1 INTRODUCTION

With the advent of Big Data, the amount of data produced every year has exponentially increased. For instance, many science facilities produce a vast amount of experimental and simulation data: several U.S. Department of Energy (DOE) leadership-computing facilities, such as the Oak Ridge Leadership Computing Facility (OLCF) [1], the Argonne Leadership Computing Facility (ALCF) [2], and the National Energy Research Scientific Computing (NERSC) [3] generate hundreds of petabytes per year of simulation data and are projected to generate in excess of 1 exabyte per year by 2018 [4]. In fact, according to the Big Data and Scientific Discovery report from the DOE, Office of Science, Office of Advanced Scientific Computing Research (ASCR) [5], some of the scientific data challenges are the worsening input/output (I/O) bottleneck.

To accommodate such big data, organizations will continue to deploy larger storage infrastructures which need to be well provisioned to meet the expected data growth rate. The storage system can employ multiple disk drives to build arrays of disk drives. Redundant array of inexpensive disks (RAID) were introduced to increase the performance and reliability of disk drive systems [6]. For example, a peta-scale storage system for Titan at the Oak Ridge National Laboratory uses 8+2 RAID-6 configuration for each volume group [7], [8]. RAID provides parallelism of I/O operations by combining multiple inexpensive disks, thereby achieving higher performance and robustness. RAID has become the de facto standard for building high performance and robust storage systems.

Traditional storage systems use hard disk drives which offered price efficiency. However, nowadays the solid-state drive (SSD) storage market is continually growing towards high performance storage at low cost per byte of data. Unlike in-place update operations in HDDs, SSDs incorporate software to allow out-of-place update operations and to map sectors from the host into their current locations in the SSDs [9], [10], [11]. This out-of-place update operation eventually requires a sweep of storage area to find stale data and consolidate active data in order to create free space. This process, known as garbage collection (GC), can significantly increase the service time of incoming requests. When SSDs are configured in RAID, the performance variability of individual SSDs becomes a major concern, because the overall performance of the SSD-based RAID could be limited by the slowest SSD [12], [13], [14], [15].

In this paper, we propose a novel Layout-Aware Write Cache (LAWC) to alleviate the unstable performance concern in SSD-based RAID systems. LAWC can mitigate the performance degradation by uncoordinated GC operations of SSDs in the array by performing coordinated destage operations in the write buffer on the RAID controller. LAWC organizes multiple sub-buffers, instead of a single global buffer, as many as the number of SSDs, and the I/O operations in the write buffer on the RAID controller.

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LAWC: Optimizing Write Cache Using Layout-Aware I/O Scheduling for All Flash Storage

Kalidas Ganesh, Youngjae Kim, Monobrata Debnath, Sungyong Park, and Junghee Lee

Abstract—Flash memory-based SSD-RAIDs are swiftly replacing conventional hard disk drives by exhibiting improved performance and stability, especially in I/O-intensive environments. However, the variations in latency and throughput occurring due to uncoordinated internal garbage collection cripples further boosting of performance. In addition, the unwanted variations in each SSD can influence the overall performance of the entire flash storage adversely. This performance bottleneck can be essentially reduced by an internal write cache in the RAID controller designed prudently by considering the crucial device characteristics. The state-of-the-art cache write for the RAID controller fails to incorporate device characteristics of flash memory-based SSDs and mitigates the performance gain. In this paper, we propose a novel cache design namely Layout-Aware Write Cache (LAWC) to overcome the performance barrier inculcated by independent garbage collections. LAWC implements (i) improved I/O scheduling for logically partitioned write caches, (ii) a destage write synchronization mechanism to allow individual write caches to flush write blocks into the SSD array in a coordinated manner, and (iii) a two-level hybrid cache algorithm utilizing small front level cache for the improved write cache efficiency. LAWC shows significant reduction in response time by 82.39 percent on RAID-0 and 68.51 percent on RAID-5 types of SSDs when compared with state-of-the-art write cache algorithms.

Index Terms—Flash memory, I/O scheduling, RAID, solid-state drive, storage system, write cache
This paper proposes independent write caches and write ACKGROUND Our experiments show that LAWC improves the is a set of strips disk. Depending on the RAID configuration, a destage write synchronization technique is pro-
vided, which delays destage write operations of write caches until all write caches are ready to destage at once. In order to compensate the performance penalty by pre-parity computation, the two-level hybrid caching technique is proposed, which serves as a higher-level cache for independent write caches. It mitigates the overhead incurred by the pre-parity-computation and synchronization techniques for less I/O intensive workloads.

- Our experiments show that LAWC improves the average number of synchronized GCs by up to 53.1 times compared to WOW. Moreover, LAWC achieves huge performance improvement of 82.39 percent in average response time compared to WOW for heavy write dominant workloads. For non-intensive workloads, LAWC offers comparable performance to WOW.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. We first present an overview of the material and technology in Section 2 followed by motivation in Section 2.2. Section 3 presents our proposed layout-aware write cache design and implementation with performance optimization techniques such as destage write synchronization and two-level hybrid caching techniques. Section 4 presents evaluation results of our proposed design with realistic and synthetic workloads. After discussing related works in Section 5, we conclude in Section 6.

