COP 4610: Introduction to Operating Systems (Spring 2016)



Chapter 10: Mass-Storage Systems

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- Overview of Mass Storage Structure
- Disk Structure
- Disk Scheduling
- Disk Management
- Swap-Space Management
- RAID Structure

Overview



- Magnetic disks provide bulk of secondary storage of computer system
 - hard disk is most popular; some magnetic disks could be removable
 - driver attached to computer via I/O buses (e.g., USB, SCSI, EIDE, SATA...)
 - drives rotate at 60 to 250 times per second (7000rpm = 117rps)
- Magnetic disks has platters, range from .85" to 14" (historically)
 - 3.5", 2.5", and 1.8" are common nowadays
- Capacity ranges from 30GB to 3TB per drive

The First Commercial Disk Drive



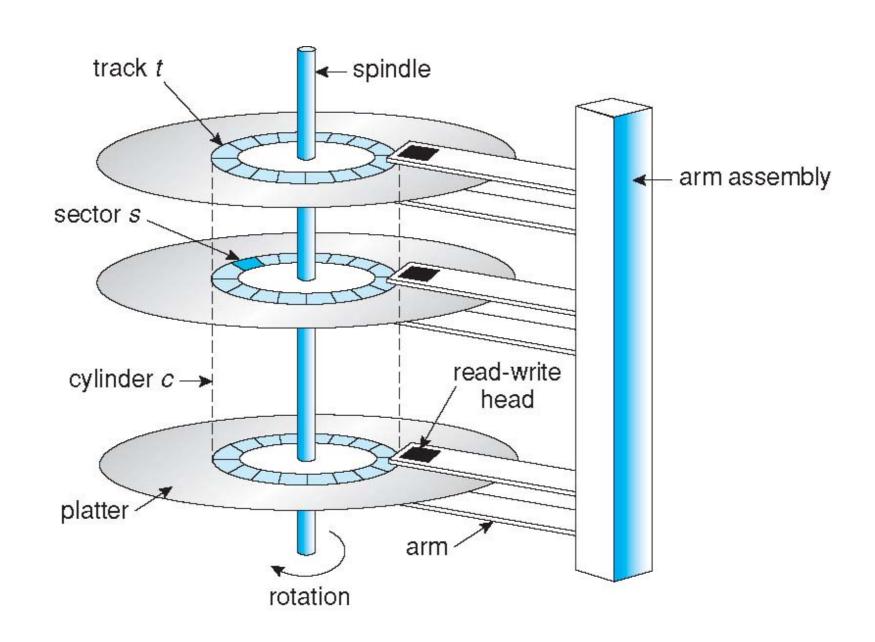


1956 IBM RAMDAC computer included the IBM Model 350 disk storage system

5M (7 bit) characters 50 x 24" platters Access time = < 1 second



Moving-head Magnetic Disk





Magnetic Disks

- Positioning time is time to move disk arm to desired sector
 - positioning time includes seek time and rotational latency
 - seek time: move disk to the target cylinder
 - rotational latency: for the target sector to rotate under the disk head
 - positioning time is also called random-access time
- Performance
 - transfer rate: theoretical 6 Gb/sec; effective (real) about 1Gb/sec
 - · Transfer rate is rate at which data flow between drive and computer
 - **seek time** from 3ms to 12ms (9ms common for desktop drives)
 - latency based on spindle speed: 1/rpm * 60
 - average latency = ½ latency

Spindle [rpm]	Average latency [ms]
4200	7.14
5400	5.56
7200	4.17
10000	3
15000	2

Magnetic Disk



- Average access time = average seek time + average latency
 - for fastest disk 3ms + 2ms = 5ms;
 - for slow disk 9ms + 5.56ms = 14.56ms
- Average I/O time: average access time + (data to transfer / transfer rate) + controller overhead
 - e.g., to transfer a 4KB block on a 7200 RPM disk; 5ms average seek time,
 1Gb/sec transfer rate with a .1ms controller overhead:

5ms + 4.17ms + 4KB / 1Gb/sec + 0.1ms = 9.39ms (4.17 is average latency)





