CS162
Operating Systems and Systems Programming
Lecture 18

Queuing Theory, File Systems

November 2nd, 2015

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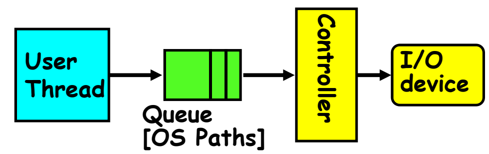
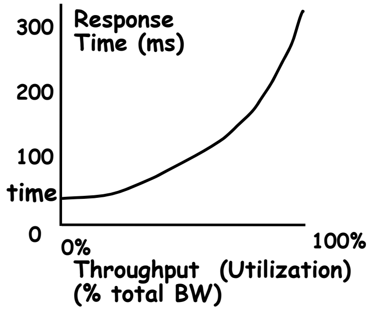
Recall: I/O Performance

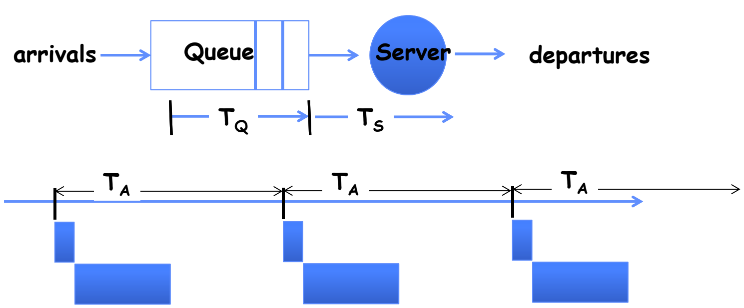


Response Time = Queue + I/O device service time



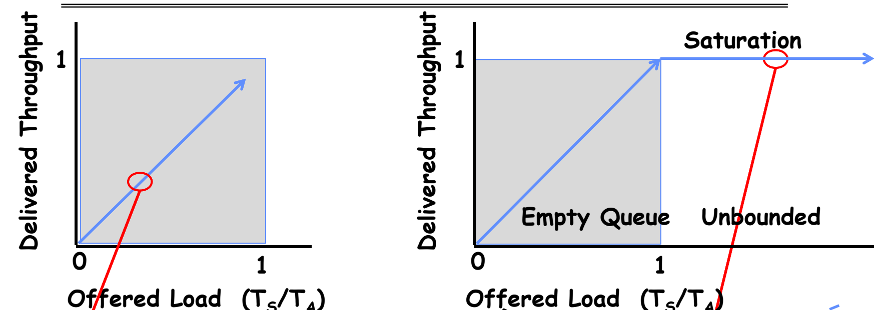
- Performance of I/O subsystem
  - Metrics: Response Time, Throughput
  - Effective BW per op = transfer size / response time
    - » EffBW(n) = n / (S + n/B) = B / (1 + SB/n)
  - Contributing factors to latency:
    - » Software paths (can be loosely modeled by a queue)
    - » Hardware controller
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

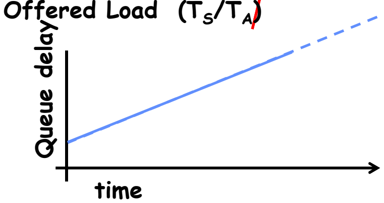
A Simple Deterministic World



- 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 sec
- Arrival rate: ($\lambda = 1/T_A$) - requests per second
- Utilization: $U = \lambda/\mu$, where $\lambda < \mu$
- Average rate is the complete story

