

Lecture 4: Disk Space Management



CREATING THE NEXT°

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Administrivia

Collaboration allowed for programming assignments Exercise sheets and exams will be individual tasks

Assignment 1 is due on September 13th @ 11:59pm



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Today's Agenda

Storage Management

- 1.1 Recap
- 1.2 Layered Architecture
- 1.3 Hardware Properties
- 1.4 Disk-Oriented DBMS
- 1.5 File Storage
- 1.6 Page Layout
- 1.7 Tuple Layout



Recap

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List of SQL Features

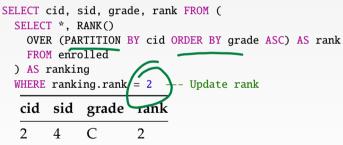
- Aggregations + Group By
- String / Date / Time Operations
- Output Control + Redirection
- Nested Queries
- Join
- Common Table Expressions
- Window Functions



Window Functions

• Task: Get the name of the students with the second highest grade for each course.

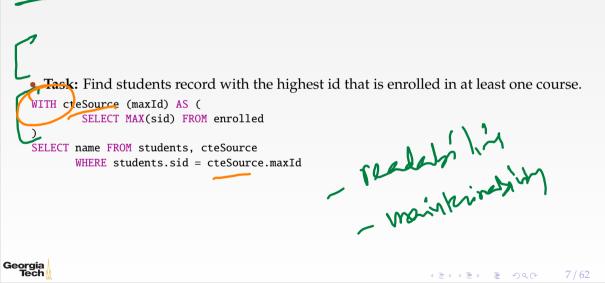
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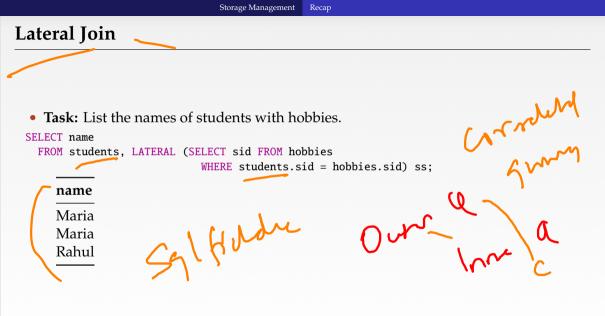














Layered Architecture

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Overview

• We now understand what a database looks like at a **logical** level and how to write queries to read/write data from it (*i.e.*, **physical** level).

• We will next learn how to build software that manages a database.



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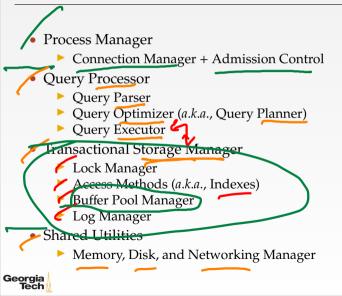
Anatomy of a Database System [Monologue]

Process Manager Manages client connections **Ouerv** Processor Parse, plan and execute queries on top of storage manager Transactional Storage Manager Knits together buffer management, concurrency control, logging and recovery Shared Utilities Manage hardware resources across threads ronveile

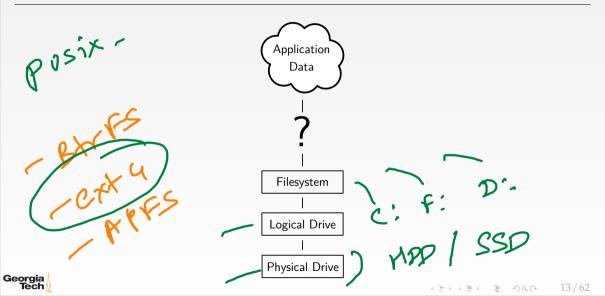


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Anatomy of a Database System [Monologue] (2)



The Problem



Requirements

There are different classes of requirements:

- 🗸 Data Independence
 - application logic must be shielded from physical storage implementation details
 - physical storage can be reorganized
 - hardware can be changed
- Scalability
 - must scale to (nearly) arbitrary data size
 - efficiently access to individual tuples
 - efficiently update an arbitrary subset of tuples

Reliability

- data must never be lost
- must cope with hardware and software failures





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Layered Architecture

- implementing all these requirements on "bare metal" is hard
- and not desirable
- a DBMS must be maintainable and extensible

