CS3.301 Operating Systems and Networks

Persistence: RAIDs

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Acknowledgement

The materials used in this presentation have been gathered/adapted/generate from various sources as well as based on my own experiences and knowledge -- Karthik Vaidhyanathan

Sources:

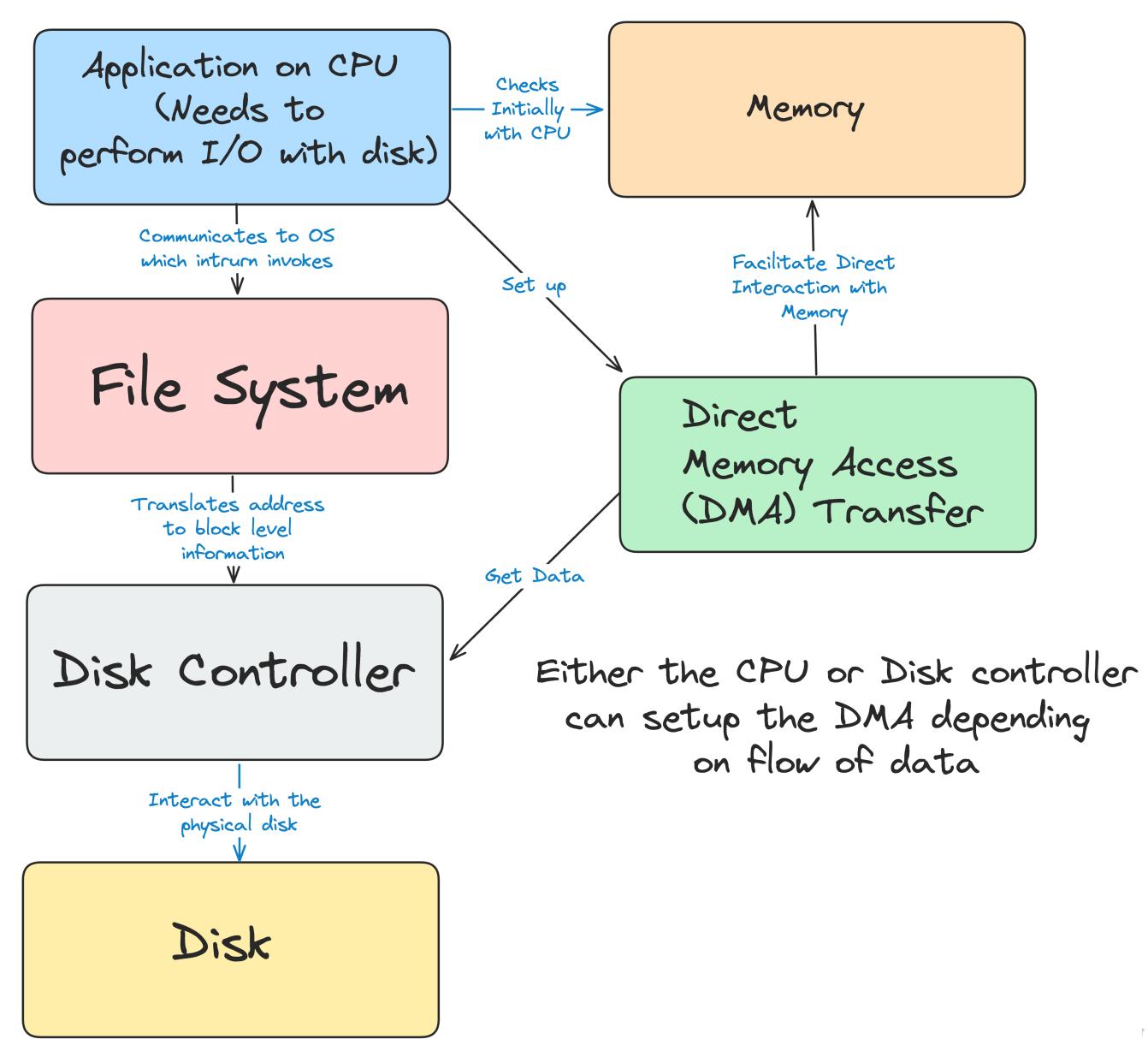
• Operating Systems in Three Easy Pieces by Remzi et al.





The flow of access

- Application performs read or write to a file
- CPU communicates to OS which invokes the File System (FS)
- The OS may check in its cache if its already there
- FS prepares block level information to disk controller
- A Direct Memory Access (DMA) is set up
- Disk controller performs the physical read or write based on commands from DMA and file system
- If its read, Disk -> DMA, for writes, DMA -> Disk





