File Systems

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CS 450 : Operating Systems Michael Saelee <lee@iit.edu>



What is a file?

- some logical collection of data
- format/interpretation is (typically) of little concern to OS



A filesystem is a *collection of files*- supports a managed *namespace* of data
- maps & manages file metadata (automatically & explicitly)



Different (overlapping) classes of FS:

- "traditional": hierarchy of on-disk data
- database-backed storage (rich metadata)
- distributed storage (e.g., for MapReduce)
- namespace for *everything* (e.g. Plan 9)



We'll limit most of our discussion to traditional filesystems and regular files

† modern FS implementations are almost all hybrids (of the classes mentioned)



Agenda

- FS goals & requirements
- FS API
- FS implementation
- FS robustness
- Case study: xv6 (Unix)



system call interface (API)

OS-FS interface

FS implementation

FS-device interface

device drivers

devices (HDDs, SSDs)

(reality is not so tidy!)



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§FS Goals



I. File CRUD API:

- Create
- Read
- Update
- **D**elete



II. Protection & Security

- access control
- ownership & permissions
- encryption



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III. Robustness

- crashes shouldn't affect FS validity
- also try to mitigate data loss
 (e.g., uncommitted changes)



IV. Flexibility & Scaleability

- different ways of accessing data
 - e.g., stream vs. memory mapped
- support *exponential growth* in drive capacity



V. *Decoupling* of OS & FS - FS not tied to OS (or vice versa) - multiple FSes a single OS (at once)



VI. Device agnosticism

- FS shouldn't assume/optimize for a certain type of storage device
 - e.g., HDD vs. SSD vs. RAM disk



VII. Good *throughput* & *responsiveness*- throughput (in MB/s or IOPS)
- responsiveness ≈ request latency



VIII. Good disk utilization

- often least important!
 - usually preferable to trade *spatial inefficiency* for robustness & speed



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§FS API



File attributes (file as an ADT):

- name/path (convenient for humans)
- identifier (unique, system-wide)
- type (e.g., executable)
- protection & access control
- creator/owner, size, timestamp
- possibly much more! (e.g., log, tags, ...)



Basic operations:

- *Create* @ some location, with specified mode(s), possibly truncating
- Read
- *Update*: write content, metadata; adjust position in file (need to track)
- *Delete* = remove from FS



Typical data structures:

- file descriptor
- open file structure
- namespace structure (e.g., directory)
- access control metadata



a) file descriptor

- process-held "pointer" to an open file
- used to identify file to OS/FS for user initiated file operations
 - enables OS encapsulation of file data



b) open file structure

- essentials: position in file & count of referring processes (via FDs)
 - may permit multiple positions
 - flush in-memory struct if count = 0
- also, per open-file access mode(s)



c) namespace structure (e.g., directory)

- tracks position of data "in" FS
- may function as *all-purpose OS namespace* (e.g., even for off-disk data)



d) access-control metadata

- e.g., "rwx" bits in Unix
 - separate bits for owner/group/all
- or more granular ACLs
 - e.g., read/write/append/readacl/ writeacl/delete/etc., based on user



e.g., Unix file syscalls

```
int open (char *path, int oflag, ...);
   int creat ( char *path, mode_t mode );
   int close ( int fd );
   int link ( char *oldpath, char *newpath );
   int unlink ( char *path );
   int chdir ( char *dirpath );
ssize_t read ( int fd, void *buf, size_t nbytes );
ssize_t write ( int fd, void *buf, size_t nbytes );
 off_t lseek ( int fd, off_t offset, int whence );
   int fchmod ( int fd, mode_t mode );
   int fstat ( int fd, struct stat *buf );
```



```
struct stat {
   dev_t st_dev; /* ID of device containing file */
   ino_t st_ino; /* inode number */
   mode_t st_mode; /* protection */
   nlink_t st_nlink; /* number of hard links */
   uid_t
            st_uid; /* user ID of owner */
   gid_t
            st_gid; /* group ID of owner */
            st_rdev; /* device ID (if special file) */
   dev t
   off t
            st_size; /* total size, in bytes */
   blksize_t st_blksize; /* blocksize for file system I/0 */
   blkcnt_t st_blocks; /* number of 512B blocks allocated */
   time_t st_atime; /* time of last access */
   time_t st_mtime; /* time of last modification */
   time_t st_ctime; /* time of last status change */
```

};



