Modern File Systems

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Outline

Modern File Systems

Review

Introduction

Example: ZFS

Data Reduction

Summary

- What is the purpose of direct I/O?
 - 1. Disable the use of stackable file systems
 - 2. Circumvent the operating system's page cache
 - 3. Send requests directly to the storage device

- Why are file and directory names stored in the directory entry?
 - 1. Improve performance
 - 2. Allow multiple names for a file or directory
 - 3. No space left in the inode

- What is the benefit of using extents vs. block pointers?
 - 1. Less management overhead
 - 2. Improved performance
 - 3. Allow addressing larger files

- What is the purpose of a file system journal?
 - 1. Improve performance
 - 2. Guarantee consistency in case of a crash
 - 3. Provide redundancy in case of errors

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- Reminder: File systems take care of structuring storage
 - They manage data and metadata (permissions, timestamps etc.)
 - One of the most important aspects is block allocation and management
- File systems use underlying storage devices and arrays
 - Examples: Logical Volume Manager (LVM), mdadm
- File systems typically only offer rudimentary functions
 - · Creating, deleting, reading and writing files and directories
 - · Storage devices and arrays have to be managed separately

Overview Introduction

- · Requirements for file systems keep growing
 - Data integrity to be able to access data in the future
 - · Storage management for large storage systems
 - · Convenience functions to simplify workflows
- Error rates for SATA HDDs are around 1 in 10¹⁴ to 10¹⁵ bits [Seagate, 2020]
 - That is, one bit error happens every 12.5–125 TB
 - · Additional errors may occur in RAM, the controller, cables, the driver etc.
- Error rate can be problematic especially with today's HDD capacities
 - These data volumes are reachable even in daily use
 - Bit errors can also happen in important data structures such as the superblock

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Overview... Introduction

- File system usually does not have knowledge about the storage array
 - Storage array also does not know about file system contents
 - Even block allocation status is unknown without TRIM/DISCARD
- · Mutual knowledge can be important to achieve optimal performance
 - For instance, ext4 offers special options: -E stride=n,stripe_width=m
 - stride denotes the number of file system blocks per storage device
 - stripe_width denotes the number of file system blocks per stripe
- Reconstruction times are high due to missing knowledge about contents
 - Reconstruction can take ≥ 20 h with today's HDD capacities

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 - · Both techniques can improve throughput and capacity
- · Encryption to keep data safe
 - Especially important in industry but also for important research

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- Compression and deduplication to reduce the amount data
 - · Both techniques can improve throughput and capacity
- · Encryption to keep data safe
 - · Especially important in industry but also for important research
- · Efficient backups that do not require scanning the whole namespace
 - Storage systems can easily reach petabytes of data

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- ZFS is used as an example here
 - The basic principles can be found in other modern file systems as well
 - Further examples: btrfs, bcachefs, Stratis etc.
- ZFS is a local meta file system
 - It was previously called the Zettabyte File System, today just ZFS
 - ZFS contains an integrated volume manager and much more
- It has been initially developed by Sun Microsystems
 - 2001: Start of development
 - 2005: First publication in OpenSolaris
 - 2006: First publication in Solaris 10
 - 2008: ZFS-based appliances
 - · 2010: Oracle ends development as open source

Example: ZFS

- Recent developments
 - 2010: Separation of illumos
 - 2013: Start of the OpenZFS initiative
 - 2013: Supported as a backend file system in Lustre
 - 2019: Reintegration of ZFS on Linux into OpenZFS
- Many operating systems are supported
 - Solaris: Closed source, incompatible with OpenZFS
 - OS X: OpenZFS on OS X (O3X)
 - FreeBSD: Full support
 - Linux: ZFS on Linux (many distributions)
- CDDL and GPL are incompatible
 - · Full integration into Linux is therefore complicated

Compatibility Example: ZFS

- Both the file system's functionality an its on disk format are versioned
 - Sun and Oracle used an incrementing version number
 - Compatibility is limited due to Oracle continuing development as closed source
- OpenZFS uses a development model with feature flags
 - The version was pinned to 1000 or 5000
 - Examples: async_destroy, lz4_compress, embedded_data and large_blocks
 - async_destroy: File systems are destroyed in the background
 - 1z4_compress: Makes available lz4 as a compression algorithm
 - embedded_data: Files that are smaller than 112 bytes can be stored in the block pointer
 - large_blocks: Blocks can get larger than 128 KiB

