RAID

♦ RAID: Redundant Arrays of Inexpensive Disks
  – this discussion is based on the paper:
    » A Case for Redundant Arrays of Inexpensive Disks (RAID),
    » David A Patterson, Garth Gibson, and Randy H Katz,
    » In Proceedings of the ACM SIGMOD International Conference

RAID

♦ Motivation
  – single chip computers improved in performance by 40% per year
  – RAM capacity quadrupled capacity every 2-3 years
  – Disks (magnetic technology)
    » capacity doubled every 3 years
    » price cut in half every 3 years
    » raw seek time improved 7% every year
  – Note: values presented in Pattersons’ paper are dated!
  – Note: paper discusses “pure” RAID, not smarter implementations, e.g. caching.
**RAID**

- Amdahl’s Law:

\[
S = \frac{1}{(1 - f) + \frac{f}{k}}
\]

- \( f \) = fraction of work in fast mode
- \( k \) = speedup while in fast mode

**Example:**
- assume 10% I/O operation
- if CPU 10x => effective speedup is 5
- if CPU 100x => effective speedup is 10
  - 90% of potential speedup is wasted

**Motivation**
- compare “mainframe mentality” with “today’s” possibilities, e.g. cost, configuration
RAID

- Reliability

$$MTTF_{Array} = \frac{MTTF_{single}}{\# \; disks}$$

Bad news!

- e.g. $MTTF_{disk} = 30,000 \; h$
  
  $MTTF_{100} = 300 \; h \; \; ( < 2 \; weeks)$

  $MTTF_{1000} = 30 \; h$

- Note, that these numbers are very dated. Today’s drives are much better. MTBF $> 300,000$ to $800,000$ hours.

- even if we assume higher MTTF of individual disks, the problem stays.

BAD NEWS!

RAID Reliability

- partition disks into reliability groups and check disks
  
  » $D =$ total number of data disks

  » $G =$ # data disks in group

  » $C =$ # check disks in group

$$MTTF_{RAID \; group} = \frac{MTTF_{disk}}{G + C} \times \frac{1}{Prob. \; of \; failure \; during \; repair}$$

$$Prob. \; of \; failure \; during \; repair = \frac{MTTR}{MTTF_{disk} / (G + C - 1)}$$

$$MTTF_{RAID} = \frac{MTTF_{RAID \; group}}{\# \; groups}$$
**RAID**

- **Target Systems**
  - Different RAID solutions will benefit different target system configurations.
  - Supercomputers
    - larger blocks of data, i.e. high data rate
  - Transaction processing
    - small blocks of data
    - high I/O rate
    - read-modify-write sequences

5 RAID levels
- RAID 1: mirrored disks
- RAID 2: hamming code for ECC
- RAID 3: single check disk per group
- RAID 4: independent read/writes
- RAID 5: no single check disk
RAID

- RAID level 1: Mirrored Disks
  - Most expensive option
  - Tandem doubles controllers too
  - Write to both disks
  - Read from one disk
  - Characteristics:
    - \( S = \) slowdown. In synchronous disks spindles are synchronized so that the corresponding sectors of a group of disks can be accessed simultaneously. For synchr. disks \( S = 1 \).
    - Reads = \( 2D/S \), i.e. concurrent read possible
    - Write = \( D/S \), i.e. no overhead for concurrent write of same data
    - R-Modify-Write = \( 4D/(3S) \)
    - Pat88 Table II (pg. 112)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MTTF</th>
<th>Exceeds Useful Product Lifetime</th>
<th>(4,500,000 hrs or &gt; 500 years)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Number of Disks</td>
<td>2D</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overhead Cost</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Useable Storage Capacity</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Events/Sec vs Single Disk</td>
<td>Full RAID</td>
<td>Efficiency Per Disk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large (or Grouped) Reads</td>
<td>2D/S</td>
<td>100/S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large (or Grouped) Writes</td>
<td>D/S</td>
<td>50/S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large (or Grouped) R-M-W</td>
<td>4D/3S</td>
<td>67/S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small (or Individual) Reads</td>
<td>2D</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small (or Individual) Writes</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small (or Individual) R-M-W</td>
<td>4D/3</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table II. Characteristics of Level 1 RAID Here we assume that writes are not slowed by waiting for the second write to complete because the slowdown for writing 2 disks is minor compared to the slowdown for writing a whole group of 10 to 25 disks. Unlike a "pure" mirrored scheme with extra disks that are invisible to the software, we assume an optimized scheme with twice as many controllers allowing parallel reads to all disks, giving full disk bandwidth for large reads and allowing the reads of read-modify-writes to occur in parallel.
**RAID**