Instead: use a layered architecture

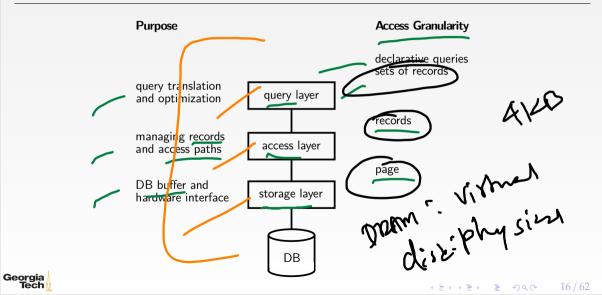
- the DBMS logic is split into levels of functionality
- each level is implemented by a specific layer
- each layer interacts only with the next lower layer
- simplifies and modularizes the code





Layered Architecture

A Simple Layered Architecture



A Simple Layered Architecture (2)

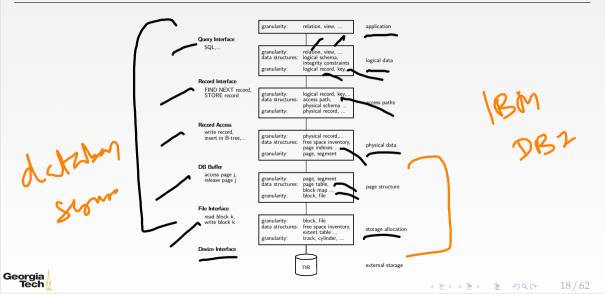
- layers can be characterized by the data items they manipulate
- lower layer offers functionality for the next higher level
- keeps the complexity of individual layers reasonable
- rough structure: $physical \rightarrow low level \rightarrow high level$

This is a reasonable architecture, but simplified. A more detailed architecture is needed for a complete DBMS.



Layered Architecture

A More Detailed Architecture



Lavered Architecture

A More Detailed Architecture (2)

A few pieces are still missing: • transaction isolation -CC

- recoverv

but otherwise it is a reasonable architecture.

Some system deviate slightly from this classical architecture

- many DBMSs nowadays delegate disk access to the OS
- some DBMSs delegate **buffer management** to the OS (tricky, though)
- a few DBMSs allow for direct logical record access



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Hardware Properties

Impact of Hardware

Must take hardware properties into account when designing a storage system.

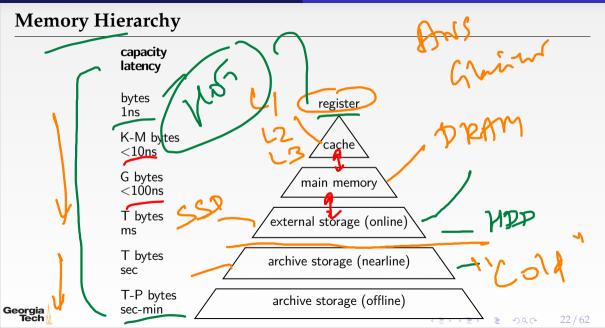
For a long time dominated by **Moore's Law**: The number of transistors on a chip doubles every <u>18 month</u>. Indirectly drove a number of other parameters: Multi- And Ard main memory size CPU speed no longer true!

HDD capacity

start getting problematic, too. density is very high

only capacity, not access time _____





Memory Hierarchy (2)

There are huge gaps between hierarchy levels

• traditionally, main memory vs. disk is most important

• but memory vs. cache etc. also relevant

The DBMS must aim to maximize locality.



Hard Disk Access

Hard Disks are still the dominant external storage:

- rotating platters, mechanical effects
 - transfer rate: ca. 150MB/s
 - seek time ca. 3ms

• huge imbalance in random vs. sequential I/O!

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Hard Disk Access (2)

The DBMS must take these effects into account

- sequential access is much more efficient
- traditional DBMSs are designed to maximize sequential access
- gap is growing instead of shrinking
- even SSDs are slightly asymmetric (and have other problems)
- DBMSs try to reduce number of writes to random pages by organizing data in **contiguous blocks**.

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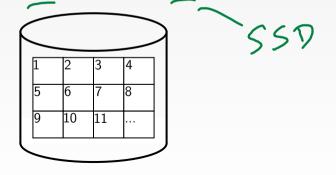
• Allocating multiple pages at the same time is called a **segment**



Hard Disk Access (3)

Techniques to speed up disk access:

- do not move the head for every single tuple
- instead, load larger chunks. typical granularity: one page
- page size varies. traditionally 4KB, nowadays often 16K and more (trade-off)





Hard Disk Access (4)

The page structure is very prominent within the DBMS

granularity of I/O granularity of buffering/memory management granularity of recovery

Page is still too small to hide random I/O though

- sequential page access is important
- DBMSs use read-ahead techniques

asynchronous write-back



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Database System Architectures

Storage Management

Disk-Centric Database System

• The DBMS assumes that the primary storage location of the database is HDD.

