ACCESS AND ORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY MEMORY DEVICES

by

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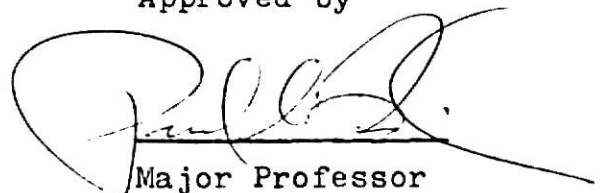
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I. INTRODUCTION

This report discusses data storage and access techniques of the general purpose file systems on secondary memory devices. In addition, the idea of segmentation is introduced as an example to show the limitations of file systems.

Various types of computer systems that use operating system techniques (software/hardware composites) are:

(1) real-time control systems: reservation, telephone switching, process control;

(2) data-base systems: management information, credit reporting;

(3) general purpose programming systems: batch, multi-programming, time sharing;

(4) other computer networks.

Throughout the sections of this report, the discussion of file systems are based upon general purpose programming systems.

II. MULTIPLE NATURE OF SECONDARY STORAGE

A file is an organized collection of related information usually kept in peripheral storage devices such as magnetic tape, disk or drum. The portion of the file system storage which is immediately accessible to the file system, i.e. disk and drums, is called the on-line storage system. Devices which are removable from the storage complex, such as tapes and disk packs, which are used as an extention of on-line facilities, are called the file backup storage system.

Table 1. Parameters of Storage Devices with
Typical Values in year 1965 (25, pp122)

Device	Typical Values
Magnetic core Storage :	
Capacity	0.065 - 8
Access Time	0.25 - 4 msec
Cycle Time	0.5 - 8 msec
Brandwidth (flow rate)	8 - 64
Magnetic Drum :	
Capacity	6 - 32
Access Time	8 msec
Brandwidth (flow rate)	1 - 8
Magnetic Disk :	
Capacity	20 - 2,000
Access Time to a Cylinder (seek)	80 msec (average)
Rotational Delay	10 msec (average)
Capacity of One Cylinder	0.2 - 1
Brandwidth (flow rate)	2.4
Magnetic Tape :	
Capacity (one reel)	100 - 500
Start-Stop Time	3 - 10 msec
Flow Rate	0.15 - 2.5

Note: All capacity in millions of bits; all flow rate in
millions of bits per second

Among the different types of secondary memory devices, the choice of storage should depend on the cost of information per unit and access time per unit of information. Generally cost increases as access time decreases. Therefore in selecting a storage medium for each application, consideration should be given to the logical organization of data, frequency of use, desired access time and so on. For example, little-used information should be put on devices with longer access time to allow more frequently used files on faster devices; files which need to be accessed directly should be put on directly accessable devices (i.e. disk, drum, but not tape).

The subsequent discussions will be on physical and functional characteristics of the most common auxiliary storage devices: tape, disk and drum.

MAGNETIC TAPES

The most common magnetic tape consists of a reel of $\frac{1}{2}$-inch-wide, $1\frac{1}{2}$ mils (0.0015 inch) thick, and 2400 feet long tape. Magnetic tape has a magnetic surface on which data can be stored by selective magnetization. There are two methods of recording the binary data on the tape. The older method, still in use, records the binary digits with a net magnetic field and binary zeros by the absence of magnetic field. An additional non-data parity bit is also recorded to make the number of 1-bits in a column either even (even parity) or odd (odd parity); this bit is used to check the validity of data by the hardware when the tape is read. The newer method is to

record the binary bits with a net magnetic field and binary zeros with a reverse magnetic field. This method is more reliable.

Data are thus recorded on the tape in lengthwise stripes, which are called tracks, one byte at a time in densities of 200, 556, or 800 bits-per-inch (bpi), but 1100, 1600 bpi tape is also used. More data can be stored on a tape at higher densities, and the transmission rate is also increased.

For efficient use of magnetic tape devices, logical records are usually grouped into a block (physical record), which is the amount of information that a computer handles on a single I/O operation. Blocks are written on a tape, separated by an interblock gap, where no information is recorded. This gap must be left for the tape to slow down and get up to speed on, since tape must reach its proper speed for the magnetic code on a tape to be read properly. Fig. 1 shows this arrangement.
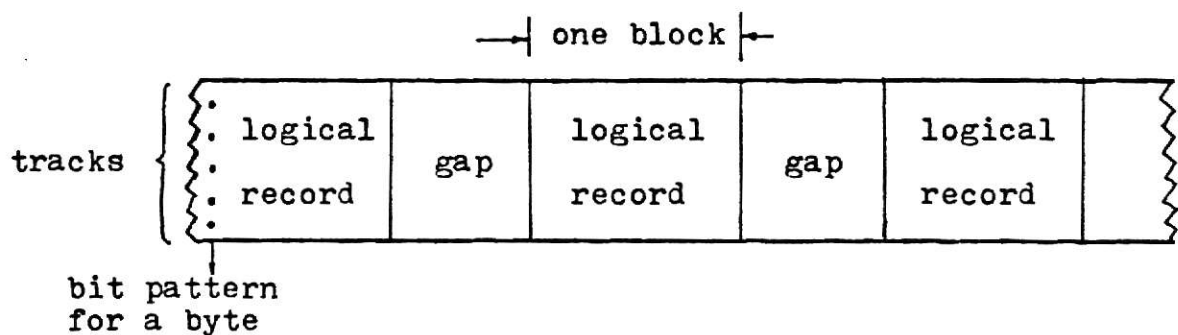

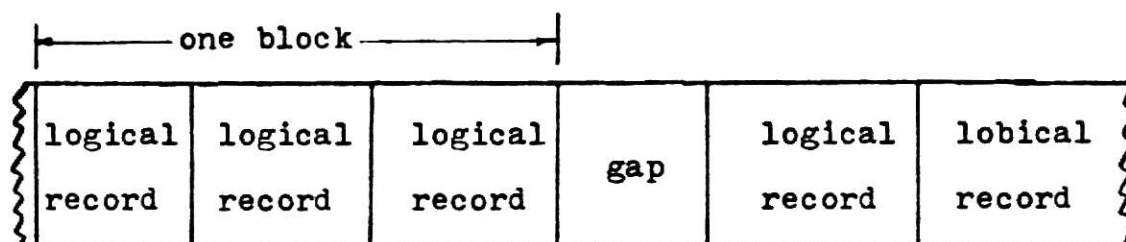Fig. 1. Unblocked Record on Magnetic Tape

Fig. 2. Blocked record with a blocking factor of 3

An example of the economic use of blocking records is shown below: Suppose we have logical records each of which is 80 characters long, a record occupies $\frac{1}{10}$ inch, at 800 bpi density. If each record is a block, followed by a $\frac{3}{4}$ inch gap, then a series of 100 logical records will occupy 85 inches of tape. On the other hand, if this same tape is blocked with 10 records, then 100 records will occupy 17.5 inches of tape. Thus, the blocking cuts the length of tape necessary by a factor of approximately five. The elapsed time required to read the tape is also cut by the same factor. Therefore, the choice of size of a block is an important programming problem - this depends on many factors, particularly the amount of processor storage that can be allocated for buffering the record, i.e., for accumulating the flow from (or to) tape. A trade-off between available buffer space in main storage and blocking factor must be considered in creating a file. Section III discusses blocking and deblocking of records.

Another factor that affects the efficient use of magnetic tape is keeping the tape in motion between blocks. When a read or write command is given to the magnetic tape unit,

it places the magnetic tape in motion. The acceleration time
is called the start time. If another read or write command is
given before transmission of one block finishes, then the tape
will keep on its maximum transmission speed. If not, the tape
decelerates to a rest. This deceleration time is called the
stop time. Using typical values, the total transport time is
approximated by:

Tt: transmission time

s: maximum velocity (transmission speed) = 120 in/sec

ts: start time = stop time = 0.005 seconds

g: length of interblock gap = 3/4 inch

d: density of tape = 800 byte/inch

l: length of tape = 2400 feet

The transport time for n blocks of information (W bytes)
with stacked read request is:

$$Tt_n = 2ts + \frac{nW}{d \cdot s} + \frac{(n-1)g}{s}$$

The transport time for the same information with stopping
between each read is:

$$nT1 = 2nts = \frac{nW}{ds}$$

Therefore efficient use of magnetic tape device requires
the blocking of information and stacking the read and write
request to keep the tape in motion between blocks.

Magnetic tape is the least expensive storage media at the
present time. Its shortcoming is that it has to be read serially,
which is consquently time-consuming if the required information
is randomly distributed throughout the tape.

Table 2. IBM 2400 Series Magnetic Tape.

	Milliseconds per Block			Blocks per Reel	

Left section — 2415

Models 1-6 / Seven Track · Nine Track (Models 4-6) · Nine Track (Models 1-6)

Columns: Start-Stop Time — 43.0 ms (200 bpi, 556 bpi, 800 bpi); Models 4-6 Nine Track — 32.0 ms (800 bpi), 16.0 ms (800 bpi, 1,600 bpi); Models 1-6 Seven Track — 20.0 ms (200 bpi, 556 bpi, 800 bpi), 16.0 ms (1,600 bpi)

Middle section — 2401, 2402, 2403, 2404†

Model 1 Seven Track / Models 1,4 Nine Track / Model 4 / Models 2**,5 Nine Track / Model 5 / Models 3**,6 Nine Track / Model 6

Right section — 2300 Tape Units

Seven Track (0.75 ms, 0.75 IBG, 556 IBG, 0.75 800 IBG) · Nine Track (0.6 800 IBG, 0.6 1,600 IBG)

Block Size axis (rightmost column):
700, 750, 800, 850, 900, 950, 1000, 1050, 1100, 1150, 1200, 1250, 1300, 1350, 1400, 1450, 1500, 1550, 1600, 1650, 1700, 1750, 1800, 1850, 1900, 1950, 2000, 2050, 2100, 2150, 2200, 2250, 2300, 2350, 2400, 2450, 2500, 2550, 2600, 2650, 2700, 2750, 2800, 2850, 2900, 2950, 3000, 3050, 3100, 3150, 3200, 3250, 3300, 3350, 3400

At present many tapes with different formats exist. IBM standard formats for 1/2 inch tape are seven-track (6-bit byte and one bit added for parity), even parity (200, 556 and 800 bpi) and nine-track, odd parity (800 and 1600 bpi). Almost every computer can be adapted IBM-compatible tapes. Other computer vendors have noncompatible tape formats which they believe offer advantages over the IBM STANDARD. Honeywell perfers to use odd parity as standard (as it is easier to detect blank characters or dropped bits), and UNIVAC has a Uniservo format (a clocking or synchronizing feature to compensate for tape speed discrepancies). Table 2 shows detailed information about IBM 2400 series magnetic tapes.