2 BACKGROUND

When SSDs are comprised for an array, the write cache on a traditional RAID controller can be optimized considering the hardware characteristics of devices. SSD has unique performance characteristics different from HDD. SSD can exhibit substantial variance in request latency and throughput as a result of garbage collection [9], [11], [17]. The main problem of applying traditional write cache architecture to an array of SSDs is that each SSD in the array can show different performance such as bandwidth and I/O response time due to uncontrolled GC process and the overall read and write bandwidth of the array is limited by the slowest SSD.

2.1 Traditional Write Cache for HDD Arrays

A traditional RAID controller employs a write cache [16], [18]. It can employ non-volatile memory or battery-back memory in order to prevent data loss in case of power-failure on the system [16], [18]. As long as there is free space in the write cache, an incoming write request is stored in the write cache and it is immediately committed to the requester. Otherwise, the request should be pending in the I/O queue until the write cache becomes available. The data in the write cache will be synchronized with the disks later in background. This process is called destaging and write operations to the disk issued for destaging are called destage writes. A destage write is split into multiple strips. Here, a strip means a discrete chuck of data, which is going to be stored in one disk. Depending on the RAID configuration, a parity strip may be added. A write group is a set of strips that have to be stored in disks at the same time. In WOW, when a write request comes, it is split to strips and strips are stored in their corresponding write groups. When a destage write is triggered, all strips in a write group are transferred to their corresponding disks.

Fig. 1 presents an architectural overview for traditional write caches in HDD arrays and their write back cache algorithms. Wise Ordering of Writes [16] is the-state-of-the-art write cache algorithm. In WOW, a write hit can be either a hit on a strip or a hit on a write group. A write group consists of multiple strips. A hit on a strip means there already exists the requested strip in the write cache. Even if the requested strip does not exist, its write group could exist (hit on a write group). Since a parity strip is computed for each write group and parity is computed when a write group is destaged, a hit on a write group can reduce the number of parity computations. Write groups are always ordered by their logical block address (LBA), which leverages spatial locality.
What to destage follows a least recently used (LRU) policy that implements a heuristic approach using recency bits. When destaging is necessary, the destage pointer advances. If the recency bit of the write group pointed by the destage pointer is zero, the write group is destaged. If the recency bit is one, the write group is retained and the recency bit is cleared. Then the destage pointer advances again until it finds a write group whose recency bit is zero. The recency bit is set when the write group is hit. The recency bit gives one more chance for hit write groups to survive for one more cycle, which leverages temporal locality.

In addition to what to destage, the write cache needs to determine when to destage. WOW adopts a linear threshold scheduling to determine when to start destaging and how to adjust the destaging rate [19]. Low and high thresholds are involved. Destaging begins to be triggered when the number of write groups (W) in the write cache reaches a threshold. The destaging rate linearly increases as W increases. If W reaches a high threshold, it runs at a full rate.

To fully exploit benefits of a write cache in WOW, a cache controller should be designed to leverage temporal and spatial locality as well as to resist bursty writes [16], [18]. High temporal locality can be achieved by keeping as much hot data as possible. On the other hand, to sustain bursty writes, dirty data in the cache should be destaged in advance before the bursty writes come in. Otherwise, it will increase pending requests in the queues, causing delays for writes. In the context of HDDs, leveraging spatial locality means minimizing mechanical movement inside a HDD. Extensive research has been conducted on these cache scheduling algorithms to exploit the spatial locality on a HDD [20], [21]. In order to minimize the delay due to the cache being full while maintaining locality requirements, the cache controller should be carefully designed to make an intelligent decision on when to destage, what to destage, and how much to destage.

There are other basic approaches to decide when to destage. In [22], a rapid destaging is performed on the dirty blocks in idle time by prioritizing the bursty write resistance over temporal locality. In [19], a balance between bursty write resistance and temporal locality is emphasized by scheduling linear threshold levels. Here, destaging rate varies in accordance with the amount of data present in the cache. At low occupancy, slow destaging takes place to ensure locality advantage and at higher occupancy the destaging rate grows proportionally to avoid space tightening.

STOW [18] further improves WOW by identifying random and sequential writes distinctly. All write back cache algorithms including WOW [16] and STOW [18], however well designed, do not consider the characteristics of drives, and will suffer from performance degradation due to uncoordinated garbage collection processes on an array of SSDs.

Therefore, our claim is that write cache algorithms for an array should be redesigned by considering the device characteristics.

2.2 Problem Definition: Slow Destaging I/Os

The pathological behavior of an array of SSDs has been reported by one of previous studies [12], [23], [24] where they conducted measurements of individual SSDs and the array of SSDs for a variety of I/O workload patterns, and made three important observations: (i) individual SSDs experience sudden bandwidth drops and the frequencies of those bandwidth drops are more likely to happen when the intensity of write requests in the workloads increases, (ii) the performance variability of an array of SSDs increases with the number of SSDs, and (iii) per-drive bandwidth decreases with the number of SSDs. The main cause of this pathological behavior of the SSD array is attributed to uncoordinated GC operations of individual SSDs in their array [12], [23], [24] The write cache on the RAID controller could be utilized to mitigate the problem of the pathological behavior of the SSD array, however, when blocks on the write cache are destaged into the SSD array, uncoordinated destage writes can hurt overall I/O performance of the SSD array.