Memory-Centric Database System (MMDB)

• The DBMS assumes that the primary storage location of the database is DRAM.

Buffer Management

The DBMS's components manage the movement of data between non-volatile and volatile storage.

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Access Times

Access Time	Hardware	Scaled Time
0.5 ns	L1 Cache	0.5 sec
7 ns	L2 Cache	7 sec
100 ns	DRAM	100 sec
350 ns	NVM	6 min
150 us	SSD	1.7 days
10 ms	HDD	16.5 weeks
30 ms	Network Storage	11.4 months 🔪 🛛 🥂
1 s	Tape Archives	31.7 years

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Source: Latency numbers every programmer should know



Disk-Oriented DBMS

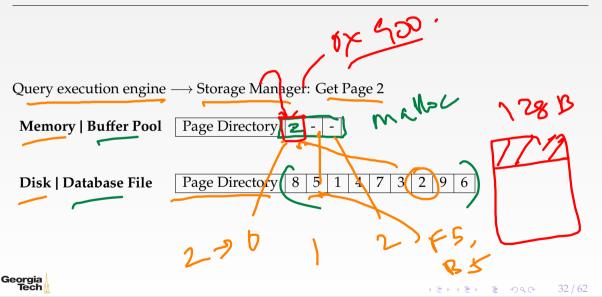
Design Goals

- Allow the DBMS to manage databases that exceed the amount of memory available.
- Reading/writing to disk is expensive, so it must be managed carefully to avoid large stalls and performance degradation.

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Disk-Oriented DBMS



Disk-Oriented DBMS

- Each page has a **header** with the page's metadata (e.g., page number, free space bitmap)
- Query execution engine gets pointer to page 2
 - Interprets the contents of page 2 using the header
- Page directory is typically implemented as a hash table
 - ▶ page number \longrightarrow buffer pool slot
 - page number \longrightarrow file block
- Page migration between disk and memory is known as buffer management



Why not use the OS?

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- One can use **memory mapping (mmap)** to store the contents of a file into a process' address space.
- The OS is responsible for moving data for moving the files' pages in and out of memory.

Problems

- What if we allow multiple threads to access the mmap files to hide page fault stalls?
- This works good enough for read-only access.
- It is complicated when there are multiple writers.



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Why not use the OS?

- There are some solutions to this problem:
 madvise: Tell the OS how you expect to read certain pages.
 mlock: Tell the OS that memory ranges cannot be paged out.
 msync: Tell the OS to flush memory ranges out to disk.
- Database systems using mmap
 - ▶ Full Usage: MonetDB, LMDB, *e.t.c.*
 - Partial Usage: mongoDB, MemSQL, e.t.c.

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Why not use the OS?

DBMS (almost) always wants to control things itself and can do a better job at it.
 Flushing dirty pages to disk in the correct order.
 Specialized prefetching.
 Buffer replacement policy.
 Thread/process scheduling.



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Storage Management

File StoragePage LayoutTuple Layout

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File Storage

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File Storage

- The DBMS stores a database as one or more files on disk.
 - The OS doesn't know anything about the contents of these files.
- Early systems in the 1980s used custom filesystems on raw storage.
 - Some "enterprise" DBMSs still support this.
 - Most newer DBMSs do not roll their own filesystem



Storage Manager

- The storage manager is responsible for maintaining a database's files.
 - Some do their own scheduling of I/O operations to improve spatial and temporal locality of pages.

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- It organizes the files as a collection of pages.
 - Tracks data being read from and written to pages.
 - Tracks the available free space.



Database Pages

- A page is a fixed-size block of data.
 - It can contain tuples, meta-data, indexes, log records...
 - Most systems do not mix page types.
 - Some systems require a page to be self-contained. Why?
- Each page is given a unique identifier.
 - > The DBMS uses an **indirection layer** to map page ids to physical locations.
 - This is implemented as a page directory table.





Database Pages

- There are three different notions of "pages" in a DBMS: Hardware Page (usually 4 KB)
 OS Page (usually 4 KB)
 Database Page (512 B – 16 KB)
- By hardware page, we mean at what level the device can guarantee a "failsafe write".

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Page Storage Architectures

- Different DBMSs manage pages in files on disk in different ways.
 - Heap File Organization Sequential / Sorted File Organization Hashing File Organization
- At this point in the hierarchy we don't need to know anything about what is inside of the pages.