DISK

A disk drive is made up of a stack of rotating recording surfaces (disks) similar to a stack of phonograph records. Each disk surface contains many concentric circles called tracks on which information is recorded. There may be only one read/write head for the whole stack (as in IBM 1301) which has to move from disk to disk as well as from track to track, but usually there is one head per recording surface, mounted on a comblike access mechanism. In some disk drives, there is a read/write head on each track; this type of disk is logically equivalent to a drum. Since all heads are positioned together, a single position of the access arm makes a set of tracks (one track per disk) available. Such a set of tracks vertically arranged is called a cylinder. Since all head positioning

(seek) time requires the longest delay for random access, the capacity of a cylinder is important.

Typical disks have from 2 to 100 recording surfaces, and from 200 to 400 tracks per surface, and from 2500 to 10000 characters per track. However, modern practice is tending toward a removable module of six disks with 10 recording surfaces per disk pack (i.e. IBM 2311); as a protective measure, top and bottom surfaces are not used.

Tracks are usually divided into sectors (Fig. 3). Sector size may be fixed by the manufacturer, but it is generally left to the user to define sector size for his particular application.

The recording technology of a disk is similar to that of ordinary tape recording with one important difference: the read/write head do not touch the surfaces, but float or fly about one-thousandth of an inch away. This flying-head construction reduces the attainable data density somewhat, but provides essentially no wear of the record surfaces or head with a very high data reliability.

When information on a disk is addressed as a triple (surface number, track number, sector number), the head on that surface 'seeks' the desired track. This seek time varies with the inter-cylinder distance. After seeking, there is latency (rotational delay) to get to the desired sector on the track.

Denote t_r: time for one rotation

        t_s: maximum seek time

        W: bytes/sector

b: sectors/track

z: bytes to be read or written

n: number of cylinders needed

Tdsk: transport time of data (W bytes) on disk

$$\text{Tdsk} = \begin{bmatrix} \text{Total Maximum seek} \\ \text{time for all} \\ \text{cylinders involved} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \text{Total Average} \\ \text{rotational delay} \\ \text{for all cylinders} \\ \text{involved} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \text{Time to} \\ \text{transmit} \\ \text{information} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= nts + (n-1)\frac{tr}{2} + \frac{tr}{2} + \frac{tr(z/w)}{b}$$

If the data are stored in consecutive cylinder:

$$\text{Tdsk} = \begin{bmatrix} \text{Maximum} \\ \text{seek time} \\ \text{for one} \\ \text{cylinder} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \text{Minimum} \\ \text{seek time} \\ \text{for tracks} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \text{Average} \\ \text{rotational} \\ \text{delay} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \text{Time to} \\ \text{transmit} \\ \text{data} \end{bmatrix}$$

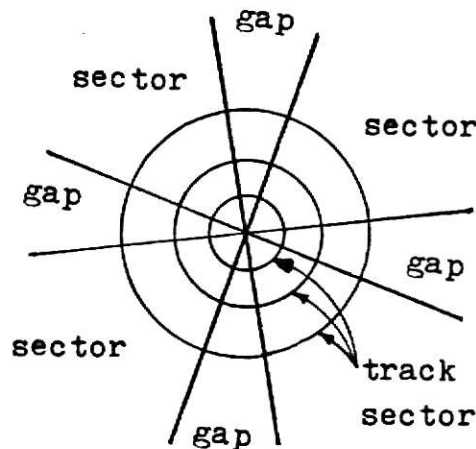$$= ts + (n-1)(\min ts) + \frac{tr}{2} + \frac{tr(z/w)}{b}$$

Fig.3. Top View of a disk

(a) Appearance of a removable disk pack

(b) Disks, access mechanism, and read/write heads.

Number of data digits per sector	200
Number of sectors per track	10
Number of data digits per track	2,000
Number of surfaces = number of tracks per cylinder = number of heads	10
Number of data digits per cylinder	20,000
Number of tracks per surface = number of cylinders	100
Total number of data digits per removable pack	2,000,000
Head access (seek time)	400 msec (max)
	250 msec (avg)
Rotational delay	40 msec (max)
Flow rate	50,000 digits/sec

Fig. 4. IBM 1311 disk organization for IBM 1620 system.

IBM System/360 Reference Data

DASD Capacity and Transmission Time

2314 Direct Access Storage Facility

Models:	1	A1
Average Access Time	75 ms	60 ms
Average Rotational Delay	12.5 ms	12.5 ms

The formulas used to determine capacity and transmission time assume the use of programming systems developed and supported by IBM and are in agreement with Systems Reference Library A26-3599-2, N26-0203 and N26-0230.

These systems use eight bytes of the first record on each track. The formulas are:

a. Bytes per record, except last record on track:
$$[2137 \ (KL+DL)/2048] \ * \ + \ C+101$$

b. Bytes per record, last record on track only:
$$KL+DL+C$$

c. Capacity per track in bytes: 7294

d. Records per track:
$$\left[\frac{c-b}{a}\right]^* + 1$$

e. Data rate (ms per byte): 0.0032051

f. Transmission time (ms per record):
(bytes per record) x (data rate)

KL = Key Length
DL = Data Length
C = 0 when KL = 0
C = 45 when KL ≠ 0

*Truncate any fraction

Table 3. DASD Capacity and Transmission Time.

● WITH KEYS

BYTES PER RECORD MINIMUM	BYTES PER RECORD MAXIMUM	TRACK	RECORDS PER CYLINDER	RECORDS PER MODULE	RECORDS PER FACILITY	TRANSMISSION TIME MINIMUM	TRANSMISSION TIME MAXIMUM
3477	7249	1	20	4000	32000	11.14	23.23
2255	3476	2	40	8000	64000	7.23	11.14
1650	2254	3	60	12000	96000	5.29	7.22
1289	1649	4	80	16000	128000	4.13	5.29
1050	1288	5	100	20000	160000	3.37	4.13
878	1049	6	120	24000	192000	2.81	3.36
751	877	7	140	28000	224000	2.41	2.81
651	750	8	160	32000	256000	2.09	2.40
572	650	9	180	36000	288000	1.83	2.08
507	571	10	200	40000	320000	1.62	1.83
453	506	11	220	44000	352000	1.45	1.62
408	452	12	240	48000	384000	1.31	1.45
369	407	13	260	52000	416000	1.18	1.30
334	368	14	280	56000	448000	1.07	1.18
305	333	15	300	60000	480000	0.98	1.07
278	304	16	320	64000	512000	0.89	0.97
255	277	17	340	68000	544000	0.82	0.89
234	254	18	360	72000	576000	0.75	0.81
216	233	19	380	76000	608000	0.69	0.75
199	215	20	400	80000	640000	0.64	0.69
184	199	21	420	84000	672000	0.59	0.63
169	183	22	440	88000	704000	0.54	0.59
157	168	23	460	92000	736000	0.50	0.54
145	156	24	480	96000	768000	0.46	0.50
134	144	25	500	100000	800000	0.43	0.46
124	133	26	520	104000	832000	0.40	0.43
115	123	27	540	108000	864000	0.37	0.39
106	114	28	560	112000	896000	0.34	0.37
97	105	29	580	116000	928000	0.31	0.34
90	96	30	600	120000	960000	0.29	0.31
83	89	31	620	124000	992000	0.27	0.29
76	82	32	640	128000	1024000	0.24	0.26
70	75	33	660	132000	1056000	0.22	0.24
64	69	34	680	136000	1088000	0.21	0.24
58	63	35	700	140000	1120000	0.19	0.22
52	57	36	720	144000	1152000	0.17	0.20
47	51	37	740	148000	1184000	0.15	0.18
43	46	38	760	152000	1216000	0.14	0.16
38	42	39	780	156000	1248000	0.12	0.15
34	37	40	800	160000	1280000	0.11	0.13
30	33	41	820	164000	1312000	0.10	0.12
26	29	42	840	168000	1344000	0.08	0.11
23	25	43	860	172000	1376000	0.07	0.09
19	22	44	880	176000	1408000	0.06	0.08
15	18	45	900	180000	1440000	0.05	0.07
12	14	46	920	184000	1472000	0.04	0.06
9	11	47	940	188000	1504000	0.03	0.04
5	8	48	960	192000	1536000	0.02	0.03

● WITH KEYS

● WITHOUT KEYS

BYTES PER RECORD		TRACK	RECORDS PER			TRANSMISSION TIME IN MS PER RECORD	
MINIMUM	MAXIMUM		CYLINDER	MODULE	FACILITY	MINIMUM	MAXIMUM
3521	7294	1	20	4000	32000	11.29	23.38
2299	3520	2	40	8000	64000	7.37	11.28
1694	2298	3	60	12000	96000	5.43	7.37
1333	1693	4	80	16000	128000	4.27	5.43
1093	1332	5	100	20000	160000	3.50	4.27
922	1092	6	120	24000	192000	2.96	3.50
794	921	7	140	28000	224000	2.54	2.95
695	793	8	160	32000	256000	2.23	2.54
616	694	9	180	36000	288000	1.97	2.22
551	615	10	200	40000	320000	1.77	1.97
497	550	11	220	44000	352000	1.59	1.76
451	496	12	240	48000	384000	1.45	1.59
412	450	13	260	52000	416000	1.32	1.44
378	411	14	280	56000	448000	1.21	1.32
348	377	15	300	60000	480000	1.12	1.21
322	347	16	320	64000	512000	1.03	1.11
299	321	17	340	68000	544000	0.96	1.03
277	298	18	360	72000	576000	0.89	0.96
259	276	19	380	76000	608000	0.83	0.88
242	258	20	400	80000	640000	0.78	0.83
227	241	21	420	84000	672000	0.73	0.77
212	226	22	440	88000	704000	0.68	0.72
200	211	23	460	92000	736000	0.64	0.68
188	199	24	480	96000	768000	0.60	0.64
177	187	25	500	100000	800000	0.57	0.60
167	176	26	520	104000	832000	0.54	0.57
158	166	27	540	108000	864000	0.51	0.53
149	157	28	560	112000	896000	0.48	0.50
140	148	29	580	116000	928000	0.45	0.47
133	139	30	600	120000	960000	0.43	0.45
126	132	31	620	124000	992000	0.40	0.42
119	125	32	640	128000	1024000	0.38	0.40
113	118	33	660	132000	1056000	0.36	0.38
107	112	34	680	136000	1088000	0.34	0.36
101	106	35	700	140000	1120000	0.32	0.34
95	100	36	720	144000	1152000	0.30	0.30
91	94	37	740	148000	1184000	0.29	0.29
86	90	38	760	152000	1216000	0.28	0.28
81	85	39	780	156000	1248000	0.26	0.27
77	80	40	800	160000	1280000	0.25	0.26
73	76	41	820	164000	1312000	0.23	0.25
70	72	42	840	168000	1344000	0.22	0.23
66	69	43	860	172000	1376000	0.21	0.22
62	65	44	880	176000	1408000	0.20	0.21
58	61	45	900	180000	1440000	0.19	0.20
55	57	46	920	184000	1472000	0.18	0.19
52	54	47	940	188000	1504000	0.17	0.18
48	51	48	960	192000	1536000	0.15	0.17
46	47	49	980	196000	1568000	0.15	0.16
44	45	50	1000	200000	1600000	0.14	0.15
41	43	51	1020	204000	1632000	0.13	0.15
38	40	52	1040	208000	1664000	0.12	0.14
35	37	53	1060	212000	1696000	0.11	0.13
31	34	54	1080	216000	1728000	0.11	0.12
28	32	55	1100	220000	1760000	0.10	0.11
26	30	56	1120	224000	1792000	0.09	0.10
24	27	57	1140	228000	1824000	0.08	0.10
23	25	58	1160	232000	1856000	0.08	0.09
21	23	59	1180	236000	1888000	0.07	0.08
19	22	60	1200	240000	1920000	0.07	0.07
17	20	61	1220	244000	1952000	0.06	0.07
15	18	62	1240	248000	1984000	0.05	0.06
13	16	63	1260	252000	2016000	0.05	0.05
12	14	64	1280	256000	2048000	0.04	0.04
10	12	65	1300	260000	2080000	0.04	0.04
9	11	66	1320	264000	2112000	0.03	0.04
7	9	67	1340	268000	2144000	0.03	0.03
6	7	68	1360	272000	2176000	0.02	0.02
5	6	69	1380	276000	2208000	0.02	0.02