Magnetic Tape

- Tape was early type of secondary storage, now mostly for backup
 - large capacity: 200GB to 1.5 TB
 - slow access time, especially for random access
 - seek time is much higher than disks
 - once data under head, transfer rates comparable to disk (140 MB/s)
 - need to wind/rewind tape for random access
 - data stored on the tape are relatively permanent







- Disk drives are addressed as a 1-dimensional arrays of logical blocks,
 - logical block is the smallest unit of transfer
- Logical blocks are mapped into sectors of the disk sequentially
 - sector 0 is the first sector of the first track on the outermost cylinder
 - mapping proceeds in order
 - first through that track
 - then the rest of the tracks in that cylinder
 - then through the rest of the cylinders from outermost to innermost
 - logical to physical address should be easy
 - except for bad sectors





- Disks can be attached to the computer as:
 - host-attached storage
 - hard disk, RAID arrays, CD, DVD, tape...
 - network-attached storage
 - storage area network



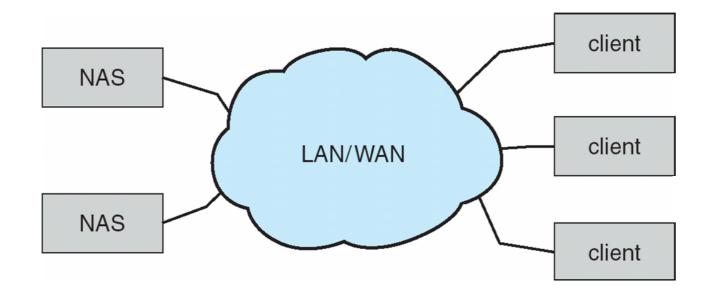


- Disks can be attached to the computers directly via an I/O bus
 - e.g., SCSI is a bus architecture, up to 16 devices on one cable,
 - SCSI initiator requests operations; SCSI targets(e.g., disk) perform tasks
 - each target can have up to 8 logical units
 - e.g., Fiber Channel is high-speed serial bus
 - can be switched fabric with 24-bit address space
 - most common storage area networks (SANs) interconnection





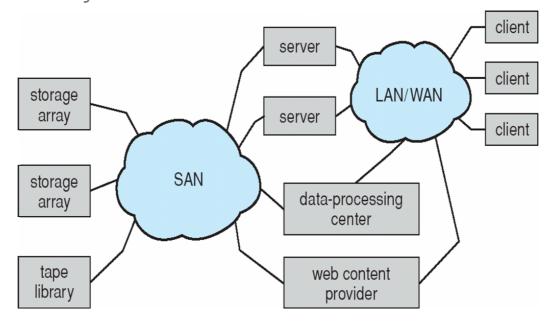
- NAS is storage made available over a network instead of a local bus
 - client can remotely attach to file systems on the server
 - NFS, CIFS, and iSCSI are common protocols
 - usually implemented via remote procedure calls (RPCs)
 - typically over TCP or UDP on IP network
 - iSCSI protocol uses IP network to carry the SCSI protocol







- SAN is a private network connecting servers and storage units
 - SAN consumes high bandwidth on the data network, separation is needed
 - TCP/IP stack less efficient for storage access
 - SAN uses high speed interconnection and efficient protocols
 - FC (Infiniband) is the most common SAN interconnection
 - multiple hosts and storage arrays can attach to the same SAN
 - a cluster of servers can share the same storage
 - storage can be dynamically allocated to hosts







- OS is responsible for using hardware efficiently
 - for the disk drives: a fast access time and high disk bandwidth
 - · access time: seek time (roughly linear to seek distance) + rotational latency
 - disk bandwidth is the speed of data transfer, data /time
 - data: total number of bytes transferred
 - time: between the first request and completion of the last transfer
- Disk scheduling chooses which pending disk request to service next
 - concurrent sources of disk I/O requests include OS, system/user processes
 - idle disk can immediately work on a request, otherwise os queues requests
 - each request provide I/O mode, disk & memory address, and # of sectors
 - OS maintains a queue of requests, per disk or device
 - · optimization algorithms only make sense when a queue exists

