Operating Systems & Systems Programming Module 7 Secondary Storage Management

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Overview



- Disk Structure
- 2 Disk Scheduling
- 3 Disk Management
- Swap-Space Management

Objective



- To describe the physical structure of secondary storage devices and its effects on the uses of the devices
- To explain the performance characteristics of mass-storage devices
- To evaluate disk scheduling algorithms
- To discuss operating-system services provided for mass storage, including RAID

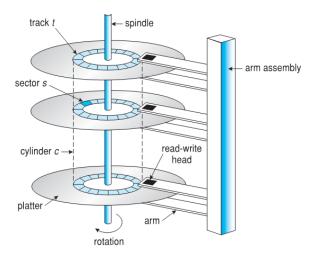
Overview of Mass Storage Structure



- Magnetic disks provide bulk of secondary storage of modern computers
 - Drives rotate at 60 to 250 times per second
 - Transfer rate is rate at which data flow between drive and computer
 - Positioning time (random-access time) is time to move disk arm to desired cylinder (seek time) and time for desired sector to rotate under the disk head (rotational latency)
 - Head crash results from disk head making contact with the disk surface – That's bad
- Disks can be removable
- Drive attached to computer via I/O bus
 - Busses vary, including EIDE, ATA, SATA, USB, Fibre Channel, SCSI, SAS, Firewire
 - Host controller in computer uses bus to talk to disk controller built into drive or storage array

Moving-head Disk Mechanism





The First Commercial Disk Drive





1956 IBM RAMDAC computer included the IBM Model 350 disk storage system 5M (7 bit) characters 50 \times 24" platters and Access time \leq 1 second

Solid-State Disks



- Nonvolatile memory used like a hard drive
- Many technology variations
- Can be more reliable than HDDs
- More expensive per MB
- Maybe have shorter life span
- Less capacity
- But much faster
- Busses can be too slow -¿ connect directly to PCI for example
- No moving parts, so no seek time or rotational latency

Disk Structure



- Disk drives are addressed as large 1-dimensional arrays of logical blocks, where the logical block is the smallest unit of transfer
 - Low-level formatting creates logical blocks on physical media
- The 1-dimensional array of logical blocks is mapped into the sectors of the disk sequentially
 - Sector 0 is the first sector of the first track on the outermost cylinder
 - Mapping proceeds in order through that track, then the rest of the tracks in that cylinder, and then through the rest of the cylinders from outermost to innermost
 - Logical to physical address should be easy
 - Except for bad sectors
 - Non-constant # of sectors per track via constant angular velocity

Disk Scheduling



- The operating system is responsible for using hardware efficiently for the disk drives, this means having a fast access time and disk bandwidth
- Minimize seek time
- Seek time ≈ seek distance
- Disk bandwidth is the total number of bytes transferred, divided by the total time between the first request for service and the completion of the last transfer
- There are many sources of disk I/O request
 - OS
 - System processes
 - Users processes
- I/O request includes input or output mode, disk address, memory address, number of sectors to transfer
- OS maintains queue of requests, per disk or device
- Idle disk can immediately work on I/O request, busy disk means work must queue
 - Optimization algorithms only make sense when a queue exists

Disk Scheduling Algorithms



- FCFS Algorithm
- SSTF Algorithm
- SCAN Algorithm
- C-SCAN Algorithm
- LOOK Algorithm
- C-LOOK Algorithm

Disk Scheduling



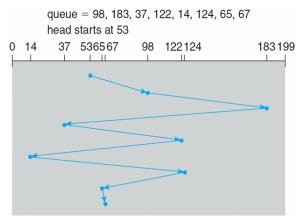
- Note that drive controllers have small buffers and can manage a queue of I/O requests (of varying "depth")
- Several algorithms exist to schedule the servicing of disk I/O requests
- The analysis is true for one or many platters
- We illustrate scheduling algorithms with a request queue (0-199)

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

Head pointer 53

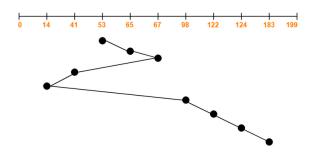


Consider a disk queue with requests for I/O to blocks on cylinders 98, 183, 41, 122, 14, 124, 65, 67. The FCFS scheduling algorithm is used. The head is initially at cylinder number 53. The cylinders are numbered from 0 to 199. The total head movement (in number of cylinders) incurred while servicing these requests is_____.





- Shortest Seek Time First selects the request with the minimum seek time from the current head position
- SSTF scheduling is a form of SJF scheduling; may cause starvation of some requests
- Illustration shows total head movement of 236 cylinders



Practice Problem



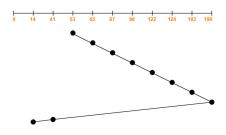
Consider a disk system with 100 cylinders. The requests to access the cylinders occur in following sequence-

Assuming that the head is currently at cylinder 50, what is the time taken to satisfy all requests if it takes 1 ms to move from one cylinder to adjacent one and shortest seek time first policy is used?

- 1. 95 ms
- 2. 119 ms
- 3. 233 ms
- 4. 276 ms



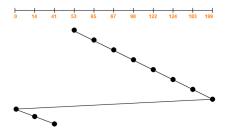
- The disk arm starts at one end of the disk, and moves toward the other end, servicing requests until it gets to the other end of the disk, where the head movement is reversed and servicing continues.
- SCAN algorithm Sometimes called the elevator algorithm
- Illustration shows total head movement of 236 cylinders
- But note that if requests are uniformly dense, largest density at other end of disk and those wait the longest



C-SCAN

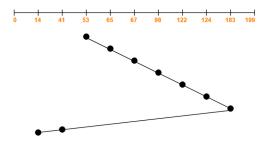


- Provides a more uniform wait time than SCAN
- The head moves from one end of the disk to the other, servicing requests as it goes
 - When it reaches the other end, however, it immediately returns to the beginning of the disk, without servicing any requests on the return trip
- Treats the cylinders as a circular list that wraps around from the last cylinder to the first one
- Total number of cylinders?