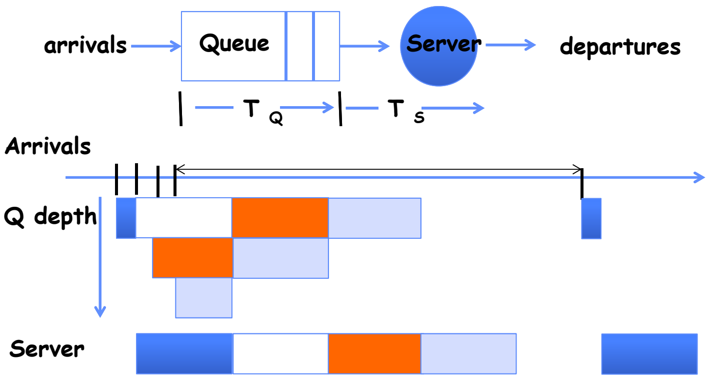
A Ideal Linear World





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

A Bursty World

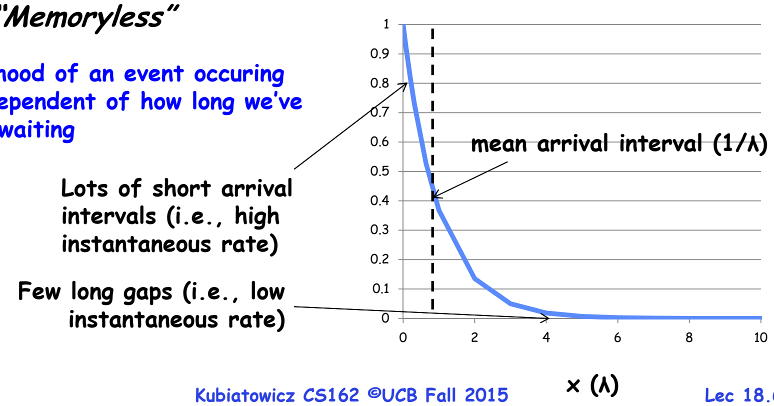


- Requests arrive in a burst, must queue up till served
- Same average arrival time, but almost all of the requests experience large queue delays
- Even though average utilization is low

So how do we model the burstiness of arrival?

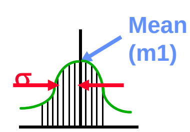
- Elegant mathematical framework if you start with *exponential distribution*
  - Probability density function of a continuous random variable with a mean of $1/\lambda$
  - $f(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}$
  - *"Memoryless"*

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



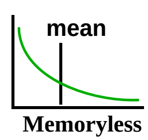
Background: General Use of random distributions

- Server spends variable time with customers
  - Mean (Average) $m1 = \Sigma p(T)\times T$
  - Variance $\sigma^2 = \Sigma p(T)\times(T-m1)^2 = \Sigma p(T)\times T^2 - m1^2$
  - Squared coefficient of variance: $C = \sigma^2/m1^2$
    Aggregate description of the distribution.