Fig. 2 illustrates how destage writes can be slowed down when they interfere with some GC operations. Suppose that write requests A and B arrive, which are stored in the cache immediately, and the write cache controller will decide destage at some later time. The request A is split into A0, A1 and A2 which are going to SSD0, SSD1 and SSD2, respectively. If a strip that goes to SSD1 is delayed by GC, the destage write cannot be committed until SSD1 finishes GC and processes strip A1. Only after SSD1 finishes processing A1, the cache controller can destage the next write group. If bursty write requests come during this period, the write cache may become full, which incurs long latency to subsequent write requests. Even while SSD1 is delayed by GC, other SSDs can accept strips. This is because all strips in the same write group have to destage together for parity computation. However, if strips can be destaged independently, it can avoid delay caused by the slow SSD. In HDD arrays, the performance variability is not a big problem because the performance variability is not significant in HDDs. In contrast, in SSDs, the shortest response time and the longest response time could be order-of-magnitude different. Thus, the performance variability should be carefully managed when a write cache is designed.

3 Layout-Aware Write Cache

LAWC is motivated to answer a simple question: how can we exploit the underlying storage architecture to minimize GC overheads in an array of SSDs? The ultimate goal of LAWC is to achieve the performance improvement by mitigating performance degradation caused by GCs in SSDs. LAWC has three design components: (i) I/O scheduler with pre-parity computation by logically partitioned write cache design, (ii) destage write synchronization technique, and (iii) two-level hybrid caching technique. LAWC is implemented by modifying the state-of-the-art write cache algorithm—WOW [16]. These three components are explained one by one in following sections.
3.1 I/O Scheduling with Pre-Parity Computation

Traditional write caches employ a single unified write cache. A unified write cache does not effectively handle the performance variance of SSDs. As shown in Fig. 2, if any SSD is delayed by GC, which takes a significant amount of time, no destage operation can be performed until the GC finishes. To mitigate this problem, we split the write cache so that other write caches can perform destage operations even if one of SSDs is delayed by GC. LAW employs multiple independent write caches instead of a single unified write cache. Each cache is implemented using separate request queue in addition, LAW can use a small non-volatile front cache to further improve the efficiency of the next level write cache. The architectural depiction of LAW is presented in Fig. 3.

In LAW, to maximize independent destage operations, parity has to be computed before strips are cached. The pre-parity-computation is not free. It involves parity computation overhead and additional internal I/O overhead cost in the SSD array. Moreover, even if there is a write cache hit, in order to compute parity, it has to additionally read its related data blocks. However, the performance overhead of the pre-parity-computation can be compensated by destage write synchronization and two-level hybrid caching techniques, described in detail in Sections 3.2 and 3.3. Note that there is no write operation involved in this parity computation process due to write cache hits in the SSD array. Thus, it does not affect the lifetime of SSDs by this operation.

In order to understand the overhead of additional I/Os incurred by the pre-parity-computation and its impact on the locality, let us consider the following example as illustrated in Fig. 4. To simplify the discussion, we consider the RAID-4 with four SSDs (three data SSDs and one parity SSD), which are denoted as SSD0, SSD1, SSD2 (data SSDs) and SSDp (parity SSD). The scenario is that request A comes, which is split to A0 and A1 going to SSD0 and SSD1, followed by request A', which is split to A'0 and A'1 going to SSD1, SSD2. Requests A and A' belong to the same write group.

Fig. 4a shows the WOW algorithm. In WOW, Request A is stored in the write cache if there is room. When request A' arrives, which belongs to the same write group of request A, but updates different strips. If request A is still stored in the write cache, a hit on a write group occurs. Thus, A1 and A2 are updated to A'1 and A'2 in the write cache. After a while, when they need to be destaged, A0, A'0, and A'2 are stored to SSD0, SSD1, and SSD2, respectively. The parity is computed when they are destaged and stored in SSDp. Thus, four write operations are performed in total.

Fig. 4b illustrates our proposed pre-parity-computation and SSD-aware I/O scheduling algorithm in LAW. In LAW, the entire physical write cache is logically partitioned into sub write caches as many as the number of SSDs in the array. Suppose such logically partitioned write caches are W0, W1, W2 and Wp for SSD0, SSD1, SSD2 and SSDp, respectively. When request A arrives, A0 and A1 are stored in W0 and W1. To compute the parity a read operation is performed to SSDp, which reads A2; the parity is computed; and the parity strip, Ap is stored in Wp. When request A' arrives, A'0 in W1 is replaced (hit on a strip) to A'1, A2 is updated to A'2 in W2. To compute parity, the RAID controller needs to read A0, A'1, and Ap, all of which are stored in their corresponding write caches. Thus, no more read operation from disks is required. The parity strip, Ap, is updated to A'p in Wp (hit on a strip). Therefore, until they are destaged 4 write and 1 read operations are involved.

LAW can incur additional read operations to compute the parity, but does not increase write operations as shown in the example. This is because the write caches can still absorb write requests to SSDs as long as write cache space is available. As it will be demonstrated by experiments in Section 4, write caches of LAW have lower chance of being full. As for additional read operations, they do not have significant impact on the overall performance because read operations are very fast in SSDs. Also, it does not have any adverse impact on the lifetime of SSDs.