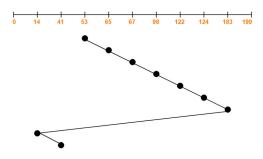


- LOOK a version of SCAN, C-LOOK a version of C-SCAN
- Arm only goes as far as the last request in each direction, then reverses direction immediately, without first going all the way to the end of the disk
- Total number of cylinders?





- Circular-LOOK Algorithm is an improved version of the LOOK Algorithm
- Head starts from the first request at one end of the disk and moves towards the last request at the other end servicing all the requests in between.



Selecting a Disk-Scheduling Algorithm



- SSTF is common and has a natural appeal
- SCAN and C-SCAN perform better for systems that place a heavy load on the disk
 - Less starvation
- Performance depends on the number and types of requests
- Requests for disk service can be influenced by the file-allocation method
- The disk-scheduling algorithm should be written as a separate module of the operating system, allowing it to be replaced with a different algorithm if necessary
- Either SSTF or LOOK is a reasonable choice for the default algorithm
- What about rotational latency? (Difficult for OS to calculate)
- How does disk-based queueing effect OS queue ordering efforts?

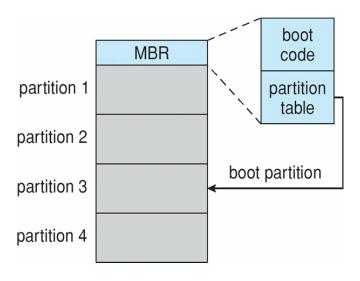
Disk Management



- Low-level formatting, or physical formatting Dividing a disk into sectors that the disk controller can read and write
 - Each sector can hold header information, plus data, plus error correction code (ECC)
 - Usually 512 bytes of data but can be selectable
- To use a disk to hold files, the operating system still needs to record its own data structures on the disk
 - **Partition** the disk into one or more groups of cylinders, each treated as a logical disk
 - Logical formatting or "making a file system"
 - To increase efficiency most file systems group blocks into clusters
 - Disk I/O done in blocks
 - File I/O done in clusters
- Raw disk access for apps that want to do their own block management, keep OS out of the way (databases for example)
- Boot block initializes system (Bootstrap loader program stored in boot blocks of boot partition)
- Methods such as sector sparing used to handle bad blocks

Booting from a Disk in Windows





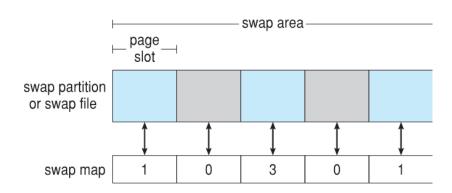
Swap-Space Management



- Swap-space Virtual memory uses disk space as an extension of main memory
 - Less common now due to memory capacity increases
- Swap-space can be carved out of the normal file system, or, more commonly, it can be in a separate disk partition (raw)
- Swap-space management
 - 4.3BSD allocates swap space when process starts; holds text segment (the program) and data segment
 - Kernel uses swap maps to track swap-space use
 - Solaris 2 allocates swap space only when a dirty page is forced out of physical memory, not when the virtual memory page is first created
 - File data written to swap space until write to file system requested
 - Other dirty pages go to swap space due to no other home
 - Text segment pages thrown out and reread from the file system as needed
- What if a system runs out of swap space?
- Some systems allow multiple swap spaces

Data Structures for Swapping on Linux Systems





- Redundant Arrays of Independent Disks
 - multiple disk drives provides reliability via redundancy
- Increases the mean time to failure
- Mean time to repair exposure time when another failure could cause data loss
- Mean time to data loss based on above factors
- If mirrored disks fail independently, consider disk with 1300,000 mean time to failure and 10 hour mean time to repair
- Frequently combined with NVRAM to improve write performance
- Several improvements in disk-use techniques involve the use of multiple disks working cooperatively

RAID(Redundant Arrays of Independent Disks) Structu

- Disk striping uses a group of disks as one storage unit
- RAID is arranged into six different levels
- RAID schemes improve performance and improve the reliability of the storage system by storing redundant data
 - Mirroring or shadowing (RAID 1) keeps duplicate of each disk
 - Striped mirrors (RAID 1+0) or mirrored stripes (RAID 0+1) provides high performance and high reliability
 - Block interleaved parity (RAID 4, 5, 6) uses much less redundancy
- RAID within a storage array can still fail if the array fails, so automatic replication of the data between arrays is common
- Frequently, a small number of hot-spare disks are left unallocated, automatically replacing a failed disk and having data rebuilt onto them

RAID Levels





(a) RAID 0: non-redundant striping.



(b) RAID 1: mirrored disks.



(c) RAID 2: memory-style error-correcting codes.



(d) RAID 3: bit-interleaved parity.



(e) RAID 4: block-interleaved parity.



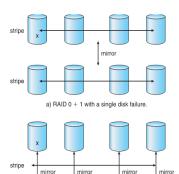
(f) RAID 5: block-interleaved distributed parity.



(g) RAID 6: P + Q redundancy.

RAID (0 + 1) and (1 + 0)





b) RAID 1 + 0 with a single disk failure.

Thank You!!!