

# Lecture 14: I/O and Disks

601.418/618 Operating Systems

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March 26, 2025

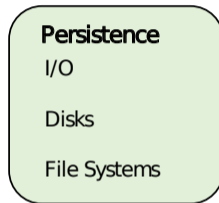
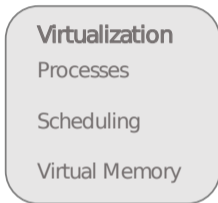
# Agenda

- ▶ I/O devices
- ▶ Device interaction
  - ▶ Programmed I/O
  - ▶ Interrupts
  - ▶ DMA
- ▶ Hard disks and SSDs

Acknowledgments: These slides are shamelessly adapted from [Prof. Ryan Huang's Fall 2022 slides](#), which in turn are based on [Prof. David Mazières's OS lecture notes](#).

# Overview

We've covered OS abstractions for CPU and memory so far



I/O management is another major component of OS

- ▶ Important aspect of computer operation
- ▶ I/O devices vary greatly: various methods to control them
- ▶ New types of devices

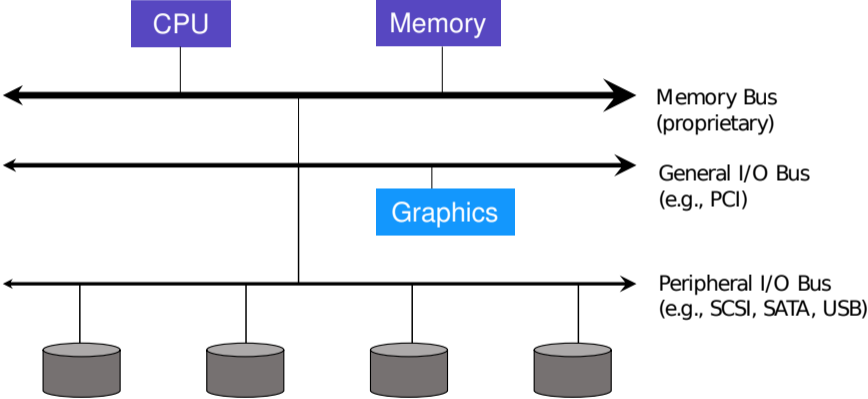
# I/O Devices



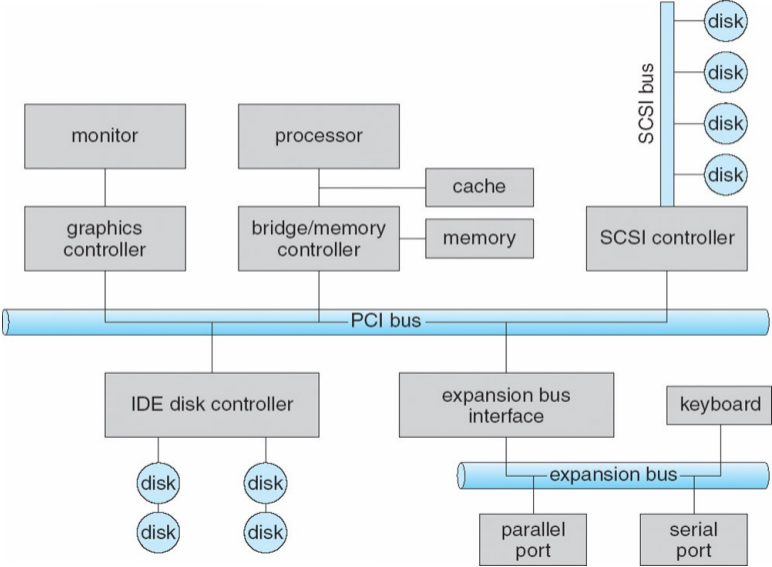
Issues to address:

- ▶ How should I/O be integrated into systems?
- ▶ What are the general mechanisms?
- ▶ How can we manage them efficiently?

# Structure of Input/Output (I/O) Device



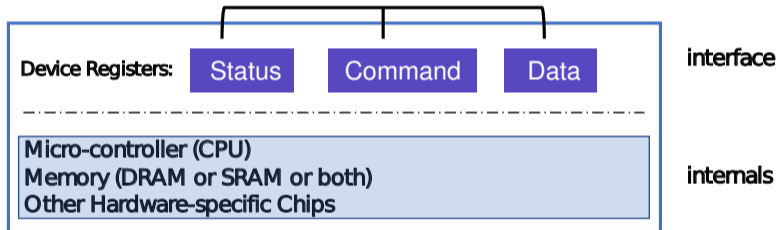
# Structure of Input/Output (I/O) Device



# Device Interaction

How does the OS communicate with an I/O device?

