

- Why disk arrays?
 - Failures
 - Redundancy
- RAID
- Performance considerations
 - normal and degraded modes
- Disk array designs and implementations
- Case study: HP AutoRAID







Because stuff happens.

LETT



Things break -- in a moderately predictable way in aggregate



• Metrics:

- MTTF: "mean time to failure" -- a rate, not a period
- AFR: annual failure rate (better -- but still just middle of "bathtub")
- MTTR: "mean time to repair"





- Reliability
 - R(t) = likelihood system *up continuously* from time 0 to time t
- Availability
 - A(t) = likelihood system *will be up* at time t
- Performability
 - P(t,p) = likelihood system *will be providing performance p* at time t







- Complete copies
 - replication, "mirroring"



- Partial redundancy
 - Hamming codes/ECC

Mirror copies

- tolerates mangling of elements
- unnecessarily strong: we know when disks are broken
- Parity
 - XOR sets (stripes) of data blocks to calculate a "parity block"
 - any data block in a stripe can be reconstructed from the others + parity



Parity unit (xor of rest of stripe units in same stripe)





- For disks:
 - originally (mid-1980s), these were the most unreliable components
 - nowadays, they're one of the more reliable ones (AFR of 1-2%)
 - but failure rates are proportional to numbers ...

 Assume: independent failures warning! danger! caution! error!

With no redundancy ...

 $AFR_{disks} \sim = N_{disks} * AFR_{disk}$

With one degree of redundancy ...
 AFR_{raid} ~= AFR_{disks}(N_{disks}) * MTTR_{disk} * AFR_{disks}(N_{disks}-1)





Cost

- replicating everything costs 2x as much storage
- solution: partial redundancy

Slower updates

- 2x as many copies to write to
- ... even worse with partial redundancy

Greater complexity

- 80-90% of disk array firmware is error handling
- lots and lots of configuration choices ...





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- Originally (like everything else?) invented by IBM
 - striping explored at Univ. Maryland
 - catchy terminology popularized by UC Berkeley:
 - Patterson, Gibson & Katz: "The case for Redundant Arrays of Inexpensive Disks (RAID)", ACM SIGMOD, 1988
 - comparison point: slow, large expensive disks (SLED)
 - goal was to compete with IBM mainframe disks using cheap, unreliable PC drives

Now:

RAID: Redundant Arrays of Independent Disks







RAID0: striping (no redundancy)



Striping balances the load and allows large transfers to happen in parallel

RAID1: aka mirroring (full redundancy)



Mirroring gives 2x the read bandwidth per disk, but writes have to go to both

 RAID10: striped mirroring (full redundancy) Mirror copies







- RAID3: byte-interleaved
 - all disks read/written in lock step
 - parity on dedicated disk
 (ok: sees same load as remainder)
 - great for high-bandwidth, large transfers; otherwise poor

XOR parity is single-bit ECC that can correct single-bit erasures

If a disk is missing, XORing the others will give you its contents







- RAID4: block-interleaved
 - independent reads/writes possible
 - parity on dedicated disk (hot spot!)
- Updating parity is expensive for small writes
 - one effect: write-caching becomes especially important



- 1. Read old data & parity
- 2. Compute new parity
- 3. Write new data + parity

=> 4x I/O operations per small write





 RAID5 - rotated-parity-protected striping to balance the load



Parity unit (xor of rest of stripe units in same stripe)

Rotating the parity balances the parity load across all the disks; striping allows fast large transfers

RAID5 is the configuration of choice for all but performance-intensive loads





Currently accepted RAID levels

- 0: no redundancy
- 1: full copy (mirrors)
- 10: striped mirrors
- 2: Hamming-code/ECC (not used)
- 3: byte-interleaved parity
- 4: block-interleaved parity (more useful variant of RAID3)
- 5: rotated block-interleaved parity
- 6: double parity ("P+Q parity" -- rare)

Note: not really levels, just a list





- Updates in flight at time of power failure can corrupt the parity
 - either: an expensive parity rebuild on power up
 - or: keep a non-volatile intentions log
- Reliability calculations based on disks alone are bogus
 - power source is single largest problem
 - then controller failures, cooling, backplane, connections, ...
 - redundancy helps here, too
 - nobody likes to talk about software ...