Features Example: ZFS

- ZFS is the first 128 bit file system
 - 64 bits are sufficient for adressing 16 EiB
 - 128 bits cannot be utilized fully
 - "Populating 128-bit file systems would exceed the quantum limits of earth-based storage. You couldn't fill a 128-bit storage pool without boiling the oceans."
 - Jeff Bonwick, former ZFS head of development
- Data integrity is an essential feature
 - · Errors are detected and repaired automatically
- · Easy administration paired with high performance
 - Administration only requires two tools

- · Reading, writing, creating and deleting files and directories
- Creating and destroying file systems and pools
- Enabling and disabling compression
- · Changing the checksum algorithm

Simulating crashes

- Adding and removing devices
- Changing the caching and scheduling strategies
- Writing random data to one half of a mirror
- "Probably more abuse in 20 seconds than you'd see in a lifetime."
 - leff Bonwick, former ZFS head of development

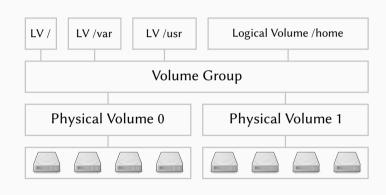
- Traditional file systems often use outdated concepts
- · No protection against data corruption
 - ext4 can only save checksums for metadata
- · High administration overhead
 - Storage devices have to be grouped into storage arrays
 - Devices and arrays have to be partitioned
 - · Partitions have to be formatted
- Traditional concepts are often inflexible
 - Static block and file system sizes
 - Often static file and directory counts

- Maximum number of objects per directory: 2^{48}
 - 2³² for ext4 (per file system)
- Maximum size of a file: 16 EiB (2⁶⁴ bytes)
 - 16 TiB for ext4
- Maximum size of a pool: 256 ZiB (2⁷⁸ bytes)
 - 64 ZiB for ext4
- Maximum number of devices per pool: 2⁶⁴
- Maximum number of pools: 2⁶⁴
- Maximum number of file systems per pool: 2⁶⁴

- Pools
 - · No manual management of HDDs, partitions etc. anymore
 - Pool provides storage space for all file systems
- · Data integrity
 - Has been deemed too expensive in the past
 - CPUs have enough computation power reserves nowadays
- Transactions
 - Data is always consistent (like in a database)
 - · Time-consuming file system checks can be skipped

- Traditionally, there is one file system per partition
 - · Volume managers allow spanning a file system across multiple devices
 - It is also possible to use parts of a device (that is, partitions)
- Current file systems are very static
 - Changing their size or the size of their data structures can be problematic
- · ZFS introduces a new pool concept
 - · Goal: Using the total capacity and throughput of the available hardware
 - Keeps file systems dynamic by outsourcing storage allocation

- · Traditional architecture
 - RAID, LVM, file system
 - Worst case: Three technologies
- File systems are created on top of logical volumes



```
$ mdadm --create /dev/md0 --level=5 --raid-devices=4 /dev/sd[abcd]
$ mdadm --create /dev/md1 --level=5 --raid-devices=4 /dev/sd[efgh]
```

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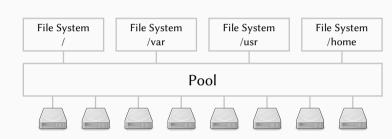
```
1  $ mdadm --create /dev/md0 --level=5 --raid-devices=4 /dev/sd[abcd]
2  $ mdadm --create /dev/md1 --level=5 --raid-devices=4 /dev/sd[efgh]
```

- 1 \$ pvcreate /dev/md0
- 2 \$ pvcreate /dev/md1
- 3 \$ vgcreate tank /dev/md0 /dev/md1
- 4 \$ lvcreate --size 15G --name root tank
- 5 | \$ lycreate | --size | 25G | --name | var | tank
- 6 \$ lvcreate --size 30G --name usr tank
- 7 \$ lycreate --size 75G --name home tank

```
$ mdadm --create /dev/md0 --level=5 --raid-devices=4 /dev/sd[abcd]
$ mdadm --create /dev/md1 --level=5 --raid-devices=4 /dev/sd[efgh]
```

- \$ pvcreate /dev/md0
- \$ pvcreate /dev/md1
- \$ vgcreate tank /dev/md0 /dev/md1
- \$ lycreate --size 15G --name root tank
- \$ lycreate --size 25G --name var tank \$ lycreate --size 30G --name usr tank
- \$ lycreate --size 75G --name home tank
 - \$ mkfs.ext4 /dev/mapper/tank-root
- \$ mkfs.ext4 /dev/mapper/tank-var
- \$ mkfs.ext4 /dev/mapper/tank-usr
- 4 \$ mkfs.ext4 /dev/mapper/tank-home