OS reads/writes to these



Canonical I/O Device

# Hardware Interface Of Canonical Device

**status** register

- ▶ See the current status of the device

**command** register

- ▶ Tell the device to perform a certain task

**data** register

- ▶ Pass data to the device, or get data from the device

By reading or writing the three registers, OS controls device behavior



# Hardware Interface Of Canonical Device

## Typical interaction example

```
while (STATUS == BUSY)
    ; //wait until device is not busy
write data to data register
write command to command register
    Doing so starts the device and executes the command
while (STATUS == BUSY)
    ; //wait until device is done with your request
```

# Programming a device

One approach: I/O instructions

- ▶ in and out instructions on x86
- ▶ Devices usually have registers
  - ▶ places commands, addresses, and data there to read/write registers
- ▶ How to identify (address) a device?
  - ▶ With a port location (I/O address range)

## Typical Device I/O Port Locations

I/O address range (hexadecimal)	device
000–00F	DMA controller
020–021	interrupt controller
040–043	timer
200–20F	game controller
2F8–2FF	serial port (secondary)
320–32F	hard-disk controller
378–37F	parallel port
3D0–3DF	graphics controller
3F0–3F7	diskette-drive controller
3F8–3FF	serial port (primary)

## x86 I/O instructions

```
static inline uint8_t inb (uint16_t port)
{
    uint8_t data;
    asm volatile ("inb %w1, %b0" : "=a" (data) : "Nd" (port));
    return data;
}

static inline void outb (uint16_t port, uint8_t data)
{
    asm volatile ("outb %b0, %w1" : : "a" (data), "Nd" (port));
}

static inline void insw (uint16_t port, void *addr, size_t cnt)
{
    asm volatile ("rep insw" : "+D" (addr), "+c" (cnt)
                 : "d" (port) : "memory");
}
```

# IDE Disk Driver

```
void IDE_ReadSector(int disk, int off,
                   void *buf)
{
    // Select Drive
    outb(0x1F6, disk == 0 ? 0xE0 : 0xF0);
    IDEWait();
    // Read length (1 sector = 512 B)
    outb(0x1F2, 1);
    outb(0x1F3, off); // LBA low
    outb(0x1F4, off >> 8); // LBA mid
    outb(0x1F5, off >> 16); // LBA high
    outb(0x1F7, 0x20); // Read command
    insw(0x1F0, buf, 256); // Read 256 words
}
```

```
void IDEWait()
{
    // Discard status 4 times
    inb(0x1F7); inb(0x1F7);
    inb(0x1F7); inb(0x1F7);
    // Wait for status BUSY flag to clear
    while ((inb(0x1F7) & 0x80) != 0);
}
```

# Memory-mapped IO

in/out instructions slow and clunky

- ▶ Instruction format restricts what registers you can use
- ▶ Only allows  $2^{16}$  different port numbers

Another approach: **Memory-mapped I/O**

- ▶ Device registers available as if they were memory locations. load (to read) or store (to write) goes to the device instead of main memory.

```
volatile int32_t *device_control
    = (int32_t *) (0xc0100 + PHYS_BASE);
*device_control = 0x80;
int32_t status = *device_control;
```

- ▶ OS must map physical to virtual addresses, ensure non-cachable

# Polling

OS waits until the device is ready by repeatedly reading the status register

- ▶ Positive aspect is simple and working.
- ▶ However, it wastes CPU time just waiting for the device
  - ▶ Switching to another ready process is better utilizing the CPU.