- **RAID level 2: Hamming Code**
  - DRAM => problem with $\alpha$-particles
    - Solution, e.g. parity for SED, Hamming code for SEC
  - Recall Hamming Code
  - Same idea using one disk drive per bit
  - Smallest accessible unit per disk is one sector
    - access $G$ sectors, where $G = \#$ data disks in a group
  - If operation on a portion of a group is needed:
    1) read all data
    2) modify desired position
    3) write full group including check info

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**Recall Hamming Code**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>12</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>Bit Position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0 1 0 1 0 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- $c_4$  - $c_3$  - $c_2$  - $c_1$  Check Bit
- $d_8$  - $d_7$  - $d_6$  - $d_5$  Data Bit

$$2^k - 1 \geq m + k$$

$m = \text{data bits}$

$k = \text{parity bits}$
**Compute Check**

\[ c_1 = d_1 \oplus d_2 \oplus d_4 \oplus d_5 \oplus d_7 \]
\[ c_2 = d_1 \oplus d_3 \oplus d_4 \oplus d_6 \oplus d_7 \]
\[ c_3 = d_2 \oplus d_3 \oplus d_4 \oplus d_8 \]
\[ c_4 = d_5 \oplus d_6 \oplus d_7 \oplus d_8 \]

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**RAID**

- Allows soft errors to be corrected “on the fly”.
- Useful for supercomputers, not useful for transaction processing
  - e.g. used in Thinking Machine (Connection Machine) “Data Vault” with \( G = 32, C = 8 \).
- Characteristics:
  - Pat88 Table III (pg 112)
RAID

- RAID level 3: Single Check Disk per Group
  - Parity is SED not SEC!
  - However, often controller can detect if a disk has failed
    » information of failed disk can be reconstructed
    » extra redundancy on disk, i.e. extra info on sectors etc.
  - If check disk fails
    » read data disks to restore replacement
  - If data disk fails
    » compute parity and compare with check disk
    » if parity bits are equal => data bit = 0
    » otherwise => data bit = 1
RAID

- Since less overhead, i.e. one check disk only
  ⇒ Effective performance increases
- Reduction in disks over L2 decreases maintenance
- Performance same as L2, however, effective performance per disk increases due to smaller number of check disks
- Better for supercomputers, not good for transaction proc.
- Maxtor, Micropolis introduced first RAID-3 in 1988
- Characteristics:
  » Pat88 Table IV (pg 113)

MTTF

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>G=10 (820,000 hrs or &gt;90 years)</th>
<th>G=25 (346,000 hrs or 40 years)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Number of Disks</strong></td>
<td>10D</td>
<td>104D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overhead Cost</strong></td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Useable Storage Capacity</strong></td>
<td>91%</td>
<td>96%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Events/Sec (vs Single Disk)</th>
<th>Full RAID</th>
<th>Efficiency Per Disk</th>
<th>Efficiency Per Disk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>L3</td>
<td>L3/L2</td>
<td>L3/L1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large Reads</td>
<td>D/S</td>
<td>91/S</td>
<td>127%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large Writes</td>
<td>D/S</td>
<td>91/S</td>
<td>127%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large R-M-W</td>
<td>D/S</td>
<td>91/S</td>
<td>127%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small Reads</td>
<td>D/SG</td>
<td>09/S</td>
<td>127%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small Writes</td>
<td>D/2SG</td>
<td>05/S</td>
<td>127%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small R-M-W</td>
<td>D/SG</td>
<td>09/S</td>
<td>127%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table IV Characteristics of a Level 3 RAID. The L3/L2 column gives the % performance of L3 in terms of L2 and the L3/L1 column gives it in terms of L1 (>100% means L3 is faster). The performance for the full systems is the same in RAID levels 2 and 3, but since there are fewer check disks the performance per disk improves.
RAID