● WITHOUT KEYS

Models:	1	A1
Average Access Time	75 ms	60 ms
Average Rotational Delay	12.5 ms	12.5 ms

Some examples of how this card may be used follow. A record is considered to be the information recorded between two gaps.

Example 1. Determining the effect of the record length on the number of records that can be stored on the device

Assuming that 73-byte records, without keys, are required, the table indicates that 41 records can be placed on each track. Reducing the record length by one byte permits 42 records per track, an increase of 4000 records per module. Alternatively, the record length can be increased by three bytes without decreasing the number of records on the module.

Example 2. Determining read/write time

Assuming that the data length (DL) is equal to 80 bytes, without key (KL = 0), the table indicates that 40 records can be stored on each track using unblocked records (that is, a gap after each 80 byte record). The chart also indicates a transmission time of 0.26 ms per record. Average read/write time is the sum (87.76 ms) of the average access time (75 ms) plus average rotational delay time (12.5 ms) plus record transmission time (0.26 ms).

Example 3. Effect of blocked records

Assuming 2400 storage locations available for a common input/output area, no keys, and a data length of 80 bytes, a maximum blocking factor of 30 can be established using 2400-byte records. The table indicates that two records of this length can be written on each track for a total of sixty 80-byte logical records. The transmission time for each disk record of thirty logical records is 10.3 ms (by interpolation).

The total number of bytes on a track is a function of the recording density and number of sectors/track. The recording density can be expressed as bytes/angle since the same number of bytes are recorded on both inner and outer tracks. An inter-sector gap is needed to distinguish the end of one sector and the beginning of the next; this also is expressed in terms of angle.

The concept of efficient use of disk is similar to that of tape: if the number of sectors per track increases, then the sector size decreases and the total number of bytes per track also decreases due to a higher percentage of gap space.

DRUM

A drum is a cylinder with a magnetizable surface which is divided into circular tracks, each as wide as a read/write head. This device is similar to a disk except it contains a single cylinder of tracks, each with its own read/write head. Drums are made to rotate at high speed (usually 3600 or 7200 rpm) about their axes while many read/write heads float a few millionths of an inch off their external surfaces.

Data are addressed on a drum by specifying the track number and word number within the drum. Often, one or more non-data-storing clock tracks serve to index the drum by providing current word-number indications (as in the IBM 650).

Using the same values used for disk in the previous section, the transport time for drum (Tdrm) can be approximated:

$$Tdrum = \begin{bmatrix} \text{initial average} \\ \text{rotational delay} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \text{time to transmit} \\ \text{information} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{tr}{2} + \frac{tr(z/w)}{b}$$

Drums offer the fastest secondary storage device available, but its cost per unit of information is most expensive because of the need for many costly read/write heads and for precision machining of surfaces.

The disk drive, which has a read/write head on each track, is logically equivalent to a drum also.

III. OVERVIEW OF DATA MANAGEMENT

In this section an overview of data management is given to show the overall relations of operating system to the file. This section is heavily based on the IBM/360 OS.

Data management refers to the totality of all operating system routines that provide access to data, enforce storage conventions and regulate I/O devices. Therefore data management includes all the data-set organizations, macro instruction languages, random and sequential access methods, the catalog and various indexes, and service routines which permit the operating system to read, write, keep and destroy data.

There are six major kinds of data-set organization:

Data Set Organization	Basic (random)	Queued (sequential)	Comments
Sequential	BSAM	QSAM	Magnetic tape, card and equivalent
Partitioned	BPAM		Program libraries

Indexed Sequential	BISAM	QISAM	A sequential organization with an index permitting both random & sequential access
Direct	BDAM		Typical random access
Telecommuni-cation	BTAM	QTQM	Conversational and transmissions
Graphic	BGAM		CRT, microfilm, plotter, etc.

Table 4. Access Methods available by IBM

The data records of a data set can have any of six record formats:

F: simple fixed-length format used for card and print files

FB: fixed-length, blocked used on tape, disk, etc.

FBS: standard fixed-length, blocked, most efficient record format for disk. "Standard" means that every block contains tha same number of records except possibly the last, which may contain fewer.

V: variable-length. Each record is preceded by a byte-count (non-data) length indicator used to save space.

VB: variable-length, blocked. Each physical record is preceded by a length indicator, and each logical record is also prefixed with a length indicator

U: undefined format. Records are considered to be unblocked.

Accessing of files through the operating system will be shown in the subsequent discussions. In order to find (or set

up) the right data set, the operating system must know some information about a file, such as: file organization; block size, record size, blocking factor; label description; space allocation; device residence; disposition of the file. There are three times when file information is presented to the operating system:

(1) in the program using data control block (DCB) macro instruction or by DD (Data Definition) statement

(2) at load time by searching for external segments in the library

(3) at execution time by opening the temporary or permanent user files.

The sequence of operations followed in setting up the data control block is roughly as follows and is summarized in Fig. 5. While the job scheduler (control program that selects the next job to be processed) is in control, the job control statements are read and a job file control block is set up with the information from each DD statement. Each job control block is identified by a ddname (data definition name in DD card) and contains at least a unit specification or a data set name (DSN). While the program is loaded into main storage for execution the expansion of the DCB macro-instruction made by the assembler becomes the skeleton of the data control block. Then during the execution, the user's program "opens" the other user file and the open macro brings in the label on a data set. Label information is placed in its own block, called the Data Set

Control Block or DSCB. The information in the DSCB is then merged with the JFCB and the DCB to form an updated DCB so that I/O macros can be properly managed by the access method.
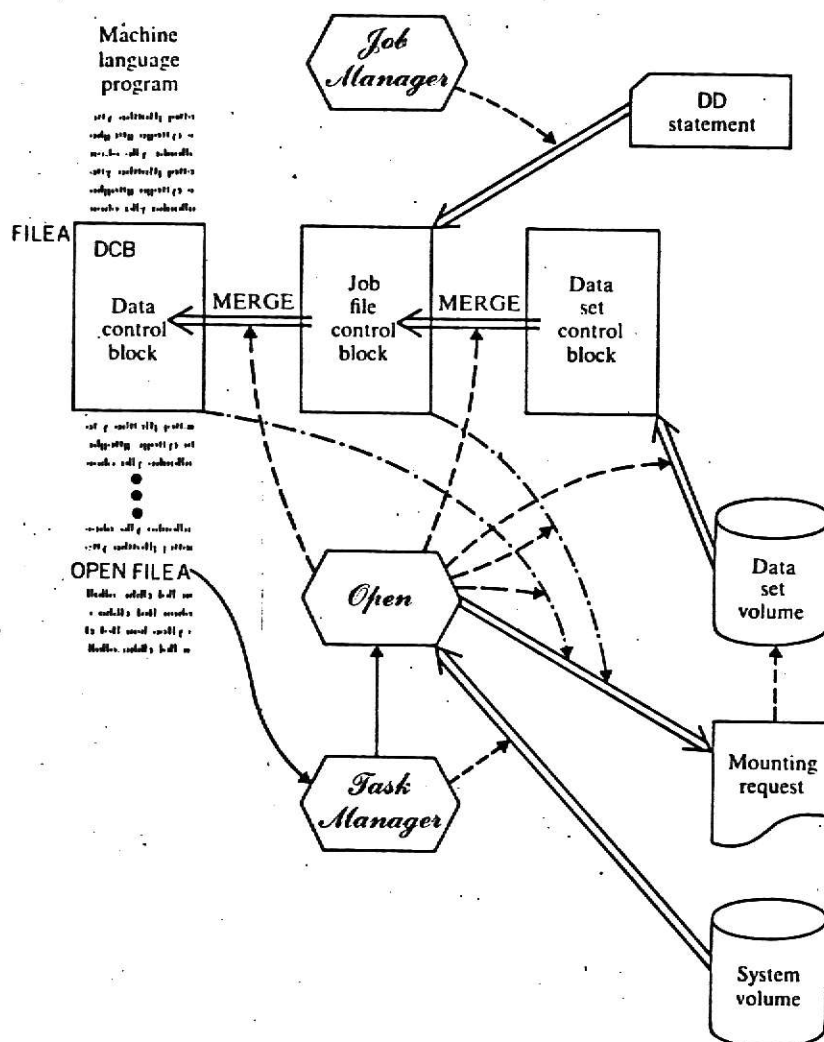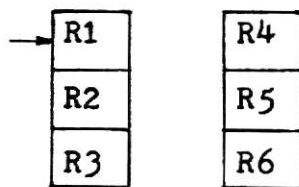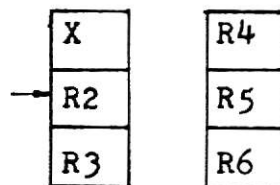
Fig. 5 Finding OPEN in the program starts a set of operations which fully establishes the DCB.