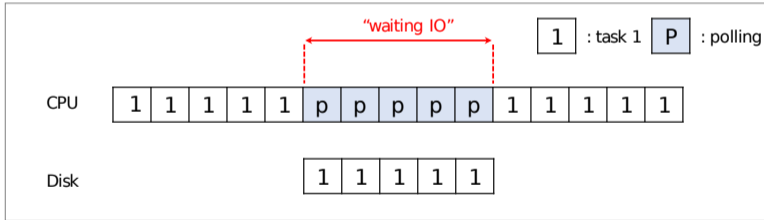


Diagram of CPU utilization by polling

# Interrupts

Put the I/O request process to sleep and context switch to another When the device is finished, wake the process by interrupt

- ▶ CPU and the disk are properly utilized

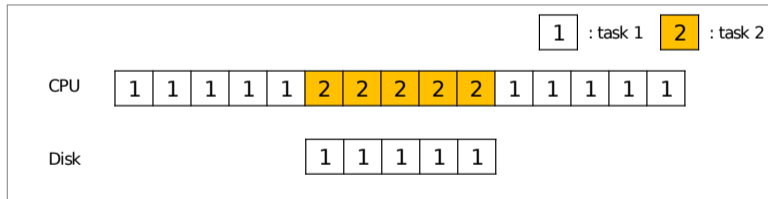


Diagram of CPU utilization by interrupt



## Polling vs. Interrupts

However, *interrupts is not always the best solution*

- ▶ If, device performs very quickly, interrupt will “slow down” the system.

If a device is fast → poll is best  
If it is slow → interrupt is better

E.g., high network packet arrival rate

- ▶ Packets can arrive faster than OS can process them
- ▶ Interrupts are very expensive (context switch)
- ▶ Interrupt handlers have high priority
- ▶ In worst case, can spend 100% of time in interrupt handler and never make any progress

Adaptive switching between interrupts and polling

## One More Problem: Data Copying

CPU wastes a lot of time in copying large data from memory to a device register one byte at a time (termed programmed I/O, PIO)

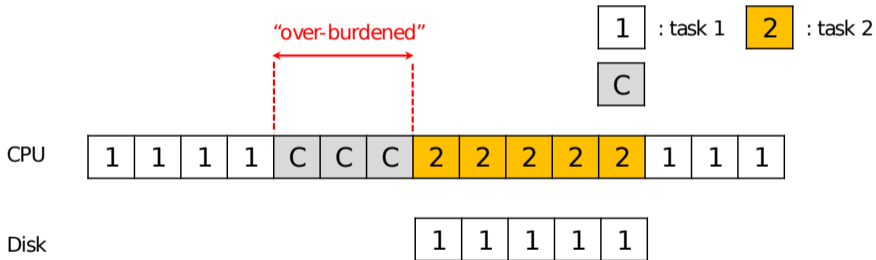
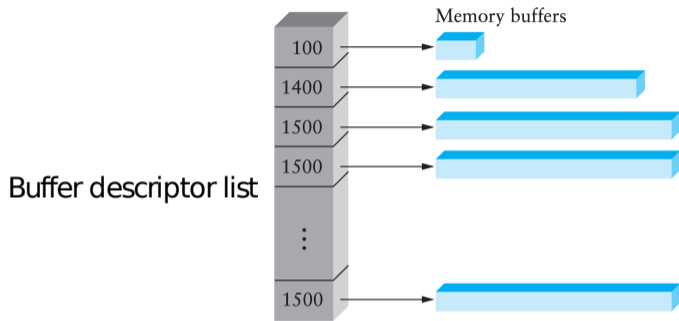


Diagram of CPU utilization

# DMA (Direct Memory Access)



Idea: only use CPU to transfer control requests, not data Include list of buffer locations in main memory

- ▶ Device reads list and accesses buffers through DMA

## DMA (Direct Memory Access) Cont.

When completed, DMA raises an interrupt, I/O begins on Disk.

