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Studying Execution Modes and Wear Leveling in Flash Memory

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Abstract:

The impact of wear levelling on a Flash storage package and its access operations' execution modes is investigated. First, a simple, static logical to physical mapping functions are proposed and their implied wear levelling is assessed for different address distributions, covering both uniform access and hot spots, as well as the Flash chip utilisation within the whole package. Second, for the access execution modes, different preemptive and non-preemptive priority schemes are considered with a range of IO arrival rates using Poisson, Erlang, Pareto and Geometric-based arrival processes. The analysis of the impact of the execution modes on the performance of the Flash memory is undertaken using a hardware simulator. The results obtained show clearly the good wear levelling obtained by the mapping functions, even in presence of hot spots. In addition, the effect of the chosen execution mode on the whole storage package for each IO workload type is clearly analysed and accurately quantified.

Keywords: Flash memory, Wear levelling, Priority, Preemption, Waiting time, IO performance, Chips utilisation.

Introduction

Storage devices based on Flash memory are becoming more and more prevalent in our daily life. This recent technology presents a panoply of devices, continually undergoing intensive evolution in response to market demand for MP3 players, mobile phones, digital cameras using raw Flash devices and for lightweight laptop computers, recently even desktop computers using Flash-based devices in other terms Solid State Drives (SSD). In fact, their use is covering both consumer and enterprise storage products replacing Hard Drive Disks (HDD), pushing them to archiving purpose [1]. Since Flash technology is so widely used, its performance should be precisely quantified and its impact on the whole system, in which it is embedded, assessed relative to IO profiles and its execution mode. However, there are currently few studies providing such information, which cannot just be deduced from the behavioural analysis of other storage devices such as Hard Disk Drives (HDD) and memories (SRAM, DRAM...etc) because their access operations are completely different [2]. Some studies to adapt or/and propose access algorithms for Flash-based devices were achieved [3, 4, 5] but they still restricted

to specific applications.

The main specific features of Flash memory making it so different from the other storage devices are the limited erase cycles and the big disparity between the operations access times. The first one associates a fixed lifetime to the Flash chip since its manufacturing, depending on its type and density. In order to maximise this Flash longevity an even erase operations distribution, thus a good wear levelling should be guaranteed. In the first part of this paper and prior to giving a quantitative characterisation of the system under study, we consider next the effect of the address mapping chosen to provide good wear levelling and we propose a simple static map that guarantees data availability, and hence maximum device longevity. The second feature deals with the fact that service times of the three Flash memory access operations (read/write/erase) are constant but present a significant disparity whatever the chip type. Erase operations, being costly in time, introduce long delays for waiting read or write operations performed after them.

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These delays significantly change the delivered performance and make workload scheduling crucial. On the other hand, applications require good organisation of their workload to consistently realise faster access without having to customise in every specific context for each access profile. Whilst true for any storage device technology, it is particularly important for Flash because its access time is largely location-independent, especially for reads. It is complicated and probably unnecessary to include this kind of workload access optimisation in the application layers or to add a software layer to schedule the workload generated by applications according to the Flash operation modes. A easy way to meet good performance without any scheduling of requests, is to choose the most appropriate execution mode from the most basic provided ones (priority, preemption) according to the input I/O profile. In the second part of this paper, we consider the effect of the workload on Flash delivered performance using different I/O patterns and arrival time distributions. We focus on the three main execution modes: without priority among the three access operations (mode 1), giving priority to reads in a non-preemptive policy (mode 2) and finally giving priority to reads with preemption (mode 3). In the rest of the paper, section 2 gives a succinct presentation of Flash technology background. Section 3 is dedicated to the wear levelling study. It describes the used tools, presents the proposed mapping functions and details their validation. Section 4 is dedicated to the analysis of the I/O profiles and the operation execution mode impact on the performance. Section 4.3 presents the obtained numerical results and discusses their significance. Finally, section 5 summarises our main conclusions and suggests directions for future work.