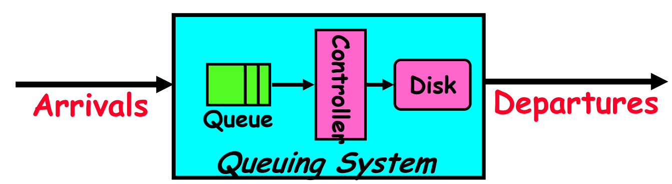


Distribution of service times

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

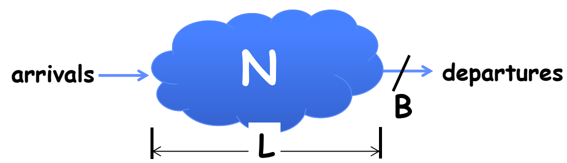


Introduction to Queuing Theory



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

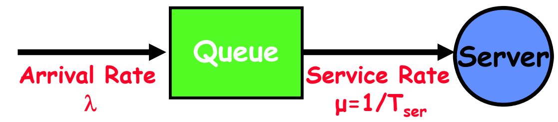
Little's Law



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

A Little Queuing Theory: Some Results

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



- Parameters that describe our system:
  - λ: mean number of arriving customers/second
  - T_{ser}: mean time to service a customer ("m1")
  - C: squared coefficient of variance = $\sigma^2/m1^2$
  - μ: service rate = $1/T_{ser}$
  - u: server utilization ($0 \le u \le 1$): $u = \lambda/\mu = \lambda \times T_{ser}$
- Parameters we wish to compute:
  - T_q: Time spent in queue
  - L_q: Length of queue = $\lambda \times T_q$ (by Little's law)
- Results:
  - Memoryless service distribution (C = 1):
    - » Called M/M/1 queue: $T_q = T_{ser} \times u/(1 - u)$
  - General service distribution (no restrictions), 1 server:
    - » Called M/G/1 queue: $T_q = T_{ser} \times \frac{1}{2}(1+C) \times u/(1 - u))$

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_q
  - What is the number of requests in the queue?
    - » Ans: L_q
  - What is the avg response time for disk request?
    - » Ans: $T_{sys} = T_q + T_{ser}$
- Computation:

λ (avg # arriving customers/s) = 10/s
T_{ser} (avg time to service customer) = 20 ms (0.02s)
u (server utilization) = $\lambda \times T_{ser}$= 10/s x .02s = 0.2
T_q (avg time/customer in queue) = $T_{ser} \times u/(1 - u)$
= 20 x 0.2/(1-0.2) = 20 x 0.25 = 5 ms (0 .005s)
L_q (avg length of queue) = $\lambda \times T_q$=10/s x .005s = 0.05
T_{sys} (avg time/customer in system) =$T_q + T_{ser}$= 25 ms

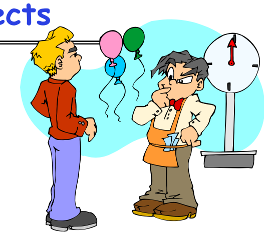
Queuing Theory Resources

- Handouts page contains Queueing Theory Resources:
  - Scanned pages from Patterson and Hennesey book that gives further discussion and simple proof for general eq.
  - A complete website full of resources
- Midterms with queueing theory questions:
  - Midterm IIs from previous years that I've taught
- Assume that Queueing theory is fair game for Midterm II and/or the final!

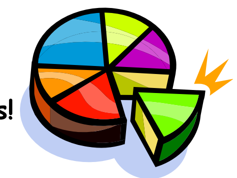
Administrivia

- HW3 – Moved deadline to Wednesday (11/04)
  - Sorry about fact that server was down!
- Project 2 code due this Friday!
- Midterm I Regrade requests: Due this Wednesday
- Midterm II: Coming up in 3 weeks! (11/23)
  - 7-10PM, "here" (2040, 2050, 2060 VLSB)
  - Topics up to and including previous Wednesday
  - 2 pages of hand-written notes, both sides

Quick Aside: Big Projects



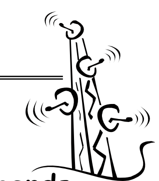
- What is a big project?
  - Time/work estimation is hard
  - Programmers are eternal optimistics (it will only take two days)!
    - » This is why we bug you about starting the project early
    - » Had a grad student who used to say he just needed "10 minutes" to fix something. Two hours later…
- Can a project be efficiently partitioned?
  - Partitionable task decreases in time as you add people
  - But, if you require communication:
    - » Time reaches a minimum bound
    - » With complex interactions, time increases!
  - Mythical person-month problem:
    - » You estimate how long a project will take
    - » Starts to fall behind, so you add more people
    - » Project takes even more time!



