# Ceng 302 Database Managment Systems

### **Physical Data Storage Devices**

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### **Secondary Storage Devices**

Two major types of storage devices:

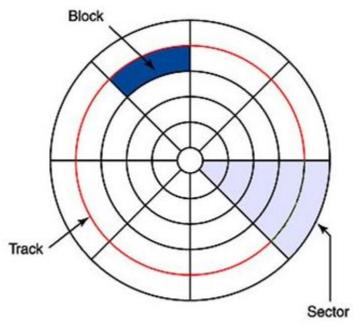
- 1. Direct Access Storage Devices (DASDs)
  - Magnetic Disks
    - Hard disks (high capacity, low cost per bit)
    - Floppy disks (low capacity, slow, cheap)
  - Optical Disks
    - CD-ROM = (Compact disc, read-only memory)
- 2. Serial Devices
  - Magnetic tapes (very fast sequential access)

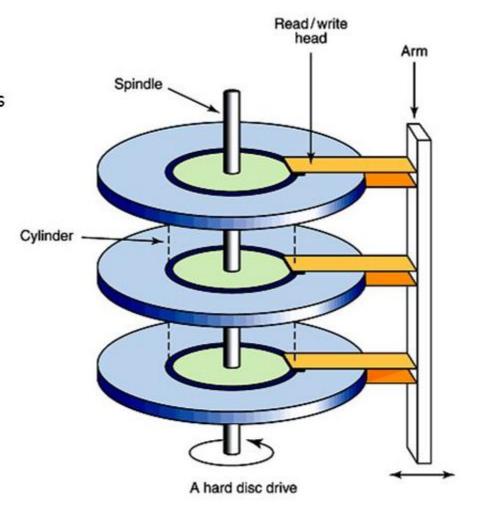
### **Magnetic Disks**

- Bits of data (0's and 1's) are stored on circular magnetic platters called **disks**.
- A disk rotates rapidly (& never stops).
- A disk head reads and writes bits of data as they pass under the head.
- Often, several platters are organized into a disk pack (or disk drive).

### **Magnetic Disks**

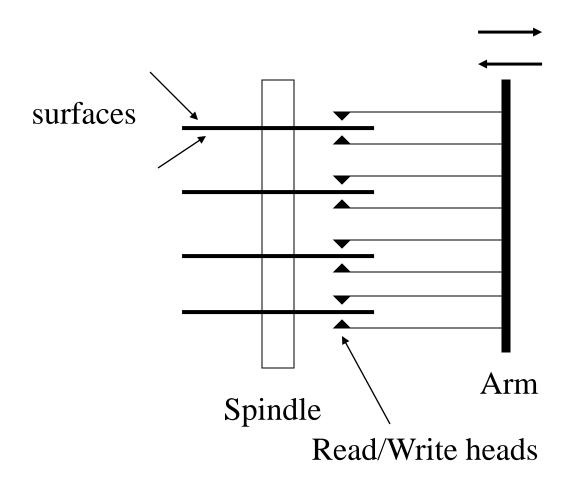
- A read/write head travels across a spinning magnetic disk, retrieving or recording data
- Each disk surface is divided into sectors and tracks
- Example of disk addressing scheme: surface 3, sector 5, track 4





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### **A Disk Drive**



Disk drive with 4 platters and 8 surfaces

### **Organization of Disks**

- Disk contains concentric tracks.
- Tracks are divided into sectors
- A **sector** is the smallest addressable unit in a disk.

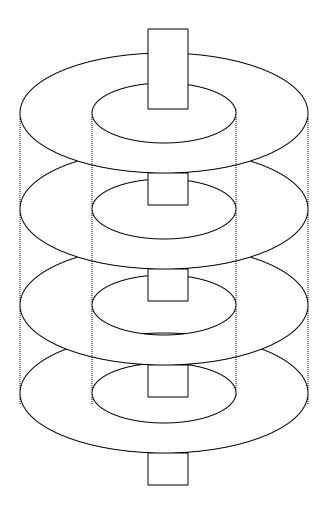
### **Accessing Data**

- When a program reads a byte from the disk, the operating system locates the surface, track and sector containing that byte, and reads the entire sector into a special area in main memory called buffer.
- The bottleneck of a disk access is moving the read/write arm. So, it makes sense to store a file in tracks that are below/above each other in different surfaces, rather than in several tracks in the same surface.

### **Cylinders**

- A **cylinder** is the set of tracks at a given radius of a disk pack.
  - i.e., a cylinder is the set of tracks that can be accessed without moving the disk arm.
- All the information on a cylinder can be accessed without moving the read/write arm.

## **Cylinders**



### **Estimating Capacities**

Track capacity = # of sectors/track \* bytes/sector

Cylinder capacity = # of tracks/cylinder \* track capacity

**Drive capacity** = # of cylinders \* cylinder capacity

**Number of cylinders** = # of tracks in a surface

#### **Exercise**

• Store a file of 20000 records on a disk with the following characteristics:

```
# of bytes per sector = 512
# of sectors per track = 40
# of tracks per cylinder = 12
# of cylinders = 1331
```

- Q1. How many cylinders does the file require if each data record requires 256 bytes?
- **Q2.** What is the total capacity of the disk?