The access method deals with files and buffers. A description of each file managed by the access method is furnished as a data control block (DCB) supplied by the program. The sequential access method build and manipulate buffers, but a random access method the program builds its own buffers and manages buffering. A simple example of automatic buffering with the sequential access method is given below: Suppose we open a sequential file with OPEN (A, number of buffers=2, mode =input); the blocking factor is 3.
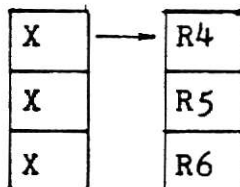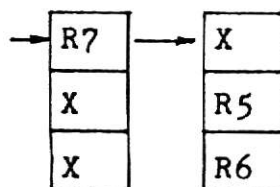
buffer1   buffer2

| R1 | | R4 | --- As soon as the file is open, the operating system fills the buffers which are established in the main storage with blocks 1 and 2.

| R2 | | R5 |
| R3 | | R6 |

| X | | R4 | --- Upon execution of a READ operation by software, the first record R1 is copied into program's working space and the pointer is advanced.

| R2 | | R5 |
| R3 | | R6 |

| X | | R4 | --- After two more READ operations, the pointer is advanced to the first logical record of the second buffer. At this time concurrency of I/o begins.

| X | | R5 |
| X | | R6 |

| R7 | | X | --- The data channel (hardware) is filling the buffer1 while the I/O program returns the control to program which may READ record 4.

| X | | R5 |
| X | | R6 |

?	X
?	X
?	X

--- At this point two possibilities exist: if the program issues READ R7 before the buffer1 is filled with R7, then it is input-output bound; in this case by increasing the number of buffers, better concurrency of I/O can be performed and shorten the execution time.

R7	→	X
R8		
R9		

--- The other possibility is that the data channel finished filling buffer1 before buffer2 is read, this case is called compute bound or processor bound (CPU bound); in which case to increase the number of buffers does not help the speed of execution of a program.

Fig. 6 A double buffered input stream with blocking factor 3

The above example is illustrated differently to show I/O and computation of program overlap:
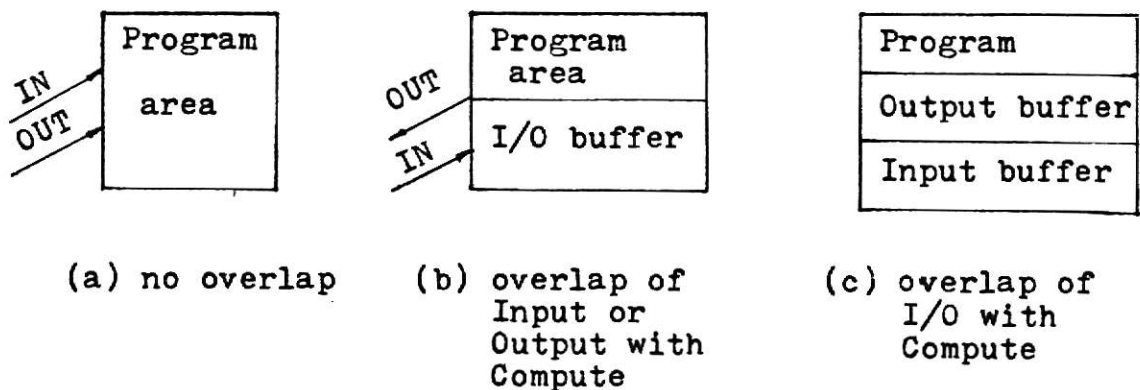

(a) no overlap   (b) overlap of Input or Output with Compute   (c) overlap of I/O with Compute

Fig.7 Simple models of Overlap

In addition to providing logical record/buffer supervisory routines and physical record/device supervisory routines, the operating system also includes other services such as password protection of confidential or sensitive data. Password protection requires the operator to make a secret response at the time of OPENing a file, or else the program is not allowed to access the protected data set.

IV. COMPARISON OF COMMON FILE ORGANIZATION TECHNIQUES

A number of people in the field of information processing have proposed different classifications of file organization based upon type, structure, storage media, software-hardware components, and so on of a file. But the most common file organization techniques are those supported with software by computer vendors; these are normally part of the operating system.

Strict Sequential	Indexed Sequential	Direct or Random
IBM	IBM	IBM
RCA	RCA	RCA
CDC	CDC	
UNIVAC	UNIVAC	UNIVAC
Burroughs		
NCR	NCR	NCR
GE		GE
Honeywell	Honeywell	Honeywell

Table 5. --summary of the file organization techniques
supported by the eight largest computer vendors

Note: All the computer vendors in the Table 5 have slightly
different features in organizing their indexed and
direct files. This might have affected the classification.
(This table is from 1969 FJCC. pp 417.)

SEQUENTIAL FILE ORGANIZATION

The oldest and most common file organization technique
is the strict sequential file organization. In a sequential
file, records are organized solely on the basis of their
successive physical locations in a file. The magnetic tape is
the most common example of sequentially organized data files.

Records may be fixed or variable-length, blocked or
unblocked or undefined. The records may be formatted with or
without keys. If the file is processed sequentially all the
time, there is no point in formatting with keys. This is
normally the case with this type of organization. But if for
some reason, there is some amount of random accessing of records
in the file, records should be formatted with keys so that they
can be located more quickly.

The amount of storage required for this type of file
organization is simply enough to hold the records in the file.
Sequential organization is used primarily for tables and inter-
mediate storage rather than master files unless a high percentage
of processing of the master file is sequential.

Random access of a sequential file is very inefficient.
The slowest way is to read the record sequentially until the
desired one is located. A random access by sequential search
takes less time if the records are formatted with keys; the

user might construct his own program for binary search of the
file in order to determine in which small section of the file
the discussed record is located. For example a binary search
with an eight cylinder file formatted with keys is as follows:
The last record in cylinder 4 is read and compared with search
argument. Then depending upon the results, the last record in
cylinder 2 or 6 is read and compared. Again depending upon
the result, cylinder 1 or 3 or 5 or 7 is tested. This last
comparison then indicates which cylinder should be searched
in full.

A difference between sequential access and random access
is that sequential access devices usually have no addresses to
distinguish an individual record or a block whereas random
access devices have such addresses. Another important difference
is that the sequential access methods are used when the user
wishes the operating system to perform anticipatory buffering
and scheduling of I/O using the buffers requested by the user;
in this case I/O operations and processing can be overlapped.
A sequential access method also performs automatic blocking
and deblocking if the records are blocked (see Fig 8.).

The direct access methods are used when the programmer
wants neither automatic blocking nor anticipatory buffering.
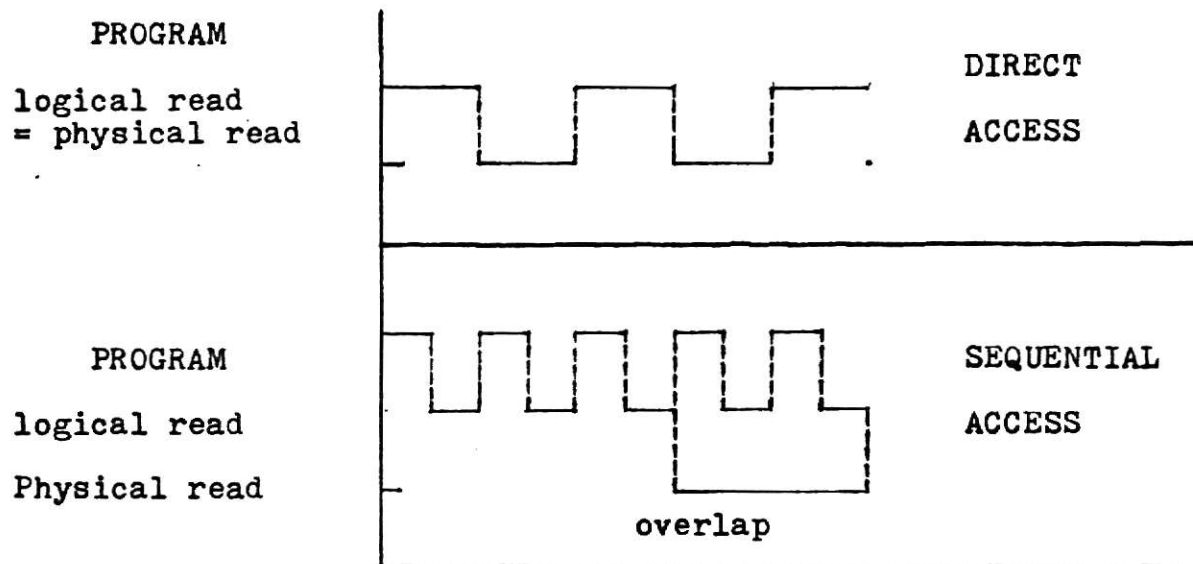Thus all those functions are user's responsibility.

PROGRAM

logical read
= physical read

DIRECT

ACCESS

PROGRAM

logical read

Physical read

SEQUENTIAL

ACCESS

overlap

Fig. 8. I/O Operations of Direct Access vs.
Sequential Access

INDEXED SEQUENTIAL ORGANIZATION

An indexed sequential file is a sequential file with indexes
that permit rapid access to individual records as well as rapid
sequential processing. Associated with each record is a key,
which is part of the record, and the records are arranged so
that they keys are in ascending order. Also a set of indexes
is kept, showing the locations of blocks of the data set whose
last records are associated with various keys.

When access to a particular record is desired, its key is
looked up in the index and the sequential retrieval of records
begins with the block containing the record. Thus the file is
sequentially organized, but the indexes facilitate jumping into
the desired block. This file organization permits fairly easy

and automatic appending to or deleting from files and yet fairly fast access.

The demand for storage space for an indexed sequential file is larger because of the additional space required for the indexes. Also an added inefficiency in the use of storage space is the typical requirement for overflow areas to permit insertions in the main files.

Indexed sequential files should be on direct-access storage devices i.e. disk, drum, but not tape. The operating system supports only fixed-length blocks.

An indexed sequential file may have three distinct areas: a prime area, indexes, and overflow area. Storage allocation for the prime area is required but index and independent overflow areas are optional.

The prime area is the area in which records are written when the file is first created or subsequently reorganized. Additions to the file may also be written in the prime area. In the prime area, the records are in key sequence and they may be blocked or unblocked. If blocked, each logical record contains a key and the key area contains the key of the highest record in the block (see Fig. 9).

There are two or more levels of indexes, and they are created and written by the operating system when the file is created. It uses the master directory called a cylinder index and a set of subdirectories called track indexes (see Fig. 10).

