ECE590-03 Enterprise Storage Architecture

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Two views of file system usage

- User data view:
	- "How large are my files?" (bytes-used metric) or "How much capacity am I given?" (bytes-available metric)
	- **Bytes-used**: Total size = sum of all file sizes
	- **Bytes-available**: Total size = volume size or "quota"
	- Ignore file system overhead, metadata, etc.
	- In pay-per-byte storage (e.g. cloud), you charge based bytes-used
	- In pay-for-container storage (e.g. a classic webhost), you charge based on bytes-available
- Stored data view:
	- How much actual disk space is used to hold the data?
	- Total usage is a separate measurement from file size or available space!
		- \bullet " \vert s – \vert " vs. "du"
	- Includes file system overhead and metadata
	- Can be reduced with *trickery*
	- If you're the service provider, you buy enough disks for this value

Storage efficiency

• StorageEfficiency =

UserData StoredData

- Without storage efficiency features, this value is < 1.0. Why?
	- File system metadata (inodes, superblocks, indirect blocks, etc.)
	- Internal fragmentation (on a file system with 4kB blocks, a 8193 byte file uses three data blocks; the last block is almost entirely unused)
	- RAID overhead (e.g. a 4-disk RAID5 has 25% overhead)
- Can we add features to storage system to go above 1.0?
	- Yes (otherwise I wouldn't have a slide deck called "storage efficiency")

Why improve storage efficiency?

- Why do we want to improve storage efficiency?
	- Buy fewer disks! Reduce costs!
	- If we're a service provider, you charge based on user data, but your costs are based on stored data. Result: More efficiency $=$ more profit (and the customer never has to know)
- Note: all these techniques **depend on workload**

More efficient RAID

Snapshot/clone

Zero-block elimination

Thin provisioning

Deduplication

Compression

RAID efficiency

- What's the overhead of a 4-disk RAID5?
	- $1/4 = 25\%$
- How to improve?
	- More disks in the RAID
- What's the overhead of a 20-disk RAID5?
	- $1/20 = 5\%$
- Problem with this?
	- Double disk failure very likely for such a large RAID
- How to fix?
	- More redundancy, e.g. RAID-6 (Odds of triple disk failure are << odds of double disk failure, because we're ANDing unlikely events over a small timespan)
- What's the overhead of a 20-disk RAID6?
	- $2/20 = 10\%$

• **Result: Large arrays can achieve higher efficiency than small arrays**

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Snapshots and clones

- This one is simple.
- If you want a copy of some data, and you don't need to write to the copy: **snapshot**.
	- Example: in-place backups to restore after accidental deletion, corruption, etc.
- If you want a copy of some data, and you do need to write to the copy: **clone**.
	- Example: copy of source code tree to do a test build against

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Zero block elimination

- This one is also simple.
- If the user writes a block of all zeroes, just note this in metadata; don't allocate any data blocks
- Why would the user do that?
	- Initializing storage for random writes (e.g. databases, BitTorrent)
	- Sparse on-disk data structures (e.g. large matrices, big data)
	- A "secure erase": overwrite data blocks to prevent recovery*

* Note that this form of secure erase only works if you're actually overwriting blocks in-place. We've learned that this isn't the case in log-structured and data-journaled file systems as well as inside SSDs. Secure data destruction is something we'll discuss when we get to security...

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Thin provisioning

- Technique to improve efficiency for the bytes-available metric
- Based on insight in how people size storage requirements
- System administrator:
	- "I need storage for this app. I don't know exactly how much it needs."
	- "If I guess too low, it runs out of storage and fails, and I get yelled at."
	- "If I guess too high, it works and has room for the future."
	- Conclusion: Always guess high.

Thin provisioning

- Storage provider:
	- "Four sysadmins need storage, each says they need 40 TB."
	- "I know they're all over-estimating their needs."
	- "Therefore, the odds that all of them need all their storage is very low."
	- "I can't tell them I think they're lying and give them less, or they'll yell at me."
	- "Therefore, each admin must *think* they have 40TB to use"
	- "I don't want to pay for 4*40=160TB of storage because I know most of it will remain unused."
	- **"I will pool a lesser amount of storage together, and everyone can pull from the same pool (thin provisioning)"**

Thin provisioning

- Result:
	- Buy 100TB of raw storage
	- For each sysadmin, make a 40TB file system (NAS) or LUN (SAN)
	- When used, all four containers use blocks from the 100TB pool

Managing thin provisioning

- Storage is "**over-subscribed**" (more allocated than available)
	- Need to monitor usage and add capacity ahead of running out
- Administrator can set their *risk level*:
	- More over-subscribed $=$ cheaper, but more risk of running out if a sudden burst in usage happens
	- Less over-subscribed $=$ more expensive, less risk

Managing thin provisioning

Reservations

- Per-user guarantees: "reservations"
	- Can set controller to guarantee a certain capacity per user
	- Reservations must add up to less than total capacity
- Example: Every user guaranteed $100/4 = 25TB$
	- Limits damage if capacity runs out
- Example: Priority app guaranteed 40TB, rest have no reservation
	- Priority app will ALWAYS get its full capacity, even if system otherwise fills up

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Deduplication

• Basic concept:

- Split the file in to chunks
- Hash each chunk with a big hash
- If hashes match, data matches:
	- Replace this with a reference to the matching data
- Else:
	- It's new data, store it.