Modern Hard Disks

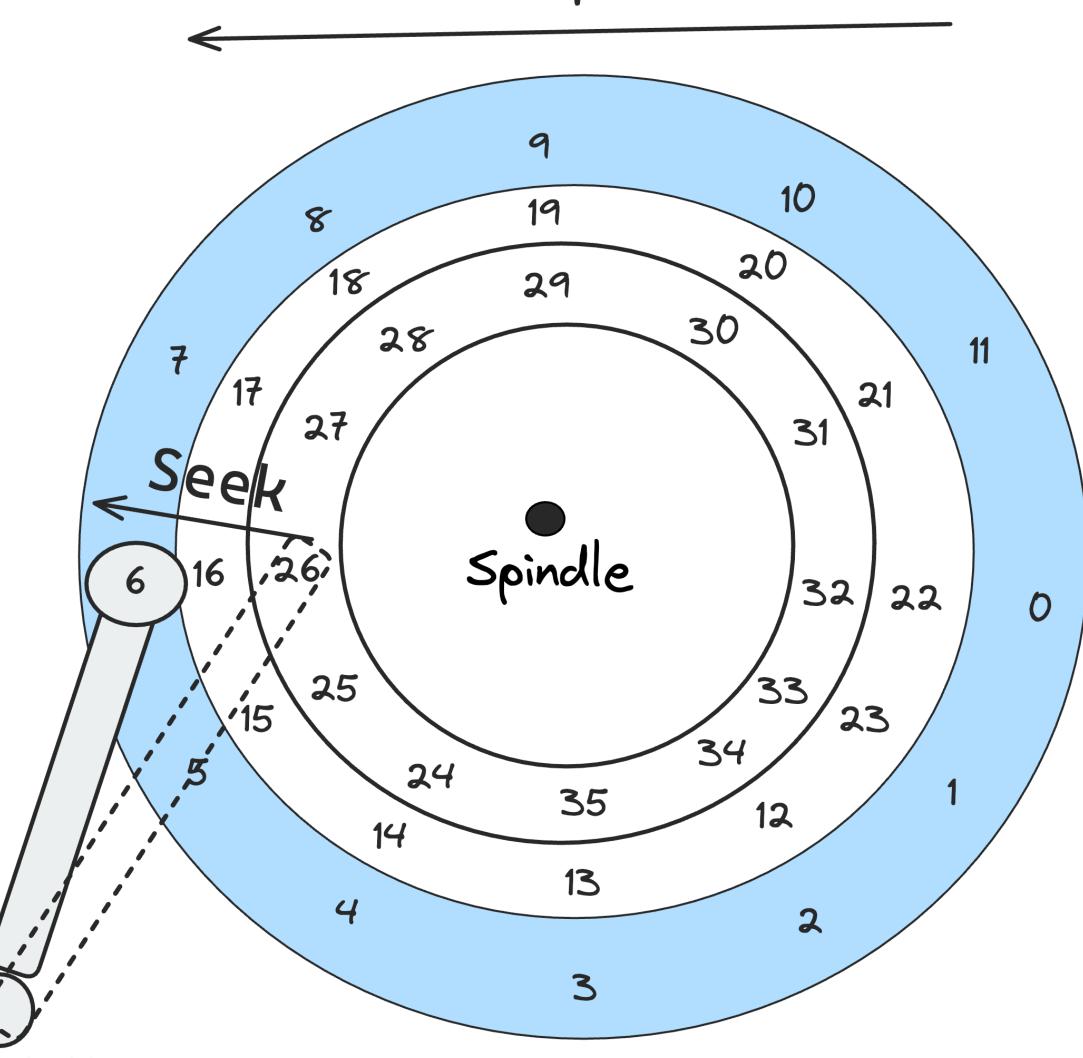






Quick Overview

Rotates this way



- Disk rotates on a spindle
 - The arm can move across (seek) or stay as the disk rotates
 - The head is used to read/write
- Data is arranged in tracks as blocks/ sectors
- There are 100s of tracks on a single disk
- Seek, rotate and transfer three key phases

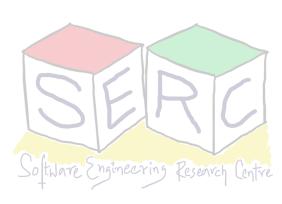
I/O Time of Disks

Random Workload

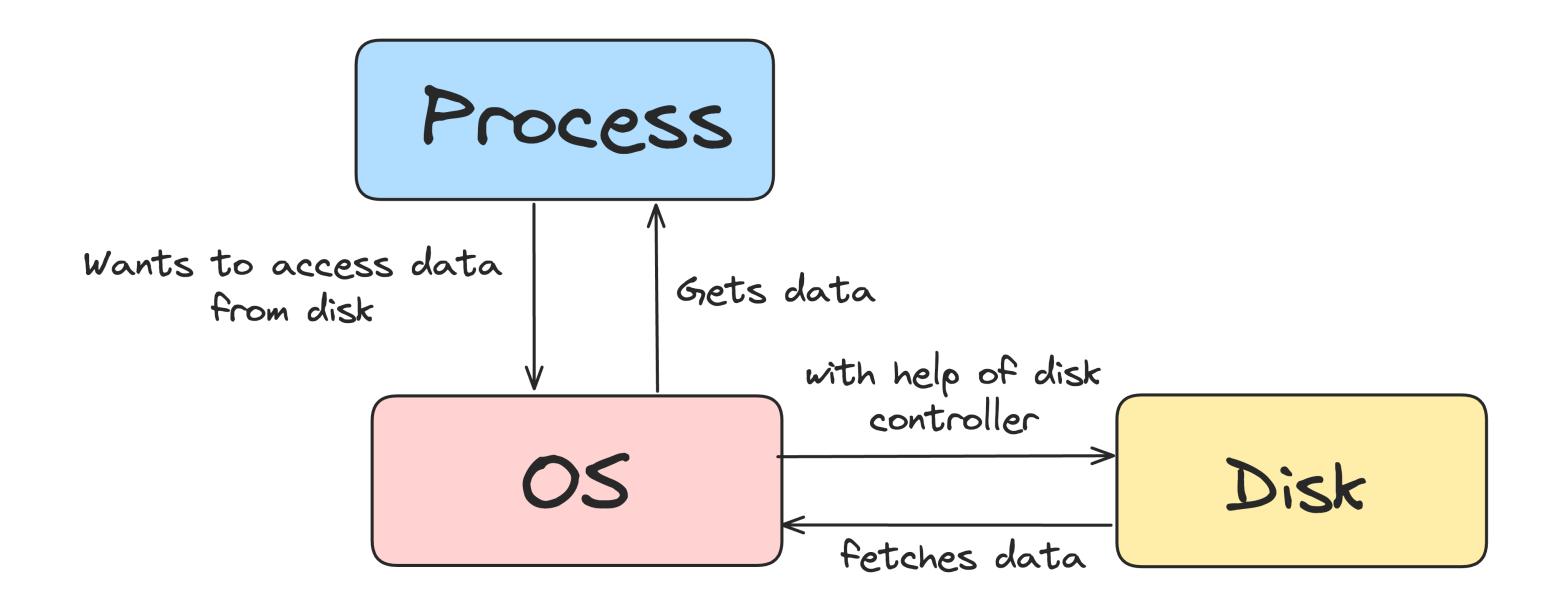
- Issues small (4 KB) reads to random locations on the disk
- Very common in applications like Database management systems

Sequential Workload

- Reads large number of sectors consecutively from disk
- These are also quite common!
- · Given workload, we can perform some comparison on the disk performance
 - We would also need some disk characteristics



So far its about one disk!



Will the idea of one disk be enough?