Background

Flash memory is considered a major, non-volatile mass-storage component due to its shock resistance,

vibration tolerance, light weight and low energy consumption; not to mention its high capacity. It is already used in a wide range of applications and environments, from daily entertainment, e.g. in MP3 players, through personal computers, for web servers machines [6] and critical systems such as satellite systems [7].

There are two types of Flash memory, labelled according to its construction: NOR and NAND. The former has lower density and higher cost but provides fast random access and can be easily re-programmed, making it most suitable for storing code. Another advantage of NOR is its lower susceptibility to corruption than NAND, partly because of the bad blocks that exist in the latter from the time of manufacture. NAND Flash, on the other hand, has a very large storage capacity and provides fast data access for large read/write requests, making it most suitable for storing data [8]. This is the most widespread and the one we consider. In fact the

density is about 8 times more for NAND [9], at a cost that is 4 to 8 times cheaper than NOR. Although erases are significantly faster on NOR, they can be pre-scheduled in NAND, essentially running in a garbage collector. In addition, MLC_n (Multi Level Cell) technology multiplies the storage capacity of the Flash memory chip by having n -bit information per cell. MLC_2 becomes a classical device, present in most mobile components such as cameras and smart-phones. The first MLC_3 was developed by Hynix Semiconductor in 2008, followed by Samsung in 2009 to produce initially microSD cards and to support more competitive high density consumer electronics storage solutions in the near future. A NAND Flash memory chip is composed of a fixed number of blocks, each of which is partitioned into a fixed number of pages. Every page consists of two areas: a data area for native (user) data and a spare area for data status information (figure 1). A block is the erase operation's unit of storage, whilst a page is the read and write operation's unit. No 'in-place' updates are allowed in NAND Flash. When data is modified, the new version must be written to an available page—called the *live page*. The page containing the old version is considered a dead page and is invalidated. As time passes, efficient garbage collection process, using a relatively reduced mounting time. Recently, comes UBIFS [17] for Unsorted Block Images File System, designed by Nokia for Flash-based devices as Solid State Drives (SSD). It provides faster mounting time and good wear levelling comparing to the JFFS2 random one. The second class of file systems are designed to work under any file system. We can cite YAFFS (Yet Another Flash File System) which is the first file system designed specifically for NAND devices, considering the number of dead pages increases and the system reclaims them, in order to perform further write operations, by running a garbage collection process. However, the erase/write unit mismatch generates additional copying of remaining live pages from a block, when erasing it, to another one. Another limitation of the NAND Flash technology is that the number of erase operations is limited to about 10^5 [10] for SLC (Single Level Cell) and to 10^4 for MLC_2 (Multiple Level Cell) [11]. As any recycling of dead pages introduces block erasing, an even erase-count distribution over the Flash memory blocks cannot be achieved, which results in the "wear-levelling" problem. This has a significant negative impact on the longevity of the memory chips. Much like the 'small write problem' in traditional RAID 5 systems [12].

Many studies from the literature were dedicated to Flash memory, especially to associated file systems and more recently but less significant to provide formal Flash models, as in [13, 14]. In fact, several file systems have been developed to manage data on Flash memories. We can separate them into two classes: Native Flash file systems and non-native file systems which can be used with any operating systems. The former class is used for raw

Flash memories, directly integrated in embedded systems as JFFS (Journal Flash File System) which is a log-structured file system for the NOR Flash device [15]. Its second version (JFFS2) [16] supports NAND devices with a sequential I/O interface and a more efficient data integrity as a priority [18]. It takes into account the Flash constraints and exploits its features to maximise the performance and the robustness. Its second version (YAFFS2) accommodates a newer chip with larger pages. More recently, LogFS [19] supports snapshots and is more specific to large devices due to its reduced mounting time and its efficient garbage collection process [20]. Finally, we cite [21, 22] for hybrid architectures handling both Flash and RAM. All of these Flash file systems have an FTL (Flash Translation Layer) composed essentially of two parts: an allocator process for the logical to physical space mapping and a cleaner process for the garbage collection. The mapping between the logical allocation and the physical one is performed using metadata in the pages' spare areas, mounted at the initialisation phase before any I/O operation takes place. Garbage collection is performed in the background to make free space for write operations.

