



龙星计划课程: 文件系统和分布式数据管理系统

Building File Systems and Distributed Data Management Systems for Performance and Reliability

Lecture 2: Distributed File Systems

Filesystems Overview

- □ Permanently stores data
- □ Usually layered on top of a lower-level physical storage medium
- Divided into logical units called "files"
 - Addressable by a *filename* ("foo.txt")
 - Usually supports hierarchical nesting (directories)
- A file *path* = relative (or absolute) directory + file name
 /dir1/dir2/foo.txt

Distributed Filesystems

- □ Support access to files on remote servers
- ☐ *Must* support concurrency
 - Make varying guarantees about locking, who "wins" with concurrent writes, etc...
 - Must gracefully handle dropped connections
- □ Can offer support for replication and local caching
- Different implementations sit in different places on complexity/feature scale

Putting Everything Together: the CAP Theorem

No distributed system can simultaneously provide all three of the following properties: Consistency (all nodes see the same data at the same time), Availability (node failures do not prevent survivors from continuing to operate), and Partition tolerance (the system continues to operate despite arbitrary message loss).



Google's GFS: Motivation

□ Google needed a good distributed file system

- Redundant storage of massive amounts of data on cheap and unreliable computers
- □ Why not use an existing file system?
 - Google's problems are different from anyone else's
 - Different workload and design priorities
 - > GFS is designed for Google apps and workloads
 - Google apps are designed for GFS

Assumptions

High component failure rates

- > Inexpensive commodity components fail all the time
- □ "Modest" number of HUGE files
 - ➤ Just a few million
 - Each is 100MB or larger; multi-GB files typical
- $\hfill \Box$ Files are write-once, mostly appended to
 - Perhaps concurrently
- □ Large streaming reads
- □ High sustained throughput favored over low latency

GFS Design Decisions

- □ Files stored as chunks
 - ➢ Fixed size (64MB)
- □ Reliability through replication
 - Each chunk replicated across 3+ *chunkservers*
- □ **Single** master to coordinate access, keep metadata
- □ Simple centralized management
- □ *No* data caching
 - > Little benefit due to large data sets, streaming reads
- □ Familiar interface, but customize the API
 - Simplify the problem; focus on Google apps
 - Add *snapshot* and *record append* operations

GFS Architecture



Each chunk is identified by an immutable and globally unique 64 bit *chunk handle* assigned by the master at the time of chunk creation.

... Can anyone see a potential weakness in this design?

Single master

□ Problem:

- Single point of failure
- Scalability bottleneck

☐ GFS solutions:

- Shadow masters
- Minimize master involvement
 - ✓ never move data through it, use only for metadata and cache metadata at clients
 - ✓ large chunk size
 - ✓ master delegates authority to primary replicas in data mutations (chunk leases)
- □ Simple, and good enough for Google's concerns



□ Global metadata is stored on the master

- File and chunk namespaces
- Mapping from files to chunks
- Locations of each chunk's replicas
- □ All in memory (64 bytes / chunk)
 - ≻ Fast
 - Easily accessible
- Master has an *operation log* for persistent logging of critical metadata updates
 - Persistent on local disk
 - Replicated
 - Checkpoints for faster recovery

Master's Responsibilities

- ☐ Metadata storage
- Namespace management/locking
- □ Periodic communication with chunkservers
 - give instructions, collect state, track cluster health
- □ Chunk creation, re-replication, rebalancing
 - balance space utilization and access speed
 - spread replicas across racks to reduce correlated failures
 - re-replicate data if redundancy falls below threshold
 - rebalance data to smooth out storage and request load
- Garbage Collection
 - simpler, more reliable than traditional file delete
 - master logs the deletion, renames the file to a hidden name
 - lazily garbage collects hidden files
- □ Stale replica deletion
 - detect "stale" replicas using chunk version numbers

Mutations

- \Box Mutation = write or record append
 - > Must be done for all replicas
- Goal: *minimize* master involvement
- ☐ Lease mechanism:
 - Master picks one replica as primary of a chunk; gives it a "lease" for mutations
- Data flow decoupled from control flow



- 1. Application originates the read request
- 2. GFS client translates request and sends it to master
- 3. Master responds with chunk handle and replica locations





- 4. Client picks a location and sends the request
- 5. Chunkserver sends requested data to the client
- 6. Client forwards the data to the application



Write Algorithm

- 1. Application originates the request
- 2. GFS client translates request and sends it to the master
- 3. Master responds with chunk handle and replica locations, which are cached by the client.