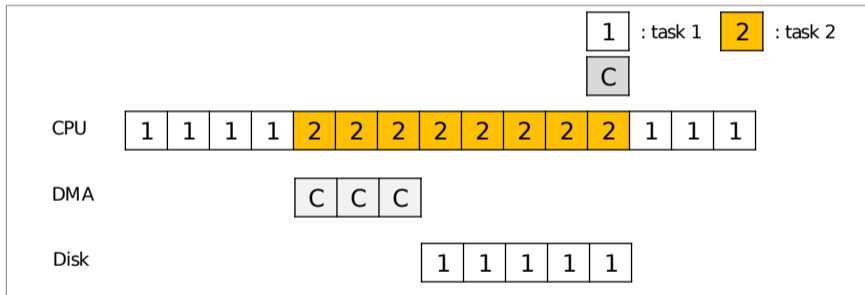


Diagram of CPU utilization by DMA

# Direct Memory Access

Avoid programmed I/O for large data movement

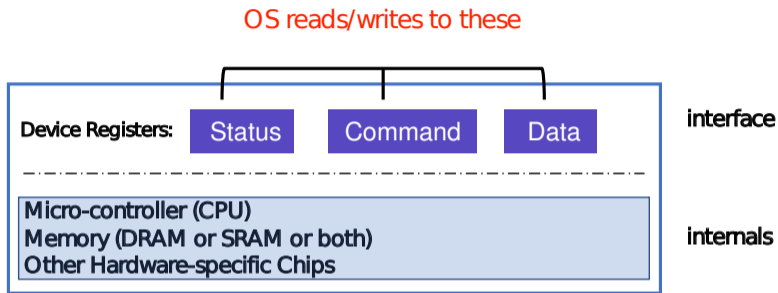
Requires DMA controller

Bypasses CPU to transfer data directly between I/O device and memory

OS writes DMA command block into memory

- ▶ Source and destination addresses
- ▶ Read or write mode
- ▶ Count of bytes
- ▶ Writes location of command block to DMA controller

# Device Protocol Variants



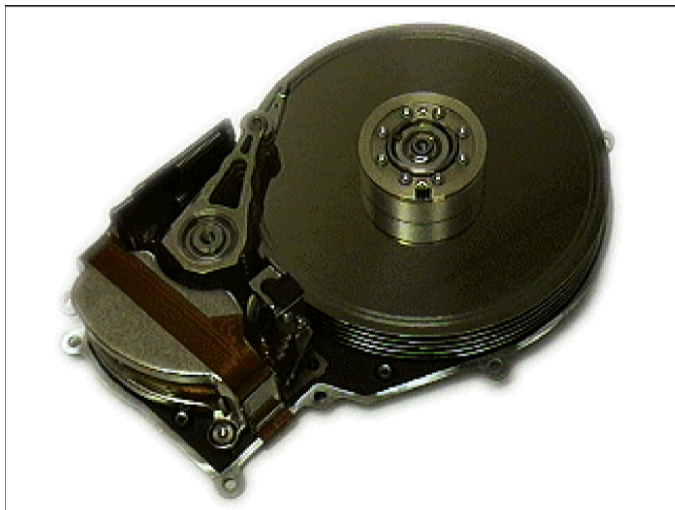
## Canonical I/O Device

Status checks: *polling vs. interrupts*

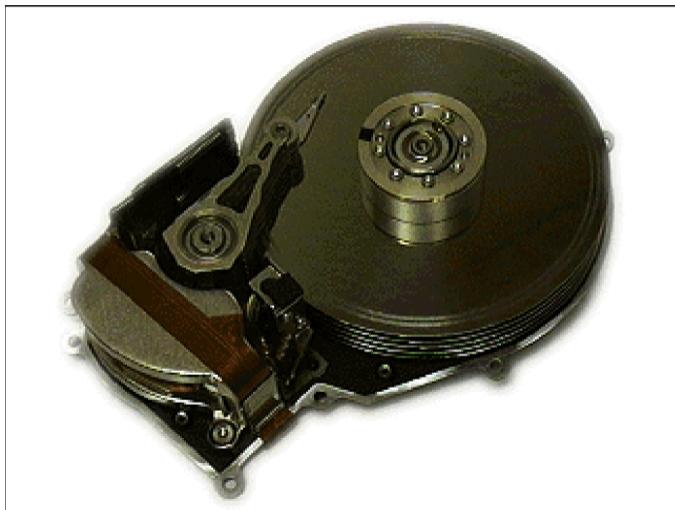
Command: *special instructions vs. memory-mapped I/O*