Techniques for Partitioning Tasks

- Functional
  - Person A implements threads, Person B implements semaphores, Person C implements locks…
  - Problem: Lots of communication across APIs
    - » If B changes the API, A may need to make changes
    - » Story: Large airline company spent $200 million on a new scheduling and booking system. Two teams "working together." After two years, went to merge software. Failed! Interfaces had changed (documented, but no one noticed). Result: would cost another $200 million to fix.
- Task
  - Person A designs, Person B writes code, Person C tests
  - May be difficult to find right balance, but can focus on each person's strengths (Theory vs systems hacker)
  - Since Debugging is hard, Microsoft has *two* testers for *each* programmer
- Most CS162 project teams are functional, but people have had success with task-based divisions

Communication

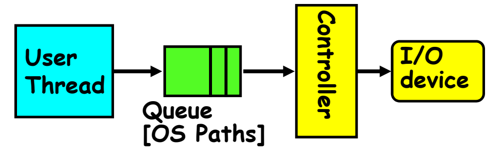


- More people mean more communication
  - Changes have to be propagated to more people
  - Think about person writing code for most fundamental component of system: everyone depends on them!
  - ***You should be meeting in person at least twice/week!***
- Miscommunication is common
  - "Index starts at 0? I thought you said 1!"
- Who makes decisions?
  - Individual decisions are fast but trouble
  - Group decisions take time
  - Centralized decisions require a big picture view (someone who can be the "system architect")
- Often designating someone as the system architect can be a good thing
  - Better not be clueless
  - Better have good people skills
  - Better let other people do work

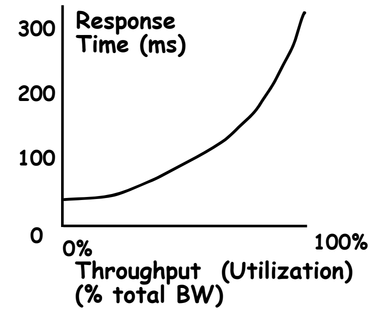
Coordination

- More people ⇒ no one can make all meetings!
  - They miss decisions and associated discussion
  - Example from earlier class: one person missed meetings and did something group had rejected
- People have different work styles
  - Some people work in the morning, some at night
  - How do you decide when to meet or work together?
- What about project slippage?
  - It will happen, guaranteed!
  - Example: phase 4 of one project, everyone busy but not talking. One person way behind. No one knew until very end – too late!
- Hard to add people to existing group
  - Members have already figured out how to work together

Optimize I/O Performance



Response Time = Queue + I/O device service time



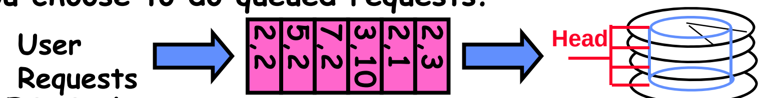
- Howto improve performance?
  - Make everything faster ☺
  - More Decoupled (Parallelism) systems
    - » multiple independent buses or controllers
  - Optimize the bottleneck to increase service rate
    - » Use the queue to optimize the service
  - Do other useful work while waiting
- Queues absorb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

When is the disk performance highest?

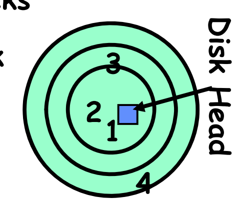
- When there are big sequential reads, or
- When there is so much work to do that they can be piggy backed (reordering queues—one moment)
- OK, to be inefficient when things are mostly idle
- Bursts are both a threat and an opportunity
- <your idea for optimization goes here>
  - Waste space for speed?
- 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

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



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

Review: Device Drivers

- Device Driver: Device-specific code in the kernel that interacts directly with the device hardware
  - Supports a standard, internal interface
  - Same kernel I/O system can interact easily with different device drivers
  - Special device-specific configuration supported with the `ioctl()` system call
- Device Drivers typically divided into two pieces:
  - Top half: accessed in call path from system calls
    - » implements a set of standard, cross-device calls like `open()`, `close()`, `read()`, `write()`, `ioctl()`, `strategy()`
    - » This is the kernel's interface to the device driver
    - » Top half will *start* I/O to device, may put thread to sleep until finished
  - Bottom half: run as interrupt routine
    - » Gets input or transfers next block of output
    - » May wake sleeping threads if I/O now complete