Unix convention of mapping fixed file descriptor values to "standard" in/out is widely copied — allows for *I/O redirection*



```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
    int fd = open("foo.txt", O_CREAT|O_TRUNC|O_RDWR, 0644);
    dup2(fd, 1); /* set fd 1 (stdout) to be "foo.txt" */
    printf("Arg: %s\n", argv[1]);
}
```



```
int main(int argc, char *argv[]) {
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}
```

```
$ ./a.out hello!
$ ls -l foo.txt
-rw-r--r-- 1 lee staff 12 Feb 19 20:36 foo.txt
$ cat foo.txt
Arg: hello!
```



```
int main() {
    int fd = open("foo.txt", 0_CREAT|0_TRUNC|0_RDWR, 0644);
    if (fork() == 0) {
        dup2(fd, 1);
        execlp("echo", "echo", "hello!", NULL);
    }
    close(fd);
}
```

\$./a.out
\$ cat foo.txt
hello!



§FS Implementation



- 1. Mass storage (disk) systems
- 2. Volumes and Partitions
- 3. Names and Paths
- 4. File space allocation
- 5. Free space tracking



¶ Mass storage systems



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magnetic disks (HDDs) provide bulk of secondary storage

- rotating magnetic platters


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motor & belt driven





smaller & denser, but still *mechanical*





will focus on traditional HDDs for now ...

- still a valuable discussion
- HDDs will remain the mass storage device of choice for some time to come





idealized addressing: Cylinder, Head, Sector



a sector, historically, maps to a fixed 512-byte block of disk space

- minimum disk transfer size
- recently, drives are moving to 4K block sizes (but still support old mapping)



Disk access times = $\mathbf{S} + \mathbf{R} + \mathbf{T}$

- S: *seek time* (head movement)
- **R**: *rotational latency* (depends on angular velocity usually constant for HDDs)
- **T**: *transfer time* (relatively small)
- + "spin-up" time (discount for long I/O)



Disk access times = $\mathbf{S} + \mathbf{R} + \mathbf{T}$

- **S**: move to correct *cylinder*
- R: wait for *sector* to rotate under head
- T: move head across adjacent blocks



Some numbers:

- seek time = 3ms-15ms
- typical RPM = 7200 (range of 5.4-15K)
 - rot. latency = $\frac{1}{2}$ of period
 - -e.g., $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{60}{7200} \approx 4.17$ ms



Specifications	2 TB	2 TB	1.5 TB	1.5 TB	1 TB	1 TB
Model number	WD2002FAEX	WD2001FASS	WD1502FAEX	WD1501FASS	WD1002FAEX	WD1001FALS
Interface	SATA 6 Gb/s	SATA 3 Gb/s	SATA 6 Gb/s	SATA 3 Gb/s	SATA 6 Gb/s	SATA 3 Gb/s
Formatted capacity	2,000,398 MB	2,000,398 MB	1,500,301 MB	1,500,301 MB	1,000,204 MB	1,000,204 MB
User sectors per drive	3,907,029,168	3,907,029,168	2,930,277,168	2,930,277,168	1,953,525,169	1,953,525,169
SATA latching connector	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Form factor	3.5-inch	3.5-inch	3.5-inch	3.5-inch	3.5-inch	3.5-inch
RoHS compliant ²	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Performance						
Data transfer rate (max) Buffer to host Host to/from drive (sustained)	6 Gb/s 138 MB/s	3 Gb/s 138 MB/s	6 Gb/s 138 MB/s	3 Gb/s 138 MB/s	6 Gb/s 126 MB/s	3 Gb/s 126 MB/s
Cache (MB)	64	64	64	64	64	32
Average latency (ms)	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.2
Rotational speed (RPM)	7200	7200	7200	7200	7200	7200
Average drive ready time (sec)	21	21	21	21	11	11

by contrast, each channel of DDR3-2133 memory has max theoretical throughput: 2133 MHz × 8 bytes = 17064 MB/s ... only ~100× more than disk throughput?



138 MB/s is sustained rate

- unlikely when dealing with random, fragmented data on disk
- 6 Gb/s (750MB/s) is *buffer to memory* — not indicative of HDD speed



HDDs are best leveraged by reading *contiguous sectors* — i.e., w/o seeking



idea: optimize order of block requests to minimize seeks (most expensive operation) goals:

- maximize throughput
- minimize latency per response



province of disk head scheduler



CHS is useful for discussion:

- bigger difference in cylinders = larger head movement
- note: heads move as single unit



But CHS is unrealistic in modern drives: low density in outer cylinders!