The aforementioned example illustrates the situation where both temporal and spatial localities are exploited by LAW. A1 is updated by both request A and A'. Since A1 is stored in W1, a hit occurs when request A' comes, which is an example of temporal locality. Request A and A' are

![Fig. 3. Architectural overview. The figure shows logically partitioned write caches, instead of a single unified write cache and a small non-volatile front write cache.](image)

![Fig. 4. Illustration of destage writes (WOW versus LAW).](image)

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spatially adjacent. Since they are of the same write group, they could be coalesced. In case of WOW, the coalescing is explicit. In case of LAWC, it is not explicit, but it happens. As shown in the example, request $A'$ does not incur any additional I/O to SSDs. By exploiting existing strips of request $A$, request $A'$ is coalesced with request $A$.

As for the error recovery, the proposed design has no issues with recovery from a disk failure because it employs non-volatile memory as a cache. If the RAID controller detects failure on an SSD, it destages all the data stored in the cache into the SSDs except for the failed SSD before it starts rebuilding the failed disk. Then it can rebuild the failed SSD based on other SSDs since all the up-to-date data is in the SSDs.

### 3.2 Destage Write Synchronization

Independent write cache structure allows flexible I/O scheduling for destage writes. However, uncoordinated GCs across SSDs may interfere with incoming requests. Fig. 5a illustrates this situation. The scenario of incoming requests is the same with Fig. 2. When request $A$ comes, it is immediately split into three strips and they are stored in corresponding write caches. One of the three strips may be a parity strip, which means that parity computation is done at this moment (by pre-parity-computation). Similarly, when request $B$ comes, which is independent from request $A$, it is split into two strips and they are stored. At this moment, $SSD_0$ has $A_0$ in its write cache; $SSD_1$ has $A_1$; $SSD_2$ has $A_2$ and $B_2$; and $SSD_3$ has $B_3$. If all write caches work independently, destage writes can also happen independently. It is hard to predict when any request is affected by GC. In this example, read requests $X$ and $Y$ come after write requests $A$ and $B$. Request $X$ is split to $SSD_1$, $SSD_2$, and $SSD_3$. When request $X$ arrives, $SSD_3$ is running GC. Therefore, request $X$ cannot be committed until the strip going to $SSD_3$ completes. In the same way, request $Y$ is marked delayed by $SSD_1$.

To address this issue, we propose a **destage write synchronization** technique. It attempts to destage strips in all write caches together at the same time. If all the write caches have at least one strip to destage, they destage together. Note that those strips destaged together do not have to belong to the same write group. The destage pointer advances independently. It advances while clearing the recency bit, until it finds a strip whose recency bit has been already cleared. The strip with cleared recency bit is ready to destage. When the pointer finds a strip to destage, it has to stop there until all the other pointers find one. However, if the waiting time of those strips to be destaged together exceeds a predefined threshold, it is allowed to destage to prevent the waiting write caches from becoming full. Except for those having no strip, other write caches can destage together.

The destage write synchronization technique incurs two types of overhead. One is additional complexity to scheduling, and the other is additional delay in destage writes. The additional complexity is negligible because what is added is only looking up other write caches to check if they have a strip to destage. The additional delay occurs because the write cache should wait for other caches to be ready. This may cause the waiting cache to become full, when it might be available if the synchronization were not employed. However, this additional delay can be compensated by mitigated GC delay effect as demonstrated by experiments in Section 4.

The pre-parity-computation followed by the parities to be cached will help increase the chances that a whole strip group are destaged together. Moreover, with this pre-parity-computation, multiple write caches are independent in that strips belonging to one write group do not have to be destaged together because a parity strip is already computed. Even if any SSD is delayed by GC, independent scheduling of write caches allow other SSDs to accept a strip from their corresponding write caches.

GC synchronization of individual SSDs in the array can improve the overall performance of an SSD array [12], [13]. Kim et al. [12], [13] proposed a coordinated GC mechanism to forcefully trigger GCs of individual SSDs at the same time. However, this technique requires bus interface (e.g., SATA) to be modified for synchronization of GCs and all SSDs in the array to support it. In LAWC, instead of GCs of individual SSDs, destage writes are synchronized because destage writes cause to trigger GCs. Synchronization of destage writes increases the possibility of GC synchronization.

Fig. 5b illustrates the impact of synchronization. As shown in this figure, destages writes, $A_0$, $A_1$, $A_2$, and $B_3$, are triggered at the same time. Note that $B_3$ does not belong to the same write group of other strips. The synchronization mechanism contributes to the performance improvement by increasing the chance of GCs running simultaneously. Since GC is triggered by a destage write, synchronized destage writes increase the probability of GC synchronization between SSDs. In this example, we can see that request $X$ is not affected by any GC whereas request $Y$ is now affected by two GCs. However, even if request $Y$ is delayed by two GCs, its response time does not become doubled because the two strips are serviced in parallel.

