

Performance and page faults

- **First: how often do they happen?**
 - depends! (on workloads and memory sizes)
 - in most systems, very rare
 - scenario: random access to 4GB of VM with 2GB real memory
 - 50% of memory access will generate page faults

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Disk-based storage in computers

- **Memory/storage hierarchy**
 - Combining many technologies to balance costs/benefits
 - Recall the virtual memory lecture
- **Persistence**
 - Storing data for lengthy periods of time
 - DRAM/SRAM is “volatile”: contents lost if power lost
 - Disks are “non-volatile”: contents survive power outages
 - To be useful, it must also be possible to find it again later
 - this brings in many interesting data organization, consistency, and management issues
 - take 18-746/15-746 Storage Systems ④

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What's Inside A Disk Drive?

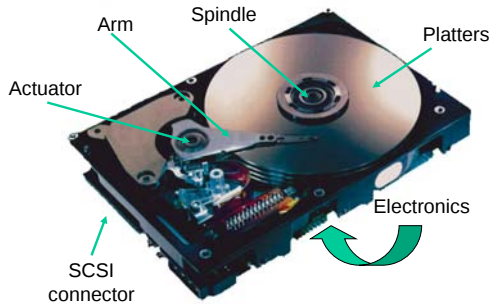


Image courtesy of Seagate Technology

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Disk Electronics

Quantum Viking (circa 1997)



6 Chips

Just like a small computer – processor, memory, network iface

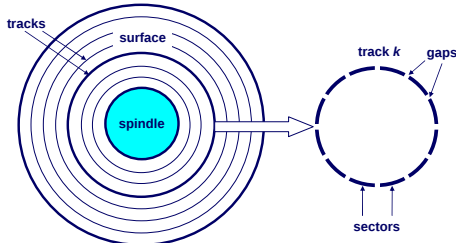
- Connect to disk
- Control processor
- Cache memory
- Control ASIC
- Connect to motor

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Disk “Geometry”

- Disks contain **platters**, each with two **surfaces**
- Each surface organized in concentric rings called **tracks**
- Each track consists of **sectors** separated by **gaps**

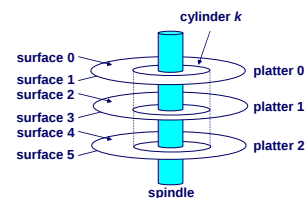


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Disk Geometry (Multiple-Platter View)

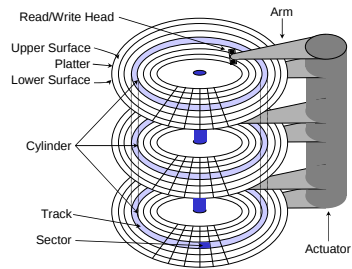
Aligned tracks form a cylinder



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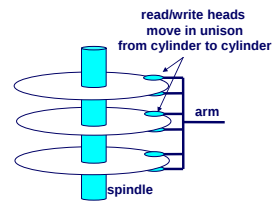
Disk Structure



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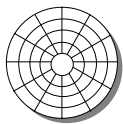
Disk Operation (Multi-Platter View)



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Disk Structure - top view of single platter

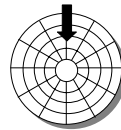


Surface organized into tracks
Tracks divided into sectors

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Disk Access

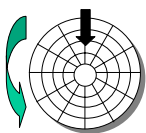


Head in position above a track

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Disk Access

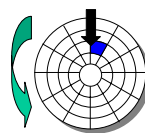


Rotation is counter-clockwise

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Disk Access - Read

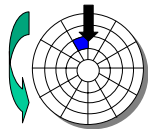


About to read blue sector

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Disk Access – Read



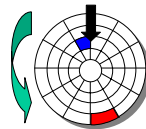
After BLUE read

After reading blue sector

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Disk Access – Read



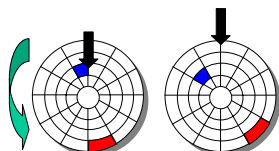
After BLUE read

Red request scheduled next

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Disk Access – Seek



After BLUE read

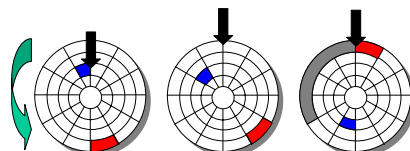
Seek for RED

Seek to red's track

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Disk Access – Rotational Latency