CYLINDER INDEX

| 00610 | 0000 | | 03975 | 0200 | | 05432 | 0300 | ...... | Dummy |

Data: Home address of track index for cylinder 00
Key: Highest key on cylinder 00

One such entry for each cylinder of the prime data area

TRACK INDEX

| | Normal | | Overflow | | | Normal | | Overflow | | | Normal | | Overflow | | ...... |
| 0000 | COCR | | 00014 | 0001 | | 00014 | 0001 | | 00027 | 0002 | | 00027 | 0255 | | 00610 | 0042 | | 00610 | 0255 |

Data: Home address of prime data track 0001
Key: Highest key on prime data track 0001

One normal and one overflow entry for each prime data track on cylinder 00

PRIME DATA AREA

| 0001 | ...... | 00001 | | 00003 | | 00004 | | 00006 | ...... | 00009 | | 00011 | | 00014 |

Home Addr.

Data Record: Count, Key and Data for record with key #00001

Data Records

| 0002 | | 00016 | | 00017 | | 00019 | | 00020 | .... | 00025 | | 00027 |

| 0042 | | 00591 | | 00594 | | 00597 | | 00598 | .... | 00605 | | 00610 |

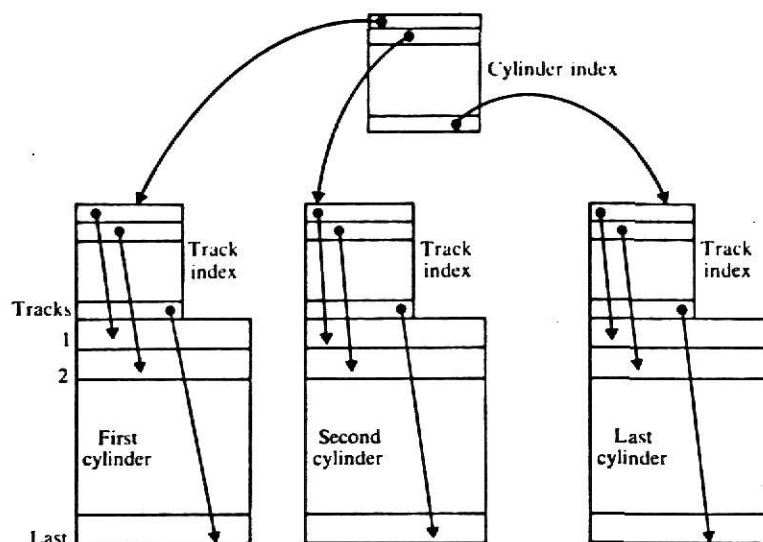Fig. 9. An indexed sequential file with no additions

Fig. 10 *The cylinder index points to track indexes, one for each cylinder in the file.*

The cylinder index is a higher level of index and its entries point to track indexes. There is only one cylinder index for the file, and this may be on different disk than the rest of the file.

The cylinder index consist of one entry for each cylinder in the prime area followed by a dummy entry. The key area contains the key of the highest record on the cylinder to which the entry points. The data area contains the home address of the track index for that cylinder.

If cylinder index becomes too long, a master index may be created to index it. Usually if the cylinder index exceeds four full tracks, a master index is requested. It is also possible to get a second and third-level master index when necessary. The area reserved for the master index and cylinder

index is called the index area.

Track index is the lowest level index and always present. Its entries point to data record. There is one track index for each cylinder in the prime area. It contains a home address entry and an overflow pointer to the first available block. There is one four-part entry in the track index. The first two parts are called the normal entry: first part is the key of highest record on the track, the second part is the home address of the first prime data on the track. The third part is the key of the highest record for that track in overflow area: the fourth is the location of the first overflow record from this track (Fig. 9).

One of the principles of the indexed sequential access method is to keep the records in order. Therefore insertion of records requires moving the records to keep the order and also updating the overflow area. A deleted record is simply flagged as inactive to save a time-consuming moving operation; the only time one is eliminated is when it is forced off a track to an overflow area or the whole file is rewritten.

To illustrate insertions and deletions of records to an indexed sequential file, see Fig. 11 and 12. The first insertion of a record with a key, BP, works like this: Since BP is less than FN, the cylinder index indicates it is in cylinder 78. Next the track index is examined; it shows BP is greater than AH and BH but less than BZ so it belongs to track 2. In track 7802 BP is greater than BM but less than BR so it is inserted

in the third position, and BR, BS and BV are moved down to the next positions and BZ is moved to overflow area. The overflow pointer is advanced by 1 and the key of the normal track entry is also changed to contain the highest record in the changed track, BV. The track index overflow pointer states where BZ is: 78091. After inserting several records and deleting one record, the result is shown in Fig. 12.

In managing overflow areas, a cylinder overflow area and an independent overflow area can be reserved either singularly or in combination. A cylinder overflow area is reserved by allocating a specified number of tracks on each cylinder for overflow. This has the advantage of minimizing access time since no additional access-arm movement is necessary, however, this overflow area can not be shared. An independent overflow area which may not be adjacent to the prime area can be shared by all cylinders, conserving storage space at the expense of an increased access time. The best method is reserving reasonable space for both overflow areas.

The sequential access method is used when reading and updating the record in key sequence; the operating system provides anticipatory buffering and automatic blocking.

The random access method for indexed sequential files is used when adding, reading or updating records directly; the operating system writes the new record, rewrites existing records, index entries, and link fields as required.
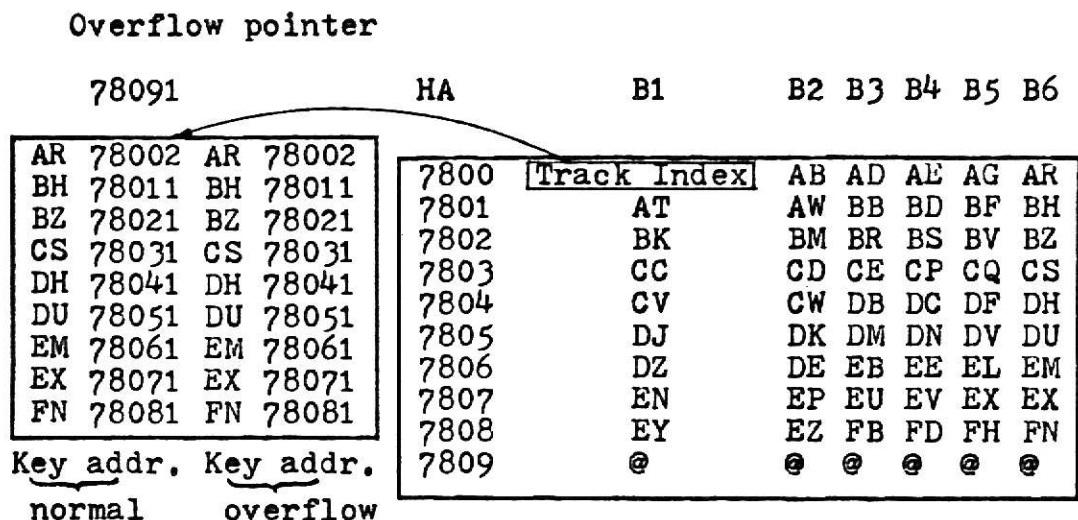
Overflow pointer

	HA	B1	B2	B3	B4	B5	B6
7800	Track Index	AB	AD	AE	AG	AR	
7801	AT	AW	BB	BD	BF	BH	
7802	BK	BM	BR	BS	BV	BZ	
7803	CC	CD	CE	CP	CQ	CS	
7804	CV	CW	DB	DC	DF	DH	
7805	DJ	DK	DM	DN	DV	DU	
7806	DZ	DE	EB	EE	EL	EM	
7807	EN	EP	EU	EV	EX	EX	
7808	EY	EZ	FB	FD	FH	FN	
7809	@	@	@	@	@	@	

78091

Left table:

Key addr. normal		Key addr. overflow	
AR	78002	AR	78002
BH	78011	BH	78011
BZ	78021	BZ	78021
CS	78031	CS	78031
DH	78041	DH	78041
DU	78051	DU	78051
EM	78061	EM	78061
EX	78071	EX	78071
FN	78081	FN	78081

Fig. 11. Contents of cylinder 78 with the track index expanded and placed on the left margin. Only block keys appear in the table.

Overflow pointer

78096

Left table:

Key addr. normal		Key addr. overflow	
AG	78002	AR	78092
BH	78011	BH	78011
BT	78021	BZ	78094
CR	78031	CS	78093
DH	78041	CS	78041
DU	78051	DU	78051
EM	78061	EM	78061
EX	78071	EX	78071
FN	78081	FN	78081

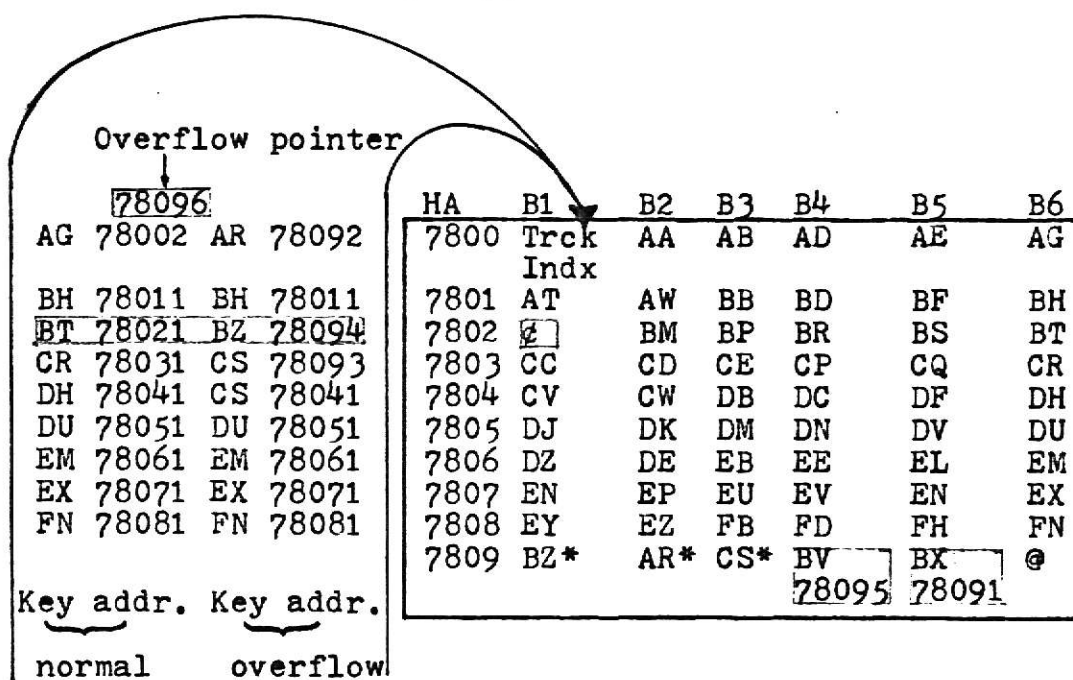| HA	B1	B2	B3	B4	B5	B6
7800	Trck Indx	AA	AB	AD	AE	AG
7801	AT	AW	BB	BD	BF	BH
7802	¢	BM	BP	BR	BS	BT
7803	CC	CD	CE	CP	CQ	CR
7804	CV	CW	DB	DC	DF	DH
7805	DJ	DK	DM	DN	DV	DU
7806	DZ	DE	EB	EE	EL	EM
7807	EN	EP	EU	EV	EN	EX
7808	EY	EZ	FB	FD	FH	FN
7809	BZ*	AR*	CS*	BV 78095	BX 78091	@

Fig. 12. Contents of cylinder 78 after appending BP, AA, CR, BT, and BX have been added in that order. Then BK is deleted.