### 3.3 Two-Level Hybrid Caching

One drawback of LAWC is additional computation overhead by the pre-parity-computation. Even though the write cache hits, the parity computation delay is always added to the response time. The overhead is compensated by coordinating GC processes when the workload is write-intensive, which means the inter-arrival time of subsequent write requests is short and their request size is large. However,
for non-intensive workloads, this overhead cannot be compensated. Since the GC processes do not incur much overhead for the non-intensive workloads, the pre-parity-computation overhead is hardly compensated by coordinating them. To overcome this problem, a small write cache is employed to mitigate the pre-parity-computation overhead for non-intensive workloads.

As illustrated in Fig. 3, an additional small write cache can be employed in front of independent write caches. The small write cache works in the same way as WOW does except for when it is full. In WOW, when it is full, subsequent write requests are pending until it becomes available. In LAWC, when the small cache is full, subsequent write requests bypass the cache unless they have dependency on those in the small cache. Here, dependency means requests on the same address. For non-intensive workloads, the small cache can effectively serve requests. Since it does not require pre-parity-computation, its performance is close to WOW. For intensive workloads, small cache can more frequently become full. Most of requests are likely to bypass the small cache. When they bypass the small cache, pre-parity-computation overhead incurs, but this overhead is compensated by the mechanism of independent write caches and destage write synchronization technique. For intensive workloads, LAWC can improve performance by coordinating GC processes. In summary, for non-intensive workloads, the small cache can serve most of requests and offer similar performance with WOW, while for intensive workloads, the small cache is bypassed and the independent write caches contribute to the performance improvement.

3.4 Algorithm: Putting All Together

Algorithm 1 shows the pseudo code of LAWC that integrates all three techniques aforementioned. When a write request arrives, a procedure named RequestArrange is called. It first checks if a front small cache is full. If it is full, it forwards the request down to independent write caches unless it has dependency. If the incoming request has dependency on requests stored in the small cache, the incoming request is pending until the small cache becomes available. Otherwise, it stores the request in the small cache. The small cache will make free space after destage procedure is performed.

In IndependentWriteCache, the incoming request is split into strips and the parity is computed. All strips including the parity are stored in their corresponding write caches. If any write cache is full, the request is pending until it becomes available by destage writes. Destage writes are triggered independently from handling requests. The small cache destages strips in the same way with WOW.

DestageSmallCache shows the destage write algorithm. The destage pointer indicates a candidate write group. If the recency bit of a candidate is true, the bit is cleared and the write group is retained. The destage pointer advances until a write group whose recency bit is false is found. The write group with false recency bit is removed from the small cache and forwarded down to independent write caches.

Destaging of each level write cache (front write cache and next level independent write caches) is triggered independently. A candidate strip for destaging is selected in the same way with WOW, as shown in Destage. Note that a unit of destaging is a strip in independent write caches, whereas it is a write group in the small cache. Even though a candidate is found, it will not be immediately destaged. Instead, it is delayed until other write caches find candidates or the timer expires. The timer prevents a write cache from being pended for a long time.

4 Evaluation

4.1 Experimental Setup

In order to study the performance implications of LAWC, we enhanced the DiskSim and SSD simulator developed by Microsoft Research [17]. Our tests were performed on RAID-0 and RAID-5. In RAID-0, eight SSDs are employed, and in RAID-5, nine SSDs are employed, where eight SSDs are for data strips and one is for a parity strip. The strip unit size for RAID is 128 KB, so the 1 MB request constitutes a write group (128 KB × 8 = 1 MB) for RAID-0 configuration. In simulating an SSD, we used 15 percent reserved free blocks with 5 percent minimum free blocks and a greedy GC policy. Each SSD uses four flash chip packages, where each package consists of four planes, and each plane uses 512 blocks. Each block consists of 64 4 KB pages. Thus, the size of each SSD is 2 GB. Page read and write times of 0.025 and 0.2 ms are used and block erase time of 1.5 ms is used. The simulation parameters are summarized in Table 1.

We assume a byte-addressable non-volatile memory is employed for the small cache and independent write caches. Any type of byte addressable non-volatile memory (NVM) is applicable. The read and write latency varies a lot depending on the type of the memory. For evaluation, we used phase-change random-access memory (PRAM) as the front write cache, where read and write latencies are 0.125 and 1 μs respectively [25]. The write cache configuration parameters are shown in Table 2.

Implementation. DiskSim implements a single global queue at the I/O driver to handle incoming I/O requests. For implementing WOW write cache, we implemented another write cache layer on the RAID controller. When I/O requests are dequeued from the I/O driver queue, they are inserted to

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1</th>
<th>SSD Model Parameters</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>SSD configuration</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Total capacity</td>
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<td>Reserved free blocks</td>
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<td>Minimum free blocks</td>
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<td>Page write</td>
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<td>Redundancy</td>
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</table>
We used a mixture of real enterprise-scale I/O and synthetic HPC workloads to study the efficacy of LAWC on a wide spectrum of I/O workloads. We use Microsoft (MSR) Exchange Server [26], Cello [27], Financial [28], TPC-H [29], FIU-VM [30], and FIU-MAIL [30] traces as real-world enterprise workloads. In addition, a skewed trace is used to validate the effectiveness of LAWC for a heavily skewed workload. To further explore the performance of the proposed cache design in multi-application storage environment, we used the multistream trace which is a mixture of different workloads.