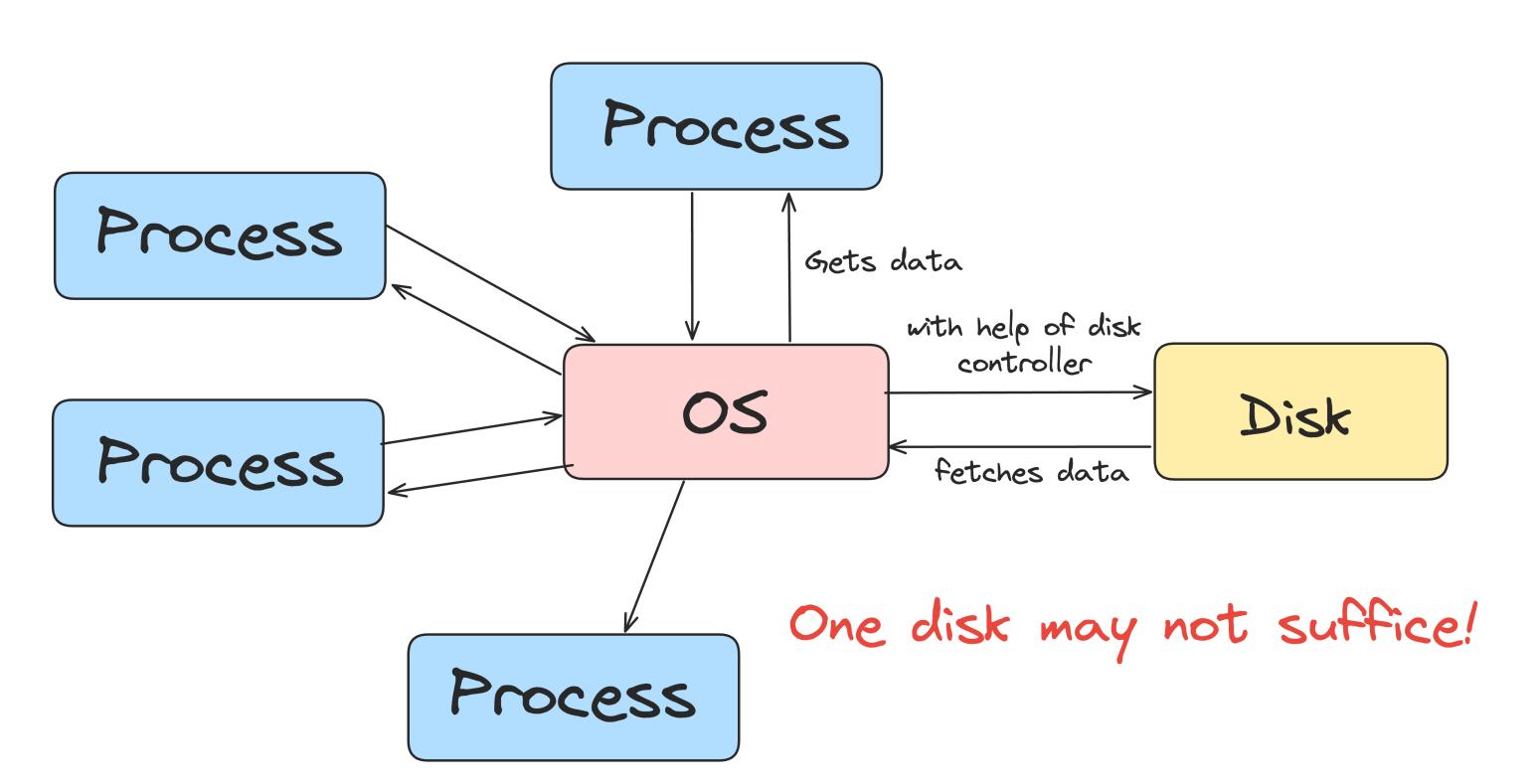








We may need more!



- Disks are slower!
- I/O is slower Bottleneck!
- Disks may get fuller
- Disk can also fail
- Multiple facets needs to be considered
- What can be a better mechanism?





Redundant Arrays of Inexpensive Disks (RAID)

Redundant Arrays of Independent Disks!

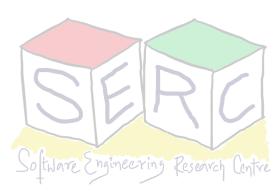
- Techniques to use multiple disks in concert to build faster, bigger and more reliable disk system
- Term introduced in late 90's by a group of researchers in UC Berkley
- Externally RAIDs look just like group of blocks one can read or write
 - Internally RAID is very complex
 - Consisting of multiple disks
 - Its own memory DRAM
 - One or more processor to manage the system



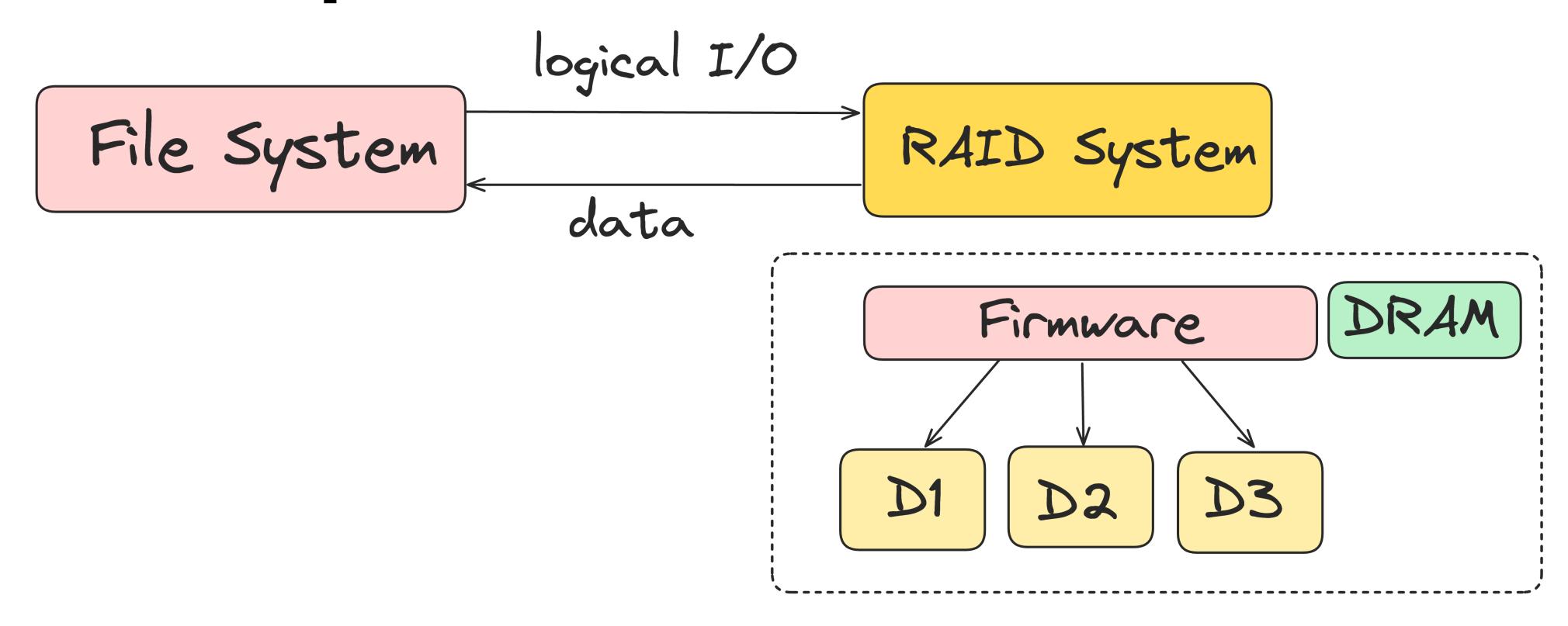


RAIDs vs Traditional Disks

- One advantage is performance
- Multiple disks in parallel can greatly enhance speed
- More disks => More capacity as well
- RAIDS can also enhance reliability
 - Without RAID techniques, the disk is vulnerable to loose data
 - RAIDs can tolerate loss of data and keep operating as if nothing went wrong
 - Redundant disks
- RAID provides advantages transparently to the system
 - OS feels that its just interacting with a single disk



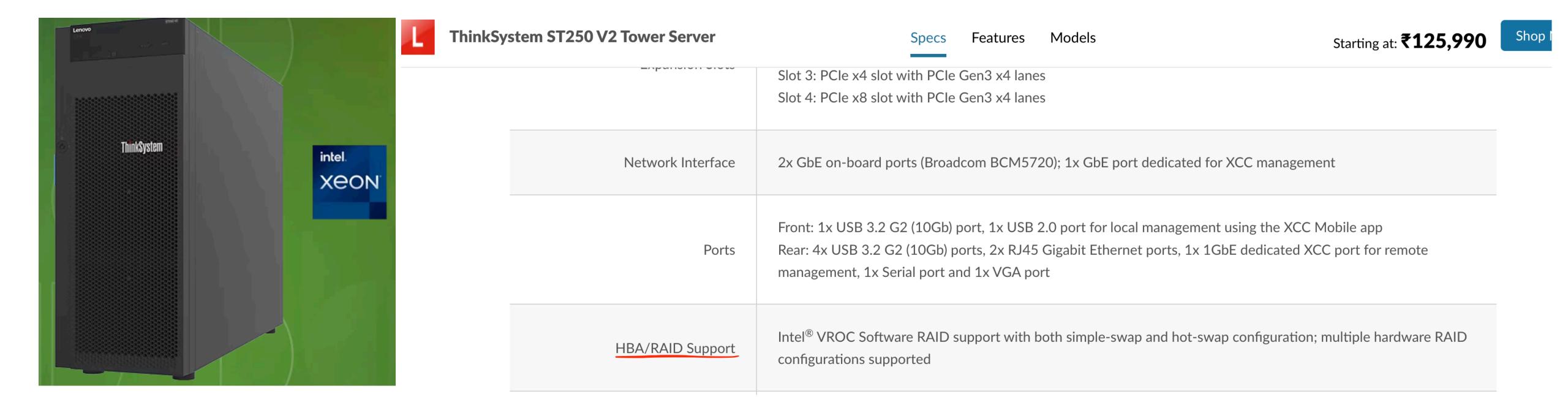
RAIDs: Simple Illustration



- As far as File System (the subcomponent inside OS) is concerned
 - RAID is just like a disk
 - Linear array of blocks each of which can be read or written