Disk Scheduling

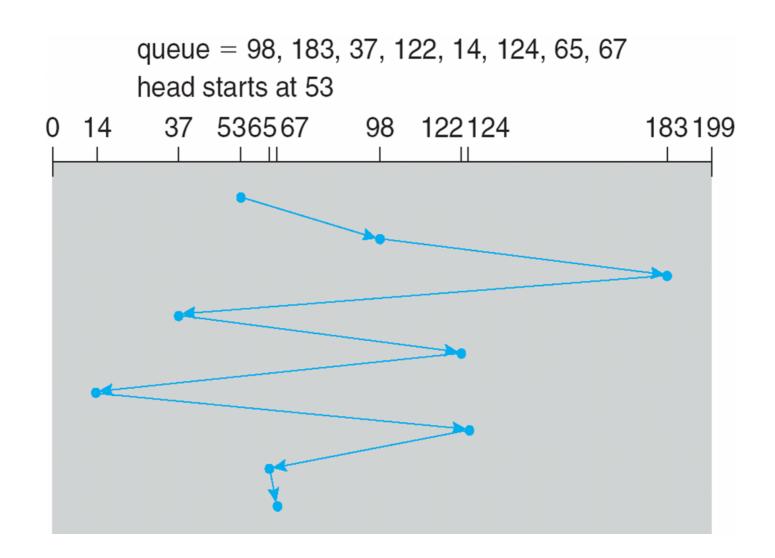


- Disk scheduling usually tries to minimize seek time
 - rotational latency is difficult for OS to calculate
- There are many disk scheduling algorithms
 - FCFS
 - SSTF
 - SCAN
 - · C-SCAN
 - · C-LOOK
- We use a request queue of "98, 183, 37, 122, 14, 124, 65, 67" ([0, 199]), and initial head position 53 as the example

FCFS



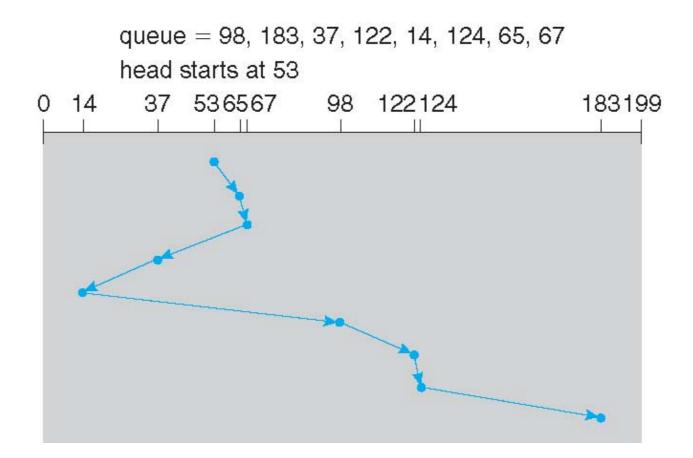
- First-come first-served, simplest scheduling algorithm
- Total head movements of 640 cylinders



SSTF



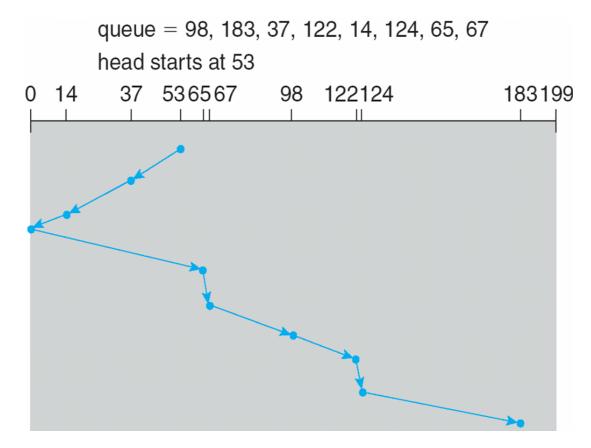
- SSTF: shortest seek time first
 - selects the request with minimum seek time from the current head position
 - SSTF scheduling is a form of SJF scheduling, starvation may exist
 - unlike SJF, SSTF may not be optimal (why?)
- Total head movement of 236 cylinders