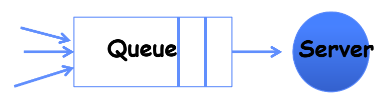
Kernel vs User-level I/O

- Both are popular/practical for different reasons:
  - Kernel-level drivers for critical devices that must keep running, e.g. display drivers.
    - » Programming is a major effort, correct operation of the rest of the kernel depends on correct driver operation.
  - User-level drivers for devices that are non-threatening, e.g USB devices in Linux (libusb).
    - » Provide higher-level primitives to the programmer, avoid every driver doing low-level I/O register tweaking.
    - » The multitude of USB devices can be supported by Less-Than-Wizard programmers.
    - » New drivers don't have to be compiled for each version of the OS, and loaded into the kernel.

Kernel vs User-level Programming Styles

- Kernel-level drivers
  - Have a much more limited set of resources available:
    - » Only a fraction of libc routines typically available.
    - » Memory allocation (e.g. Linux kmalloc) much more limited in capacity and required to be physically contiguous.
    - » Should avoid blocking calls.
    - » Can use asynchrony with other kernel functions but tricky with user code.
- User-level drivers
  - Similar to other application programs but:
    - » Will be called often – should do its work fast, or postpone it – or do it in the background.
    - » Can use threads, blocking operations (usually much simpler) or non-blocking or asynchronous.

Performance: multiple outstanding requests



- Suppose each read takes 10 ms to service.
- If a process works for 100 ms after each read, what is the utilization of the disk?
  - U = 10 ms / 110ms = 9%
- What it there are two such processes?
  - U = (10 ms + 10 ms) / 110ms = 18%
- What if each of those processes have two such threads?

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

I/O & Storage Layers

Operations, Entities and Interface

Recall: C Low level I/O

- Operations on File Descriptors – as OS object representing the state of a file
  - User has a "handle" on the descriptor

```
#include <fcntl.h>
#include <unistd.h>
#include <sys/types.h>

int open (const char *filename, int flags [, mode_t mode])
int creat (const char *filename, mode_t mode)
int close (int filedes)
```

Bit vector of:
- Access modes (Rd, Wr, …)
- Open Flags (Create, …)
- Operating modes (Appends, …)

Bit vector of Permission Bits:
- User|Group|Other X R|W|X

http://www.gnu.org/software/libc/manual/html_node/Opening-and-Closing-Files.html

Recall: C Low Level Operations

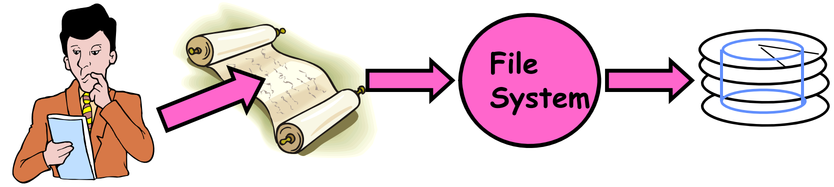
```
ssize_t read (int filedes, void *buffer, size_t maxsize)
 - returns bytes read, 0 => EOF, -1 => error
ssize_t write (int filedes, const void *buffer, size_t size)
 - returns bytes written

off_t lseek (int filedes, off_t offset, int whence)

int fsync (int fildes) – wait for i/o to finish
void sync (void) – wait for ALL to finish
```

- When write returns, data is on its way to disk and can be read, but it may not actually be permanent!