RAID in Action





RAIDs

- At a high level, RAIDs are like a computer system
 - RAID is like a box with standard (SCSI or SATA) to a host
 - Provides a consistent interface to the OS
- Internally RAIDs are very complex
 - Consists of a microcontroller that runs a firmware
 - Volatile memory such as DRAM to buffer data blocks as they are read and written
 - Non-volatile memory to buffer writes safely and for parity calculation as well
- Instead of running application RAID, runs specialised software designed to operate RAID

Evaluating RAIDs

- Many approaches are there to build a RAID system
 - Each has different characteristics
- Three axes can be used for evaluation
 - Capacity
 - Reliability
 - Performance





Evaluating RAIDs

Capacity

- Given a set of N disks each of size B blocks. How much capacity is available for usage?
 - Some redundancy may be required => N/2 when each is replicated

Performance

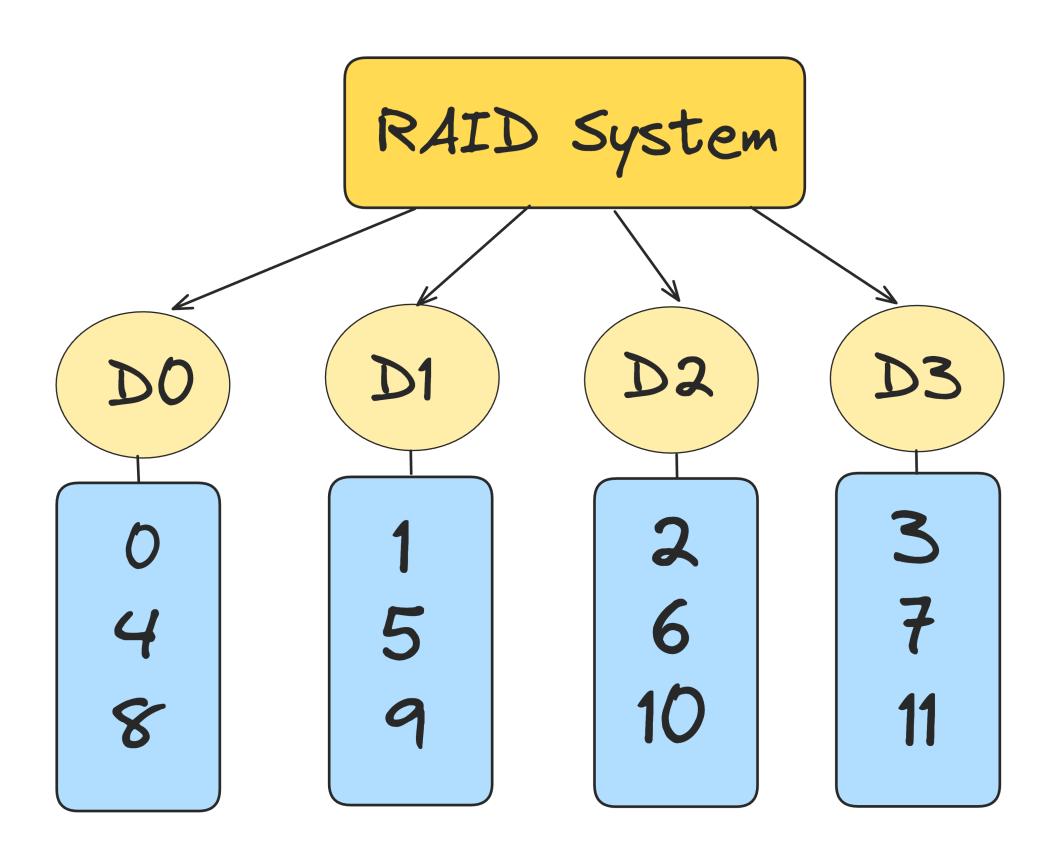
- What's the impact of different workload on the latency of I/O?
- What's the throughput? Rate of transfer -Transfers/second!

Reliability

- How many failures/faults can the RAID system tolerate?
- The fault model considered: A fault => total disk has failed!



RAID level 0: Striping



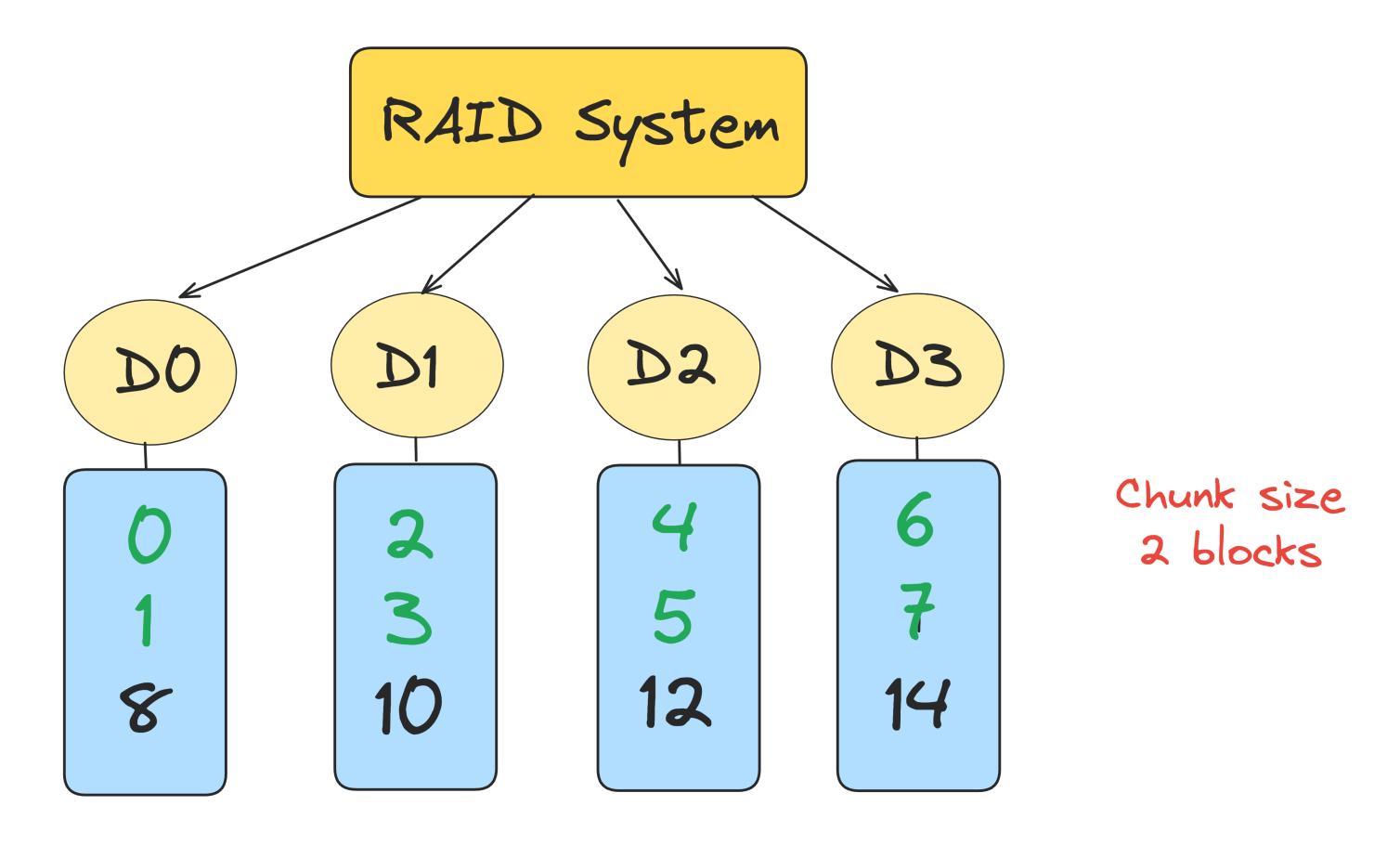
Here blocks 0, 1, 2 and 3 are in same stripe

