282256	347	0	22193	IO-APIC-fasteoi	ath9k, snd_hda_intel	
23:	74438	0	0	0	IO-APIC-fasteoi	ehci_hcd:usb2	
41:	81104	0	0	0	PCI-MSI-edge	ahci	
42:	0	0	0	0	PCI-MSI-edge	eth0	
43:	10	0	0	0	PCI-MSI-edge	mei	
44:	286	0	0	0	PCI-MSI-edge	snd_hda_intel	
NMI:	39	609	372	359	Non-maskable interrupts		
LOC:	1377006	1000228	742879	758045	Local timer inte	rrupts 🛕	
SPU:	0	0	0	0	Spurious interru	ots	
Number	the nu	mber of inter	upt handled	by CPU C	ore Interrupt Ty	pe Device Name	

- Example with Asus K43SJ
- Each CPU in the system has its own column and its own number of interrupts per IRQ.
- □ IRQ0: system timer; IRQ1&12: keyboard&mouse.

I/O Data Transfer



- CPU transfers data between memory and
 - Time consuming for high-speed devices
- Direct memory access (DMA)

I/O data registers

- OS provides starting address in memory
- I/O controller transfers to/from memory autonomously
- Controller interrupts on completion or error

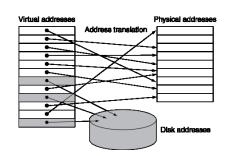
DMA/Cache Interaction

- 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
- Need to ensure cache coherence
 - Flush blocks from cache if they will be used for DMA
 - Or use non-cacheable memory locations for I/O

stale /steil/ (adj): cũ rích, mất hiệu lực coherence /kou'hiərəns/: tính nhất quán

DMA/VM Interaction

- OS uses virtual addresses for memory
 - DMA blocks may not be contiguous in physical memory



- Should DMA use virtual addresses?
 - Would require controller to do translation
- If DMA uses physical addresses
 - May need to break transfers into pagesized chunks
 - Or chain multiple transfers
 - C contiguous /kən'tigjuəs/: liền kề, bên cạnh for DMA

Measuring I/O Performance

I/O performance depends on

Hardware

- CPU
- Memory
- Controllers
- Buses

Software

- OS
- DBMS
- Application

Workload

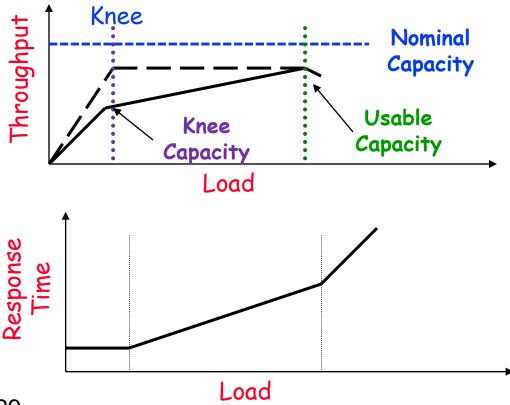
- Request rates
- Patterns

- I/O system design can trade-off between response time and throughput
 - Measurements of throughput often done with constrained response-time



Throughput vs Respond Time

Throughput increases as load increases, to a point



- Nominal capacity is ideal (ex: 10 Mbps)
- Usable capacity is achievable (ex: 9.8 Mbps)
- Knee is where response time goes up rapidly for small increase in throughput

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Transaction Processing Benchmarks

- Transactions
 - Small data accesses to a DBMS
 - Interested in I/O rate, not data rate
- Measure throughput
 - Subject to response time limits and failure handling
 - ACID (Atomicity, Consistency, Isolation, Durability)
 - Overall cost per transaction
- Transaction Processing Council (TPC) benchmarks (www.tcp.org)
 - 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

File System & Web Benchmarks

- □ SPEC System File System (SFS)
 - Synthetic workload for NFS server, based on monitoring real systems
 - Results
 - Throughput (operations/sec)
 - Response time (average ms/operation)

SPEC Web Server benchmark

- Measures simultaneous user sessions, subject to required throughput/session
- Three workloads: Banking, Ecommerce, and Support

I/O vs. CPU Performance

Amdahl's Law

Don't neglect I/O performance as parallelism increases compute performance

Example

- Benchmark takes 90s CPU time, 10s I/O time
- Double the number of CPUs/2 years
 - I/O unchanged

Year	CPU time	I/O time	Elapsed time	% I/O time
now	90s	10s	100s	10%
+2	45s	10s	55s	18%
+4	23s	10s	33s	31%
+6	11s	10s	21s	47%

Amdahl and Gustafson's Laws

□ Amdahl's Law: The speed up achieved through parallelization of a program is limited by the percentage of its workload that is inherently serial.