- RAID level 4: Independent Reads/Writes
  - Pat88 fig 3 pg. 113 compares data locations
  - Disk interleaving has advantages and disadvantages
  - Advantage of previous levels:
    » large transfer bandwidth
  - Disadvantages of previous levels:
    » all disks in a group are accessed on each operation (R,W)
    » spindle synchronization
      - if none => probably close to worse case average seek times, access times (tracking + rotation)
  - Interleave data on disks at sector level
  - Uses one parity disk
**RAID**

- for small accesses
  - need only access to 2 disks, i.e. 1 data & parity
  - new parity can be computed from old parity + old/new data
  - compute: $P_{\text{new}} = \text{data}_{\text{old}} \oplus \text{data}_{\text{new}} \oplus P_{\text{old}}$
- e.g. small write
  1) read old data + parity
  2) write new data + parity
- Bottleneck is parity disk
- e.g. small read
  - only read one drive (data)
- Characteristics:
  - Pat88 Table V (pg 114)

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MTTF</th>
<th>Exceeds Useful Lifetime</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$G=10$</td>
<td>$G=25$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$(820,000 \text{ hrs} \text{ or } &gt;90 \text{ years})$</td>
<td>$(346,000 \text{ hrs} \text{ or } 40 \text{ years})$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Number of Disks</strong></td>
<td>1 10D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overhead Cost</strong></td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Useable Storage Capacity</strong></td>
<td>91%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Events/Sec Full RAID (vs Single Disk)</strong></td>
<td><strong>Efficiency Per Disk</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$L4$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large Reads</td>
<td>D/S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large Writes</td>
<td>D/S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large R-M-W</td>
<td>D/S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small Reads</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small Writes</td>
<td>D/2G</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small R-M-W</td>
<td>D/4G</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table V. Characteristics of a Level 4 RAID. The $L4/L3$ column gives the % performance of $L4$ in terms of $L3$ and the $L4/L1$ column gives it in terms of $L1$ (>$100\%$ means $L4$ is faster). Small reads improve because they no longer tie up a whole group at a time. Small writes and R-M-Ws improve some because we make the same assumptions as we made in Table II the slowdown for two related I/Os can be ignored because only two disks are involved.
**RAID**

- RAID level 5: No Single Check Disk
  - Distributes data and check info across all disks, i.e. there are no dedicated check disks.
  - Supports multiple individual writes per group
  - Best of 2 worlds
    » small Read-Modify-Write
    » large transfer performance
    » 1 more disk in group => increases read performance
- Characteristics:
  » Pat88 Table VI (pg 114)

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**Table VI** Characteristics of a Level 5 RAID

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Events/Sec (vs Single Disk)</th>
<th>Full RAID</th>
<th>Efficiency Per Disk</th>
<th>Efficiency Per Disk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>L5 LSi/L4 LSi/L1</td>
<td>L5 LSi/L4 LSi/L1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large Reads</td>
<td>D/S</td>
<td>91%/100% 91%</td>
<td>96%/100% 96%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large Writes</td>
<td>D/S</td>
<td>91%/100% 182%</td>
<td>96%/100% 192%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large R-M-W</td>
<td>D/S</td>
<td>91%/100% 136%</td>
<td>96%/100% 144%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small Reads</td>
<td>(1+C/G)/D</td>
<td>100% 100% 100%</td>
<td>100% 104% 100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small Writes</td>
<td>(1+C/G)/D/4</td>
<td>25% 550% 50%</td>
<td>25% 1300% 50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Small R-M-W</td>
<td>(1+C/G)/D/2</td>
<td>50% 550% 75%</td>
<td>50% 1300% 75%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The LSi/L4 column gives the % performance of L5 in terms of L4 and the LSi/L1 column gives it in terms of L1 (>100% means L5 is faster). Because reads can be spread over all disks, including what were check disks in level 4, all small I/Os improve by a factor of 1+C/G. Small writes and R-M-Ws improve because they are no longer constrained by group size, getting the full disk bandwidth for the 4 I/Os associated with these accesses. We again make the same assumptions as we made in Tables II and V: the slowdown for two related I/Os can be ignored because only two disks are involved.
RAID