Each block is of size 4 KB

- Simple form: Spread the blocks across the disks in a round robin fashion
- Blocks in the same row Stripe
- No redundancy



RAID level 0: Striping



- Two 4 KB blocks are placed in one disk before moving to another
- Chunk size is 8 KB and a stripe consists of 4 chunks -> 32 KB of data
- Chunk size do have an impact on the performance! How?



RAID Level 0: Impact of Chunk Size

Small chunk size

- Many files will get stripped across disks
- Increases parallelisms of reads and writes
- Positioning time to access blocks across disks increases

Big chunk size

- Reduces intra-file parallelism, relies on multiple concurrent request to achieve high throughput
- Large chunk size reduces positioning time (One file in one disk) same as using one disk
- Best chunk size is hard to get Depends on the workload!



RAID Level 0: Performance Analysis

- Two main things to evaluate:
 - Single-request latency: latency of single I/O request to RAID
 - Steady-state throughput: Total bandwidth of concurrent requests
- Two main workloads:
 - Sequential: Request to disk arrive in large contiguous chunks
 - Random: Each request is small to a random location on disk
- Assume disk transfers at S MB/s under sequential and R MB/s under random

RAID Level 0: Performance Analysis

- Consider the following disk characteristics
 - Sequential transfer of size 10 MB on average
 - Random transfer of size 10 KB on average
 - Average seek time 7 ms
 - Average rotational delay 3 ms
 - Transfer rate of disk 50 MB/s
- How to calculate S and R?

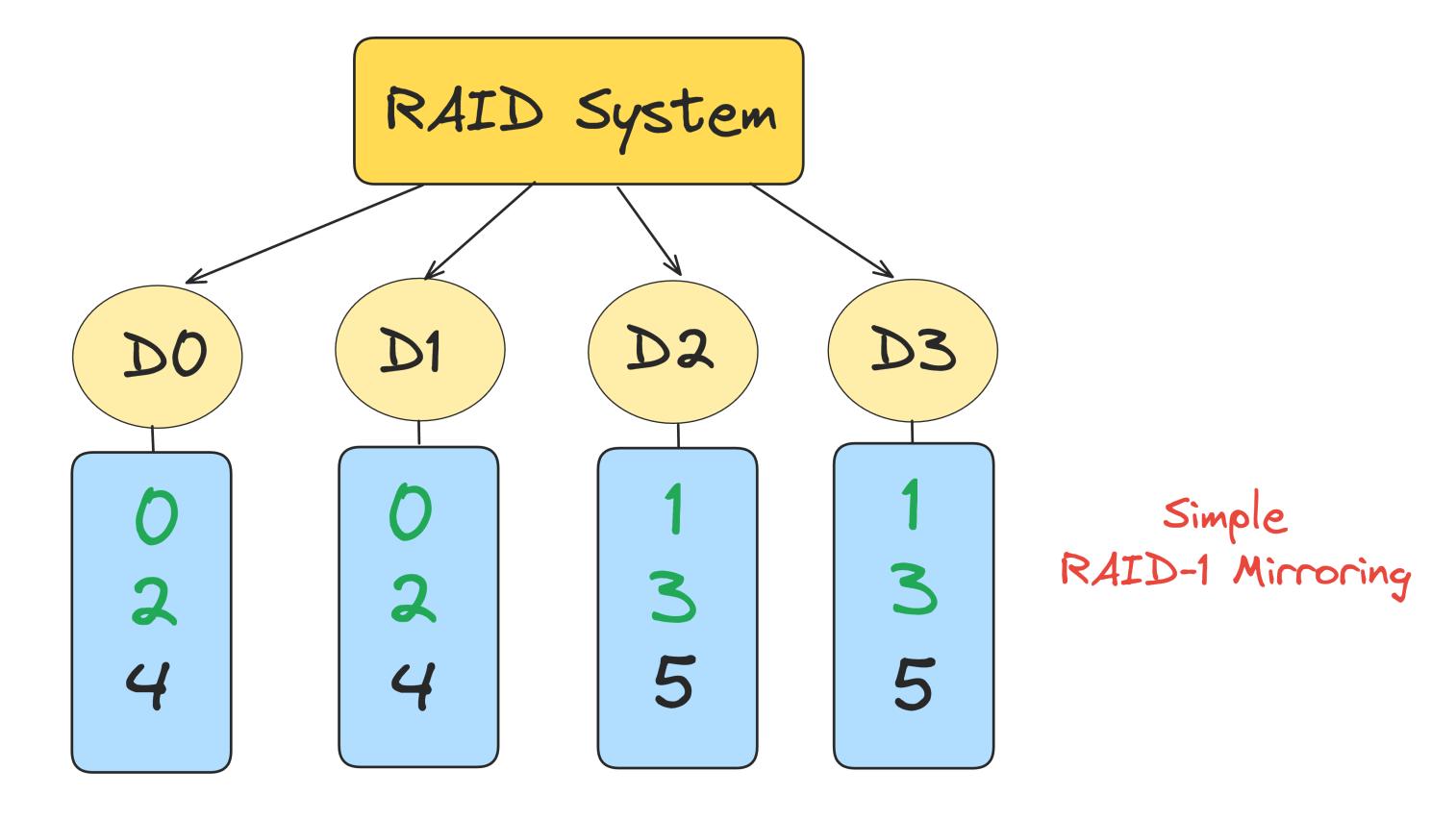


RAID Level 0: Analysis

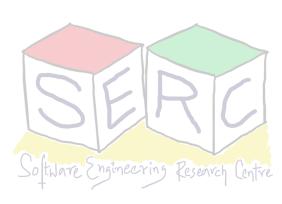
- 7 ms spend seeking and 3 ms spend in rotation => total: 10 ms
- 10 MB @ 50MB/s => 200 ms for transfer => total: 200 + 10 = 210 ms
- S = 10 MB / 210ms = 47.62 MB/s
- For R, 10 KB @ 50 MB/s => 0.195 ms => total: 10 + .0.195 = 10.195 ms
- R = 10 KB / 10.195 ms = 0.981 MB/s
- Steady-state throughput equals N*S MB/s or N*R MB/s depending on workload
- RAID 0 is more like an upper bound