In addition, for the synthetic HPC workload, we used a synthesized HPC trace that was generated based on the characterization study of real HPC I/O workloads of the Spider file system [7]. The HPC trace analyzed shows about 60 percent writes and 40 percent reads, a bi-normal distribution for request size, and a Poisson distribution for inter-arrival times with an average of 20 ms. For the request size distribution, there are about 50 percent 4K small requests and 50 percent large requests (17 percent of 512 KB and 32 percent of 1 MB requests). Based on this study, we performed experiments varying I/O request size, arrival rate of the requests, and the percentage of write requests. Table 4 summarizes the values of these parameters used in the experiments.

### 4.2 Performance Analysis of LAWC

To evaluate the performance of LAWC, we compare the following algorithms:

- WOW [16]: A state-of-the-art write cache algorithm for RAID of HDDs.
- GGC [12]: A technique that improves the performance of RAID by coordinating GCs of SSDs.
- IWC: An independent write caches (IWC) without synchronization nor the small cache.
- IWC+S: an enhanced IWC with destage write synchronization technique but not the small cache.
- LAWC: a combination of IWC, synchronization and the small cache.

To make fair comparisons, the total amount of cache size (including the small write cache) is the same across different architectures.

WOW employs a linear threshold scheme to determine when to trigger destage writes, as mentioned in Section 2.1. This same scheme could be applied to the small cache and independent write caches in LAWC. However, in our implementation, both high and low threshold values are zero, which means destaging is triggered immediately at a full rate when any request is stored in write caches of both LAWC and WOW. Due to fundamental difference in architecture, different threshold values have different impact on performance of LAWC and WOW. For example, LAWC offers the best performance with a certain threshold value, which does not work for WOW. Since the threshold value is orthogonal to LAWC design, we exclude the impact of threshold for fair comparison by setting them zero.

#### 4.2.1 Impact of Front Cache Size

Recall that LAWC consists of a small cache and an array of independent write caches. Different size distribution between the small cache and the independent write caches was experimented to get an idea of the size distribution which offers optimal performance. This experimental analysis is important to decide the size ratio of the small buffer to the main cache by learning how size has an effect on overall performance. Exchange and Financial workloads are used as one representative intensive workload and one non-intensive workload for these sensitivity analysis respectively.
Algorithm 1. Pseudo-Code of LAWC

1 PROCEDURE: ReqestArrive
2 Input: R /* A write request
3 if the small cache is full then
4   if R has dependency on requests in the small cache then
5     wait until the small cache is available;
6   else
7     call IndependentWriteCache(R);
8 end
9 else
10   store R to the small cache;
11 end
12
13 PROCEDURE: IndependentWriteCache
14 Input: R /* A write request
15 split R to strips, R0, R1,..., Rn;
16 compute parity strip Rn;
17 for all strips do
18   if the corresponding write cache is full then
19     wait until the cache is available;
20 end
21 store the strip to the corresponding write cache;
22 set the recency bit of the strip as true;
23 end
24
25 PROCEDURE: DestageSmallCache
26 if the write cache is not empty then
27   repeat
28     advance the destage pointer;
29     if the recency bit is true then
30       clear the recency bit;
31   until a write group is found whose recency bit is false;
32   call IndependetWriteCache(the found write group);
33 end
34
35 PROCEDURE: Destage
36 Input: i /* The index of the write cache
37 if the write cache is not empty then
38   repeat
39     advance the destage pointer;
40     if the recency bit is true then
41       clear the recency bit;
42   until a strip is found whose recency bit is false;
43   mark i – th write cache is ready to destage;
44   repeat
45     wait;
46   until Synchronization();
47   destage the found strip to the corresponding SSD;
48 end
49
50 PROCEDURE: Synchronization
51 Output: true or false
52 if all write caches are ready to destage then
53   clear marks;
54   reset timer;
55   return true;
56 end
57 if timer expires then
58   clear marks;
59   reset timer;
60   return true;
61 end
62

Fig. 6. Performance of LAWC compared to cache size.

In our experiment, the small cache ratio is calculated as the following: Denote the size of the small cache as $S_s$, the number of SSDs as $N$, and the size of one write cache $S_c$. Then the ratio is calculated as $\frac{S_s}{S_c}$. We explored the ratio by changing $S_s$ and $S_c$ while keeping the total size $(S_s + N \times S_c)$ unchanged. For example, we used 64 KB as $S_c$ and 24 KB as $S_s$, which give us 256 KB as the total size and 25 percent as the ratio for RAID-0 (refer to Table 2). If we use 24 KB as $S_s$ and 29 KB as $S_c$, the total size is the same (256 KB), but the ratio is 9.375 percent. Fig. 6 shows the performance of LAWC with respect to the varied ratio of small cache to the main cache. Precisely, the size of the small cache and the size of independent write caches are varied to explore different ratios. In both Figs. 6a and 6b, we observe that the peak performance is achieved when the small cache size is 25 percent. For a fair comparison, we use 25 percent as the small cache size ratio throughout the rest of simulations.

4.2.2 Evaluating LAWC for Enterprise Workloads

Fig. 7 shows the results with real enterprise workloads. We observe that WOW outperforms IWC because WOW has separate caches, but WOW has a unified cache, which results in higher utilization of the cache space. In IWC, one of write caches may become full while there is room in other write caches because there is no interaction between write caches. In contrast, WOW can mitigate this problem because all SSDs share the unified write cache.