SCAN



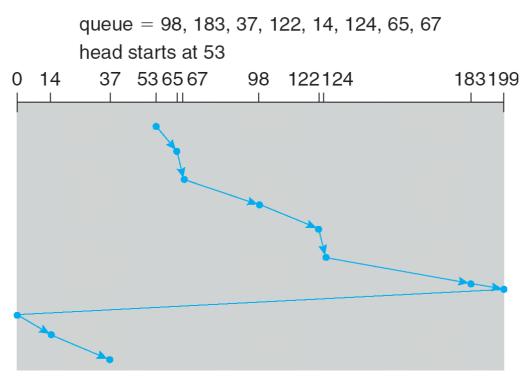
- SCAN algorithm sometimes is called the elevator algorithm
 - disk arm starts at one end of the disk, and moves toward the other end
 - service requests during the movement until it gets to the other end
 - then, the head movement is reversed and servicing continues.
- Total head movement of 236 cylinders



C-SCAN



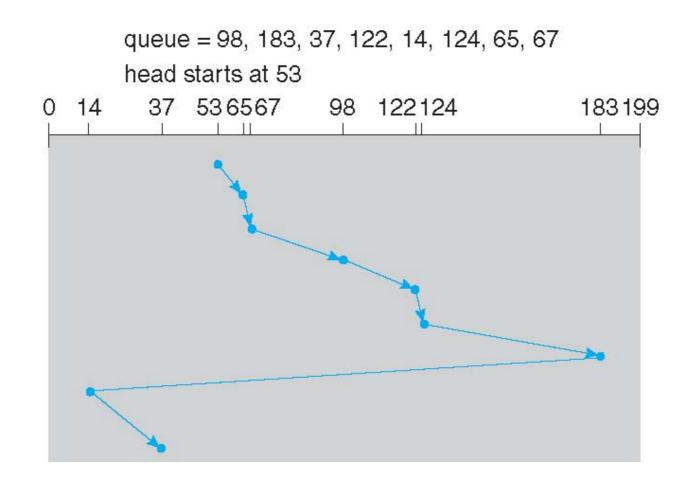
- Circular-SCAN is designed to provides a more uniform wait time
 - head moves from one end to the other, servicing requests while going
 - when the head reaches the end, it immediately returns to the beginning
 - without servicing any requests on the return trip
 - it essentially treats the cylinders as a circular list
- Total number of cylinders?



LOOK/C-LOOK



- SCAN and C-SCAN moves head end to end, even no I/O in between
 - · in implementation, head only goes as far as last request in each direction
 - LOOK is a version of SCAN, C-LOOK is a version of C-SCAN
- Total number of cylinders?







- Disk scheduling performance depends on the # and types of requests
 - disk-scheduling should be written as a separate, replaceable, module
 - SSTF is common and is a reasonable choice for the default algorithm
 - LOOK and C-LOOK perform better for systems that have heavy I/O load
 - · disk performance can be influenced by file-allocation and metadata layout
 - file systems spend great deal of efforts to increase spatial locality

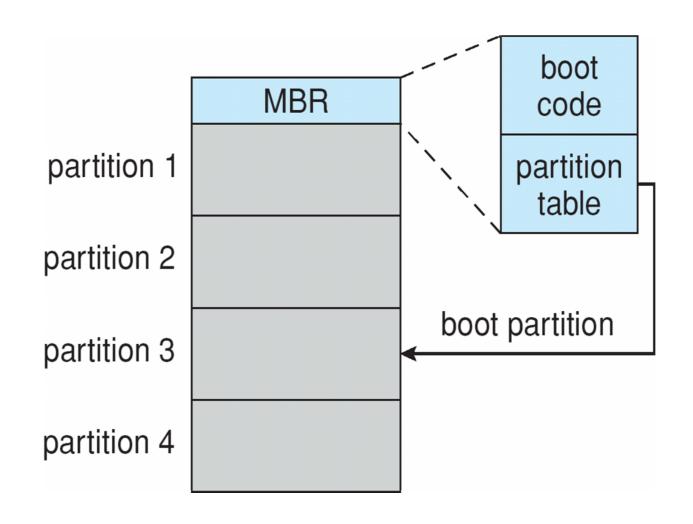




- Physical formatting: divide disk into sectors for controller to read/write
 - each sector is usually 512 bytes of data but can be selectable
- OS records its own data structures on the disk
 - · partition disk into groups of cylinders, each treated as a logical disk
 - logical formatting partitions to make a file system on it
 - some FS has spare sectors reserved to handle bad blocks
 - FS can further group blocks into clusters to improve performance
 - initialize the boot sector if the partition contains OS image