Common deduplication data structures

- What I said at the start of the course about the dedupe project:
	- Metadata:
		- Directory structure, permissions, size, date, etc.
		- Each file's contents are stored as a **list of hashes**
	- Data pool:
		- A flat table of hashes and the data they belong to
		- Must keep a reference count to know when to free an entry
- \land A perfectly fine way to make a simple dedupe system in FUSE
- But now we know more:
	- Rather than files being a list of hashes, a deduplicating *file system* can use the inode's usual block pointers!
		- Difference: multiple block pointers can point to the same block
		- Blocks have reference counts
		- Block hash -> block number table stored on disk (and cached in memory as hash table)

Inline vs. post-process

- From the project intro: **Eager** or **lazy**?
- Real terms: **inline** vs **post-process**
- Inline:
	- When a write occurs, determine the resulting block hash and deduplicate at that time.
	- + File system is always fully deduplicated
	- + Simple implementation
	- Writes are slowed by additional computation
- Post-process
	- Write committed normally, background daemon periodically hashes unhashed blocks to deduplicate them.
	- + Low overhead to the write itself
	- $-$ More overall writes to disk (write $+$ read $+$ possible change)
	- Disk not fully deduplicated until later (increased average space usage)
	- Need to synchronize user I/Os versus background daemon I/Os for consistency

LOL industry

- Choice between inline and post-process is clear tradeoff, no one right answer.
- That doesn't stop industry vendors from using it to spread FUD (Fear, Uncertainty, and Doubt).

"Post-process dedupe will ruin your storage and punch your dog!"

22 "Post-process dedupe makes writes faster, anything that lacks it must be slow!"

Fixed vs. variable-sized blocks

• Insertion/deletion: A common modification.

(Side note: you can't literally "insert" or "delete" stuff to a file and have it shift like this – your text editor reads the whole file, you change it in RAM, then you save the whole file. The actual file system only supports in-place changes; no shifts.)

Fixed vs. variable-sized blocks

• Insertion/deletion: A common modification.

• With 8-byte fixed-sized blocks:

- All blocks past the change differ!
- Bad, because this is a common case

Variable-sized blocks

- What if, instead of fixed-sized blocks, we made blocks divided based on the *content* of the file?
	- Resulting blocks may be of variable size
- Naive rule: divide a block whenever there's a space

MY TEXT FILE|Th<mark>is </mark>is <mark>my text file.|It contains bytes.|I like </mark>my text file.|It is a very good

TEXT FILE |By Tyler Bletsch|This is my text file.|I like my text file.|It is a very good text

- Way more blocks match! Mismatches only near the insertion/deletion, which is what we want!
- Could there be any issue with the "divide on space" rule?
	- Yes, obviously. Blocks too small (text file), or blocks too large (binary file).
	- Need a content-based dividing rule that won't go crazy on specific data

Rabin-Karp Fingerprinting

• Hash every offset with a "sliding window":

liii
a7₈₃2 **...** MY TEXT FILE|By Tyler Bletsch|This is my text file.|I like my text file.|It is a very good text file.|01234567890123456789...

- Declare a block boundary every time the hash value equals a "special constant" (e.g. zero)
- Boundaries will depend on data, but in a "deterministically random" way (i.e. the byte sequences that cause division won't be "special" in any way)
- Parameters:
	- **Hash size:** On average, block size will be 2^{hash_bits}; can select hash size to give desired average block size
	- **Window size:** How much data to consider to make boundaries. The number of byte sequences that result in a boundary is, on average, 2 window_bits – hash_bits

Rabin-Karp Fingerprinting

- Efficiency: all those hashes must be expensive, right?
	- Given windows size **^m** and file size **n**, don't you need **m*n** hashes?
	- Not if we use trickery: **rolling hash**

• Now just one "hash" and **n-m** "hash updates"

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Compression

- Represent the data with fewer bits.
- Fundamental concept: Identify patterns which can be abbreviated
	- Many, many, many algorithms out there beyond scope of course
		- Lempel-Ziv and descendants (deflate, PKZIP, GZIP, etc.)
		- Probabilistic models
		- Grammar-based codes
- A truth we've seen a hundred times: this is a tradeoff
	- Time vs. storage

Challenge when applied to disk storage

- Still need to **seek**: if we compress a file end-to-end, we don't know where to go to find a given offset
	- Solutions:

Upcoming example

- Compress blocks rather than files
- Store some kind of index to allow seeking in compressed data (e.g., an uncompressed offset -> compressed offset table)
- Probably other ideas...
- **Block storage:** If we compress a data block, but we still store it in a disk block, we didn't save anything...
	- Solutions:

Upcoming example

- Pack multiple compressed blocks into one real block
- Consider larger "chunks" and compress them down to fewer blocks
- Probably other ideas...

Compression with compaction

• Compression with simple compaction

• Data block pointers are now {block_num, offset, length}

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Compaction

- Remember how we were able to ignore zero-blocks?
- What if a block is partially zeroed...can we take advantage of that?
- Basically same as the compaction step we saw in compression, except just for zero data
	- Simple idea, probably not worth doing unless you're already doing the other stuff

Compression with compaction

• Compression with simple compaction

• Data block pointers are now {block_num, offset, length} (again)

Conclusion

- There are many ways to reduce physical storage needs
- By doing many at once, can often cut storage needs dramatically $(50\% +)$

• **Depends strongly on workload:**

- Example: For a long time, NetApp ran a promotion called the "NetApp 50% Virtualization Guarantee": if you're storing VMs on NetApp, they guaranteed you'd need 50% less disk capacity vs. competitors. They pay you otherwise.
	- Note: NetApp arrays are large, VMs are often cloned, virtual disks are sparse, have low average utilization, lots of duplication, and are often compressible.
	- Result: They very rarely had to pay out.