Mass-Storage Structure

Magnetic Disks

- Traditional magnetic disks have the following basic structure:
    - One or more *platters* in the form of disks covered with magnetic media. *Hard disk* platters are made of rigid metal, while "*floppy*" disks are made of more flexible plastic.
    - Each platter has two working *surfaces.* Older hard disk drives would sometimes not use the very top or bottom surface of a stack of platters, as these surfaces were more susceptible to potential damage.
    - Each working surface is divided into a number of concentric rings called *tracks.* The collection of all tracks that are the same distance from the edge of the platter, (i.e. all tracks immediately above one another in the following diagram) is called a *cylinder*.
    - Each track is further divided into *sectors,* traditionally containing 512 bytes of data each, although some modern disks occasionally use larger sector sizes. (Sectors also include a header and a trailer, including checksum information among other things. Larger sector sizes reduce the fraction of the disk consumed by headers and trailers, but increase internal fragmentation and the amount of disk that must be marked bad in the case of errors.)
    - The data on a hard drive is read by read-write *heads.* The standard configuration (shown below) uses one head per surface, each on a separate *arm*, and controlled by a common *arm assembly* which moves all heads simultaneously from one cylinder to another. (Other configurations, including independent read-write heads, may speed up disk access, but involve serious technical difficulties.)
    - The storage capacity of a traditional disk drive is equal to the number of heads (i.e. the number of working surfaces), times the number of tracks per surface, times the number of sectors per track, times the number of bytes per sector. A particular physical block of data is specified by providing the head-sector-cylinder number at which it is located.

Magnetic Tapes

- Magnetic tapes were once used for common secondary storage before the days of hard disk drives, but today are used primarily for backups.
- Accessing a particular spot on a magnetic tape can be slow, but once reading or writing commences, access speeds are comparable to disk drives.
- Capacities of tape drives can range from 20 to 200 GB, and compression can double that capacity.

Disk Structure

- The traditional head-sector-cylinder, HSC numbers are mapped to linear block addresses by numbering the first sector on the first head on the outermost track as sector 0. Numbering proceeds with the rest of

the sectors on that same track, and then the rest of the tracks on the same cylinder before proceeding through the rest of the cylinders to the center of the disk. In modern practice these linear block addresses are used in place of the HSC numbers for a variety of reasons:

1. The linear length of tracks near the outer edge of the disk is much longer than for those tracks located near the center, and therefore it is possible to squeeze many more sectors onto outer tracks than onto inner ones.
2. All disks have some bad sectors, and therefore disks maintain a few spare sectors that can be used in place of the bad ones. The mapping of spare sectors to bad sectors in managed internally to the disk controller.
3. Modern hard drives can have thousands of cylinders, and hundreds of sectors per track on their outermost tracks. These numbers exceed the range of HSC numbers for many (older) operating systems, and therefore disks can be configured for any convenient combination of HSC values that falls within the total number of sectors physically on the drive.

- There is a limit to how closely packed individual bits can be placed on a physical media, but that limit is growing increasingly more packed as technological advances are made.
- Modern disks pack many more sectors into outer cylinders than inner ones, using one of two approaches:
    - With ***Constant Linear Velocity, CLV,*** the density of bits is uniform from cylinder to cylinder. Because there are more sectors in outer cylinders, the disk spins slower when reading those cylinders, causing the rate of bits passing under the read-write head to remain constant. This is the approach used by modern CDs and DVDs.
    - With ***Constant Angular Velocity, CAV,*** the disk rotates at a constant angular speed, with the bit density decreasing on outer cylinders. (These disks would have a constant number of sectors per track on all cylinders.)

File Organization

File organization ensures that records are available for processing. It is used to determine an efficient file organization for each base relation.

For example, if we want to retrieve employee records in alphabetical order of name. Sorting the file by employee name is a good file organization. However, if we want to retrieve all employees whose marks are in a certain range, a file is ordered by employee name would not be a good file organization.

Types of File Organization

There are three types of organizing the file:

1. Sequential access file organization
2. Direct access file organization
3. Indexed sequential access file organization

1. Sequential access file organization

- Storing and sorting in contiguous block within files on tape or disk is called as **sequential access file organization**.
- In sequential access file organization, all records are stored in a sequential order. The records are arranged in the ascending or descending order of a key field.
- Sequential file search starts from the beginning of the file and the records can be added at the end of the file.
- In sequential file, it is not possible to add a record in the middle of the file without rewriting the file.

Advantages of sequential file

- It is simple to program and easy to design.
- Sequential file is best use if storage space.

Disadvantages of sequential file

- Sequential file is time consuming process.
- It has high data redundancy.
- Random searching is not possible.

2. Direct access file organization

- Direct access file is also known as random access or relative file organization.
- In direct access file, all records are stored in direct access storage device (DASD), such as hard disk. The records are randomly placed throughout the file.
- The records does not need to be in sequence because they are updated directly and rewritten back in the same location.
- This file organization is useful for immediate access to large amount of information. It is used in accessing large databases.
- It is also called as hashing.