Modern drives use *logical block addressing* (LBA)

- number blocks starting from 0 (innermost) to outermost, then back in on reverse side
- problem: no disk geometry info!
 - not so bad: LBA_i, LBA_{i+1} are at most
 1 cylinder apart



Disk head scheduling problem:

- given requests B₁, B₂, ... from processes, what seek order to send to disk controller?



Analogs to scheduling approaches:

- First come, first served (FCFS)
- Shortest Seek Time First (SSTF)
- Nearest Block Number First (NBNF)



as before, SSTF can result in starvation — or at best poor request latency!



how to alleviate starvation problem, and optimize wait time, responsiveness, etc.?



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"Elevator" Algorithms



SCAN:

- track from spindle \Leftrightarrow edge of disk
 - only service requests in the current direction of travel
- keep heading towards spindle/edge even if no requests in that direction



Variants of SCAN:

- C-SCAN: "circular" tracking
- F-SCAN: "freeze" request queue on direction change



LOOK:

reverse direction when no more requests variants: C-LOOK, F-LOOK



Demo: UTSA disk-head simulator



... but FSes may span more than just one storage device!



¶ Volumes and Partitions



Why volumes & partitions? - separate logical & physical storage layers - allow M:N mapping between FSes & disks



- A volume is a *logical* storage area. A partition is a *slice of a physical disk*.
 - a disk may have zero or more partitions
 - a partition may contain a volume
 - a volume may span one or more partitions
 - a *volume* may exist *independently of a partition* (e.g., ISO/DMG files)





GUID partition table scheme

courtesy Wikimedia Commons



(typically) partition \leq volume \leq FS

- inter-partition / inter-volume FS operations are more expensive!
 - separate metadata structures
 - separate caches



¶ Names and Paths



Requirement: a *fully qualified* filename *uniquely identifies* a set of data blocks on disk

- big filenames & "flat" namespace work, but are hard to reason about
- prefer *hierarchical* namespaces
 - fully qualified filename = name + *path*



/home/lee/cs450/slides/fs.pdf

- *absolute* path
- from "/home/lee/cs450",
 relative path is "./slides/fs.pdf"

- ("• " = current directory)


- one or more *root* namespaces
- typically can *mount* additional filesystems onto global namespace
 - support for multiple filesystems



e.g., Windows: - C:\foo.txt vs. D:\foo.txt e.g., Unix

- /home/lee/foo.txt
vs. /mnt/cdrom/foo.txt



What's in a name?

- path \rightarrow file must be unique
- file \rightarrow path??
- consider aliases/shortcuts:
 - -/bin/prog ↔ /home/lee/foo_prog
 - different *paths* may refer to same *file*



Directories provide *linking* structures - directory maps name → *file identifier*- file id is implementation specific - directories are also files (recursive def)



Link types:

- *hard* link: different names (possibly in different directories) map to same file
 - remove all hard links = removing file
- *soft/symbolic* link: file containing the name of another file
 - independent of whether file exists



note: soft links are possible *across partitions/ volumes*, but hard links aren't (usually)



To "find" a file:

- just need location of *root directory*
 - search recursively for path components
- trickier with multiple FSes
 - each logical *volume* of data contains its own high level metadata



¶ File space allocation



mapping problem: for a given file (by path or id), find (ordered) *list of data blocks*



considerations:

- good disk utilization
- efficiency (w.r.t. HDD seeks)
- random access
- scaleability



basic strategies:

- contiguous
- linked (decentralized)
- centralized
 - linked
 - indexed



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directory		
file	start	length
count	0	2
tr	14	3
mail	19	6
list	28	4
f	6	2

directory may double as metadata store, too (e.g., mode, owner)

contiguous allocation



pros:

- ideal for sequential HDD reads; reduce seeks → fast!
- random access is trivial

cons:

- clear disadvantage: *fragmentation*
 - affects utilization, placement ("all or nothing"), resizing



not used on its own, but *contiguous* **extents** are used in most modern file systems

- multiple of block size variable size
 - reserve in advance during allocation

- balance fragmentation & efficiency





linked allocation (*decentralized*)



pros:

- good utilization + allows resizing

cons:

- fragmentation \rightarrow lot of seeks = slow!
- no random access
- hard to protect file metadata!







pros:

- allows for random access
- used with extents, can limit fragmentation

disadvantages:

- centralized file metadata (robustness?)
- overhead incurred by central FAT
- *hard limit* on volume size!



also, unless directories maintain metadata, central structure has very limited space

e.g., where to put mode, ownership, ACL, timestamp, etc.?