DIRECT (RANDOM) ORGANIZATION

Direct data organization permits each record to be accessed directly without regard to its position relative to other records. Therefore random access provided by the direct file organization is generally used for files where the access time to an individual record should be kept to an absolute minimum, as in real-time processing, or when only a small percentage of a large file is required at any one time, such as a question-answering service.

Each record of a direct organized file contains a key that describes the record's location in the data set. The addressing can be direct or indirect as the user chooses; since the user is largely responsible for the logic and programming required to locate records. Some commonly used methods of developing operating system to provide random organization will be introduced here.

With direct addressing, every possible key of a record in the file converts to a unique address, therfore, it is possible to locate any record in the file with one seek and one read. One way of setting up a direct addressing scheme is to use the key of a record as the address. In order to do this, the record must be fixed-length and key must be numeric. By dividing the key by the number of records per track; the quotient equals the relative track address and the remainder equals the record number. This method requires minimum time to locate a record, but a possible disadvantage is the wasting of a large amount of unused storage due to the fact that for every key a location must be

reserved. For example, employee number ranges from 1 to 999 but only 600 of the possible 999 are actually assigned. Blocking of records can be used to save storage, but the user is responsible for all blocking and deblocking routines.

Another method of direct addressing is to assign an address to each record and maintain a cross-reference list of keys and assigned addresses. The list may be a printed one or it may be a file recorded on direct access storage devices. Although a record can be accessed directly when the address is known, time is required to look up the list. Indexed sequential organization is a variation of this method.

Indexed addressing is used when the range of keys of a file includes a high percentage of unused ones so that direct addressing is not feasible. With indexed addressing, keys are converted into a smaller range of record addresses. In selecting a conversion technique two objectives must be considered: every possible key must be converted to a certain range of address, and addresses should be evenly distributed so that few collisions (two or more keys map into same address) occur. An example of index addressing is the Linear Quotient Method which works as follows: Suppose operating system has allocated disk space for N records where N is a prime interger. Given a key K of a record, operating system computes its address ho relative to the start of the file by

$$\frac{K}{N} = Q + \frac{ho}{N} , \qquad 0 \leq ho < N$$

If that address (ho) was already occupied then the search

continues to compute address (h_{i+1}) by

$$h_{i+1} = (h_i + Q')\mod N$$

$$Q' = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } Q \equiv 0 \mod N \\ Q & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Another example of the indirect addressing method is Radix Transformation. With this method, the key is transformed to a different radix or base; excess digits are discarded, leaving an address of the required length. The following is an example of converting a key of 42351 to radix 11 to provide four address:

$$(4 \times 11^4) + (2 \times 11^3) + (3 \times 11^2) + (5 \times 11^1) + (1 \times 11^0)$$
$$= 58564 + 2662 + 365 + 55 + 1 = 61645$$

Use 1645 as the relative address.

With an indirectly addressed file, activity of each record has a significant effect on time to locate records. Therefore, if the records of the file have uneven distribution of activity, the file should be sorted into the activity sequence.

For both direct and indirect addressing technique, additions are done through overflow areas. Deletion can be done by simply flagging a record as inactive and omitting that record when the file is reorganized. One of the methods of handling overflow records is the chaining method. With this method, one record on each track is used to point to the overflow track so that next track in the chain can be used when the track is full.

For direct organization, the operating system does not provide automatic buffering and overlap of I/O with processing.

However, if the user knows in advance which record he wants next, he can program these functions.

A direct data set can, of course, be processed sequentially if the user knows the key of each record and the orders of keys sequentially. This operation is very inefficient since each record must go through key-address transformation. However, for performing random access of records, this is the fastest file organization technique.

PARTITIONED ORGANIZATION

A partitioned data organization is made of a directory and number of sequential files which are members of this data set. This data set can be stored only on direct-access devices.

Each partitioned data set begins with a directory recorded in the standard format. This directory contains the name and location of each member as shown in Fig. 13.

Fig. 13 Partitioned Data Set

Each member has a unique name, 1 to 8 characters long, and is stored in a directory in alphameric collating sequence by name. When a member has more than one name, the additional names are called aliases and a signal bit indicates that is an alias. Every member of any individual partitioned data set has the same record format and organization. The records in a member of a partitioned data set are usually fixed length, blocked or unblocked. Once a member is selected, it is processed like an ordinary sequential data set.

Like other data sets on direct access devices, a partitioned data set is identified by a DCB recorded on the same device. This DCB contains information about the data set name, hardware address, organization of the data set and record format; it can also include a security password, date of creation, and retention period or expiration date. One of the valuable features of a partitioned data set is that it needs only one DCB no matter how many members it contains.

Partitioned data sets are ideally suitable for storing program libraries. Usually members of a partitioned data set are related programs, but this is not necessarily true.

The programmer is responsible for the construction and use of both the partitioned file and its index. To create this file, the programmer asks for space for the data set on one volume, he should also leave room for additions. To make additions to the file, he writes a new member in a proper space by random access methods and adds the member's name to the index.

Deletion can be accomplished by removing the member name from directory entries, but the storage area that it occupied does not become immediately available.

In a partitioned data set, the index location can be passed to the cataloging software to be entered both in the Volume Table of Contents (VTOC) and catalog automatically.

V. FILES, DIRECTORY HIERARCHY

In the previous sections, methods of organizing files were discussed. This section deals with how to retrieve desired files once they are put into the computer. As an example, how the IBM/360 operating system finds a file will be shown here. OS 360 requires two resources: the VTOC and the file catalog to assist in finding the desired information. The VTOC appears on every volumn and list the location of all the files in that volume. The catalog, which is always available to the system by residing on system residence volume, lists all the cataloged files available to the computer, even those on media not presently attached to the system. Should the volume required be absent or on a disconnected device, the catalog conveys this to the operator.

As summarized in Fig. 14, if a data set is cataloged, the user may give the data set name in his DD statement, then the operating system will find it by using the information in the catalog. If the data set is not cataloged, the user directs the operating system to it by designating an input or output unit, such as a magnetic tape drive.
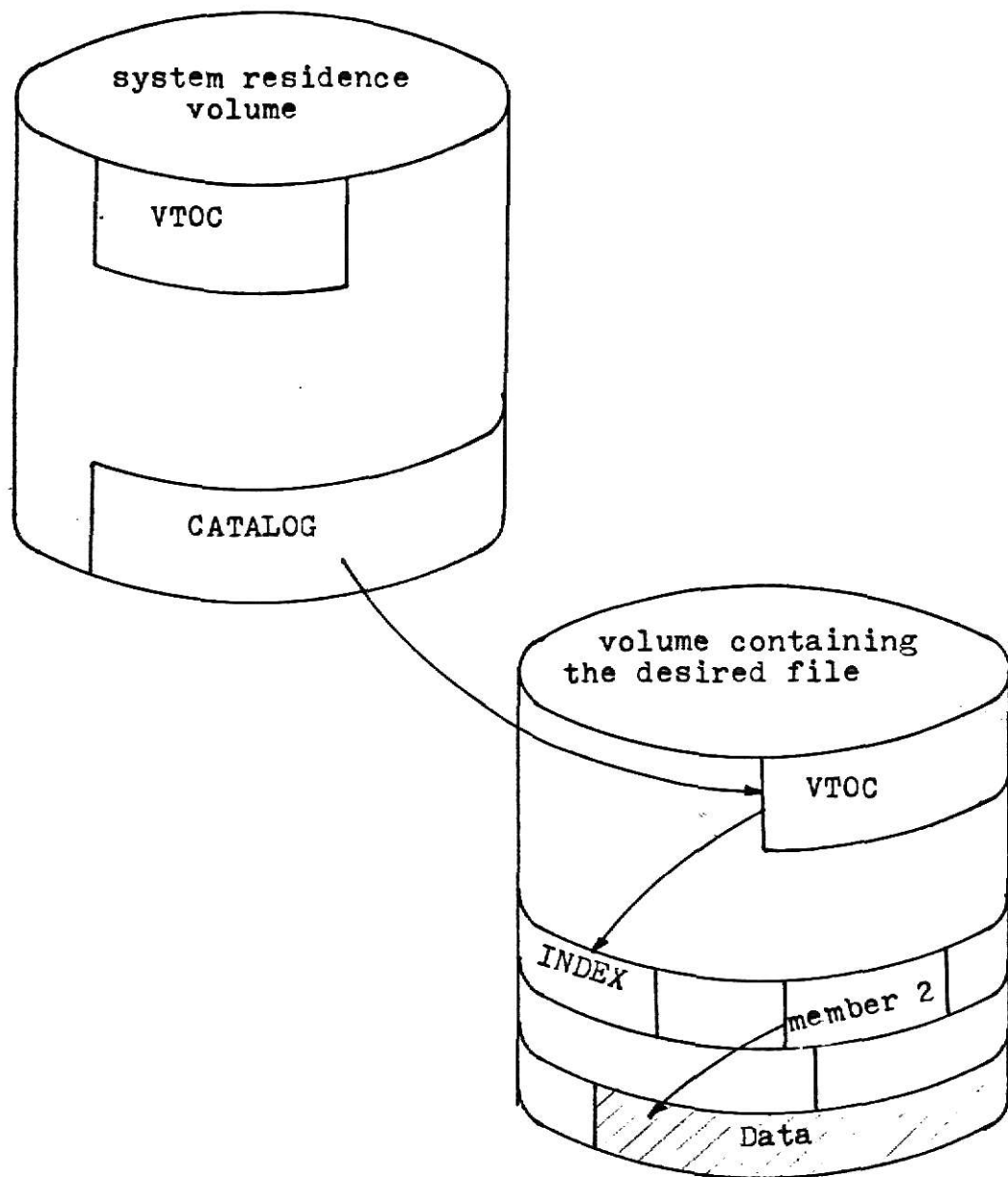
Fig. 14. Structure of Catalog, showing Path used to find
a File named member 2 of a Partitioned Data Set.