Windows 2000 Disk Layout



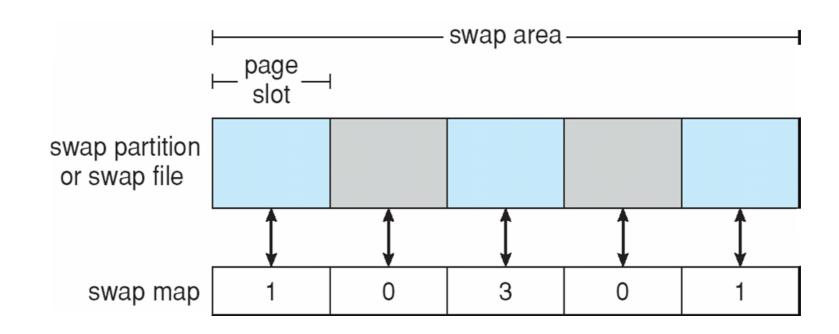




- Swap space: disk space used by virtual memory as an extension of the main memory
 - swap space can be carved out of normal FS, or a separate partition (raw)
 - less common now due to increased memory capacity
- Swap space management varies among OS
 - usually, kernel uses swap maps to track swap-space use
 - 4.3BSD allocates swap space when process starts
 - to hold text segment (the program) and data segment
 - Solaris 2 allocates it only when a dirty page is to be paged out
 - 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



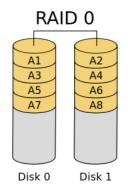
Linux Swap Space Management

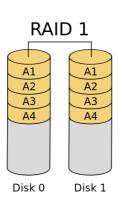


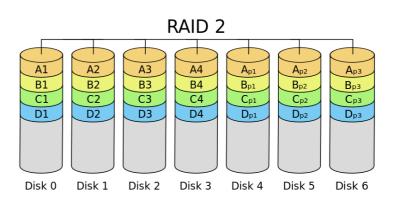
RAID



- RAID: use multiple disk drives to provide performance/reliability
 - reliability via mirroring or error correction code
 - performance via disk striping
 - segmenting logically sequential data, such as a file, and
 - store consecutive segments on different physical storage devices
- · RAID is arranged into six different levels
 - RAID 0: splits data evenly across two or more disks without parity bits
 - aka. striped volume, it improves performance, but decrease MTTF
 - RAID 1: an exact copy (or mirror) of a set of data on two disks
 - RAID 2: stripes data at the bit-level; uses Hamming code for error correction (not used)
 - hamming code (4bit data+3bit parity) allows 7 disks to be used



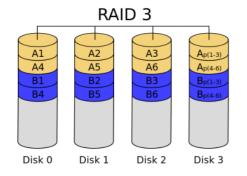


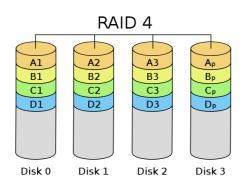


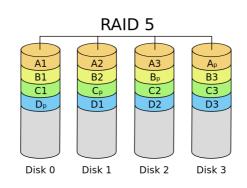
RAID

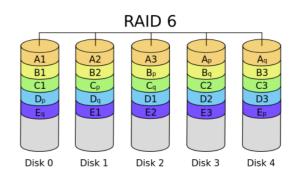


- RAID 3: byte-level striping with a dedicated parity disk (not used)
 - require synchronized disk spinning (RAID 3 is usually not used)
- RAID 4: block-level striping with a dedicated parity disk
 - a single block request can be fulfilled by one disk
 - different disk can fulfill different block requests
- RAID 5: block-level striping with parity data distributed across all disks
- RAID 6: extends RAID 5 by adding an additional parity block
 - RAID 6 has block-level striping with 2 parity blocks









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.