Building a File System

- **File System:** Layer of OS that transforms block interface of disks (or other block devices) into Files, Directories, etc.
- File System Components
  - Disk Management: collecting disk blocks into files
  - Naming: Interface to find files by name, not by blocks
  - Protection: Layers to keep data secure
  - Reliability/Durability: Keeping of files durable despite crashes, media failures, attacks, etc
- 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

Translating 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: write bytes 2—12?
  - Fetch block
  - Modify portion
  - Write out Block
- Everything inside File System is in whole size blocks
  - For example, `getc()`, `putc()` ⇒ buffers something like 4096 bytes, even if interface is one byte at a time
- From now on, file is a collection of blocks

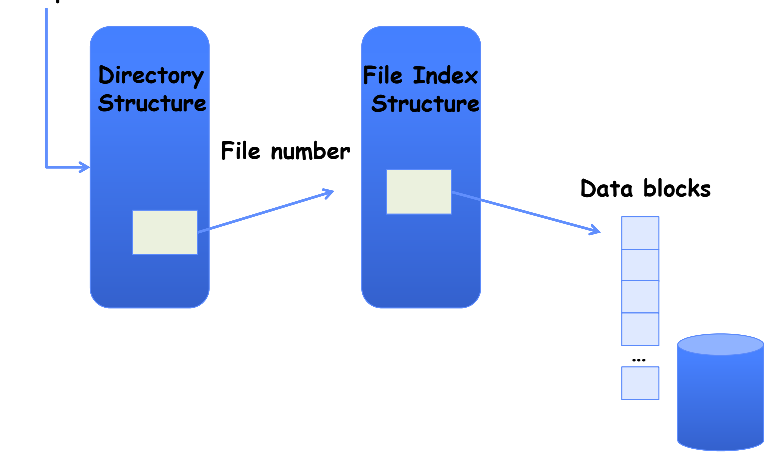
So you are going to design a file system …

- What factors are critical to the design choices?
- Durable data store => it's all on disk
- Disks Performance !!!
  - Maximize sequential access, minimize seeks
- Open before Read/Write
  - Can perform protection checks and look up where the actual file resource are, in advance
- Size is determined as they are used !!!
  - Can write (or read zeros) to expand the file
  - Start small and grow, need to make room
- Organized into directories
  - What data structure (on disk) for that?
- Need to allocate / free blocks
  - Such that access remains efficient

Disk Management Policies

- Basic entities on a disk:
  - **File:** user-visible group of blocks arranged sequentially in logical space
  - **Directory:** user-visible index mapping names to files (next lecture)
- Access disk as linear array of sectors. Two Options:
  - Identify sectors as vectors [cylinder, surface, sector]. Sort in cylinder-major order. Not used much anymore.
  - **Logical Block Addressing (LBA).** Every sector has integer address from zero up to max number of sectors.
  - Controller translates from address ⇒ physical position
    - » First case: OS/BIOS must deal with bad sectors
    - » Second case: hardware shields OS from structure of disk
- Need way to track free disk blocks
  - Link free blocks together ⇒ too slow today
  - Use bitmap to represent free space on disk
- Need way to structure files: **File Header**
  - Track which blocks belong at which offsets within the logical file structure
  - **Optimize placement of files' disk blocks to match access and usage patterns**