In order to find any member of the data set, the operating system needs a file directory, in which files are cataloged or indexed as the user chooses. On many systems, the entries entered into a directory may include other directories as well as files, thus giving each user the ability to create a directory tree with his collection of filed procedures and data bases.

For our model, the data base consists of three subcollections: (2)

SYS --- The collections of system procedures available to the user and system routines not available to the user.

LIB --- The collection of public subroutines and permanent user files

USER --- The set of temporary user files currently in execution.

This system is displayed in Fig. 15 as a tree structure showing the hierarchical relationships; circles represent directories and rectangles represent data set control blocks which contain information about where the file is located and how the file is structured in the secondary memory devices.

When the access of a file is requested, the file directory is searched, and the data set control block is copied into a job file control block (JFCB) which is contained in the context block of each process.

For the system to find a file, naturally, its name should be unique. A particular object is specified by a pathname that selects a path from the root of the directory hierarchy to the

desired object (i.e. LIB.PAYROLL.E). File names can be nested
as deeply as directories can be nested. However, within certain
well-defined contexts, it is permissible to omit directory name
(i.e. LIB.FORT) and use only the lowest name (i.e. Cos).

Generally a permanent file is referenced by using the fully
nested name, while with temporary files only the lowest level
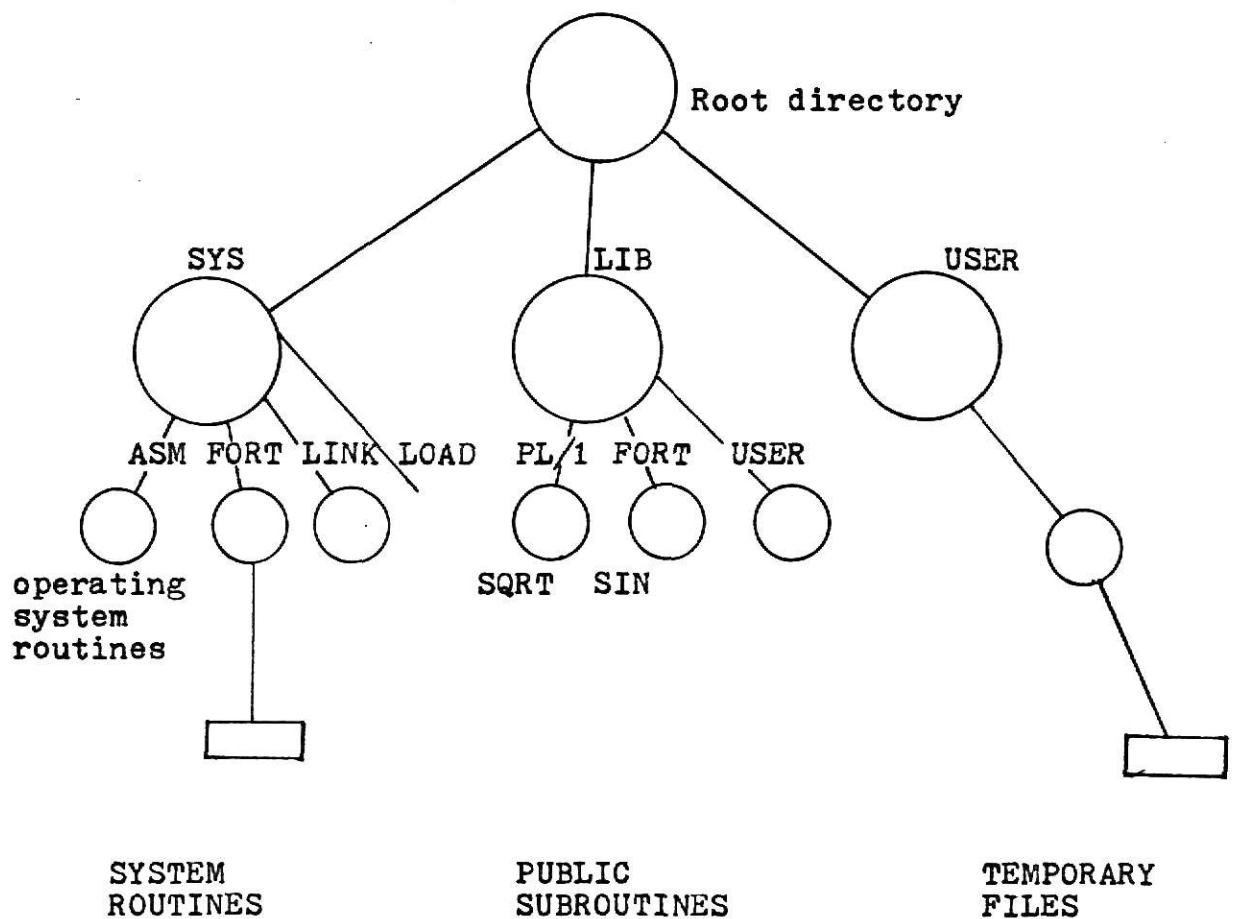name is specified.
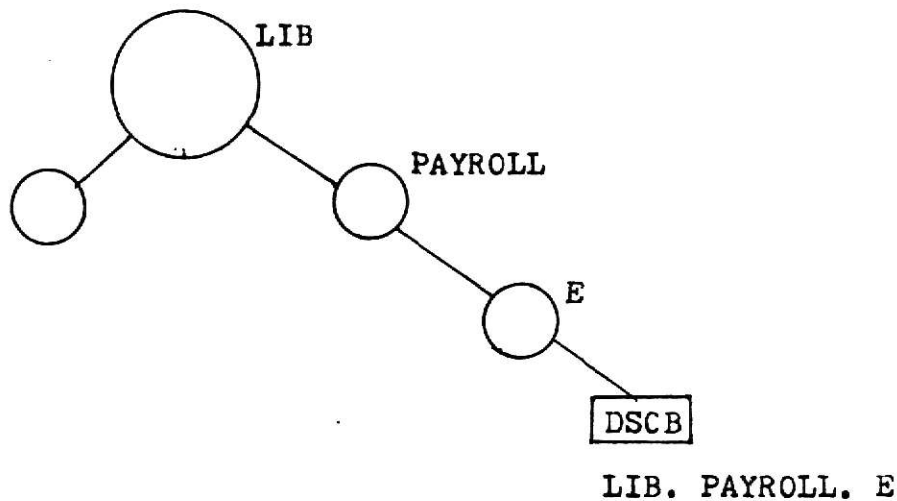
Fig 15 Hierarchy of files

LIB. PAYROLL. E

Fig. 16 Use of Nested Name

THE LIMITATIONS OF FILE SYSTEMS

As discussed in the previous sections, file directories provide long term storage for procedures and data, and may include protection and shared access control features. However, there are serious inefficiency problems: A procedure file must be loaded into the main address space prior to execution. This makes it impossible to activate procedures whose names are not known until retrieved from a data base or typed in from a terminal. If a file can be loaded dynamically at execution time, the steps of copying and linking can be eliminated.

These limitations of file systems can be relieved by using the segmented address concept. The next section presents the concept of segmentation as implemented in the segmented and paged virtual memory system.

VI. SEGMENTED & PAGED VIRTUAL MEMORY

Segmentation was introduced to allow

1) dynamic allocation of information to a hierarchy of
   memory devices

2) a means for programs to reference objects in a manner that
   is independent of their physical locations in memory

3) sharing of common procedure and data information by
   many programs.

In the segmented virtual memory system, a file is
a linear array of data which is referenced by means of a
segment name and a word name. In general, a user does not
know how or on what device a file is stored.

A segment consists of contiguous logical locations
that is a natural section of a program such as a subroutine
or data file. When data, external to the procedure, is
referenced, its location in the virtual memory is determined
by a directory search. The use of file directories are
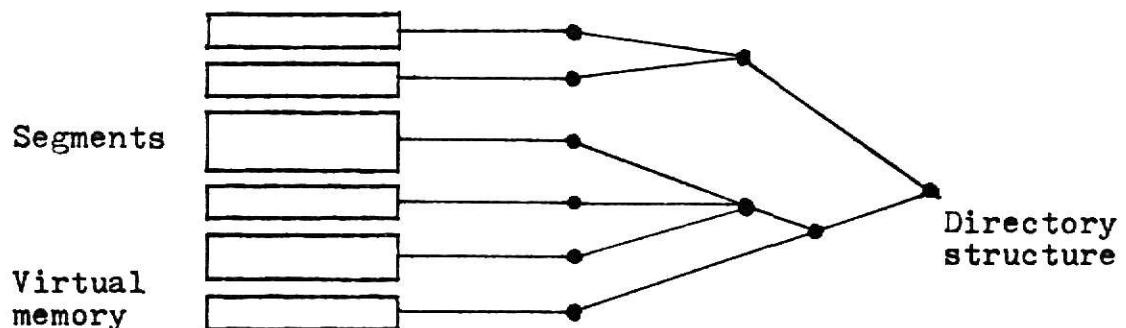combined with a large segmented address space.

Fig. 17. Virtual Memory in a MULTICS Process

This address space is divided into a large number of segments, each being potentially large enough to hold any procedure or data file indexed in the file directories. Each segment is in turn broken into a number of fixed size pages. Reference by a computation to information in the address space is made by a pair of values (segment number, word number), segment number being assigned to procedures and data files when they first are referenced by a computation. This is called "making a segment known" to the process.

The addressing mechanism requires three memory references: the segment descriptor table, the page table, and the data itself. The segment descriptor table (SDT) is associated with each process and the SDT has an entry for each segment made known to the process. The page table is in main memory and there is one entry for each page of a segment and a corresponding entry shows either core or disk location of page.

Given a virtual address $a = (s,w)$, the following operations are performed:

1. (s,w) is loaded into segment and word register
2. if segment table(s) = empty, then (missing segment fault); for this case, the segment has to be made known
3. if w length, then (overflow fault)
4. $p = w/z$ where z is page size, p is page #
5. $w' = w - pz$ where w' is line #

After (segment#, page#, line#) is computed, a simultaneous associative memory search is done to match (seg.#, page#) with (s", p"). If a match is found, frame address p' is combined with line# to reference memory directly.
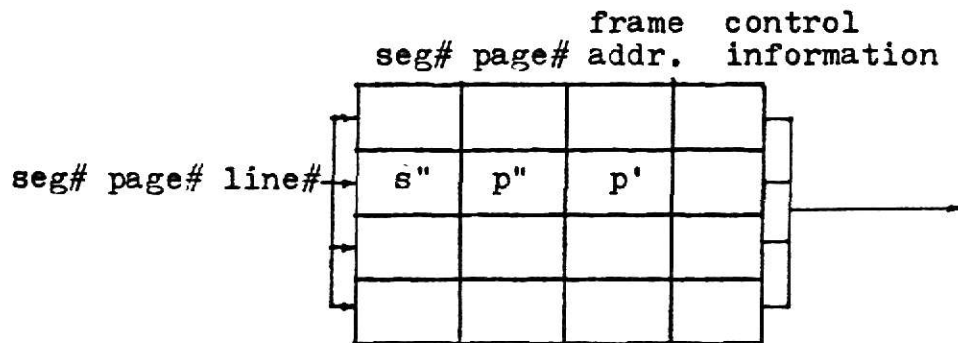

Fig. 18. Associative Memory Map

If a match in the associative memory does not occur, the page table is searched. If the page table is empty, then a missing page fault interrupt occurs, which initiates action to bring that page from secondary memory. Fig. 19 shows how this mechanism works.