Wear levelling analysis

The reliability aspect is capital in storage systems. In NAND Flash based systems, either with SLC or MLC technology, there are 4 types of reliability problems:

- Wear out blocks,
- Information retention loss,
- Write disturb phenomenon,
- Read disturb phenomenon.

The first class of problems is the most important one as the chip blocks cannot be used anymore and the contained data is lost for the user. To avoid this situation, a good wear levelling should be guaranteed to exploit the longevity of the chip at its maximum. There are many algorithms to implement the wear levelling. Mainly, they can be split into two categories: *static* and *dynamical* algorithms. The former is simple to use, its cost is negligible and provides an average wear leveling quality for all IO profiles as it is completely independent from the applications I/O requests accessing the stored data. The second class is a bit more complex to implement as it builds statistics first and keeps maintaining them over time, then adapts the write requests distribution using these statistics according to the blocks use indicator. This is costly in both computing time and storage space but provides a wear levelling "à la carte" which is considered optimal.

In this work, we propose a very simple static mapping functions and assess their impact on the device use at different levels as well as on its real longevity duration.

In this section, we present the tools used to implement our mapping functions and study the resulted wear levelling algorithm in subsection 3.1, we describe our proposition in subsection 3.2 and finally we validate it in subsection 3.3.

Architecture's configuration and tools

In this study, we consider a specific architecture but this can easily be extended to alternate Flash configurations by using their description files, available in hardware libraries. In the present case, the target architecture is a package composed of 16 chips of the K9KAG08U0M NAND-Flash of 2GB [23], connected by a single 40Mbps channel. This Flash storage package is seen as a single address space, a logical storage pool.

We wrote a customised event driven simulator in C to represent the Flash storage system and its associated modes of operation. In this section, we use only the mapping module where the proposed static wear levelling algorithm is implemented. For all the performed simulations, we considered traces of 2M reqs each.

Proposition

We give below the static mapping functions we propose to implement the wear leveling:

$$chipID = laddr \% nbchip$$

$$blockID = (chipID / nbchip) \% chip_size \quad pageID = laddr / (chip_size * nbchip)$$

$laddr$ is the logical address, $nbchip$ is the number of Flash chips in the package and $chip_size$ is the number of pages per Flash chip. The % denotes the modulo operation and $(chipID, blockID, pageID)$ denote the physical address of any page (address unit) in the package. We observed the wear levelling achieved at three different levels: the chip, the block and the page levels and we considered three parameters: the number of accesses to every Flash chip among the 16 in

total, the number of erases of every block among the 16×8 ones and the number of writes for every page among the $16 \times 8 \times 64$ ones.

Static wear leveling quality validation

The validation of the efficiency of our mapping functions in providing a good wear levelling is performed through 3 phases: Validation of a uniform utilisation of Flash chips within the package.

Figure 2 shows the mean chip utilisation (C_{use}) and the package utilisation (P_{use}) as percentages of time, against the arrival rate. Both are independent of the execution mode. This is related to the constant service time, whether the service is delayed or not, interrupted or not. They are linear, increasing with the arrival rate. The C_{use} represents the mean chip utilisation but can be considered as the chip utilisation because all the chips are almost equally used, as shown in figure 3, due to the good wear levelling.

Validation of a good wear levelling at three hierarchical levels: chip, block and page.

Figures 4, 5 and 6 represent show the good wear focusing on the emulation of the hardware functions and the second generates suitable IO traces for the conducted tests. We consider the architecture configuration described in 3.1, where data is manipulated using three commands – read, write and erase – one at a time. The service times of these commands were estimated as constants by measurement on

real chips as $130\mu s, 305\mu s, 1.5ms$ respectively, including the bus transfer time. Therefore, our performance study focuses on the waiting time, unique parameter affecting the response time.