Data: *programmed I/O (PIO) vs. direct memory access (DMA)*

## Hard Disks

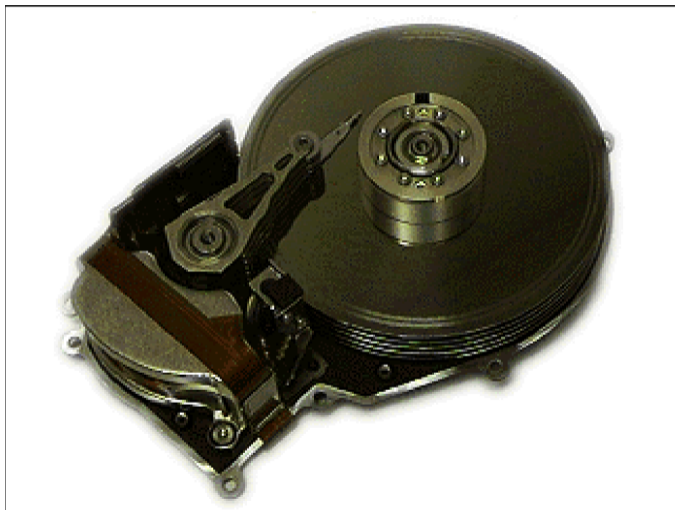


## Hard Disks





## Hard Disks



## Basic Interface

Disk interface presents linear array of sectors

- ▶ Historically *512 Bytes*
- ▶ Written atomically (even if there is a power failure)
- ▶ 4 KiB in “advanced format” disks
  - ▶ Torn write: If an untimely power loss occurs, only a portion of a larger write may complete

Disk maps logical sector #s to physical sectors

OS doesn't know logical to physical sector mapping

## Basic Geometry



*Platter* (Aluminum coated with a thin magnetic layer)

- ▶ A circular hard surface
- ▶ Data is stored persistently by inducing magnetic changes to it
- ▶ Each platter has 2 sides, each of which is called a *surface*

## Basic Geometry (Cont.)

### Spindle

- ▶ Spindle is connected to a motor that spins the platters around
- ▶ The rate of rotations is measured in *RPM* (Rotations Per Minute)
  - ▶ Typical modern values : 7,200 RPM to 15,000 RPM.

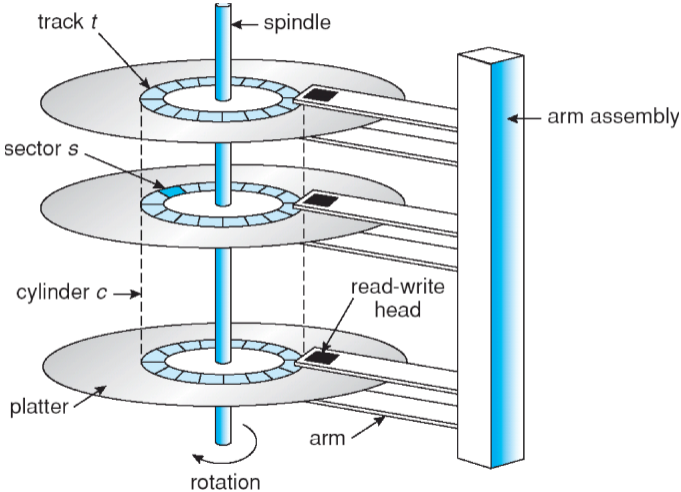
### Track

- ▶ Concentric circles of *sectors*
- ▶ Data is encoded on each surface in a track
- ▶ A single surface contains many thousands and thousands of tracks

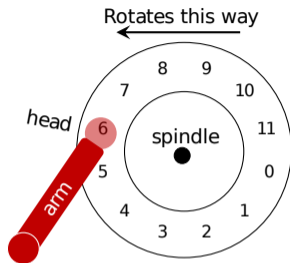
### Cylinder

- ▶ A stack of tracks of fixed radius
- ▶ Heads record and sense data along cylinders
- ▶ Generally only one head active at a time

# Cylinders, Tracks, & Sectors



## A Simple Disk Drive

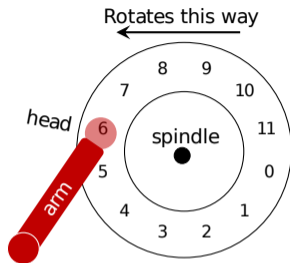


A Single Track Plus A Head

Disk head (one head per surface of the drive)

- ▶ The process of reading and writing is accomplished by the disk head
- ▶ Attached to a single disk arm, which moves across the surface

## Single-track Latency



A Single Track Plus A Head

Rotational delay: Time for the desired sector to rotate

- ▶ Ex) Full rotational delay is  $R$  and we start at sector 6
  - ▶ Read sector 0: Rotational delay =  $R/2$
  - ▶ Read sector 5: Rotational delay =  $R - 1$  (worst case.)

# Multiple Tracks

Let's Read 12!





## Multiple Tracks: Seek to Right Track

Let's Read 12!



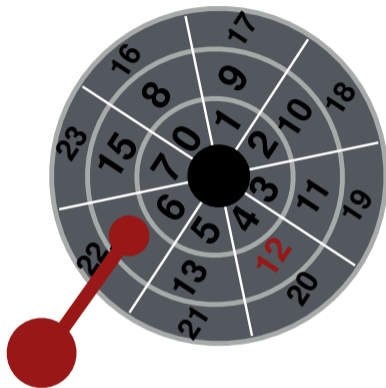
## Multiple Tracks: Seek to Right Track

Let's Read 12!