RAID level 1: Mirroring



- Copies are made, each copy is placed in a different disk Handle failures!
- Data is stripped across mirrored pairs



RAID Level 1: Mirroring

Read

- When reading from a block, RAID has a choice!
- Assume a read comes to 0, the system can either use Disk 0 or 1

Write

- No choice exists, the write needs to happen in both copies of data
- This promotes reliability, writes can happen in parallel





RAID 1: Analysis

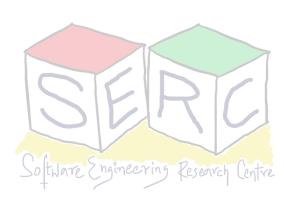
- Capacity, with all replicated, achieved capacity: N/2
- Reliability, RAID 1 can tolerate failure of 1 disk
- Performance
 - For single read request, RAID-1 just needs to redirect to one of the copies
 - Write is little different: Two writes needs to happen and it will happen in parallel => time will be almost equal to single write
 - But, due to worst case rotational of two requests, it will be higher than write to a single disk



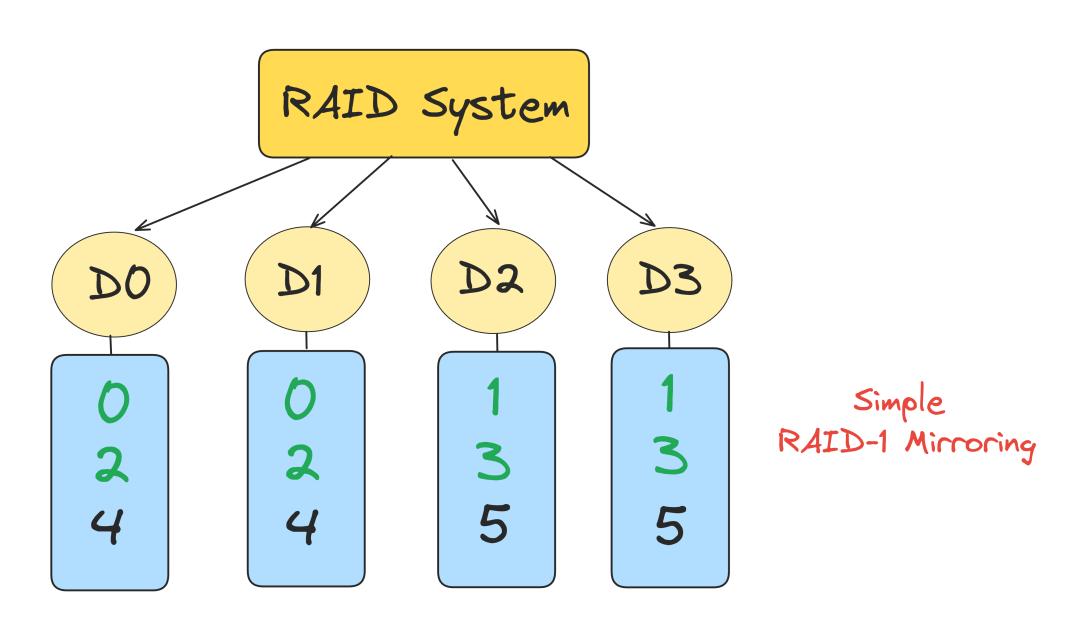
RAID 1: Analysis

- Steady state throughput
 - Bandwidth during sequential write is (N/2) * S MB/s or half the peak
 - Each write involves writing in two different locations
 - Sequential reads also has a similar bandwidth:
 - Consider reads that needs to be done on blocks: 0,1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7
 - What will be the bandwidth or steady state throughput in this case?





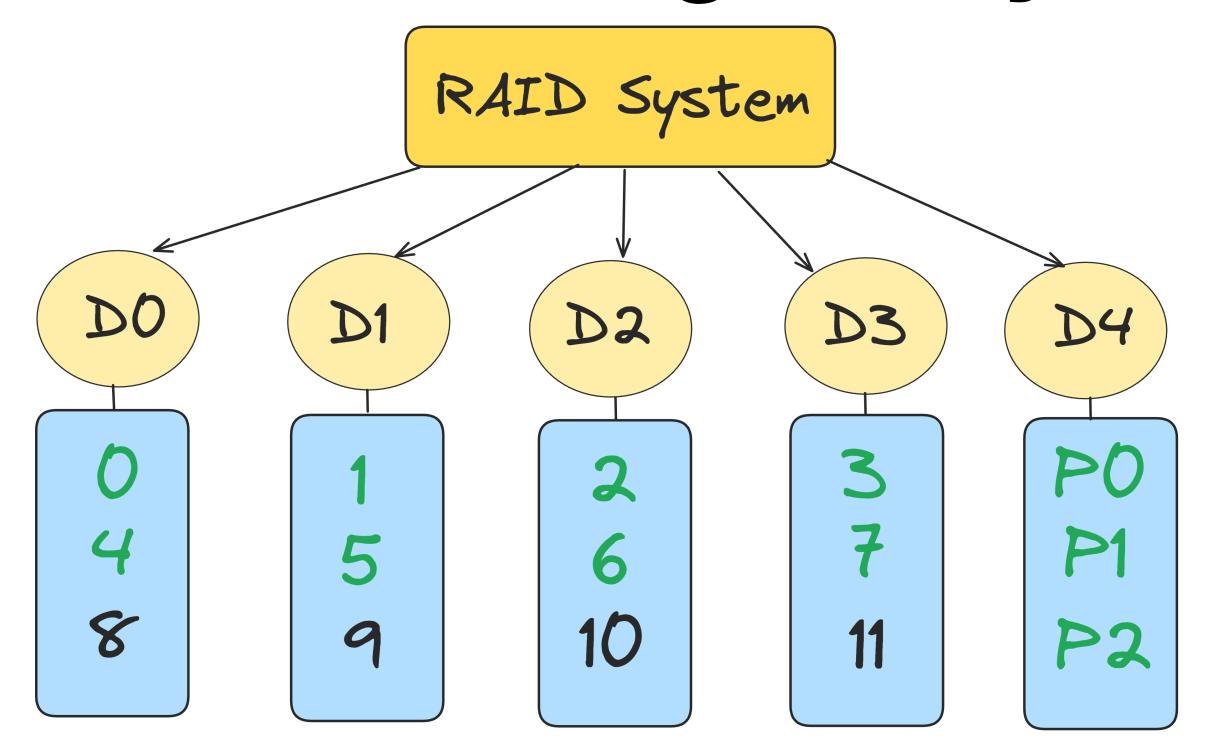
RAID 1: Analysis



- 0 is send to D0, 1 to D2, 2 to D1, 3 to D3....
- 0 comes to D0 then next one is 4, 2 is skipped (since it goes to D1)
- Simply keeps rotating without doing useful transfer (as D1 is taken care)
- Each disk will only deliver half the peak bandwidth, (N/2) * S MB/s for Sequential reads
- Random reads N*R and write (N/2) * R MB/s