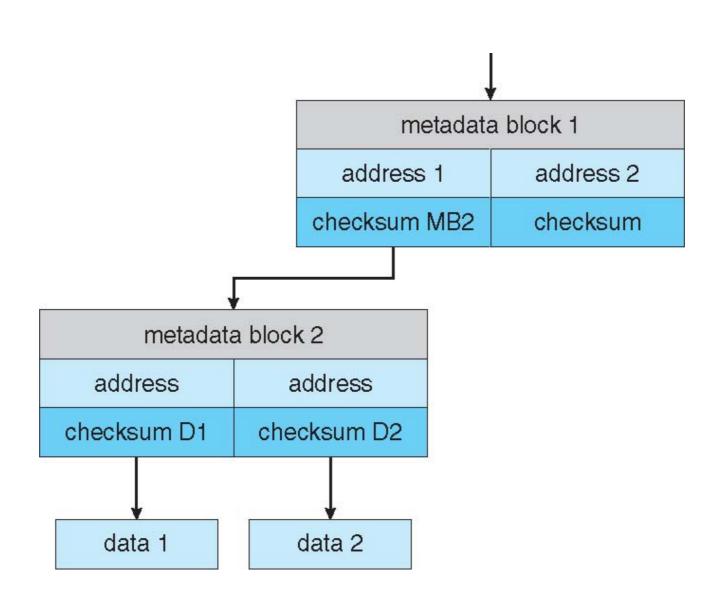




- RAID can only detect/recover from disk failures
 - it does not prevent or detect data corruption or other errors
- File systems like Solaris ZFS add additional checks to detect errors
 - ZFS adds checksums to all FS data and metadata
 - checksum is collocated with pointer to the data/metadata
 - can detect and correct data and metadata corruption
 - · ZFS allocates disks in pools, instead of volumes or partitions
 - file systems within a pool share that pool, allocate/free space from/to pool

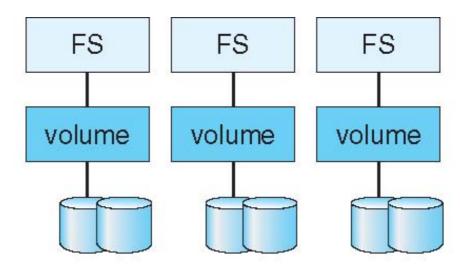


ZFS Checksums

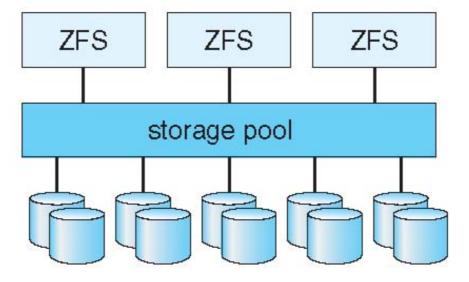




Traditional and Pooled Storage



(a) Traditional volumes and file systems.



(b) ZFS and pooled storage.





- Tertiary storage: being third-level after memory and magnetic disks
 - e.g., floppy disks, CD-ROMs, DVDs...
 - usually removable
 - low cost





- MO disk records data on a rigid platter coated with magnetic material
 - laser is used to record and read data
 - larger distance between head and disk surface (to shot the laser)
 - optical disks don't use magnetism; employs materials changeable by laser
- MO disk usually can be written many times







- WORM disks can be written only once
 - WORM: write once, read many time (e.g., CD-ROM, DVD-ROM...)
 - usually a thin aluminum film sandwiched between two glass/plastic platters
 - to write a bit, drive uses laser to burn a small hole through the aluminum
 - information can be destroyed by not altered
 - relatively durable and reliable





Tapes

- Tape is less expensive and has higher capacity than disk
 - many cheap cartridges share a few expensive drives
 - e.g., dell PowerVault LTO-3: \$2,056
- Tape is best for sequential access, random access is much slower
 - mostly used for backup or transfer of large volumes of data
 - large tape installation automates tape change and storage with robotic arms