Advantages of direct access file organization

- Direct access file helps in online transaction processing system (OLTP) like online railway reservation system.
- In direct access file, sorting of the records are not required.
- It accesses the desired records immediately.

- It updates several files quickly.
- It has better control over record allocation.

Disadvantages of direct access file organization

- Direct access file does not provide back up facility.
- It is expensive.
- It has less storage space as compared to sequential file.

3. Indexed sequential access file organization

- Indexed sequential access file combines both sequential file and direct access file organization.
- In indexed sequential access file, records are stored randomly on a direct access device such as magnetic disk by a primary key.
- This file have multiple keys. These keys can be alphanumeric in which the records are ordered is called primary key.
- The data can be access either sequentially or randomly using the index. The index is stored in a file and read into memory when the file is opened.

Advantages of Indexed sequential access file organization

- In indexed sequential access file, sequential file and random file access is possible.
- It accesses the records very fast if the index table is properly organized.
- The records can be inserted in the middle of the file.
- It provides quick access for sequential and direct processing.
- It reduces the degree of the sequential search.

Disadvantages of Indexed sequential access file organization

- Indexed sequential access file requires unique keys and periodic reorganization.
- Indexed sequential access file takes longer time to search the index for the data access or retrieval.
- It requires more storage space.
- It is expensive because it requires special software.
- It is less efficient in the use of storage space as compared to other file organizations.

Static Hashing

In all search techniques like linear search, binary search and search trees, the time required to search an element depends on the total number of elements present in that data structure. In all these search techniques, as the number of elements increases the time required to search an element also increases linearly.

Hashing is an approach in which time required to search an element doesn't depends on the total number of elements. Using hashing data structure, a given element is searched with **constant time complexity**. Hashing is an effective way to reduce the number of comparisons to search an element in a data structure.

Hashing is defined as follows...

Hashing is the process of indexing and retrieving element (data) in a data structure to provide faster way of finding the element using hash key.

Here, hash key is a value which provides the index value where the actual data is likely to be stored in the data structure.

In this data structure, we use a concept called **Hash table** to store data. All the data values are inserted into the hash table based on the hash key value. Hash key value is used to map the data with index in the hash table. And the hash key is generated for every data using a **hash function**. That means every entry in the hash table is based on the hash key value generated using hash function.

Hash Table is defined as follows...

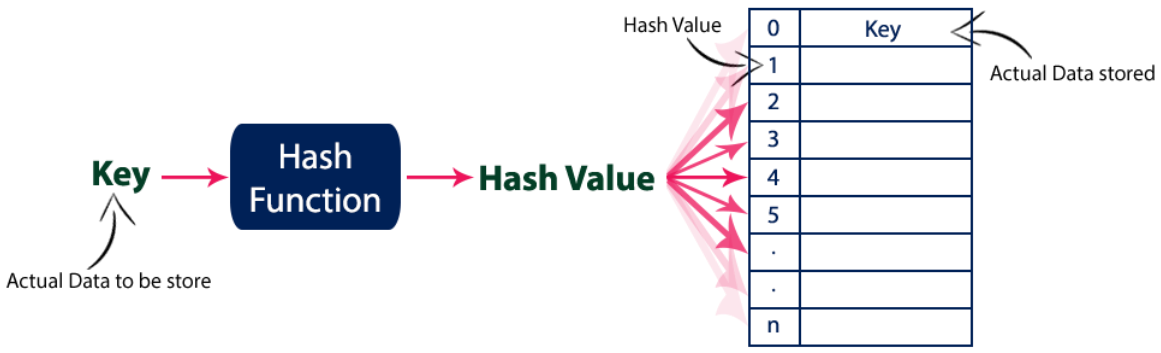
Hash table is just an array which maps a key (data) into the data structure with the help of hash function such that insertion, deletion and search operations are performed with constant time complexity (i.e. O(1)).

Hash tables are used to perform insertion, deletion and search operations very quickly in a data structure. Using hash table concept, insertion, deletion and search operations are accomplished in constant time complexity. Generally, every hash table makes use of a function called **hash function** to map the data into the hash table.

A hash function is defined as follows...

Hash function is a function which takes a piece of data (i.e. key) as input and produces an integer (i.e. hash value) as output which maps the data to a particular index in the hash table.

Basic concept of hashing and hash table is shown in the following figure...