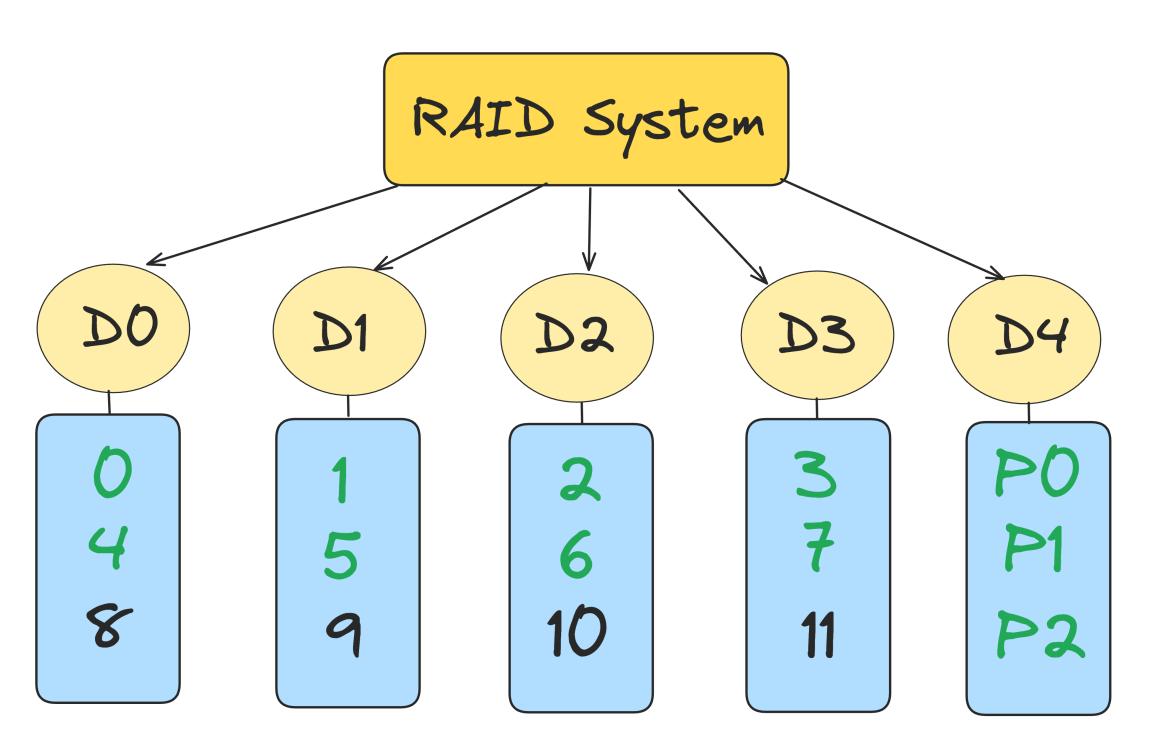


RAID Level 4: Introducing Parity



- Another method for better managing redundancy: Parity
- They aim to use less capacity and overcome space issues at cost of performance
- For each stripe of data above, a parity block is added that stores the redundant information for that block

RAID Level 4



- P1 has redundant information that it is calculated from blocks 4, 5, 6 and 7
- To compute parity XOR function is used
 - XOR returns 1 if there are odd no of 1's
 - XOR returns 0 if there are even no of 1's
- This allows to identify if there were some faults in any of the disks - how?





RAID Level 4

CO	C1	C2	C 3	P
0	0	1	1	XOR (0,0,1,1) = 0
0	1	0	0	XOR (0,1,0,0) = 1

- The parity information can be used to recover from failure
- Assume data in first row of C2 is lost (it was 1)
 - Read all the other values in the row and reconstruct the answer
 - Without value of C2 (1), XOR (0,0,0,1) = 0; Hence we can find that C2 needs to be 1

RAID Level 4

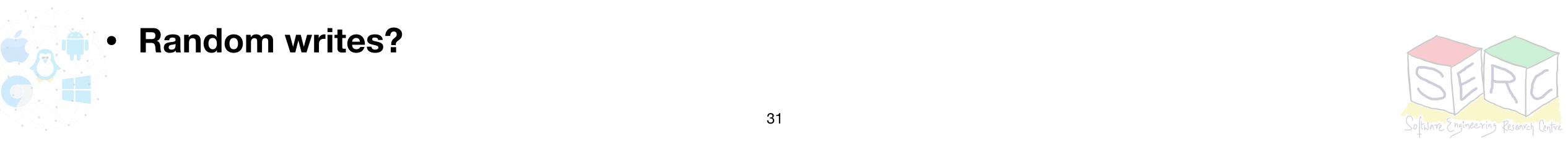
Block 0	Block 1	Block 2	Block 3	Parity
00	10	11	10	11
10	01	00	1	10

- In the larger context perform bitwise XOR of all the bits
- Perform Bitwise XOR across each bit of data blocks
 - Put the result of each bit in the corresponding bit slot in parity block
 - Assume that Block 2 fails
 - Block 2 = (00) XOR (10) XOR (10) XOR (11) = 11



RAID Level 4: Analysis

- Capacity: 1 disk is for parity hence (N-1)*B
- Reliability: Tolerates 1 disk failure, if more than 1 is lost, no way to recover
- Performance, Steady-state-throughput:
 - Sequential reads: (N-1)*S MB/s
 - Sequential writes: (N-1)*S MB/s (write also parity in parallel, full-stripe write)
 - Note: writing to parity at same time is not performance gain for client! Hence N-1
 - Random read: (N-1)*R MB/s



RAID Level 4: Analysis

- Main operations involved in write, especially random write:
 - Update a block + update of parity
- Method 1: Additive Parity
 - Read in all of the other blocks in that stripe
 - XOR those blocks with the new block
 - **Problem:** As number of blocks increase, this can be challenging, reading of all blocks to perform XOR