4. Client pushes write data to all locations. Data is stored in chunkserver's internal buffers





- 5. Client sends write command to primary
- 6. Primary determines serial order for data instances in its buffer and writes the instances in that order to the chunk
- 7. Primary sends the serial order to the secondaries and tells them to perform the write



Write Algorithm

- 8. Secondaries respond back to primary
- 9. Primary responds back to the client



Atomic Record Append

□ GFS appends it to the file atomically at least once
 ▶ GFS *picks* the offset

> Works for concurrent writers

□ Used heavily by Google apps

e.g., for files that serve as multiple-producer/singleconsumer queues

> Merge results from multiple machines into one file

Garbage Collection

 \Box Use garbage collection instead of immediate reclamation when a file is deleted:

- The master only records chunks (files) that have been removed.
- Attached with HeartBeat messages, chunkservers know which of their chunks that are orphaned and can be removed.
- □ Why garbage collection and not eager deletion?
 - Simple and reliable as the master doesn't send and manage deletion messages.
 - Batched operation for lower amortized cost and better timing.
 - The delay provides a safety net against accidental, irreversible deletion.



☐ High availability

- ≻ Fast recovery
 - \checkmark master and chunkservers restartable in a few seconds
- Chunk replication
 - ✓ default: 3 replicas.
- ➤ Shadow masters

Data integrity

Checksum every 64KB block in each chunk

Conclusion

- □ GFS demonstrates how to support large-scale processing workloads on commodity hardware
 - > design to tolerate frequent component failures
 - optimize for huge files that are mostly appended and read
 - Feel free to relax and extend FS interface as required
 - go for simple solutions (e.g., single master)
- □ GFS has met Google's storage needs, therefore good enough for them.

Facebook's Photo Storage: Motivation

- □ Facebook stores over 260 billion images
 - ➤ 20 PB of data
- □ Users upload one billion new images each week
 - ➢ 60 TB of data
- Facebook serves over one million images per second at peak
- □ Two types of workloads for image serving
 - > Profile pictures heavy access, smaller size
 - > Photo albums intermittent access, higher at beginning, decreasing over time (long tail)
- Data is written once, read often, never modified, and rarely deleted

Long Tail Issue



Problem Description

Four main goals for photo serving method:

- High throughput and low latency
 - Current file systems need multiple disk accesses for a read
 - Only one data access for a read, metadata are reduced to fit in memory
- Fault-tolerant

Haystack replicates each photo in geographically distinct locations

- Cost-effective
 - Save money over traditional approaches (reduce reliance on CDNs!)
- Simplicity
 - Make it easy to implement and maintain

Typical Design



Figure 1: Typical Design

Facebook's Old Design



Figure 2: NFS-based Design



The old photo infrastructure consisted of several tiers:

- Upload tier receives users' photo uploads, scales the original images and saves them on the NFS storage tier.
- Photo serving tier receives HTTP requests for photo images and serves them from the NFS storage tier.
- NFS storage tier built on top of commercial storage appliances.

Features of Old Design

- Since each image is stored in its own file, there is an enormous amount of metadata generated on the storage tier due to the namespace directories and file inodes.
- The amount of metadata far exceeds the caching abilities of the NFS storage tier, resulting in multiple I/O operations per photo upload or read request
- After optimization, there are three disk accesses: one to read the directory metadata into memory, a second to load the inode into memory, and a third to read the file contents)
- \Box High degree of reliance on CDNs = expensive

Design of Haystack



Figure 3: Serving a photo

Step-through of Operation

- User visits page
- Web server receives the request
- Uses Haystack Directory to construct URL for each photo
- -http://<CDN>/<Cache>/<Machine id>/<Logical
 volume, Photo>
- -From which CDN to request the photo
- This portion may be omitted if the photo is available directly from the Cache
- If CDN is unsuccessful, contacts the Cache





Figure 3: Serving a photo

Haystack Directory

Four main functions...