- Tapes are usually presented as a raw storage medium
 - normal disks can be accessed as either as raw media or with file systems
 - no file system on the tape, just array of blocks
 - tape drive is usually reserved for exclusive use of the application
 - the application decides how to use the array of blocks
 - other applications usually do not understand the format of it
- Tape drives are "append-only" devices
 - an EOT mark is placed after a block that is written
 - updating a block in the middle effectively erases everything beyond it





- Two aspects of speed in tertiary storage are bandwidth and latency
- Bandwidth is measured in bytes per second.
 - sustained bandwidth: average data rate during a large transfer
 - data rate when the data stream is actually flowing
 - effective bandwidth: average over the entire I/O time
 - · including seek time or locate time, and cartridge switching
 - drive's overall data rate
- · Access latency: amount of time needed to locate data
 - access time for a disk: seek time + rotational latency; < 35 milliseconds
 - access time for tape: tens or hundreds seconds to wind the tape
 - thousands times slower than disk



Relative Reliability

- A fixed disk is likely to be more reliable than a removable disk or tape
 - flash device is even more reliable as there are no moving parts
 - though a head crash in a fixed hard disk generally destroys the data
 - failure of tape drive or optical disk drive often leaves data undamaged
- · An optical cartridge normally more reliable than magnetic disk or tape

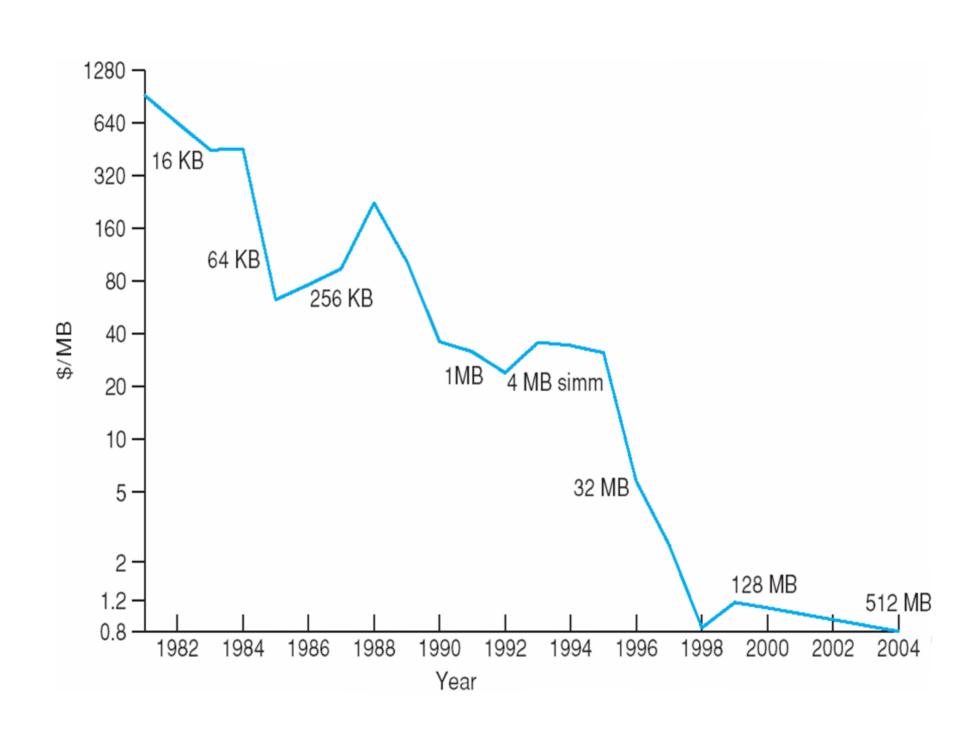


Cost

- Main memory is much more expensive than disk storage
- Cost per megabyte of hard disk is comparable to tape if only one tape is used per drive
 - but tape drive is expensive and tape is cheap
 - cheap tape and hard disk have about same storage capacity