- Patterson Paper
  - discusses all levels on pure hardware problem
  - refers to software solutions and alternatives, e.g. disk buffering
  - with transfer buffer the size of a track, spindle synchronization of groups not necessary
  - improving MTTR by using spares
  - low power consumption allows use of UPS
  - relative performance shown in Pat88 fig. 5 pg. 115

Figure 5 Plot of Large (Grouped) and Small (Individual) Read-Modify-Writes per second per disk and useable storage capacity for all five levels of RAID (D=100, G=10). We assume a single S factor uniformly for all levels with S=1 where it is needed
**RAID**

- **Summary**
  - Data Striping for improved performance
    » distributes data transparently over multiple disks to make them appear as a single fast, large disk
    » improves aggregate I/O performance by allowing multiple I/Os to be serviced in parallel
      ■ independent requests can be serviced in parallel by separate disks
      ■ single multiple-block block requests can be serviced by multiple disks acting in coordination
  - Redundancy for improved reliability
    » large number of disks lowers overall reliability of disk array
    » thus redundancy is necessary to tolerate disk failures and allow continuous operation without data loss

- **other RAIDs**
  - RAID 0
    » employs striping with no redundancy at all
    » claim of fame is speed alone
    » has best write performance, but not the best read performance
      ■ why? (other RAIDs can schedule requests on the disk with the shortest expected seek and rotational delay)
  - RAID 6 (P + Q Redundancy)
    » uses Reed-Solomon code to protect against up to 2 disk failures using the bare minimum of 2 redundant disks.
RAID

» String management
**RAID**

- **Case Studies**
  - Thinking Machines Corp.: TMC ScaleArray
    - RAID level 3 for CM-5 massively parallel processor (MPP)
    - high bandwidth for large files
    - OS provides file system that can deliver data from a single file to multiple processors from multiple disks
    - uses 4 SCSI-2 strings with 2 disks each (= 8 disks)
    - these 4 strings are attached to an 8MB disk buffer
    - 3 of these units are attached to the backbone (=> 3x8=24 disks)
    - normal configuration: 22 data, 1 parity, 1 spare

- HP: TickerTAIP/DataMesh
  - traditional RAID architecture
    - host interface
      - bottleneck
      - single point of failure
RAID

- Case Studies cont.
  - TickerTAIP/DataMesh Issues
    » getting away from centralized architecture
    » different algorithms for computing RAID parity
    » techniques for establishing request atomicity, sequencing, and recovery
    » disk-level request-scheduling algorithms inside the array

RAID

- Case Studies
  - HP: TickerTAIP/DataMesh
    » TickerTAIP array architecture

TickerTAIP system environment
Case Studies

- **HP: AutoRAID**
  - provide a RAID that will provide excellent performance and storage efficiency in the presence of dynamically changing workloads
  - provides both level 1 and level 5 RAID
  - dynamically shift data to the “appropriate” level
  - dynamically shift data to level 5 if approaching maximum array capacity
  - parity logging
  - hot pluggable disks, spare controller, dynamically adapts to added capacity

- **StorageTek: Iceberg 9200 Disk Array Subsystem**
  - using 5.25-inch disks to look like traditional IBM mainframe disks
  - implements an extended RAID level 5 and level 6 disk array
  - array consists of 13 data drives, P and Q drives, and a hot spare
  - data, parity and Reed-Solomon coding are stiped across the 15 active drives
**RAID**

- other RAIDs
  - because of limitations of each RAID level on its own, several flavors of RAID have appeared which attempt to combine the best performance attributes
  - e.g. RAID 0+1
    » combine RAID 0 striping with RAID 1 mirroring
  - e.g. RAID 10
    » several RAID 1s striped over RAID 0s

**RAID 10**

RAID 10 is sometimes also called RAID 1+0

RAID 0+1