- Provides a mapping from logical volumes to physical volumes
- Load balances writes across logical volumes
- Determines whether a photo request should be handled by the CDN or by the Haystack Cache
- Identifies logical volumes that are read-only
 - -Operational reasons
 - -Reached storage capacity





Figure 3: Serving a photo

Distributed hash table, uses photo's id to locate cached data

Receives HTTP requests from CDNs and browsers

- If photo is in Cache, return the photo
- If photo is not in Cache, fetches photo from the Haystack Store and returns the photo

Add a photo to Cache if two conditions are met...

- The request comes directly from a browser, not the CDN
- The photo is fetched from a write-enabled store machine

Cache Hit Rate



Figure 9: Cache hit rate for images that might be potentially stored in the Haystack Cache.




Figure 3: Serving a photo

Layout of Haystack Store File



A Closer Look at the Needles...

 A needle is uniquely identified by its <Offset, Key, Alternate Key, Cookie> tuple, where the offset is the needle offset in the haystack store.

Header Magic Number	Magic number used to find the next possible needle during recovery		
Cookie	Security cookie supplied by the client application to prevent brute force attack		
Key	64-bit object key		
Alternate Key	32-bit object alternate key		
Flags	Currently only one signifying that the object has been removed		
Size	Data size		
Footer Magic Number	Magic number used to find the possible needle end during recovery		
Data Checksum	Checksum for the data portion of the needle		
Padding	Total needle size is aligned to 8 bytes		

Haystack Index File



Key	64-bit object key	
Alternate Key	32-bit object alternate key	
Flags	Currently unused	
Offset	Needle offset in the haystack store	
Size	Needle data size	

Haystack Index File

The index file provides the minimal metadata required to locate a particular needle in the store

- Main purpose: allow quick loading of the needle metadata into memory without traversing the larger Haystack store file upon restarting
- Index is usually less than 1% the size of the store file

Haystack Store

- Each Store machine manages multiple physical volumes
- Can access a photo quickly using only the id of the corresponding logical volume and the file offset of the photo
- □ Handles three types of requests...
 - Read
 - Write
 - Delete

Haystack Store Read

- □ Cache machine supplies the logical volume id, key, alternate key, and cookie to the Store machine
 - -- Purpose of the cookie?
- □ Store machine looks up the relevant metadata in its inmemory mappings
- Seeks to the appropriate offset in the volume file, reads the entire needle
- □ Verifies cookie and integrity of the data
- □ Returns data to the Cache machine

Haystack Store Write

- Web server provides logical volume id, key, alternate key, cookie, and data to Store machines
- Store machines synchronously append needle images to physical volume files
- □ Update in-memory mappings as needed

Haystack Store Delete

- □ Store machine sets the delete flag in both the in-memory mapping and in the volume file
- □ Space occupied by deleted needles is lost!
 - How to reclaim?
 - Compaction!
 - Important because 25% of photos get deleted in a given year.

Haystack Advantages

Reduced disk I/O

- 10 TB/node -> 10 GB of metadata
 - This amount is easily cacheable!

Simplified metadata

- No directory structures/file names
 - 64-bit ID
- Results in easier lookups

Single photo serving and storage layer

- Direct I/O path between client and storage
- Results in higher bandwidth

Microsoft's Flat Storage System

Flat Datacenter Storage (FDS) is a high-performance, fault-tolerant, large-scale, locality-oblivious blob store.

E. B. Nightingale et al. "Flat Datacenter Storage", OSDI'12.

Context: why do we need a <u>locality-oblivious</u> FDS? Here is what we need for a single machine or computer

- bunch of processors
- bunch of disks
- controller



Writing

- Fine-grained write striping → statistical multiplexing → high disk utilization
- Good performance and disk efficiency



Reading

We get full **performance** out of the disks because all the disks stay busy even if some processes consume data slowly and other quickly

Programmers can pretend there's just one disk

If the need is to attack a large problem in **parallel** the input doesn't need to be partitioned in advance.)