After BLUE read

Seek for RED

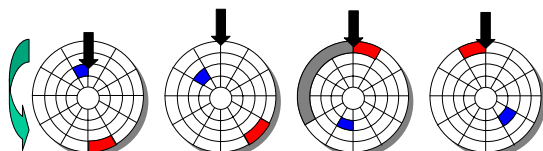
Rotational latency

Wait for red sector to rotate around

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Disk Access – Read



After BLUE read

Seek for RED

Rotational latency

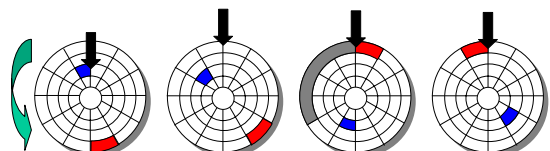
After RED read

Complete read of red

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Disk Access – Service Time Components



After BLUE read

Seek for RED

Rotational latency

After RED read

Seek
Rotational Latency
Data Transfer

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Disk Access Time

Average time to access a specific sector approximated by:

- Taccess = Tavg seek + Tavg rotation + Tavg transfer

Seek time (Tavg seek)

- Time to position heads over cylinder containing target sector
- Typical Tavg seek = 3-5 ms

Rotational latency (Tavg rotation)

- Time waiting for first bit of target sector to pass under r/w head
- Tavg rotation = $1/2 \times 1/\text{RPMs} \times 60 \text{ sec}/1 \text{ min}$
 - e.g., 3ms for 10,000 RPM disk

Transfer time (Tavg transfer)

- Time to read the bits in the target sector
- Tavg transfer = $1/\text{RPM} \times 1/(\text{avg \# sectors/track}) \times 60 \text{ secs}/1 \text{ min}$
 - e.g., 0.006ms for 10,000 RPM disk with 1,000 sectors/track
- given 512-byte sectors, ~85 MB/s data transfer rate

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Disk Access Time Example

Given:

- Rotational rate = 7,200 RPM
- Average seek time = 5 ms
- Avg # sectors/track = 1000

Derived average time to access random sector:

- Tavg rotation = $1/2 \times (60 \text{ secs}/7200 \text{ RPM}) \times 1000 \text{ ms/sec} = 4 \text{ ms}$
- Tavg transfer = $60/7200 \text{ RPM} \times 1/400 \text{ secs/track} \times 1000 \text{ ms/sec} = 0.008 \text{ ms}$
- Taccess = 5 ms + 4 ms + 0.008 ms = 9.008 ms
 - Time to second sector: 0.008 ms

Important points:

- Access time dominated by seek time and rotational latency
- First bit in a sector is the most expensive, the rest are "free"
- SRAM access time is about 4 ns/doubleword, DRAM about 60 ns
 - ~100,000 times longer to access a word on disk than in DRAM

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Performance and page faults

- First: how often do they happen?**
 - depends! (on workloads and memory sizes)
 - in most systems, very rare
 - scenario: random access to 4GB of VM with 2GB real memory
 - 50% of memory access will generate page faults
- Second: how long do they take?**
 - usually, one disk access
 - lets say 10ms, for our scenario
- So, how fast does the program go in the scenario?**
 - 100 pageFaults/second * 2 memoryAccesses/pageFault
 - 200 memory accesses per second

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Disk storage as array of blocks



OS's view of storage device
(as exposed by SCSI or IDE/ATA protocols)

- Common "logical block" size: 512 bytes
- Number of blocks: device capacity / block size
- Common OS-to-storage requests defined by few fields
 - R/W, block #, # of blocks, memory source/dest