e.g., MS-DOS file-allocation table (FAT)- FAT12, FAT16, FAT32 variants (based on sizes of FAT entry)



some MS FAT terminology: "sector": physical disk block (512 bytes) "cluster": fixed-size extent of 1-256 sectors (512 bytes - 128KB)



some limits: FAT12: 4K clusters x 512 = 2MB FAT16: 64K clusters x 8K = 512MB FAT32: only 28-bits of FAT entry useable, 268M clusters x 8K = 2TB



FAT12 requirements : 3 sectors on each copy of FAT for every 1,024 clusters
FAT16 requirements : 1 sector on each copy of FAT for every 256 clusters
FAT32 requirements : 1 sector on each copy of FAT for every 128 clusters

FAT12 range : 1 to 4,084 clusters : 1 to 12 sectors per copy of FAT
FAT16 range : 4,085 to 65,524 clusters : 16 to 256 sectors per copy of FAT
FAT32 range : 65,525 to 268,435,444 clusters : 512 to 2,097,152 sectors per copy of FAT

FAT12 minimum : 1 sector per cluster × 1 clusters = 512 bytes (0.5 KiB)
FAT16 minimum : 1 sector per cluster × 4,085 clusters = 2,091,520 bytes (2,042.5 KiB)
FAT32 minimum : 1 sector per cluster × 65,525 clusters = 33,548,800 bytes (32,762.5 KiB)

FAT12 maximum : 64 sectors per cluster × 4,084 clusters = 133,824,512 bytes (≈ 127 MiB)
[FAT12 maximum : 128 sectors per cluster × 4,084 clusters = 267,694,024 bytes (≈ 255 MiB)]

FAT16 maximum : 64 sectors per cluster × 65,524 clusters = 2,147,090,432 bytes (≈2,047 MiB)
[FAT16 maximum : 128 sectors per cluster × 65,524 clusters = 4,294,180,864 bytes (≈4,095 MiB)]

FAT32 maximum : 8 sectors per cluster × 268,435,444 clusters = 1,099,511,578,624 bytes (≈1,024 GiB)
FAT32 maximum : 16 sectors per cluster × 268,173,557 clusters = 2,196,877,778,944 bytes (≈2,046 GiB)
[FAT32 maximum : 32 sectors per cluster × 134,152,181 clusters = 2,197,949,333,504 bytes (≈2,047 GiB)]
[FAT32 maximum : 64 sectors per cluster × 67,092,469 clusters = 2,198,486,024,192 bytes (≈2,047 GiB)]
[FAT32 maximum : 128 sectors per cluster × 33,550,325 clusters = 2,198,754,099,200 bytes (≈2,047 GiB)]

source: <u>https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File_Allocation_Table</u>



file size limit theoretically = disk limit, but directory implementation constrains file sizes to 4GB in FAT32



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indexed allocation



files identified by index block number

- a.k.a. *inode* number
- directory is an inode "registry"
 - index of file name \rightarrow inode #
 - each entry is a *hard link*
 - directories are files, too, so they also have inodes



pros:

- allows for random access
- natural metadata store
- used with extents, can limit fragmentation

disadvantages:

- overhead incurred by index nodes
- limit on file size (# block references)



e.g., Unix File System, UFS (and all its descendants)





superblock contains FS metadata

- size of logical blocks
- location & number of inodes

inodes section contains per-file metadata

- # inodes = max # files





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e.g., UFS properties:

- 32-bit i-node pointers
- 4KB i-node/data blocks
- 8 direct, 2 single indirect, 1 double indirect pointer per i-node
- max disk / file size?



- 32-bit i-node pointers
- 4KB i-node/data blocks
- 8 direct, 2 single indirect, 1 double indirect pointer per i-node

max disk size = $4G \times 4KB = 16TB$



- 32-bit i-node pointers
- 4KB i-node/data blocks
- 8 direct, 2 single indirect, 1 double indirect pointer per i-node

directly addressed: $8 \times 4KB = 32KB$



- 32-bit i-node pointers
- 4KB i-node/data blocks
- 8 direct, 2 single indirect, 1 double indirect pointer per i-node
- each indirect block can hold 4KB / 4 bytes
- = 1 K pointers



- 32-bit i-node pointers
- 4KB i-node/data blocks
- 8 direct, 2 single indirect, 1 double indirect pointer per i-node

single indirect pointer = 1K x 4KB = 4MB two single indirect = 8MB


- 32-bit i-node pointers
- 4KB i-node/data blocks
- 8 direct, 2 single indirect, 1 double indirect pointer per i-node
- double indirect pointer = $1K \times 1K \times 4KB$
- = 4GB



- 32-bit i-node pointers
- 4KB i-node/data blocks
- 8 direct, 2 single indirect, 1 double indirect pointer per i-node

max file size = 32KB + 8MB + 4GB

† variable # block requests per data request (depending on location in file!)