Another benefit is that is easy to adjust the **ratio** of processors and disks



How much can this architecture scale?





- In FDS, data is stored in blobs
- A blob is named with a GUID
- Reads from and writes to a blob are done in units called tracts.
- Each tract within a blob is numbered sequentially starting from 0.





The metadata server coordinates the cluster and helps clients meet with tractservers.



How does the client know which tractserver should be used to read or write a tract?"





Failure Recovery

This simple method of replication is very slow.

- In FDS, when a disk dies, the goal isn't to reconstruct an exact duplicate of the disk that died.
- FDS wants to make sure that somewhere in the system, extra copies of the lost data get made. It doesn't matter where.
- When a disk dies all the other disks contain some backup copies of that disk's data. Every disk sends (in parallel) a copy of its small part of the lost data to some other disk that has some free space.
- Recovery's speed grows linearly whith N

FDS Recovery Solution



Constructing the Table for Quick Recovery

Locator	Disk 1	Disk 2	Disk 3
1	Α	В	С
2	Α	С	z
3	Α	D	н
4	Α	E	м
5	Α	F	С
6	Α	G	Р
648	z	w	н
649	z	х	L
650	z	Ŷ	С

- All disk pairs appear in the table
- *n* disks each recover 1/*n*th of the lost data in parallel

Locator	Disk 1	Disk 2	Disk 3
1	🔪 М	В	С
2	🔨 🔪 S	С	z
3	🔨 R	D	н
4	🔨 🔪 D	E	м
5	🔪 S	F	С
6	🔨 N	G	Р
648	Z	w	н
649	Z	x	L
650	z	Y	С

- All disk pairs appear in the table
- *n* disks each recover 1/*n*th of the lost data in parallel

<u>Ceph: A Scalable, High-Performance</u> <u>Distributed File System</u>

Scalability

• Storage capacity, throughput, client performance. Emphasis on HPC.

Reliability

• "...failures are the norm rather than the exception..."

Performance

• Dynamic workloads

S. A. Weil et al., "Ceph: A Scalable, High-Performance Distributed File System", in OSDI'06





System Overview



Key Features

Decoupled data and metadata

- CRUSH
 - Files striped onto predictably named objects
 - CRUSH maps objects to storage devices
- Dynamic Distributed Metadata Management
 - Dynamic subtree partitioning
 - Distributes metadata amongst MDSs

Object-based storage

• OSDs handle migration, replication, failure detection and recovery

<u>Client Operation</u>

Ceph interface

- Nearly POSIX
- Decoupled data and metadata operation

User space implementation

• FUSE or directly linked

<u>Client Access Example</u>

- 1. Client sends *open* request to MDS
- 2. MDS returns capability, file inode, file size and stripe information (map file data into objects)
- 3. Client read/write directly from/to OSDs
- 4. MDS manages the capability
- 5. Client sends *close* request, relinquishes capability, provides MDS with the new file size

Distributed Object Storage

Files are split across objects

Objects are members of placement groups

Placement groups are distributed across OSDs.



CRUSH takes the placement group and an *OSD cluster map*: a compact, hierarchical description of the devices comprising the storage cluster.

<u>CRUSH</u>

$CRUSH(x) \rightarrow (osd_{n1}, osd_{n2}, osd_{n3})$

- Inputs
 - x is the placement group
 - Hierarchical cluster map
 - Placement rules
- Outputs a list of OSDs

Advantages

- Anyone can calculate object location
- Cluster map infrequently updated

Replication

Objects are replicated on OSDs in terms of placement groups, each of which is mapped to an ordered list of n OSDs (for n-way replication).

Client is oblivious to replication



Acronyms

- **CRUSH**: Controlled Replication Under Scalable Hashing
- **EBOFS**: Extent and B-tree based Object File System
- **HPC**: High Performance Computing
- MDS: MetaData server
- **OSD**: Object Storage Device
- PG: Placement Group
- **POSIX**: Portable Operating System Interface for uniX
- **RADOS**: Reliable Autonomic Distributed Object Store

Summary of Ceph

- □ Scalability, Reliability, Performance
- □ Separation of data and metadata
 - -- CRUSH data distribution function
- Object based storage