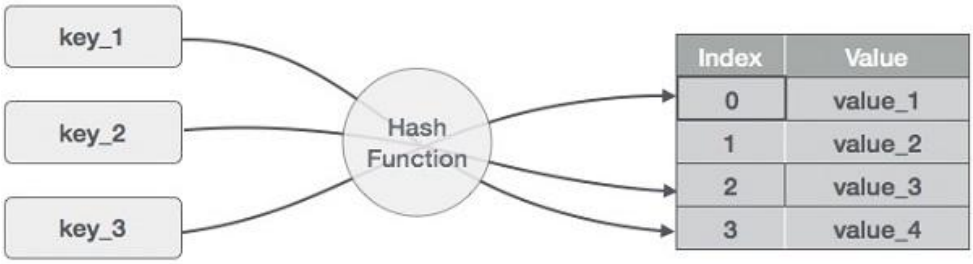


Hash Table is a data structure which stores data in an associative manner. In a hash table, data is stored in an array format, where each data value has its own unique index value. Access of data becomes very fast if we know the index of the desired data.

Thus, it becomes a data structure in which insertion and search operations are very fast irrespective of the size of the data. Hash Table uses an array as a storage medium and uses hash technique to generate an index where an element is to be inserted or is to be located from.

Hashing

Hashing is a technique to convert a range of key values into a range of indexes of an array. We're going to use modulo operator to get a range of key values. Consider an example of hash table of size 20, and the following items are to be stored. Item are in the (key,value) format.



- (1,20)
- (2,70)
- (42,80)
- (4,25)
- (12,44)
- (14,32)
- (17,11)
- (13,78)
- (37,98)

Sr.No.	Key	Hash	Array Index
1	1	1 % 20 = 1	1
2	2	2 % 20 = 2	2
3	42	42 % 20 = 2	2
4	4	4 % 20 = 4	4

5	12	12 % 20 = 12	12
6	14	14 % 20 = 14	14
7	17	17 % 20 = 17	17
8	13	13 % 20 = 13	13
9	37	37 % 20 = 17	17

Linear Probing

As we can see, it may happen that the hashing technique is used to create an already used index of the array. In such a case, we can search the next empty location in the array by looking into the next cell until we find an empty cell. This technique is called linear probing.

Sr.No.	Key	Hash	Array Index	After Linear Probing, Array Index
1	1	1 % 20 = 1	1	1
2	2	2 % 20 = 2	2	2
3	42	42 % 20 = 2	2	3
4	4	4 % 20 = 4	4	4
5	12	12 % 20 = 12	12	12
6	14	14 % 20 = 14	14	14
7	17	17 % 20 = 17	17	17
8	13	13 % 20 = 13	13	13
9	37	37 % 20 = 17	17	18

Basic Operations

Following are the basic primary operations of a hash table.

- Search − Searches an element in a hash table.
- Insert − inserts an element in a hash table.
- delete − Deletes an element from a hash table.

DataItem

Define a data item having some data and key, based on which the search is to be conducted in a hash table.

```
struct DataItem {
   int data;
   int key;
```

```
};
```

Hash Method

Define a hashing method to compute the hash code of the key of the data item.

```
int hashCode(int key){

  return key % SIZE;

}
```

Search Operation

Whenever an element is to be searched, compute the hash code of the key passed and locate the element using that hash code as index in the array. Use linear probing to get the element ahead if the element is not found at the computed hash code.

Example

```
struct DataItem *search(int key) {
  //get the hash
  int hashIndex = hashCode(key);

  //move in array until an empty
  while(hashArray[hashIndex] != NULL) {

    if(hashArray[hashIndex]->key == key)
      return hashArray[hashIndex];

    //go to next cell
    ++hashIndex;

    //wrap around the table
    hashIndex %= SIZE;
  }

  return NULL;
}
```

Insert Operation

Whenever an element is to be inserted, compute the hash code of the key passed and locate the index using that hash code as an index in the array. Use linear probing for empty location, if an element is found at the computed hash code.

Example

```
void insert(int key,int data) {
  struct DataItem *item = (struct DataItem*) malloc(sizeof(struct DataItem));
  item->data = data;
  item->key = key;
```

```
  //get the hash
  int hashIndex = hashCode(key);

  //move in array until an empty or deleted cell
  while(hashArray[hashIndex] != NULL && hashArray[hashIndex]->key != -1) {
    //go to next cell
    ++hashIndex;

    //wrap around the table
    hashIndex %= SIZE;
  }

  hashArray[hashIndex] = item;
}
```

Delete Operation

Whenever an element is to be deleted, compute the hash code of the key passed and locate the index using that hash code as an index in the array. Use linear probing to get the element ahead if an element is not found at the computed hash code. When found, store a dummy item there to keep the performance of the hash table intact.

Example

```
struct DataItem* delete(struct DataItem* item) {
  int key = item->key;

  //get the hash
  int hashIndex = hashCode(key);

  //move in array until an empty
  while(hashArray[hashIndex] !=NULL) {

    if(hashArray[hashIndex]->key == key) {
      struct DataItem* temp = hashArray[hashIndex];

      //assign a dummy item at deleted position
      hashArray[hashIndex] = dummyItem;
      return temp;
    }

    //go to next cell
    ++hashIndex;

    //wrap around the table
    hashIndex %= SIZE;
  }

  return NULL;
}
```