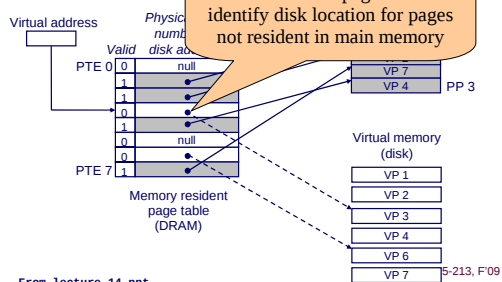
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Reminder: Page Faults

A page fault is caused by a reference to a VM word that is not in physical (main) memory

- Example: An instruction reference that triggers a page fault

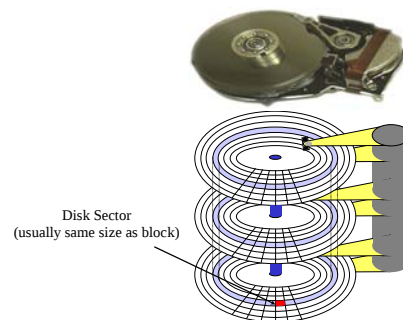


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From lecture-14.ppt

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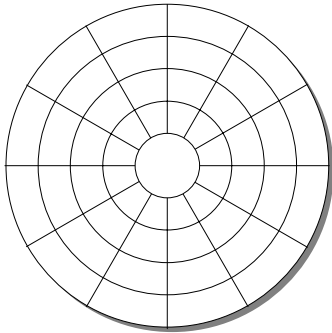
In device, "blocks" mapped to physical store



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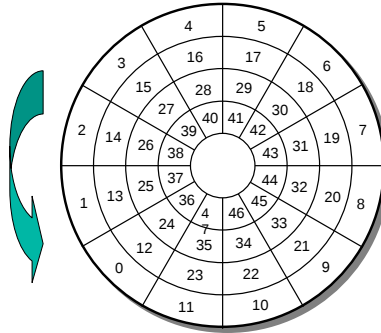
Physical sectors of a single-surface disk



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LBN-to-physical for a single-surface disk



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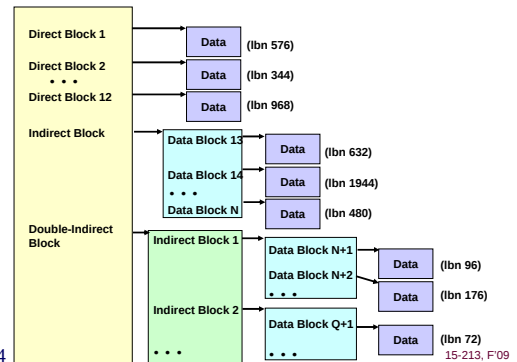
Mapping file offsets to disk LBNs

- Issue in question**
 - need to keep track of which LBNs hold which file data
- Most trivial mapping: just remember start location**
 - then keep entire file in contiguous LBNs
 - what happens when it grows?
 - alternately, include a "next pointer" in each "block"
 - how does one find location of a particular offset?
- Most common approach: block lists**
 - an array with one LBN per block in the file
 - Note: file block size can exceed one logical (disk) block
 - so, groups of logical blocks get treated as a unit by file system
 - e.g., 8KB = 16 disk blocks (of 512 bytes each)

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A common approach to recording a block list

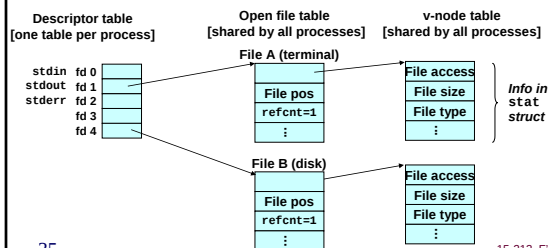


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Reminder: How the Unix Kernel Represents Open Files

- Two descriptors referencing two distinct open disk files. Descriptor 1 (stdout) points to terminal, and descriptor 4 points to open disk file**



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From lecture-13.ppt

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Disk Capacity

Capacity: maximum number of bits that can be stored

- Vendors express capacity in units of gigabytes (GB), where $1 \text{ GB} = 10^9 \text{ Bytes}$ (Lawsuit pending! Claims deceptive advertising)