### **Clusters**

- Another view of sector organization is the one maintained by the O.S.'s **file manager**.
- It views the file as a series of **clusters** of sectors.
- File manager uses a **file allocation table** (**FAT**) to map logical sectors of the file to the physical clusters.

#### **Extents**

- If there is a lot of room on a disk, it may be possible to make a file consist entirely of contiguous clusters. Then we say that the file is one extent. (very good for sequential processing)
- If there isn't enough contiguous space available to contain an entire file, the file is divided into two or more noncontiguous parts. Each part is an extent.

### **Fragmentation**

**Internal fragmentation**: loss of space within a sector or a cluster.

- 1) Due to records not fitting exactly in a sector: e.g., Sector size is 512 and record size is 300 bytes. Either
  - store one record per sector, or
  - allow records span sectors.
- 2) Due to the use of clusters: If the file size is not a multiple of the cluster size, then the last cluster will be partially used.

### Choice of cluster size

Some operating systems allow system administrator to choose cluster size.

- When to use large cluster size?
- What about small cluster size?
  - The greater the block-size, the greater potential amount of internal track fragmentation.
  - The flexibility introduced by the use of blocks rather than sectors can save time since it lets the programmer determine, to a large extent, how the data is to be organized physically on disk.

### **Organizing Tracks by Block**

- **Disk tracks** may be divided into **user-defined blocks** rather than into **sectors**.
- **Blocks** can be fixed or variable length.
- A block is usually organized to hold an integral number of logical records.
- **Blocking Factor** = the number of records stored in a block.
- No internal fragmentation, no record spanning two blocks.
- In block-addressing scheme each block of data is accompanied by one or more *subblocks* containing extra information about the block.

### **Non-data Overhead**

- Both blocks and sectors require non-data overhead (written during formatting)
- On sector addressable disks this information involves sector address, track address, and condition (usable/defective). Also pre-formatting involves placing gaps and synchronization marks.
- On block-organized disk, more information is needed and the programmer should be aware of some of this information.

### Non-data Overhead

- Whether using a **block** or a **sector** organization, some space on the disk is taken up by non-data overhead. i.e., information stored on the disk during pre-formatting.
- On **Sector-Addressable disks**, pre-formatting involves storing, at the beginning of each sector, sector address, track address and condition (usable or defective) + gaps and synchronization marks between fields of info to help the read/write mechanism distinguish between them.
- On **Block-Organized disks**, subblock + interblock gaps have to be provided with every block.
- The relative amount of non-data space necessary for a block scheme is higher than for a sector-scheme.

#### The Cost of a Disk Access

The time to access a sector in a track on a surface is divided into 3 components:

Time Component	Action
Seek Time	Time to move the read/write arm to the correct cylinder
Rotational delay (or latency)	Time it takes for the disk to rotate so that the desired sector is under the read/write head
Transfer time	Once the read/write head is positioned over the data, this is the time it takes for transferring data

### Seek time

- **Seek time** is the time required to move the arm to the correct cylinder.
- Largest in cost.

#### **Typically:**

- 5 ms (miliseconds) to move from one track to the next (track-to-track)
- 50 ms maximum (from inside track to outside track)
- 30 ms average (from one random track to another random track)

### Latency (rotational delay)

- Latency is the time needed for the disk to rotate so the sector we want is under the read/write head.
- Hard disks usually rotate at about 5000 rpm, which is one revolution per 5 msec.

#### • Note:

- Min latency = 0
- Max latency = Time for one disk revolution
- Average latency (r) = (min + max) / 2 = max / 2 = time for ½ disk revolution
- Typically, 2 3 ms average

### **Transfer Time**

- **Transfer time** is the time for the read/write head to pass over a block.
- The transfer time is given by the formula:

```
Transfer time = number of bytes transferred ------ x rotation time number of bytes on a track
```

• e.g., if there are 63 sectors per track, the time to transfer one sector would be 1/63 of a revolution.

### Sequential and Random Reading

#### Reading *b* blocks:

#### i. Sequentially:

$$s + r + b * btt$$

insignificant for large files

$$\Rightarrow b * btt$$

#### ii. Randomly:

$$b * (s + r + btt)$$

Block **Transfer** Time (**btt**):Time needed to read block to memory (buffer).

Example: t (data transfer speed / data rate)=3000 bytes/msec

b: denote the number of blocks to be read

### **Sequential Reading**

- Given the following disk:
  - s = 16 ms
  - r = 8.3 ms
  - Block transfer time = 8.4 ms
- a) Calculate the time to read 10 sequential blocks
- b) Calculate the time to read 100 sequential blocks

### **Random Reading**

Given the same disk,

- a) Calculate the time to read 10 blocks randomly
- b) Calculate the time to read 100 blocks randomly