- ZFS pool architecture
 - ZFS takes care of all three layers
- File systems allocate space in the pool



```
1 $ zpool create tank raidz /dev/sd[abcd] raidz /dev/sd[efgh]
```

- 2 \$ zfs create tank/root
 3 \$ zfs create tank/var
 - 4 \$ zfs create tank/usr
- 5 \$ zfs create tank/home

- Pools consist of virtual devices (vdevs)
 - · Data is distributed across all vdevs dynamically
- Virtual devices can be real devices or arrays of those
 - Mirror (RAID 1), RAID-Z (RAID 5), RAID-Z2 (RAID 6), RAID-Z3
 - Recently added: Distributed RAID (dRAID)
- It is not possible to reproduce all RAID levels
 - For example, it is not possible to create a RAID 51 array
 - · RAID 10, RAID 50 and RAID 60 are possible
- ZFS's RAIDs do not suffer from the write hole problem
 - · Reminder: The write hole can occur between writing the data and the parity

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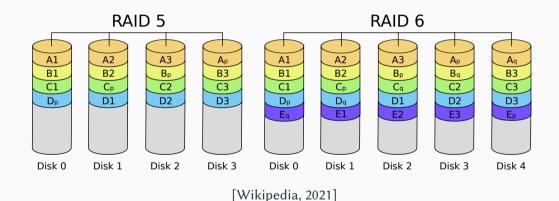
- ZFS also supports so-called volumes
 - Volumes are exported as block devices
 - Can be used to use traditional file systems etc.
 within a pool
- All pool functionality can be used for volumes
 - Snapshots, compression etc. are supported transparently

```
$ zfs create -V 4G tank/swap
$ zfs create -V 75G tank/home
$ mkswap /dev/zvol/tank/swap
$ mkfs.ext4 /dev/zvol/tank/home
```

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- ZFS intelligently distributed data across all virtual devices
- Multiple selection criteria are used
 - Capacity
 - Performance (latency, throughput, utilization)
 - Status (for instance, mirror with failed device)
- New virtual devices are used automatically
 - · Existing data is not rebalanced
 - · New device is preferred to match usage

- 1. Virtual device selection
 - Prefer new or empty virtual devices
 - Avoid degraded virtual devices
 - Finally, use a round-robin approach
 - · More striping methods can be added in the future
- 2. Metaslab selection
 - Prefer the outer regions of HDDs because they are faster
 - · Prefer metaslabs that have already been used
- 3. Block selection
 - · Choose the first block with enough free space
 - · More algorithms can be added in the future



- Data and parity have to be updated
 - Failures in between can cause the write hole
 - · Operations across multiple HDDs have to be performed atomically
- Writing partial stripes is inefficient
 - · Read-modify-write: Two reads and two writes
- Solution: Hardware controllers with large caches and uninterruptible power supply
 - The original idea was a Redundant Array of Inexpensive Disks

- The write hole can be eliminated using copy on write and transactions
 - · This combination allows atomic updates of data and parity
 - · Normal HDDs are enough for this to work
- ZFS does not write partial stripes
 - · Each block is in its own stripe
 - This improves performance but makes reconstruction more complicated
 - · Requires the RAID layer to know about the file system structure

- Frror scenario on a mirror with two HDDs
 - 1. Application reads data
 - 2. ZFS reads data from the first HDD
 - 3. ZFS detects that the data is incorrect (due to its checksum)
 - 4. ZFS reads the data copy from the second HDD
 - 5. ZFS detects that the data is correct
 - 6. The incorrect data is overwritten with the correct one
 - 7. Data is forwarded to the application
- In traditional file systems, steps 3-6 do not exist
 - · ZFS can also detect when both copies of the data are incorrect

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- Traditional RAID systems can only detect errors but not correct them
 - This would require reading and comparing the parity for each access
 - It remains unclear whether the data or the parity is incorrect
- Normally, incorrect data is forwarded to the application
 - This can cause crashes but also silent data corruption later on
- · Detecting and correcting incorrect data is very important
 - Data can be very expensive to compute and store
 - Depending on its size, backups might be infeasible