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how to keep FS decoupled from OS?



need a *middle layer* — a *mediator* between FS specific constructs & abstract OS filerelated operations



VFS: "Virtual File System" layer

- Unix centric API between syscall API (open/close/read/write) & FSes
- every FS must implement generic analogues of: *inode*, *file*, *superblock*, *dentry*



each FS object has a table of function pointers (e.g., open/close/read/write) that are used by VFS to map syscalls



¶ Free space tracking



1. linked free blocks

- 2. free space bitmap
- 3. general disk-based data structures



1. linked free blocks



- no overhead
 - but *expensive* to traverse!
 - can optimize as a skip list
 - useful for extent search



2. free space bitmap



 $bit[i] = \begin{cases} 0 \Rightarrow block[i] occupied \\ 1 \Rightarrow block[i] free \end{cases}$

- simple to maintain & fast!
 - use machine instr. to locate first '1'



- block size = 2^{12} bytes (4KB)
- disk size = $1TB = 2^{40}$ bytes
 - free space bitmap = 2^{28} bits (32MB)
 - small enough to keep in memory
 - but beware synch issues



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optimization:

- break bitmap into subsets & build index of # free blocks → subset
 - speed up extent search
 - can lock subsets separately



3. general disk-based data structures



balanced search tree with very *large branching factor* (# pointers per block) — worth it?



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§FS Robustness



we like to think of the FS (unfortunately) as the "rock" of the OS

— when things go wrong (e.g., BSoD/ panic), hard restart and count on persisted data to save us



i.e., FS can't count on OS to play nice! e.g., unannounced crashes, incomplete operations, unflushed buffers, etc.



cannot ensure durability of in-memory data, but want to preserve *validity* of the file system when possible

e.g., file metadata is accurate, persisted data is not corrupted, etc.



Q: what *might* happen when a crash occurs?



important: differentiate between in-memory
(cached) and on-disk (persistent) structures
note: FS aggressively caches data!



e.g., disk block allocation 1. update free bitmap 2. update inode



1. update cached free bitmap 2. update vnode 3. write back inode 4. write back disk bitmap crash (durability problem)

user responsibility; e.g., Unix fsync syscall



1. update cached free bitmap 2. update vnode 3. write back inode 4. write back disk bitmap crash ("free" space in use!)

1. update cached free bitmap 2. update vnode 3. write back disk bitmap 4. write back inode crash (lost space)



e.g., file deletion (# links = 0) 1. remove directory link 2. free inode & data blocks crash ("orphaned" inodes)





soft updates: order software updates so that, in worst case, we only ever leak free space — generally speaking, update free-space structures last



leaked space isn't permanent! can perform manual consistency check of FS



e.g., UFS

- manually walk through all i-nodes and directory structures
- allocated i-nodes with 0 links can be reused
- allocated blocks with no referencing inodes can be "garbage collected"



the notorious "fsck" can report:

- Unreferenced inodes
- Link counts in inodes too large
- Missing blocks in the free map
- Blocks in the free map also in files
- Counts in the super-block wrong



BUT!

soft updates isn't trivial to implement, and may also conflict with caching needs no good! FS is already messy to begin with!



another approach to FS robustness:

journaling / logging



a. say what you're about to dob. do itc. say that you did it

a. record what you're about to dob. indicate that you finished (a)c. do itd. record that you did it

a. record FS update in journal entry
b. ensure journal entry is persisted
c. perform FS update
d. commit/delete journal entry

no journal entry on reboot; no possible of FS inconsistency
a. record FS update in journal entry
b. ensure journal entry is persisted
c. perform FS update
d. commit/delete journal entry

on reboot, find partial journal entry; no FS data corruption possible a. record FS update in journal entry
b. ensure journal entry is persisted
c. perform FS update
d. commit/delete journal entry crash

on reboot, journal shows incomplete FS update; replay entry to ensure FS consistency a. record FS update in journal entry
b. ensure journal entry is persisted
c. perform FS update
d. commit/delete journal entry

detect completed operation; commit/delete entry

journal enables FS transactions crash → replay journal; skip incomplete entries



drawback? huge overhead — "write-twice" penalty † cannot delay persisting journal entries



ease overhead: physical vs. semantic journals physical = record block-level data in journal semantic = record logical intent when possible



also, ensuring FS *consistency* arguably more important than short-term *data loss*

complete vs. metadata-only journal



Q: is there a way to eliminate the writetwice penalty and still get transactional behavior?