We see that IWC does not help to improve performance. However, when the destage write synchronization technique is employed, the performance of IWC+S is drastically improved when compared to IWC. In particular, for write-intensive workloads (Exchange, Cell, FIU-VM, FIU-MAIL, MS-EC, and MS-ECFT), IWC+S significantly outperforms WOW. IWC+S outperforms WOW by 82.39 and 68.51 percent for RAID-0 and RAID-5, respectively, as shown in Figs. 7a and 7b. This is because IWC+S increases the probability of GC synchronization. GGC enforces GC coordination with a help of modified block interface on both RAID and individual controllers, which results in the best performance in Figs. 7a and 7b.

The drawback of IWC+S could be the pre-parity-computation. The overhead of pre-parity-computation is compensated by GC synchronization for write-intensive workloads, but for non-intensive workloads (Financial and TPC-H), it is not. By employing the small cache, LAWC can mask the performance degradation due to this overhead from the response time. Thus, LAWC offers similar performance with WOW for non-intensive workloads.
The difference in the average response time between LAWC and WOW is 8.19 and 2.19 percent for Financial and TPC-H, respectively. Therefore, LAWC offers similar performance with WOW for non-intensive workloads, while outperforming WOW for intensive workloads.

We performed experiments with highly skewed trace. In the skewed trace, 50 percent of requests are on one SSD, and 50 percent of requests are randomly distributed. Though the performance improvement of LAWC for the skewed trace is not as significant as for other write-intensive workloads.
workloads, LAWC still offers drastic improvement in average response time. Specifically, LAWC improves the average response time by 29.22 and 24.47 percent compared to WOW for RAID-0 and RAID-5, respectively.

In both RAID-0 and RAID-5, the trend of the standard deviation, shown in Figs. 7c and 7d is similar with that of the average response time. GGC exhibits the smallest standard deviation, and LAWC offers smaller standard deviation compared to WOW. Specifically, LAWC offers 4.77 and 10.79 percent smaller average standard deviation compared to WOW, for RAID-0 and RAID-5, respectively. In case of maximum response time shown in Figs. 7e and 7f, it is similar across all implementations. The throughput is reversely related with the response time. Figs. 7g and 7h show that the average throughput of LAWC is improved by 85.53 and 78.35 percent compared to WOW for RAID-0 and RAID-5, respectively.

Effect of Synchronized Destage Writes. The synchronization mechanism improves the performance by increasing the probability of GCs operating simultaneously. Fig. 8 compares the average number of synchronized GC processes. We count the number of SSDs that run GCs during a fixed time slice, for which we use 0.1 ms in our measurement. This result clearly shows that the probability of GC synchronization markedly increases with LAWC compared to WOW. The average number of synchronized GC operations is increased by up to 6.24 times.

![Fig. 8. Average number of synchronized GC processes. Each bar is shown as the following order: WOW, GGC, and LAWC.](image)

![Fig. 9. Comparing WOW and LAWC for a wider range of workload characteristics. Each bar is shown as the following order: WOW, GGC, and LAWC.](image)

![Fig. 10. Sensitivity analysis for different cache sizes. Each bar is shown as the following order: WOW, GGC, IWC, IWC+S, and LAWC.](image)
4.2.3 Evaluating LAWC for HPC Workloads

In order to cover a wide-range of workload characteristics, we evaluated LAWC with synthetic HPC workloads. Fig. 9 shows the results comparing LAWC and WOW. The main benefit of employing LAWC comes from large requests. In Fig. 9a, compared to WOW, the response time of W(1024, 20, 60), W(4096, 20, 60), and W(1024, 10, 60) is reduced by 32.33, 27.13, and 47.24 percent, respectively. Since the response time of large requests is much longer than that of small requests, the response time reduction for large requests substantially improves the overall performance. Varying inter-arrival time (e.g., W(1024, 10, 60) and W(1024, 40, 60)) and percentage of write requests (e.g., W(1024, 20, 20) and W(1024, 20, 80)) does not affect the overall trend.

If the RAID configuration requires parity computation (RAID-5), the overhead of the pre-parity-computation increases, but the front small cache effectively hides it. Fig. 9b shows the results of RAID-5. For W(1024, 20, 60), W(4096, 20, 60) and W(1024, 10, 60), the performance improvement is 35.22, 30.14, and 33.36 percent, respectively.

4.2.4 Sensitivity Analysis with Different Cache Parameters

To further examine the effective performance of the proposed techniques, different cache sizes were used to study the performance of RAID SSD with intensive and non-intensive workloads. Exchange [26] and Financial [28] workloads were chosen for evaluation.