Due to the high cost of an associative memory, only a few associative registers exist. Therefore there is a problem concerning what should leave when a new page is brought in. There are two replacement stategies for this: one is FIFO (First-in First-out) and the other; LRU (Least Recently Used). FIFO is the strategy to replace whichever is brought in first; the LRU strategy removes the ones which have not been used recently.
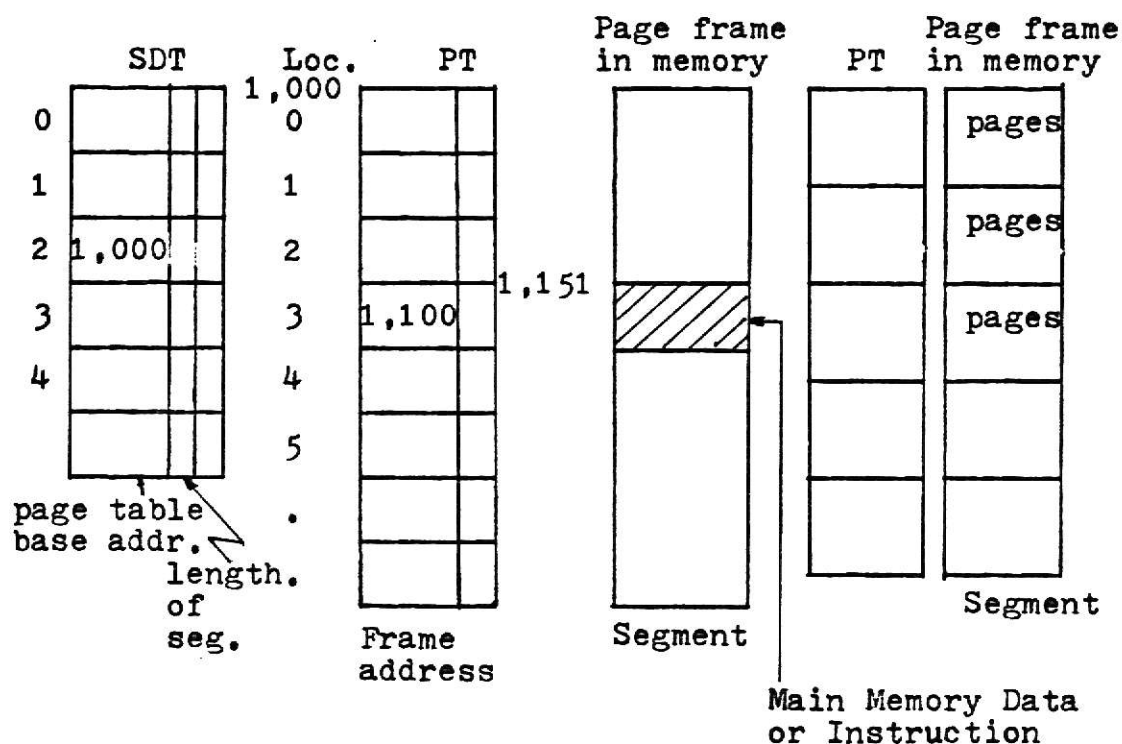
An example in Fig. 19 illustrates an addressing mechanism

Segment #	Page #	Frame address	Control info.
~~1~~ 2	~~10~~ 3	~~600~~ 1,100	0
4	6	800	0
6	1	500	1

4 ~~1~~
2
3

Associative Memory

Process

Descriptor Base Register

SDT   Loc.   PT   Page frame in memory   PT   Page frame in memory

page table base addr.
length. of seg.

Frame address

Segment

Segment

Main Memory Data or Instruction

$a = (2, 351)$

page size: 100

therefore $a = (2, 3, 51)$
       Seg. Page Line
       #   #   #

Fig. 19. Segment Table, Page Table and Address Map

of segment and paged virtual memory. Given a page size 100,
and virtual address: ⟨segment⟩/[address] : a = (2,351)
the following mapping is performed:

The address is divided by page size: thus a triple
address (segment#, page#, line#) is divided from the given
virtual address. Associative memory is searched to find
a match of (segment#, page#), but fails. The segment table
is then searched for segment #2 and the base address of that
page table is found, which is 1,000. The next step is to go
to location 1,000 and get the frame address of page #3, which
contains 1,100. Finally line #51 is added to frame address
1,100 to obtain the correct main store location from which
data or instructions are to be fetched. Under the LRU
strategy, a reference to a page table also results in an
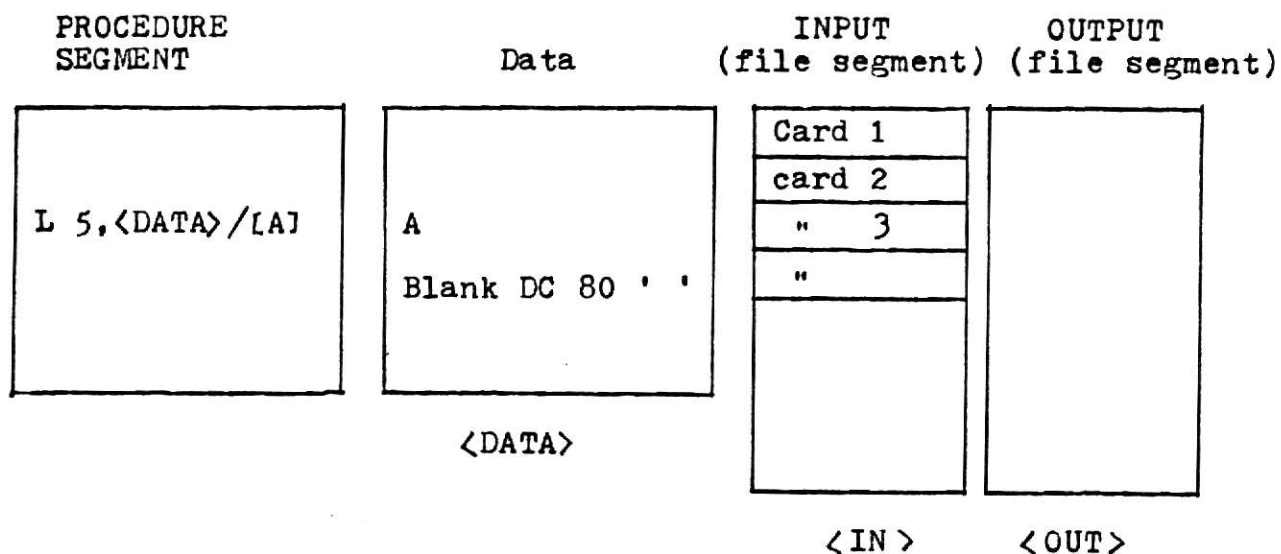updating of associative memory.

As was shown, once the segment is known the given
procedure or data set is bound to a particular segment or
address and, thereafter, the object may be referenced
efficiently as a resident of address space rather than by
a search of path name in the directory hierarchy.

VII. COMPARISON OF VIRTUAL MEMORY VERSUS FILE SYSTEM.

As pointed out in Fig. 20, the segmented and paged
virtual memory differs from the file system of directories
in the following ways:

First, the segmented address system eliminates the explicit
buffering of information by the READ and WRITE functions.

Comparison of Simulated one-level memory vs.
traditional file system

PROCEDURE SEGMENT	Data	INPUT (file segment)	OUTPUT (file segment)

```
L 5,<DATA>/[A]        A            | Card 1  |
                                   | card 2  |
                      Blank DC 80 ' '  | "   3  |
                                   | "       |

                      <DATA>
                                    < IN >      < OUT >
```

[Virtual Memory Instructions]   [File System Instructions]

L   5,   DATA / A   ------------------load data from another
                                       file. work like READ

CLC <DATA>/<BLANK>   IN /0(11) ------compare data on different
                                       segment

LA   11, 80(11) --------------------load address of next
                                       CARD; work like READ command

MVC OUT/0(9), <DATA>/[LINE] -------move constant from one file
                                       to another. work like WRITE
                                       command

B   <SUB>/ 0 -----------------------branch to another subroutine

Fig. 20. Example Using IBM Basic Assembler Language

Whenever a particular element of data is required, it is referenced by virtual address, and the address mapping mechanism then brings the required page into main memory. Therefore with virtual addressing system, a user is not aware of the multiple levels of storage; he can access any file as if it were in the main store. Furthermore, with a file system, the user must know on which specific secondary memory device the file is located in order to access it; and the user must access the file with explicit Read and Write operations. Thus a virtual memory system lessens the user's burden at the expense of the operating system and requires more sophisticated hardware.

Second, segments may grow dynamically by allowing page space in auxiliary memory. Binding of segments to address space is performed at execution time, whereas with file system the procedure file should be loaded into memory and bound prior to program execution. Therefore a virtual memory system would be especially valuable for inter-active computer systems where a file name can be retrieved from a data base or typed in from a terminal at execution time; this file segment then will be loaded dynamically at execution time and activated without the user's knowledge of that file segment's physical location, i.e. specific disk or main memory.

Many of today's operating systems for example IBM and Honeywell support both a file system and a virtual memory system. In spite of their limitations, file systems which implement a long-term store external to the main store are

still most widely used, while segmented name space, which provides a long-term store identical to the main store, is not so nearly wide spread as file systems. This is probably due to the additional hardware required to support a virtual memory system, recent years, however, more computer vendors are implementing segmented address space and this trend is likely to continue, at least until such time as main memory becomes less expensive than a complete virtual memory system.

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ACCESS AND ORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY MEMORY DEVICES

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AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S REPORT

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ABSTRACT

This report discusses the general purpose file system on the secondary memory devices. Most common auxiliary storage media: tape, disk, drum are discussed in terms of access time, general availability of space, relative cost of storage, and factors that affect the efficiency of each device.

Comparisons of different file organization techniques: sequential organization, indexed sequential organization, partitioned organization and direct or random organization are presented based on their appropriate usage, storage requirement, file maintenance, and sequential - versus - direct access methods for each organization.

The concept of segmentation and its addressing mechanism is presented to show the limitations of the file system.