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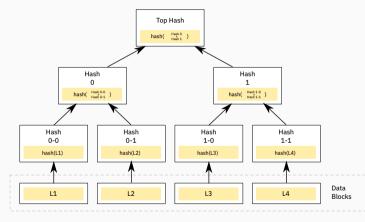
- Reconstruction can be handled intelligently in ZFS
- Traditionally, whole devices have to be reconstructed
 - This is due to the strict separation of storage array and file system
 - Reconstruction is done by performing a block-wise XOR over the devices
 - It is not possible to check for correctness using only parity
- ZFS only needs to consider blocks actually used by the file system
 - · For temporary failures, only changes have to be considered
 - · Reconstruction is safer due to top-down reconstruction of the tree
 - · Losing inner nodes is fatal, while data blocks can be handled more easily
 - · A missing inner node makes the whole sub-tree inaccessible

- · Scrubbing allows finding and correcting errors
- During a scrub, the following operations are performed for each block
 - 1. Block and its checksum are read
 - 2. Block is checksummed and result is compared to stored checksum
 - 3. If the checksum is incorrect, try recovering the block
- · Scrubbing is typically not performed automatically
 - Developers recommend weekly or monthly scrubs
 - · Errors can only be detected when data is accessed

- All operations are performed within transactions
 - File system level: All modifications done to files and directories
 - Storage system level: Transactions are combined into transaction groups
- Transactions allow ZFS to be always consistent
 - No journaling is required, reducing overhead
 - No file system checks are necessary after a crash

- ZFS is realized as a hash tree of blocks
 - This is also called a Merkle tree
- · Each block contains a checksum
 - · There is a range of different algorithms available
- Data integrity is checked with each read operation
- · Multiple copies of metadata are stored at all times
 - · Allows reconstructing metadata even without a RAID
 - · Metadata is small but important

- Leaf nodes contain checksums of data blocks
- Inner nodes contain checksums of their children



[Azaghal, 2012]

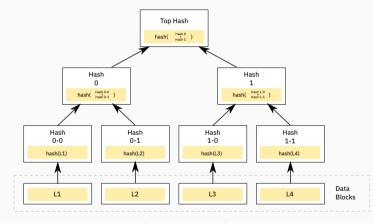
Copy on Write Example: ZFS

- Traditionally, blocks are modified in-place
 - This can lead to inconsistencies if these updates are interrupted
- · Using copy on write, blocks are never overwritten but instead copied
 - The original is read, a copy is modified and written at another location
 - To be precise, this is redirect on write but typically called copy on write
- All changes are done outside the live file system structure
 - · If the system crashes, modifications are simply not visible and can be discarded
- In a final step, new blocks are integrated atomically

Copy on Write... Example: ZFS

1. Initial state

- Each node contains checksum of children
- Data blocks L1 and L2 should be updated

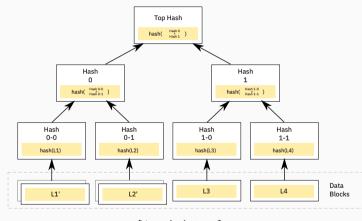


[Azaghal, 2012]

Copy on Write... Example: ZFS

2. New blocks are allocated

 Original data is read, modified and written as L1' and L2'

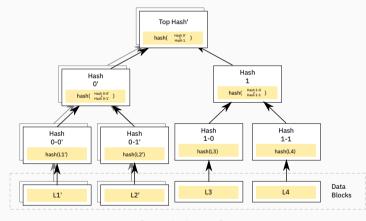


[Azaghal, 2012]

Copy on Write... Example: ZFS

3. New blocks are allocated

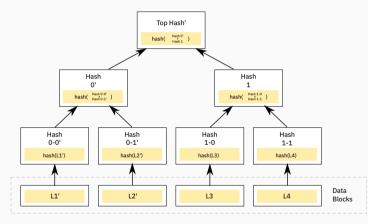
- Inner nodes also use copy on write
- Pointers are set to new blocks, up to the root



[Azaghal, 2012]

Copy on Write...