We use our event driven simulator, representing the Flash storage system and its associated modes of operation. Its execution module processes events as they occur – for example the arrival of a request of a given type or the completion of an access – by maintaining a standard event diary. In addition to the FIFO execution mode, both priority and preemption policies can be accommodated. The simulator ensures correct implementation of the relative priorities between two classes: a high priority class composed of reads only and a low priority class composed of writes and erases, which have equal priority and are processed in order of arrival. In the case of the preemptive priority mode, a write or erase is interrupted as soon as a read enters the system. The interrupted operation being resumed as soon as there are again no reads outstanding, but subject to further interruption. In non-preemptive mode, a write or erase, once started, is allowed to finish, any new read arrivals being queued.

For the investigation of the behaviour of a Flash storage package serving various IO profiles, developed IO generator handles different probability distributions for both logical addresses and IO interarrival times [24].

Experimentations

Simulations were run using different synthetic IO workloads generated using our generator. The requests' type is consistent with standardised OLTP criteria, e.g. a fixed read:write ratio of 3:1 with arrival rates ranging from 50req/s to 5000req/s, and each address trace had a total of 500,000 requests. Various interarrival times were considered using different distributions: Poisson for the 'typical user' case, Erlang for the multi-source case and Pareto for the heavy tailed case, in an attempt to be representative of read environments. The Erlang traces are chosen to see the effect of reduced variance in the interarrival times. In fact, every exponential stage in the Erlang random variable is n times as fast as the Poisson process. This gives a variance of $1/(n\lambda)$, lower than the variance of the interarrival time in the corresponding Poisson process with rate λ , by a factor of n . Conversely, the Pareto traces were chosen to examine the effect of increased variance, again keeping the mean interarrival time the same at $1/\lambda$. We used a Pareto random variable with range $[1, \infty]$ and probability distribution function $F(x) = 1 - x^{-\alpha}$. Direct integration shows that this has n th moment $\alpha/(\alpha - n)$, which exists if and only if $\alpha > n$; thus, $1/2 < \lambda < 1$ for the variance to exist. To achieve this, we first scale a range of actual arrival rates, so as to satisfy the inequality, then generate the Pareto-based input traces, and then scale these

back again by multiplying by the same scaling factor.

Results and discussion

The focus is placed on the queueing time for each of the three operation classes (read, write and erase) because its variability has a significant effect on overall Flash performance due to its fixed service time.

Queueing time is considered the main performance metric for every type of operation because of the constant service (or access) time for all three access types (read/write/erase). Thus queueing time is a pure performance metric, being entirely an overhead that depends only on the execution mode. We investigated the three main modes: no priority among the operations (mode 1); non-preemptive priority to read operations (mode 2); and finally preemptive read priority (mode 3).

Conclusion

In this paper, we have proposed simple static mapping functions that ensure good wear levelling for uniformly distributed accesses to the storage space, as well as for accesses with hot spots, even in quite extreme case with 1% of the storage space accessed 100 times more frequently than the other 99%. Such a static scheme avoids the complex implementation and the frequent statistics extraction and management routines called under dynamic mappings. Considering the queueing time, we confirmed using the Poisson distribution which provides a standard against which to assess other workload types, that (of course)

it increases as the arrival rate increases, more rapidly as the system approaches instability. We observed similar qualitative behaviour for the Erlang case but the queueing times are smaller, due to the lower variance in the interarrival times, while the queueing times for the Pareto distribution, where the variance is larger, increase at certain arrival rates. We showed that the chips within the package are equally underused even when the arrival rate is high, and similarly for the corresponding queueing time. This suggests that, rather than using the package as a sole unit, it is better to exploit the parallelism available among the Flash chips for improved usage of the hardware components and a reduced queueing time. This should

be achieved in the short term, taking into account the concurrent access management to chips, the requests' scheduling policies and the shared bus allocation. Further, it should be extended to the Flash bi-dimensional vector configuration. In the longer term, we plan to extend our fluid model for the Flash package storage system [14] to handle Flash chips operating in parallel.

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