□ Gustafson's Law: With increasing data size, the speedup obtained though parallelization increases, because the parallel work increases with data size.

$$Speedup(N) = N - S(N-1) = N(1-S) + S$$

denominator /di'nɔmineitə/ mẫu số; mẫu thức numerator /'njuːməreitə/: tử số fraction /'frækʃn/: phân số

Exercise

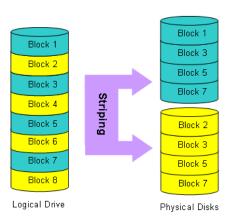
□ Assume accelerating a machine by adding a vector mode to it. When a computation is run in vector mode, it is 20 times faster than the normal mode of execution.

However, the software program cannot be parallized absolutely and CPU's speedup of this program is only 2. So how many per cent the software cannot run in vector mode?

Answer:	

RAID

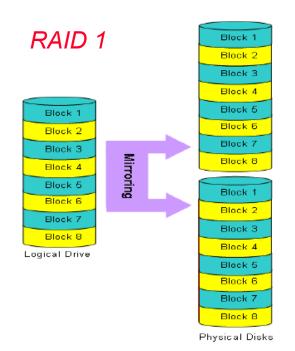
- Redundant Array of Inexpensive (Independent) Disks
 - Use multiple smaller disks (c.f. one large disk)
 - Parallelism improves performance
 - Plus extra disk(s) for redundant data storage
- Provides fault tolerant storage system
 - Especially if failed disks can be "hot swapped"
- □ RAID 0, stripping
 - No redundancy ("AID"?)
 - Just stripe data over multiple disks
 - But it does improve performance



RAID 1 & 0+1

RAID 1: Mirroring

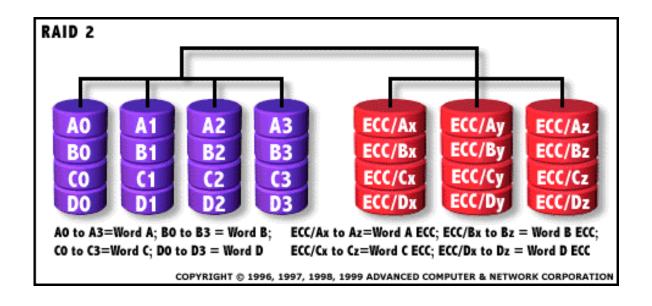
- N + N disks, replicate data
 - Write data to both data disk and mirror disk
 - On disk failure, read from mirror



RAID 0+1: Stripping+ Mirroring Block 1 Block 1 Block 1 Mirroring Block 3 Block 2 Block 3 Block 5 Block 3 Block 5 Striping Block 7 Block 4 Block 7 Block 5 Block 2 Block 2 Block 6 Mirroring Block 4 Block 4 Block 7 Block 6 Block 6 Block 8 Block 8 Block 8 Logical Drive Physical Disks Physical Disks

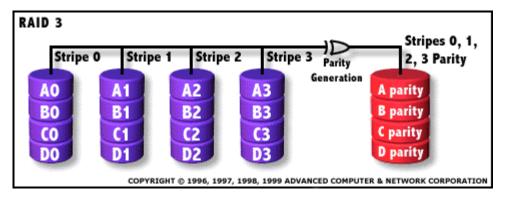
RAID 2, bit stripped

- □ RAID 2: Error correcting code (ECC)
 - 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



RAID 3: Bit-Interleaved Parity

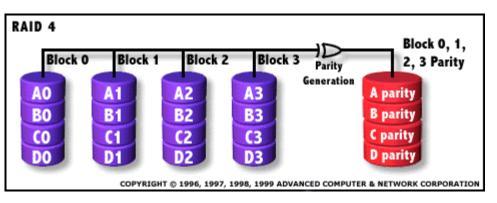
- N + 1 disks
 - Data striped across N disks at byte level
 - Redundant disk stores parity (dedicated parity disk)
 - Read access: Read all disks
 - Write access: Generate new parity and update all disks
 - On failure: Use parity to reconstruct missing data
- Not widely used