- 4. Root node is updated
 - Root update has to happen atomically



[Azaghal, 2012]

- How would you update the root node atomically?
 - 1. Storage devices guarantee atomic updates
 - 2. Use direct I/O
 - 3. Make sure to write 512 bytes at once
 - 4. Make sure to write 4,096 bytes at once

- ZFS's root node is called the uberblock
- ZFS uses an uberblock array with 128 entries
 - Replicas of the array are stored at different points of the pool
 - The array is used in a round-robin fashion
- · Uberblock entries contain a transaction ID and a checksum
 - · When mounting, the uberblock entry with the highest transaction ID is used
 - · Uberblock integrity is ensured using checksum

- Snapshots simplify a wide range of use cases
 - Making older data available (for instance, using daily snapshots)
 - · Multiple checkpoints within a file to avoid redundancies
 - · ZFS's snapshots are too coarse-grained for this
- · Snapshots are very easy due to the copy on write scheme
 - · Taking a snapshot means keeping the old root node around
 - · Old pointers and blocks are not deleted due to reference counting
- ZFS's snapshots can only be read
 - Snapshots can be found in the .zfs directory
 - This concept allows easy access to snapshots for users

- The file system can also be rolled back to an earlier snapshot
 - Simply add a new uberblock entry for the old tree
 - This discards all changes since the snapshot (after a while)
- Mutable snapshots are called clones in ZFS
 - Unmodified blocks are shared (as with snapshots)
 - · Changes are integrated using the regular copy on write scheme
- Clones are almost as easy to realize as snapshots
 - · Only actual changes require additional storage space due to copy on write

- Backups are problematic for large storage systems
 - Traditional tools have to scan the whole namespace for changes
 - · Snapshots allow more efficient approaches for backups
- · Full backups
 - · A snapshot can be replicated onto another system
- Incremental backups
 - Instead of scanning for changes, use difference between two snapshots
 - Overhead depends on the amount of changes between the snapshots
- This also allows easy replication schemes
 - Example: Create snapshots every minute and transfer them to another system

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- Data reduction is becoming increasingly important
 - Storage throughput and capacity do not improve at the same rate as computation
- ZFS supports transparent compression
 - Can be enabled and disabled on a file system level
 - · Supports multiple compression algorithms
 - Currently, zle, gzip, lzjb, lz4 and zstd are available
- · Compression is currently static
 - The selected compression algorithm is used for all data
 - · Research topic: Adaptive and dynamic compression

- zle eliminates sequences of zeroes
 - zle stands for zero-length encoding
 - Typically only achieves very low compression ratios
 - ZFS always enables zle when compression is active
- · gzip achieves good compression ratios but is slow
 - gzip supports several compression levels (1-9)
 - Even fast levels are relatively slow ($\approx 50~MB/s)$
 - Decompression is much faster than compression ($\approx 300 \, MB/s$)

- Izjb has been developed specifically for ZFS
 - LZ: Lempel Ziv
 - JB: Jeff Bonwick (former ZFS head of development)
 - Promises high performance to avoid slowing down I/O
- lz4 is a standard algorithm and faster than lzjb
 - Delivers high compression throughput ($\approx 600 \, \text{MB/s}$)
 - Decompression throughput is even higher ($\approx 3 \, \text{GB/s}$)
- zstd is another standard algorithm, designed by the lz4 creator
 - Delivers compression ratios comparable to gzip at much higher speeds

Deduplication Data Reduction

- Deduplication is another data reduction technique
 - Data is split up into blocks (statically or dynamically)
 - · Redundant blocks are only stored once and referenced otherwise
 - Duplicates are identified according to their checksum
- Data integrity is an important factor when using deduplication
 - Data might differ even if the checksum is the same
 - ZFS changes the checksum algorithm to SHA256 when enabling deduplication
 - · Optionally, data can be compared byte-for-byte, reducing performance

- Deduplication requires additional storage space
 - Blocks and their checksums have to be kept in a separate table
 - For each write operation, this table has to be checked
 Table should be kept in main memory for fast access
- Deduplication ratio is very dependent on the chosen block size
 - Large blocks reduce the deduplication ratio significantly
 - Smaller blocks increase storage requirements of the table
- Rule of thumb: 10+ GB per TB of data with 8 KiB blocks

- Which data reduction technique would you use for a 1 PB file system?
 - 1. Deduplication
 - 2. Zero-length encoding
 - 3. Compression
 - 4. None

- Data integrity and convenience features introduce some overhead
 - Checksums have to be computed, copy on write requires read-modify-write, compression/deduplication/encryption require additional computation
- ZFS uses a pipeline scheduler
 - · Each operation has a priority and a deadline
 - Read operations have higher priorities than write operations
- Operations can be merged and sorted for performance
 - Enables efficient copy on write, otherwise sub-tree copies for each operation