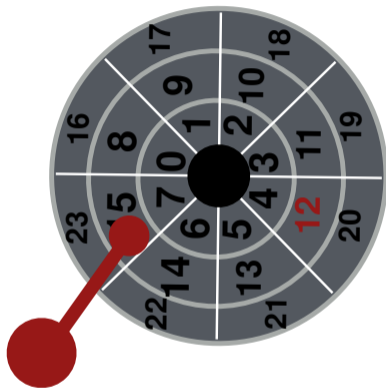
## Multiple Tracks: Seek to Right Track

Let's Read 12!



## Multiple Tracks: Wait for Rotation

Let's Read 12!



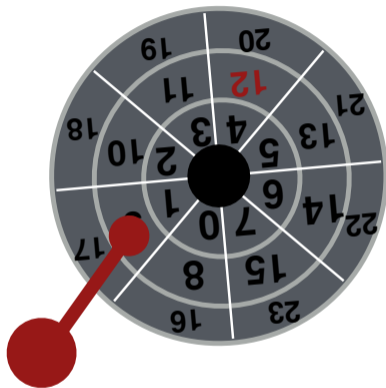
## Multiple Tracks: Wait for Rotation

Let's Read 12!



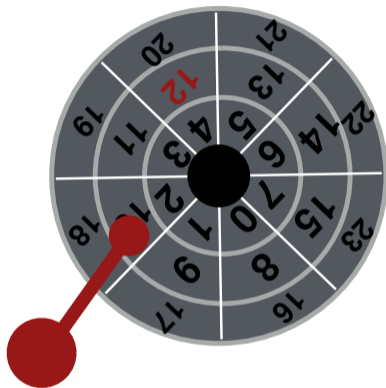
## Multiple Tracks: Wait for Rotation

Let's Read 12!



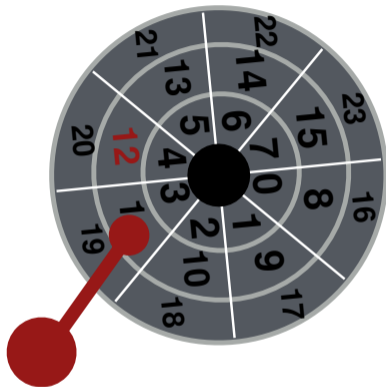
## Multiple Tracks: Wait for Rotation

Let's Read 12!



## Multiple Tracks: Wait for Rotation

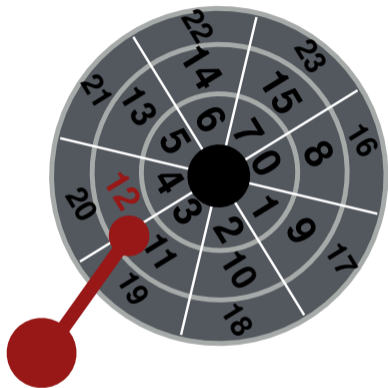
Let's Read 12!





## Multiple Tracks: Transfer Data

Let's Read 12!



## Multiple Tracks: Transfer Data

Let's Read 12!

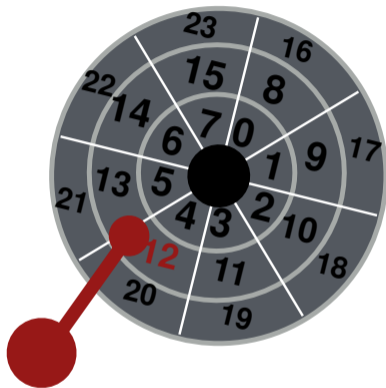


## Multiple Tracks: Transfer Data

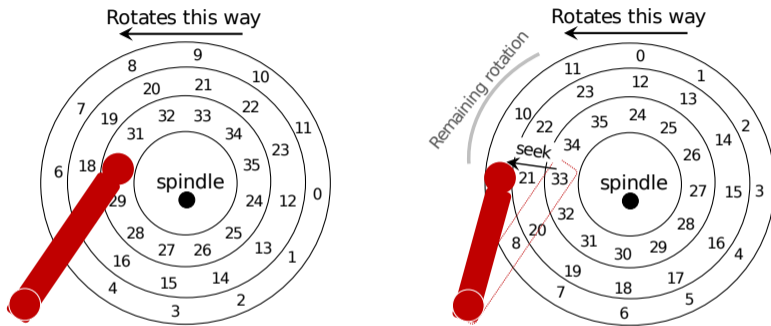
Let's Read 12!