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- Floating parity [Menon92]
 - write parity anywhere -- saves one revolution



- 1. Read old data & parity
 - * claim: old data is already cached
- 2. Compute new parity
- 3. Write new data + parity
 - * parity write is "free"
- => ~2x I/O operations per small write





- Parity logging [Stodolsky94]
 - aggregate parity updates into an append-only log
 - propagate log in background





2000-03-StAndrews-arrays, 18 John Wilkes



- <u>A</u> <u>Frequently Redundant Array of Independent Disks</u> [Savage&Wilkes96]
 - live (a little) dangerously ...
 - update parity opportunistically in the background
 - gives smooth tradeoff between availability and performance







- Optimum size is dependent on:
 - read:write mix
 - data layout (RAID1 vs RAID5)
 - concurrency level
 - back-end disk characteristics (e.g., track size)
- Choices are a daunting problem for sysadmins

[Chen90] for RAID1, [Chen95] for RAID5





Reading RAID4/5 when a disk is broken is expensive



Read all surviving data & parity
 Compute missing data (XOR)

=> all surviving disks are involved





- Chained declustering [Hsaio+DeWitt90]
 - spread the second copy out over other disks
 - when the primary copy breaks, each secondary disk takes up only a portion of the slack





- Declustering [Muntz90]
 - make stripes narrower than whole array
 - only stripes that have the broken disk need pay performance penalty
 - each stripe uses a different set of disks
 - some complexity in the mappings that do this nicely
 - but "close enough" works just fine
 - better degraded-mode performance, at the cost of more disks
 - stripes are smaller => more parity
 - improvements
 - Approximate block designs
 - Prime/Relpr [Alvarez98] better-spread large-transfer load





- **•** Reduce MTTR: keep an online spare
 - e.g., XP256: up to 4 spares per rack of 64 drives
- Distributed sparing [Menon92] makes the spare useful
 - spread its "contents" across all the disks
 - effectively adds an extra disk's performance to the array





- Reconstruction after failure
 - sweep across data: read every stripe, rewrite parity/missing data
 - poor performance if done too simply: data transfers are too small; too much blocking
 - better: disk-oriented reconstruction [Holland93]
 - keep >= one outstanding read for each disk
 - can also piggyback updates on foreground activity
 - requires keeping a map of reconstructed stripes
 - big tradeoff: faster recovery or slower foreground activity?





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- In software
 - cheapest, but consumes memory (and cpu) cycles
 - usually mirroring, in OS Logical Volume Manager
- In host bus adapter
 - common in PC servers
 - big win is from the read/write cache
 - fault handling is very limited





- Mid-range array (e.g., HP FC60)
 - sometimes separate controller and disk boxes
 - up to 1-2TB disk, 0.5Gb cache RAM
 - can saturate a 100MB/s FibreChannel link; O(10,000 IOs/s)



Packaging:

- whole array is in a single box, or
- array controller is in separate box





- **High-end array: integrated box** (e.g., HP XP256; EMC Symmetrix)
 - up to a few TB of disk
 - up to a few GB of cache
 - up to a few \$million
- What you pay for:
 - lots of caching (vital to performance)
 - multiple host interface types
 - e.g., HP XP256: SCSI, FibreChannel, and ESCON
 - quality power distribution, cabling, cooling, vibration isolation
 - phone-home, remote management, support infrastructure
 - can saturate a few 100MB/s FibreChannel links; O(50,000+ IOs/s)











- Most arrays provide multiple LUNs (SCSI Logical UNits)
 - one or more disk drives bound together into a common layout
 - different LUNs can have different sizes, different layouts
 - LUN 0 is often special (used for controlling the array as a whole)
 - at low end: 8-32 LUNs
 - at high end: thousands of LUNs
 - SCSI limit: 4096 LUNs, from a 12 bit LUNid
- A few common variations (there are many more):
 - parts of disks instead of whole disks
 - LUNs may be named relative to ports, not uniquely
 - LUNs can have different caching behavior





- Disk arrays use redundancy to protect against disk (and other storage component) failures
 - rest easy: the storage system is no longer the main problem!
- They can also provide performance benefits
 - caching can easily provide 10-100x performance boost
- But ... at cost of lots of complexity
 - algorithms
 - configuration choices
 - implementation options





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