hint: think back to persistent data structures used to implement MVCC





"there is no spoon" (the file system *is the journal*)



log-structured FS: all FS updates are persisted to the end of the journal

- file updates are effectively *copy-on-write*
- current FS state = $\log replay$



for efficiency, periodically:

- garbage collect unreachable blocks, deleted files, etc., from log
- write FS checkpoints to avoid full replay



interesting benefit of LFS: *most writes are sequential* (but reads are scattered throughout the log)



nifty idea, but horrible fragmentation! impractical with HDDs, but what about SSDs? - robustness w/o write-twice penalty.

Hmmmmmmm.



interesting: SSDs already kind of do LFS with TRIM wear leveling — writes occur elsewhere on disk from "replaced" block

- long term performance of SSDs has similar pattern to LFSes
- SSDs are also fast-to-read, slower-towrite



Soft updates, journaling, and LFSes = *software* based solutions

hard drive crash?

#\$%&#\$#!!!!

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§Hardware level robustness



mean time to failure



1,000,000+ hours!



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"crap"

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Failure Trends in a Large Disk Drive Population (Google, FAST '07)



hard drive failure: question of **when**, not **if**!



redundancy





preventing downtime preventing data loss

S

Redundant Array of Independent Disks



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data robustness



secondary objectives:

- increased capacity
- improved performance



RAID array = one logical disk



transparent to OS/FS (ideally)



software vs. hardware RAID



RAID "levels"



combination of techniques 1. mirroring

- 2. striping
- 3. parity



Data bits	Odd Parity	Even Parity
0101010	00101010	1 0101010
0000011	1 0000011	0000011



Bit positi	on	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	
Encoded dat	a bits	p1	p2	d1	p4	d2	d3	d4	p8	d5	d6	d7	d8	d9	d10	d11	p16	d12	d13	d14	d15	
	p1	х		х		х		х		х		х		х		х		х		х		
Parity	p2		х	х			х	х			х	х			х	х			х	х		
bit	p4				х	х	х	х					х	х	х	х					х	
coverage	p8								х	х	х	х	х	х	х	х						
	p16																х	х	х	х	х	

Diagram courtesy Wikipedia


$B_1 \oplus B_2 \oplus \ldots \oplus B_{N-1} \oplus B_N \Longrightarrow B_P$ $B_1 \oplus B_2 \oplus \ldots \oplus B_{N-1} \oplus B_P \Longrightarrow B_N$







figures courtesy Wikimedia Commons





RAID 1 A1 A1 A2 A2 **A**3 **A**3 A4 A4 Disk 0 Disk 1







Raid 0 Raid 1 Raid 1 Rai'd 1 120 GB 120[']GB 120 GB 120[']GB 120[']GB 120[']GB $\overline{A8}$ <u>A8</u> A10 A10 A11 A11 2 2





RAID 3 A1 A2 A3 **A**p (1-3) A5 A6 A4 **A**p (4-6) **B1** B2 **B**3 Bp (1-3) B4 B5 B6 **B**p (4-6) Disk 0 Disk 1 Disk 2 Disk 3



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RAID 4 bottleneck! **A1** A2 A3 Ap B2 **B**3 **B1** Bp C3 C1 C2 Cp D2 D3 D1 Dp Disk 0 Disk 1 Disk 2 Disk 3 Update: $A_1 \oplus A_2 \oplus A_3 \oplus A_3 \oplus A_3' \Rightarrow A_P'$ 🐺 IIT College of Science

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RAID 5 A1 A2 A3 Ap **B1** B2 Bp B3 C3 C1 C2 Cp D3 D1 D2 Dp Disk 0 Disk 1 Disk 2 Disk 3



cience

cience

write penalty



battle **a**gainst **a**ny **r**aid **f**ive http://www.baarf.com/



data & parity updates separate



failure in between?



write hole



caching / non-volatile storage



Science

vs. RAID 10



RAID 6 A2 Α3 A1 Aq Ap **B1** Β2 $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{q}$ Β3 Bр C2 C1 C3 C_{p} C_q D2 D1 D3 D_p D_{q} Disk 0 Disk 1 Disk 2 Disk 3 Disk 4





Compute: Science

§Case study: xv6 (Unix)