Yay!



## Multiple Tracks: Seek Time



Seek: Move the disk arm to the correct track

- ▶ *Seek time*: Time to move head to the track contain the desired sector.
- ▶ One of the most costly disk operations.

## Seek, Rotate, Transfer

Acceleration → Coasting → Deceleration → Settling

- ▶ Acceleration: The disk arm gets moving.
- ▶ Coasting: The arm is moving at full speed.
- ▶ Deceleration: The arm slows down.
- ▶ Settling: The head is *carefully positioned* over the correct track.

Seeks often take several milliseconds!

- ▶ settling alone can take 0.5 to 2ms.
- ▶ entire seek often takes 4 to 10 ms.

On a 1 GHz CPU (slow by modern standards), 1 ms is 1,000,000 clock cycles!

## Seek, Rotate, Transfer

Depends on rotations per minute (RPM)

- ▶ 7200 RPM is common, 15000 RPM is high-end.

With 7200 RPM, how long to rotate around?

- ▶  $1/7200 \text{ RPM} = 1 \text{ minute}/7200 \text{ rotations} = 1 \text{ second}/120 \text{ rotations} = 8.3 \text{ ms/rotation}$

Average rotation delay?

- ▶  $8.3 \text{ ms}/2 = 4.15 \text{ ms}$

## Seek, Rotate, Transfer

The final phase of I/O

- ▶ Data is either *read from* or *written to* the surface.

Pretty fast — depends on RPM and sector density

100+ MB/s is typical for maximum transfer rate

How long to transfer 512 bytes?

- ▶  $512 \text{ bytes} \times (1 \text{ s}/100 \text{ MB}) = 5 \mu\text{s} = 5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}$



# Workload

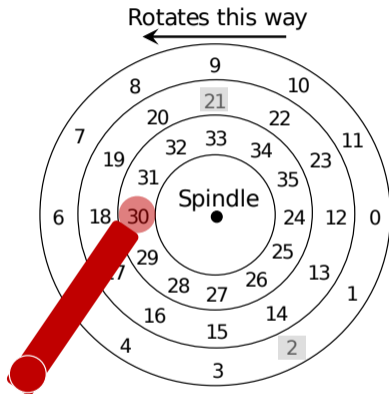
So...

- ▶ seeks are slow
- ▶ rotations are slow
- ▶ transfers are fast

What kind of workload is fastest for disks?

- ▶ *Sequential*: access sectors in order (transfer dominated)
- ▶ *Random*: access sectors arbitrarily (seek+rotation dominated)

# Disk Scheduling



Disk Scheduler decides which I/O request to schedule next

# Disk Scheduling: FCFS

“First Come First Served”

- ▶ Process disk requests in the order they are received

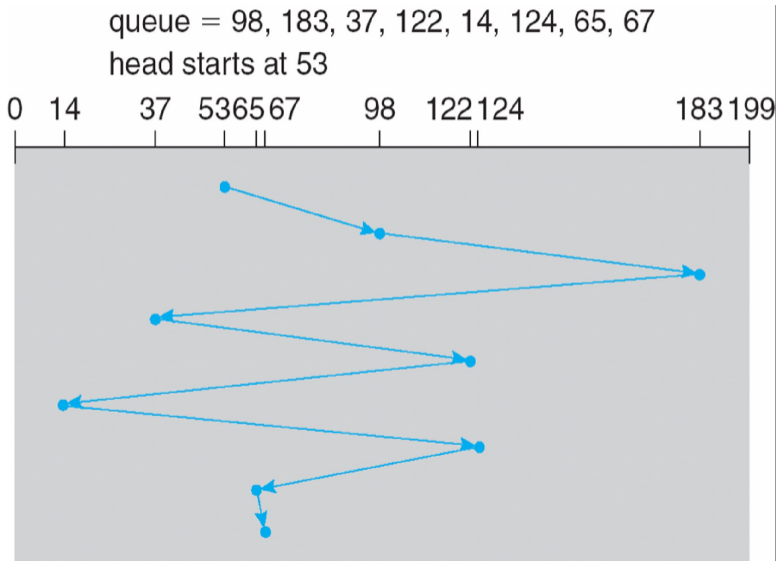
Advantages

- ▶ Easy to implement
- ▶ Good fairness

Disadvantages

- ▶ Cannot exploit request locality
- ▶ Increases average latency, decreasing throughput