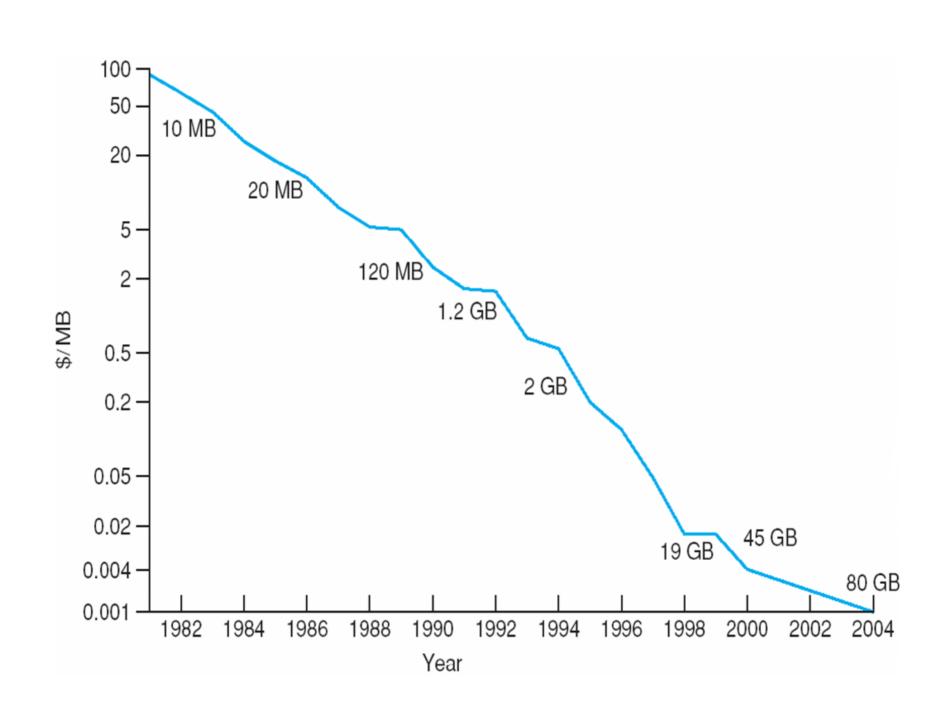


Cost Per Megabyte of DRAM



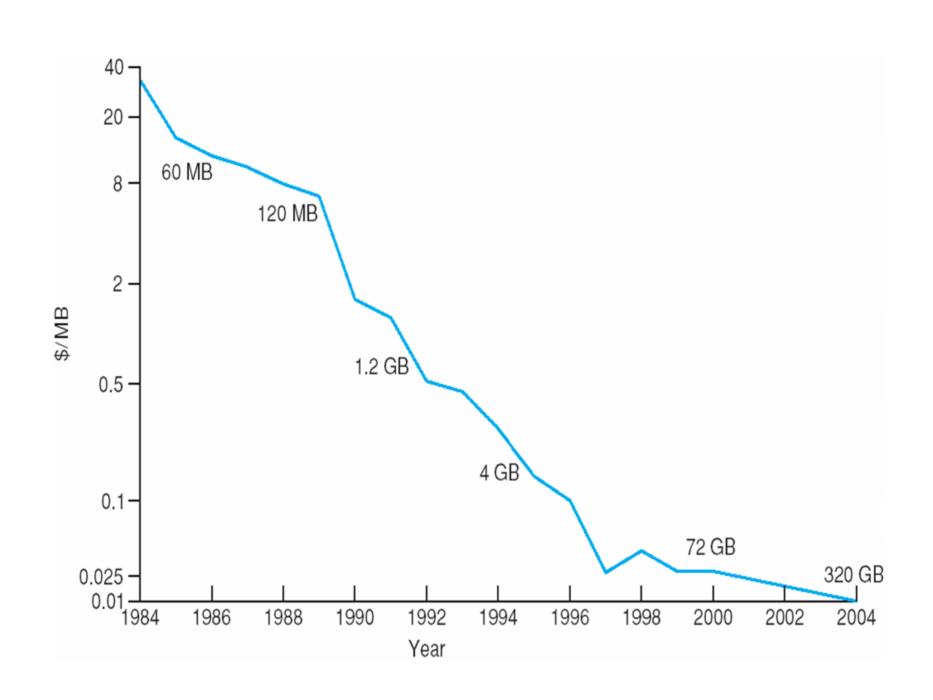


Cost Per Megabyte of Hard Disk





Cost Per Megabyte of Tape



End of Chapter 12