Capacity is determined by these technology factors:

- Recording density** (bits/in): number of bits that can be squeezed into a 1 inch linear segment of a track
- Track density** (tracks/in): number of tracks that can be squeezed into a 1 inch radial segment
- Areal density** (bits/in²): product of recording and track density

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Computing Disk Capacity

Capacity = (# bytes/sector) x (avg. # sectors/track) x
(# tracks/surface) x (# surfaces/platter) x
(# platters/disk)

Example:

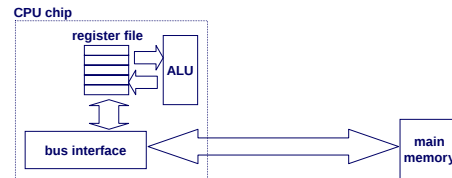
- 512 bytes/sector
- 1000 sectors/track (on average)
- 20,000 tracks/surface
- 2 surfaces/platter
- 5 platters/disk

Capacity = $512 \times 1000 \times 80000 \times 2 \times 5$
= 409,600,000,000
= 409.6 GB

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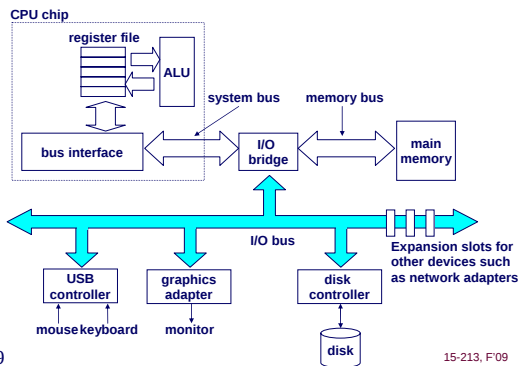
Looking back at the hardware



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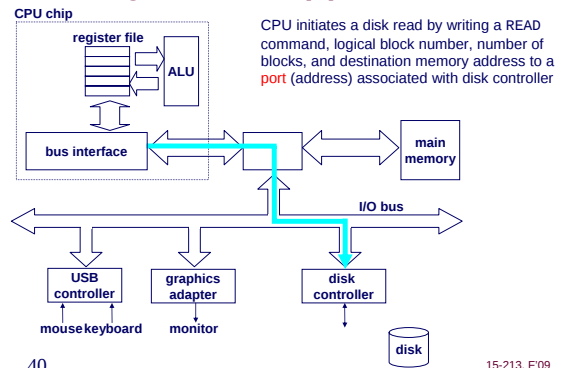
Connecting I/O devices: the I/O Bus



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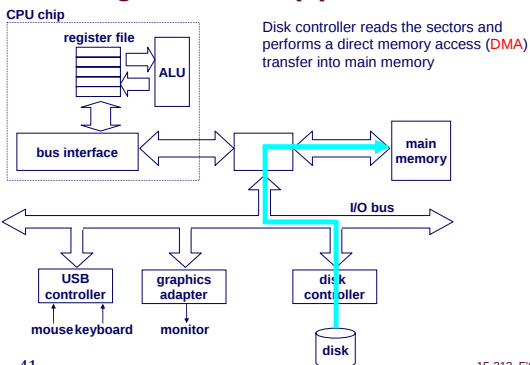
Reading from disk (1)



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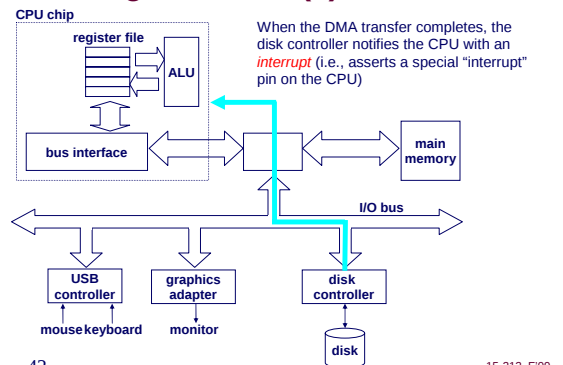
Reading from disk (2)



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Reading from disk (3)



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