# FCFS Example



# SSTF (Shortest Seek Time First)

Order the queue of I/O request by track

Pick requests on the nearest track to complete first

- ▶ Also called shortest positioning time first (SPTF)

Advantages

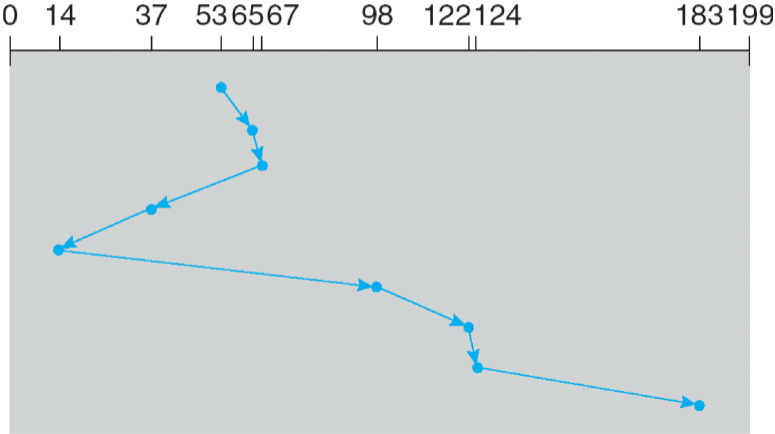
- ▶ Exploits locality of disk requests
- ▶ Higher throughput

Disadvantages

- ▶ Starvation
- ▶ Don't always know what request will be fastest

# SSTF Example

queue = 98, 183, 37, 122, 14, 124, 65, 67  
head starts at 53



## “Elevator” Scheduling (SCAN)

Sweep across disk, servicing all requests passed

- ▶ Like SSTF, but next seek must be in same direction
- ▶ Switch directions only if no further requests

Advantages

- ▶ Takes advantage of locality
- ▶ Bounded waiting

Disadvantages

- ▶ Cylinders in the middle get better service
- ▶ Might miss locality SSTF could exploit

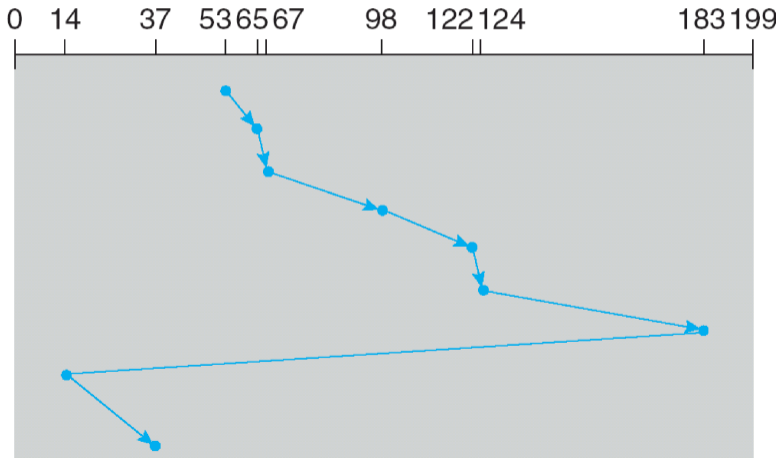
CSCAN: Only sweep in one direction

- ▶ **Very commonly used algorithm in Unix**

# CSCAN Example

queue 98, 183, 37, 122, 14, 124, 65, 67

head starts at 53





# Flash Memory

Today, people increasingly using flash memory

Completely solid state (no moving parts)

- ▶ Remembers data by storing charge
- ▶ Lower power consumption and heat
- ▶ No mechanical seek times to worry about

Limited # overwrites possible

- ▶ Blocks wear out after 10,000 (MLC) – 100,000 (SLC) erases
- ▶ Requires flash translation layer (FTL) to provide wear leveling, so repeated writes to logical block don't wear out physical block
- ▶ FTL can seriously impact performance

Limited durability

- ▶ Charge wears out over time
- ▶ Turn off device for a year, you can potentially lose data!

Next Time

Filesystems!