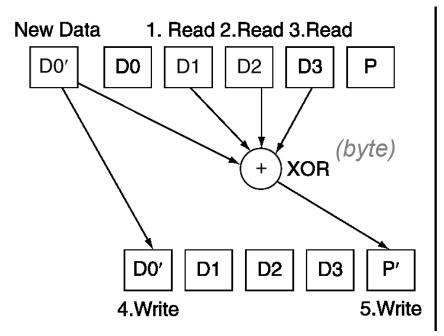
RAID 4: Block-Interleaved Parity

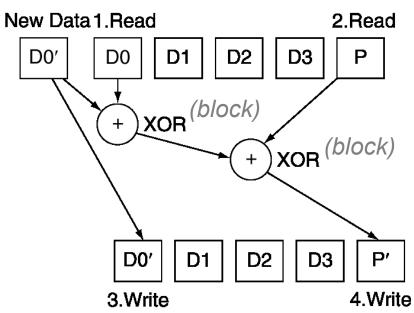
■ N + 1 disks

- Data striped across N disks at block level (16, 32, 64,128 kB)
- Redundant disk stores parity for a group of blocks
- Read access
 - Read only the disk holding the required block
- Write access
 - Just read disk containing modified block, and parity disk
 - Calculate new parity, update data disk and parity disk
- On failure
 - Use parity to reconstruct missing data
- Not widely used



RAID 3 vs RAID 4



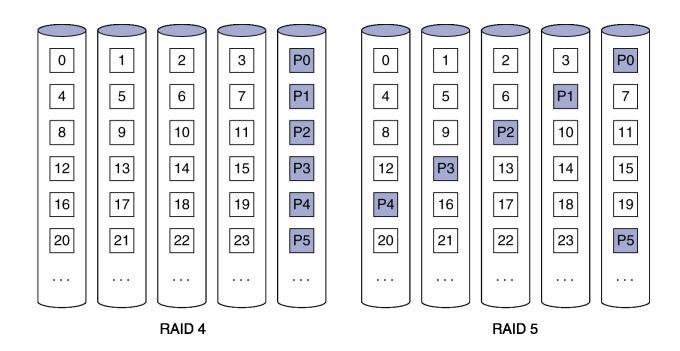


Read 3 disks to get 3 bytes, and then create parity byte

Read 2 disks to get 2 blocks (include parity block), and then create new parity block

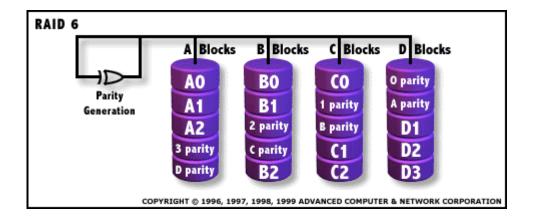
RAID 5: Distributed Parity

- □ N + 1 disks
 - Like RAID 4, but parity blocks distributed across disks
 - Avoids parity disk being a bottleneck
- Widely used



RAID 6: P + Q Redundancy

- □ N + 2 disks
 - Like RAID 5, but two lots of parity
 - Greater fault tolerance through more redundancy
- Multiple RAID
 - More advanced systems give similar fault tolerance with better performance



RAID Summary

- RAID can improve performance and availability
 - High availability requires hot swapping
- Assumes independent disk failures
 - Too bad if the building burns down!
- See "Hard Disk Performance, Quality and Reliability"
 - http://www.pcguide.com/ref/hdd/perf/index.htm-

I/O System Design

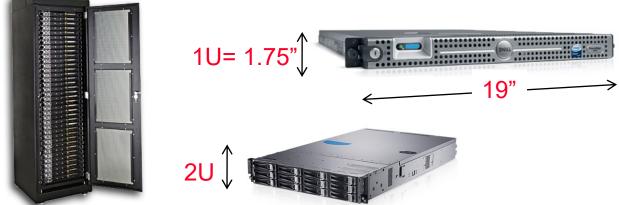
- Satisfying latency requirements
 - For time-critical operations
 - If system is unloaded
 - Add up latency of components

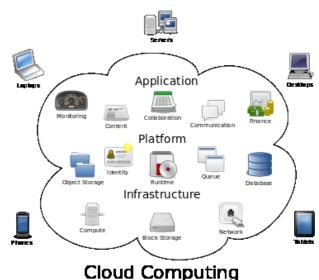
weakest link

- Maximizing throughput
 - Find "weakest link" (lowest-bandwidth component)
 - Configure to operate at its maximum bandwidth
 - Balance remaining components in the system
- □ If system is loaded, simple analysis is insufficient
 - Need to use queuing models or simulation

Server Computers

- Applications are increasingly run on servers
 - Web search, office apps, virtual worlds, cloud...
- Requires large data centre servers
 - Multiple processors, networks connections, massive storage
 - Space and power constraints
- Server equipment built for 19" ra
 - Multiples of 1.75" (1U) high