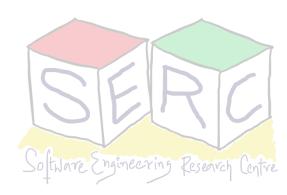
RAID Level 4: Analysis

Method 2: Subtractive Parity

CO	C1	C2	C 3	P
0	0	1	1	XOR(0,0,1,1) = 0

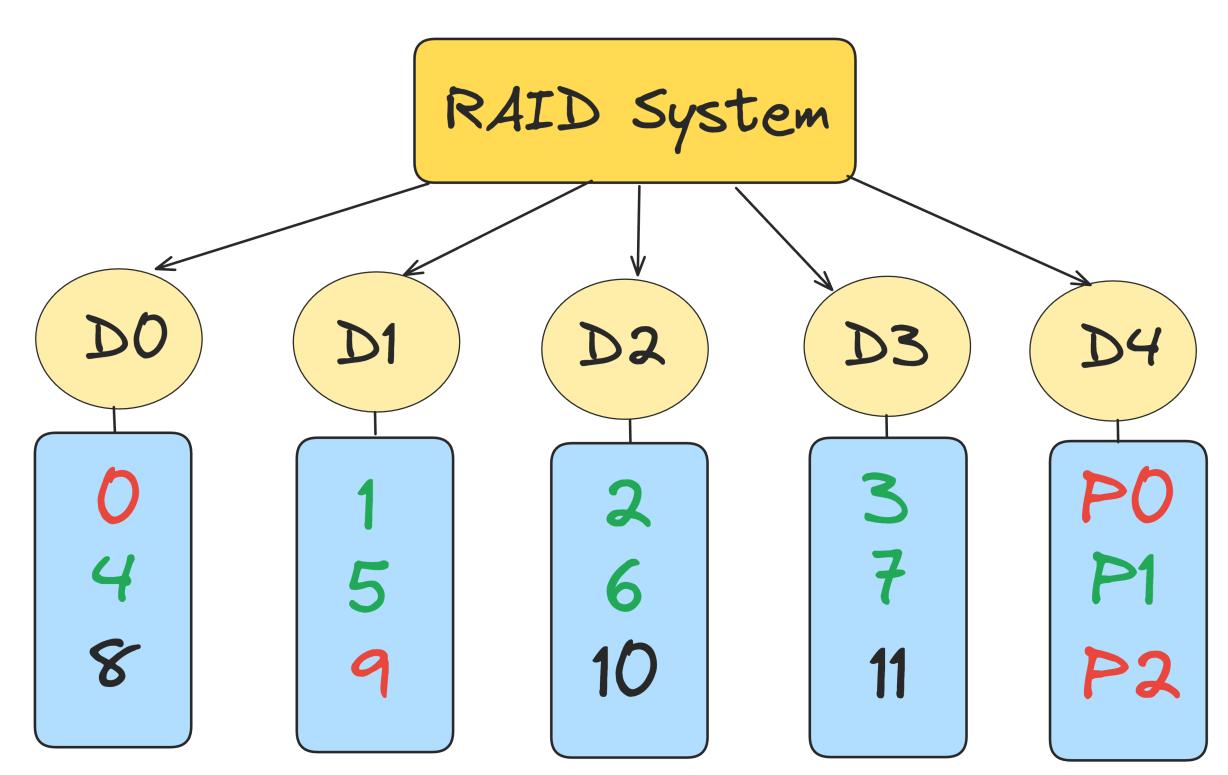
- Update C2(old) -> C2 (new)
- Read old data in C2 (C2(old)=1) and old data in parity (P(old) = 0)
- Calculate P(new) = (C2(old) XOR C2(new)) XOR P(old)
 - If C2(new) == C2 (old) -> P(new) = P(old)
 - If C2(new)!=C2 (old) -> Flip the old parity bit





Small-write Problem

- The parity disk can be a bottleneck
 - Example: Writes to 0 and 9
 - Disk 0 and Disk 1 can be accessed in parallel
 - Disk 4 prevents any parallelism



- RAID-4 under random workload, small writes is (R/2) MB/s terrible!
- How to improve further?

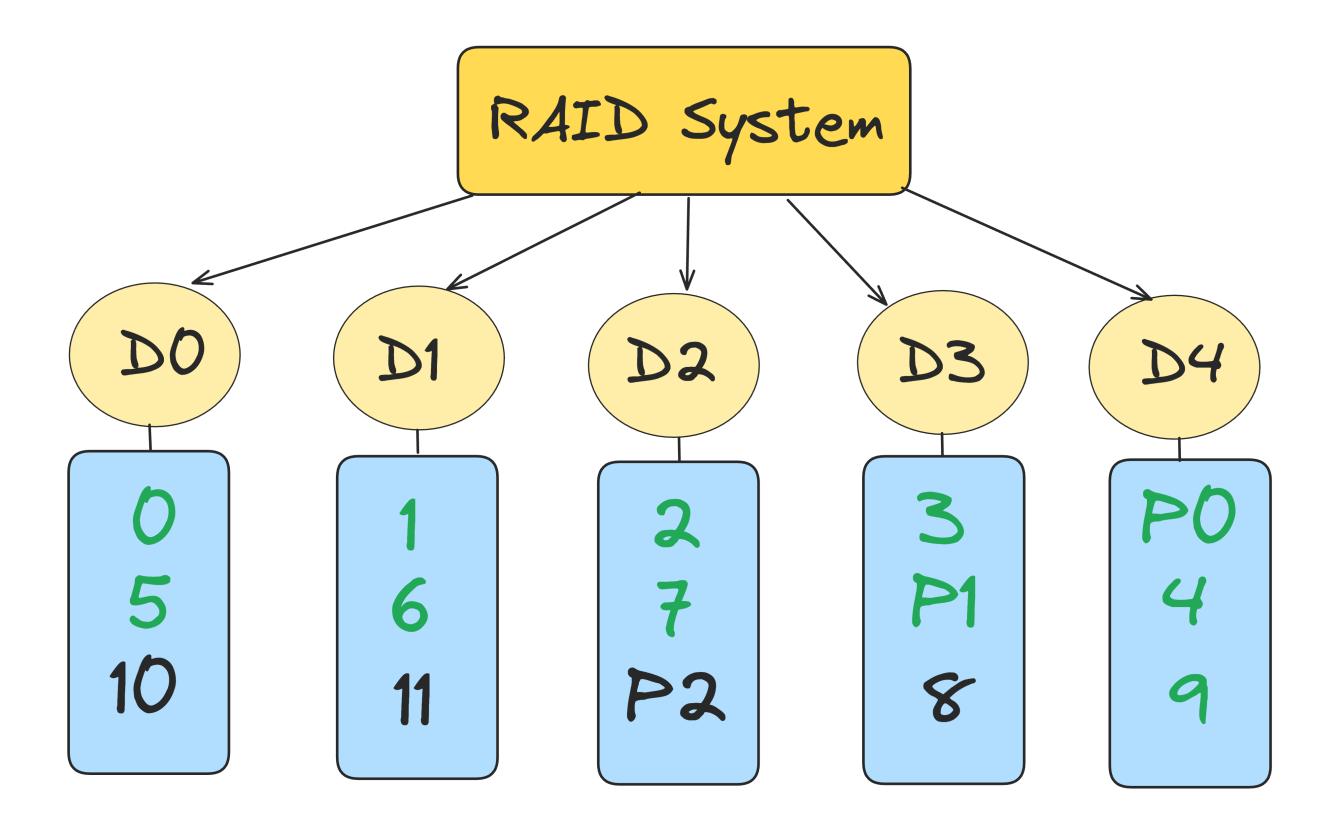


I/O Latency in RAID-4

- A single read
 - Equivalent to latency of single disk request
- A single write
 - Two reads + Two writes
 - Data block + parity block
 - The reads and writes can happen in parallel
 - Total latency is twice that of single disk



RAID Level 5: Rotating Parity



- Addresses the small-write problem
- Similar to RAID-4 except that keeps rotating the parity block
- Removes the parity-disk bottleneck for RAID-4



RAID-5 Analysis

- Capacity and reliability identical to RAID-4
- Sequential read and write performance similar to RAID-4
- Random read performance is little better (utilize all disks)
- Random write performance
 - Here the write requests can be parallelized as parity is not bottleneck
 - Given large number of random write requests, all disks can be evenly kept busy, total bandwidth = (N/4)*R MB/s. Still 4 I/O operations (as parity is there)



Summarizing RAIDS

- Performance and do not care about reliability -> RAID-0 (Striping)
- Random I/O performance and reliability -> RAID-1 (Mirroring)
- Capacity and Reliability -> RAID-5
- Sequential I/O and Maximise Capacity -> RAID-5







Thank you

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