- 1 \$ openssl speed sha256
- 2 type 16 bytes 64 bytes 256 bytes 1024 bytes 8192 bytes 16384 bytes
- 3 sha256 271653.03k 674761.22k 1381621.50k 1877547.15k 2087605.59k 2111020.86k

- 1 \$ openss1 speed sha256
 2 type 16 bytes 64 bytes 256 bytes 1024 bytes 8192 bytes 16384 bytes
 3 sha256 271653.03k 674761.22k 1381621.50k 1877547.15k 2087605.59k 2111020.86k
- 1 \$ openssl speed aes-256-cbc
- 2 type 16 bytes 64 bytes 256 bytes 1024 bytes 8192 bytes 16384 bytes
- 3 aes-256-cbc 218166.47k 228868.11k 228862.38k 231104.47k 230176.09k 231321.26k

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\$ openssl speed aes-256-cbc

```
$ openssl speed sha256

2 type 16 bytes 64 bytes 256 bytes 1024 bytes 8192 bytes 16384 bytes

3 sha256 271653.03k 674761.22k 1381621.50k 1877547.15k 2087605.59k 2111020.86k
```

- 2 type 16 bytes 64 bytes 256 bytes 1024 bytes 8192 bytes 16384 bytes 3 aes-256-cbc 218166.47k 228868.11k 228862.38k 231104.47k 230176.09k 231321.26k
- 1 \$ openss1 speed -evp aes-256-cbc 2 type 16 bytes 64 bytes 256 bytes 1024 bytes 8192 bytes 16384 bytes 3 aes-256-cbc 1015346.03k 1122795.31k 1150612.05k 1160046.45k 1160324.20k 1156639.40k

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```
1  $ time gzip -9 -v fonts.tar
2  fonts.tar: 43.9%
3  16,75s user 0,10s system 99% cpu 16,876 total (19.0 MB/s)
4  $ time gzip -1 -v fonts.tar
5  fonts.tar: 39.6%
6  6,02s user 0,08s system 99% cpu 6,110 total (52.5 MB/s)
```

```
$ time gzip -9 -v fonts.tar
  fonts tar: 43 9%
  16,75s user 0,10s system 99% cpu 16,876 total (19.0 MB/s)
4
  $ time gzip -1 -v fonts.tar
  fonts.tar: 39.6%
6
    6.02s user 0.08s system 99% cpu 6.110 total (52.5 MB/s)
  $ 1z4 -b -12 fonts.tar
  336517120 -> 206425036 (1.630), 22.4 MB/s, 3829.5 MB/s
   $ 1z4 -b -9 fonts.tar
```

5 \$ 1z4 -b -1 fonts.tar 6 336517120 -> 244191917 (1.378), 740.3 MB/s, 4264.0 MB/s 7 \$ 1z4 -b --fast=1 fonts.tar 8 336517120 -> 249659973 (1.348), 867.3 MB/s, 4586.6 MB/s 9 \$ 1z4 -b --fast=12 fonts.tar 10 336517120 -> 275617703 (1.221), 1421.5 MB/s, 5956.4 MB/s

336517120 -> 207166607 (1.624), 40.0 MB/s, 3824.9 MB/s

```
$ zstd -b -19 fonts.tar
   336517120 -> 154986646 (2.171). 3.13 MB/s. 632.3 MB/s
    $ zstd -b -9 fonts.tar
   336517120 -> 170364600 (1.975), 20.2 MB/s, 975.1 MB/s
   $ zstd -b -1 fonts.tar
   336517120 -> 203556107 (1.653). 395.1 MB/s. 1082.3 MB/s
   $ zstd -b --fast=1 fonts.tar
   336517120 -> 231137047 (1.456). 496.0 MB/s. 2335.5 MB/s
    $ zstd -b --fast=9 fonts.tar
10
   336517120 -> 253785571 (1.326), 877.3 MB/s, 3045.1 MB/s
11
   $ zstd -b --fast=19 fonts tar
   336517120 -> 268692294 (1.252), 1122.1 MB/s, 3478.3 MB/s
```

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Summary

Summary

- File systems organize data and metadata
 - Modern file systems offer data integrity, convenience, data reduction etc.
- Copy on write can help keeping the file system consistent
 - Data is never overwritten in-place, avoiding inconsistencies
- · Integrated volume management has several advantages
 - Data integrity can be ensured and higher performance achieved
- Modern functionality can also be useful for parallel distributed file systems
 - Checksums are especially useful for large amounts of data
 - Transactions and snapshots allow new ways to store data

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