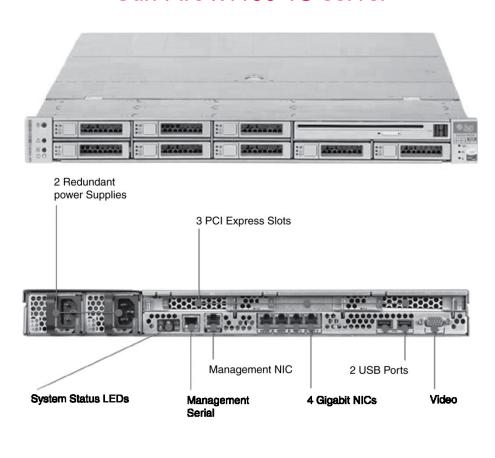




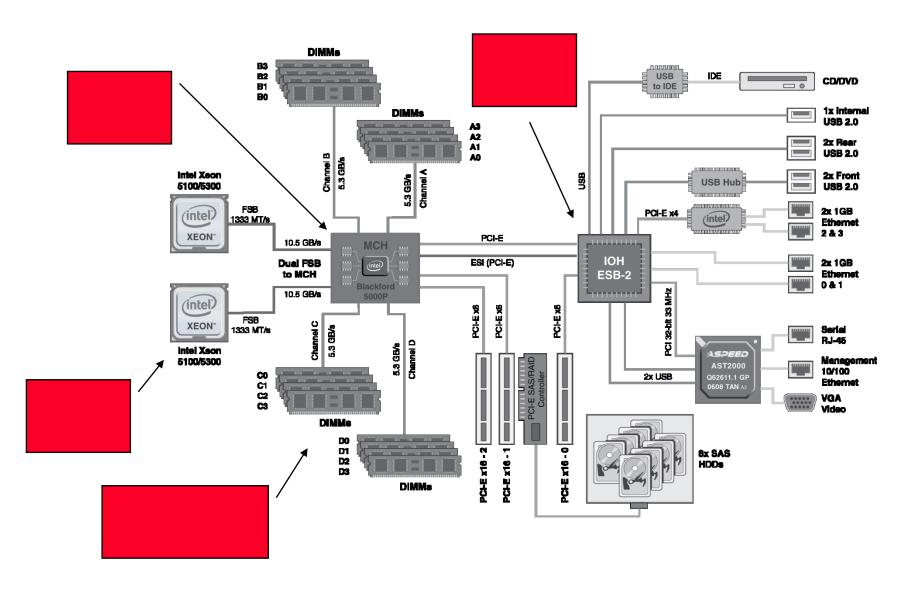
Rack-Mounted Servers



Sun Fire x4150 1U server



Sun Fire x4150 1U server



I/O System Design Example

- □ Given a Sun Fire x4150 system with
 - Workload: 64KB disk reads
 - Each I/O op requires 200,000 user-code instructions and 100,000 OS instructions
 - Each CPU: 10⁹ instructions/sec
 - FSB: 10.6 GB/sec peak
 - I DRAM DDR2 667MHz: 5.336 GB/sec
 - PCI-E 8× bus: 8 × 250MB/sec = 2GB/sec
 - Disks: 15,000 rpm, 2.9ms avg. seek time, 112MB/sec transfer rate
- What I/O rate can be sustained?
 - For random reads, and for sequential reads

Design Example (cont)

□ I/O rate for CPUs

- Per core: $10^9/(100,000 + 200,000) = 3,333$ IOs/sec
- 8 cores: $3,333 \times 8 = 26,667$ IOs/sec

Random reads, I/O rate for disks

Assume actual seek time is average/4



- Time/op = seek + latency + transfer (+ control time~0)
 = 2.9ms/4 + 4ms/2 + 64KB/(112MB/s)=3.3ms(per IOs)
- 1 1000*1/3.3=303 IOs/sec per disk, 2424 IOs/sec for 8 disks

Sequential reads

- 112MB/s / 64KB = 1750 IOs/sec per disk
- 14,000 ops/sec for 8 disks

Design Example (cont)

- □ PCI-E I/O rate
 - 2GB/sec / 64KB = 31,250 IOs/sec
- □ DRAM I/O rate
 - 1 5.336 GB/sec / 64KB = 83,375 IOs/sec
- □ FSB I/O rate
 - Assume we can sustain half the peak rate
 - 10.6 GB/sec /2 / 64KB = 81,540 IOs/sec per FSB
 - 163,080 IOs/sec for 2 FSBs (2 Intel Xeon)
- □ Weakest link: disks | ample /'æmpl/ (adj): nhiều, phong phú

headroom: không gian trống

- 2424 IOs/sec random, 14,000 IOs/sec sequential
- Other components have ample headroom to accommodate these rates