Fig. 10 show the results of RAID-0 and RAID-5 configurations for Exchange and Financial workloads. The results for intensive workload show that, for all cache sizes, from small to large, LAWC still outperforms WOW in terms of average response time. We can clearly see WOW performs worst in all different cache sizes, whereas LAWC offers comparable performance to GGC. LAWC offers 84.67 percent decrease in response time when compared with WOW and performs 8.47 percent worse than GGC. Therefore, LAWC offers drastic performance improvement by exploiting internal cache design. The results of non-intensive workload, shown in Figs. 10c and 10d, that for small cache size, performance of WOW is 9.57 and 15.76 percent better than LAWC. The performance of LAWC is comparable even for non-intensive workloads when the cache size is small. For other sizes, the performance is in accordance with other results; LAWC offers more optimal performance than IWC+S for non-intensive workloads, by mitigating the pre-parity-computation overhead.

To quantify the impact of the write cache access time, we performed a sensitivity analysis with different access latencies. The cache latency parameters used for this analysis are summarized in Table 5. As shown in Fig. 11, the cache configuration (access latency) has negligible impact on the results. This is because the portion of the access time of the cache over the average overall access time is not significant. For example, in the case of LAWC, RAID0, and Exchange, the average access time is 0.045 ms while the read and write latency of the baseline cache configuration is only 0.000125 and 0.001 ms, respectively. Furthermore, we assumed the same cache configuration for all other techniques. The performance difference depicted in Fig. 11 is mainly attributed to the way how GC of SSDs affect the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Configuration</th>
<th>Read latency (µs)</th>
<th>Write latency (µs)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SS (Very Slow)</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S (Slow)</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B (Baseline)</td>
<td>0.125</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F (Fast)</td>
<td>0.0625</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FF (Very Fast)</td>
<td>0.03125</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 11. Sensitivity analysis for different cache access latencies. Each bar is shown as the following order: WOW, GGC, IWC, IWC+S, and LAWC.
response time. LAWC and GGC minimize the GC impact by synchronizing GC processes in the array of SSDs.

5 RELATED WORK

RAID combines multiple disks into a logical unit to provide fault tolerance and improve overall performance in a system. RAID uses “striping” technique. It breaks data into segments and sends each segment to independent disks, offering read/write to more than one disk at the same time to improve performance. In addition, parity in RAID provides data redundancy to improving reliability. Performance of RAID in the context of hard disk drives has traditionally been extensively studied in [31], [32], [33], [34], [35]. On the other hand, SSDs offer significant performance improvement than HDDs, however, they suffer performance variability due to internal characteristics [12], [13], [14], [15]. When SSDs are configured in RAID, the performance variability of individual SSDs becomes a major concern, because the overall performance of the SSD-based RAID could be limited by the slowest SSD. The main reason behind this performance degradation is due to uncoordinated garbage collection. Kim et al. [12], [13] proposed a coordinated GC algorithm, called GGC [12] to mitigate the performance degradation problem in SSD arrays.

WOW [16] and STOW [18] are popular write cache algorithms for the arrays of HDDs. Even if WOW [16], and STOW [18] significantly improve write performance, their work is limited only to an array of hard drives. On the contrary, our work focuses on the design of write cache for an array of SSDs for all-flash storage. LAWC considers internal SSD characteristics in the array such as multiple chips, channels, multiple cores, etc. To the best of our knowledge, no prior work has been performed on the write cache design for All Flash storage. GC needs to be carefully considered in cache management on the RAID controller for SSDs. The proposed write cache improves performance by increasing the probability of GC synchronization. When GC processes are invoked at the same time, the performance variation across SSDs is reduced, which contributes to reducing the response time. While the proposed write cache increases the probability of GC synchronization, GGC [12] guarantees it. However, GGC requires a modification to the interface (e.g., SATA) to enable the GC synchronization. Since the interface modification is not widely accepted yet, our proposed write cache is a practical solution for an array of existing commodity SSDs.

6 CONCLUSION

All flash array storage system becomes more and more popular with its high I/O performance and high reliability. Although they offer better performance than HDD based array, frequency of garbage collection makes SSD RAID incur higher overheads. From our study, we observed that independent garbage collection process on different SSDs contributes to the overheads in serving the incoming requests, thus resulting in a overall performance variability of the all-flash array storage.

To minimize the effect of not optimized RAID destage writes, we proposed a Layout-aware Write Cache design, which implements an asynchronous write cache algorithm with a pre-parity-computation technique. Specifically LAWC implements I/O scheduling with pre-parity computation, synchronized destage write, and two-level hybrid caching techniques. Unlike a traditional write cache, LAWC employs as many separate write queues as the number of SSDs in the array. By employing multiple write queues, an impact of GC on any write queue can be isolated from other queues. The results revealed that the synchronization of destage writes across SSDs can increase the probability of overlapped GC operations across SSDs in the array, improving the overall performance of SSD arrays, without requiring interface changes to the architecture as in GGC.

We designed and evaluated LAWC by enhancing the well regarded MSR’s SSD simulator. With extensive evaluations, our conclusion is that LAWC increases the average number of synchronized GCs, when compared to a state-of-the-art RAID write cache, WOW [16]. As a result, it offers performance improvement by 89.37 and 89.94 percent for RAID-0 and RAID-5, respectively, on multi-stream storage environment, when compared to WOW. Moreover, the proposed technique is more practical than an existing GC coordination technique such as GGC because it does not require modification to the block interface.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work was supported by the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF) grant funded by the Korea Government (MISP (No. 2015R1C1A0152105). This research used resources of The University of Texas at San Antonio, San Antonio, TX.

REFERENCES

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