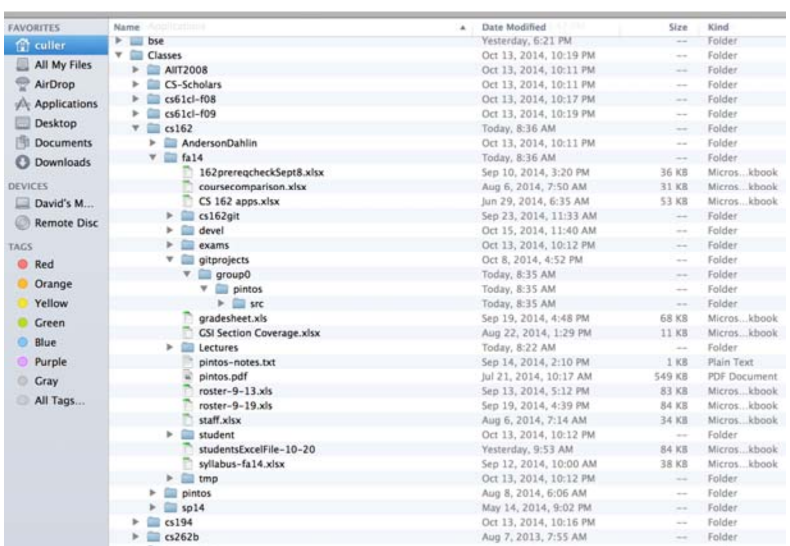
Components of a File System



Components of a file system

- Open performs *name resolution*
  - Translates pathname into a "file number"
    - » Used as an "index" to locate the blocks
  - Creates a file descriptor in PCB within kernel
  - Returns a "handle" (another int) to user process
- Read, Write, Seek, and Sync operate on handle
  - Mapped to descriptor and to blocks

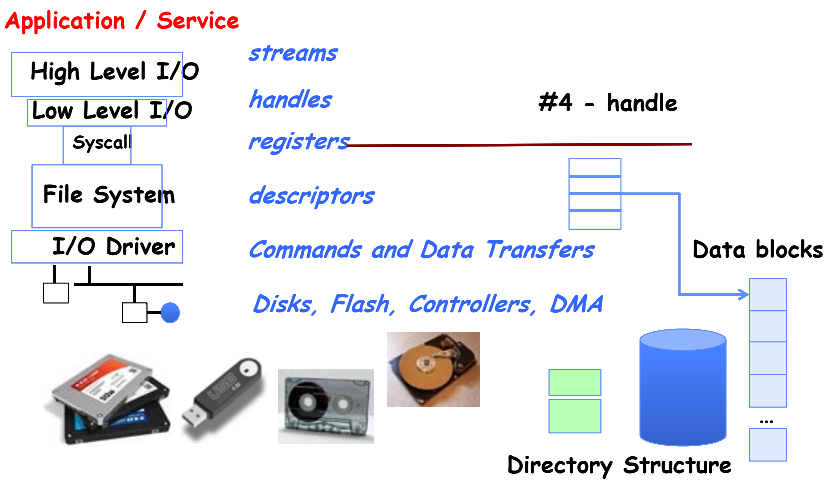
Directories



Directory

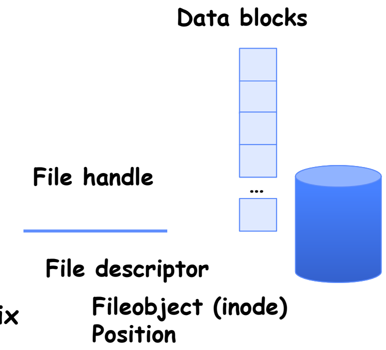
- Basically a hierarchical structure
- Each directory entry is a collection of
  - Files
  - Directories
    - » A link to another entries
- Each has a name and attributes
  - Files have data
- Links (hard links) make it a DAG, not just a tree
  - Softlinks (aliases) are another name for an entry

I/O & Storage Layers



File

- Named permanent storage
- Contains
  - Data
    - » Blocks on disk somewhere
  - Metadata (Attributes)
    - » Owner, size, last opened, …
    - » Access rights
      - R, W, X
      - Owner, Group, Other (in Unix systems)
      - Access control list in Windows system



Summary

- Queuing Latency:
  - M/M/1 and M/G/1 queues: simplest to analyze
  - As utilization approaches 100%, latency → ∞

    $T_q = T_{ser} \times \frac{1}{2}(1+C) \times u/(1 - u))$
- File System:
  - Transforms blocks into Files and Directories
  - Optimize for access and usage patterns
  - Maximize sequential access, allow efficient random access
- File (and directory) defined by header, called "inode"
- Multilevel Indexed Scheme
  - Inode contains file info, direct pointers to blocks,
  - indirect blocks, doubly indirect, etc..
- 4.2 BSD Multilevel index files
  - Inode contains pointers to actual blocks, indirect blocks, double indirect blocks, etc.
  - Optimizations for sequential access: start new files in open ranges of free blocks, rotational Optimization