Fallacy: Disk Dependability

- □ If a disk manufacturer quotes MTTF as 1,200,000hr (140yr)
 - A disk will work that long
- Wrong: this is the mean time to failure
 - What is the distribution of failures?
 - What if you have 1000 disks
 - How many will fail per year?

$$Failed \, Disks = \frac{1000 \, disks \times (24 * 365) \, hrs/disk}{1200000 \, hrs/failure} = 7.3$$

Annual Failure Rate (AFR) =
$$\frac{7.3}{1000}$$
 = 0.73%

fallacy /ˈfæləsi/ ảo tưởng; ý kiến sai lầm

Fallacies

Disk failure rates are as specified





Prof. Bianca Schroeder

- Schroeder and Gibson: 2% to 4% vs. 0.6% to 0.8%
- Pinheiro, et al.: 1.7% (first year) to 8.6% (third year) vs. 1.5%
- Why?

□ A 1GB/s interconnect transfers 1GB in one sec

- But what's a GB?
- For bandwidth, use $1GB = 10^9 B$
- For storage, use $1GB = 2^{30}B = 1.075 \times 10^9 B$
- So 1GB/sec is 0.93GB in one second
 - About 7% error



Pitfall: Offloading to I/O Processors

- Overhead of managing I/O processor request may dominate
 - Quicker to do small operation on the CPU
 - But I/O architecture may prevent that
- □ I/O processor may be slower
 - Since it's supposed to be simpler
- Making it faster makes it into a major system component
 - Might need its own coprocessors!



Pitfall: Backing Up to Tape

- Magnetic tape used to have advantages
 - Removable, high capacity
- Advantages eroded by disk technology developments
- Makes better sense to replicate data
 - E.g, RAID, remote mirroring



IBM System
Storage TS1130
Tape Drive



Fallacy: Disk Scheduling

- Best to let the OS schedule disk accesses
 - But modern drives deal with Logical Block Addresses
 - Map to physical track, cylinder, sector locations
 - Also, blocks are cached by the drive
 - OS is unaware of physical locations
 - Reordering can reduce performance
 - Depending on placement and caching

$$LBA = ((C \times HPC) + H) \times SPT + S - 1$$

$$C = LBA \div (SPT \times HPC)$$

 $H = (LBA \div SPT) \mod HPC$
 $S = (LBA \mod SPT) + 1$

Example: Disk Management

```
tiennd@tiennd:~$ sudo fdisk -l
Disk /dev/sda: 500.1 GB, 500107862016 bytes
255 heads, 63 sectors/track, 60801 cylinders, total 976773168 sectors
Units = sectors of 1 * 512 = 512 bytes
Sector size (logical/physical): 512 bytes / 512 bytes
I/O size (minimum/optimal): 512 bytes / 512 bytes
Disk identifier: 0x404ccd9b
                                       Blocks Id System
  Device Boot
                  Start
                               End
/dev/sda1 356530606
                         976773119 310121257 f W95 Ext'd (LBA)
/dev/sda2
          * 146801970 356530544 104864287+ 7 HPFS/NTFS/exFAT
/dev/sda3
                                               83 Linux
                   2048 130070527 65034240
/dev/sda4
                                               82 Linux swap / Solaris
              130070528 146800639
                                      8365056
/dev/sda5
              356530608 482351624
                                     62910508+ 7 HPFS/NTFS/exFAT
/dev/sda6
              482367488
                                               83 Linux
                         976773119
                                    247202816
```

```
Disk size = <sector num>*<sector size>
= 976773168 * 512 = 500107862016=465GB
```

Pitfall: Peak Performance

- Peak I/O rates are nearly impossible to achieve
 - Usually, some other system component limits performance
 - E.g., transfers to memory over a bus
 - Collision with DRAM refresh
 - Arbitration contention with other bus masters
 - E.g., PCI bus: peak bandwidth ~133 MB/sec
 - In practice, max 80MB/sec sustainable



Concluding Remarks

- I/O performance measures
 - Throughput, response time
 - Dependability and cost also important
- Buses used to connect CPU, memory, I/O controllers
 - Polling, interrupts, DMA
- I/O benchmarks
 - TPC, SPECSFS, SPECWeb
- RAID
 - Improves performance and dependability