Database Heap

- A **heap file** is an unordered collection of pages where tuples are stored in random order.
 - Create / Get / Write / Delete Page
 Must also support iterating over all pages.
- Need meta-data to keep track of what pages exist and which ones have free space.

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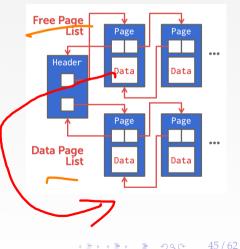
- Two ways to represent a heap file:
 - 🗲 Linked List
 - Page Directory



File Storage

Heap File Organization: Linked List

- Maintain a **header page** at the beginning of the • file that stores two pointers: **HEAD** of the free page list. HEAD of the data page list.
- Each page keeps track of the number of free slots in itself.

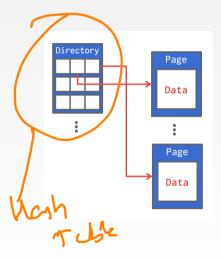




File Storage

Heap File Organization: Page Directory

- The DBMS maintains special pages that tracks the location of data pages in the database files.
- The directory also records the number of free slots per page.
- The DBMS has to make sure that the directory pages are in sync with the data pages.





Page Header

Every page contains a header of meta-data about the page's contents.
 Page Size
 Checksum
 DBMS Version
 Transaction Visibility
 Compression Information
 Some systems require pages to be <u>self-contained</u> (*e.g.*, Oracle).

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• For any page storage architecture, we now need to understand how to organize the data stored inside of the page.

- We are still assuming that we are only storing tuples.
- Two approaches:
 - Tuple-oriented

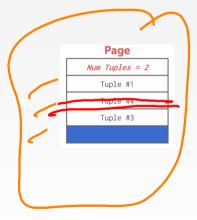


Tuple Storage

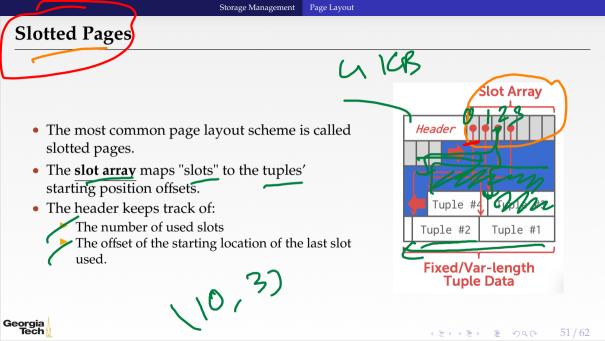
- How to store tuples in a page?
- Strawman Idea: Keep track of the number of tuples in a page and then just append a new tuple to the end.

What happens if we delete a tuple?

What happens if we have a variable-length attribute?

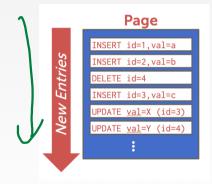






Log-structured File Organization

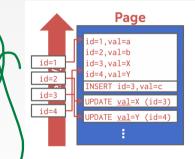
- Instead of storing tuples in pages, the DBMS only stores log records.
- The system appends log records to the file of how the database was modified:
 - Inserts store the entire tuple.
 - Deletes mark the tuple as deleted.
 - Updates contain the delta of just the attributes that were modified.





Log-structured File Organization

- To read a record, the DBMS scans the log backwards and "recreates" the tuple to find what it needs.
- Build indexes to allow it to jump to locations in the log.
- Periodically compact the log.

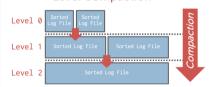


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Log-structured Compaction

 Compaction coalesces larger log files into smaller files by removing unnecessary records.



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OLTP

Level Compaction





Tuple Layout

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Tuple Layout

- A tuple is essentially a sequence of bytes.
- It's the job of the DBMS to interpret those bytes into attribute types and values.

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Tuple Header

 Each tuple is prefixed with a header that contains meta-data about it.
 Visibility info (concurrency control)

Bit map for keeping track of NULL values.

• We do not need to store meta-data about the schema. Why?





Tuple Data

- Attributes are typically stored in the order that you specify them when you create the table.
- This is done for software engineering reasons. CREATE TABLE foo (
 - a INT PRIMARY KEY,
 - b INT NOT NULL,
 - c INT,
 - d DOUBLE,
 - e FLOAT

Header b c d e

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);



Denormalized Tuple Data

- Can physically <u>denormalize</u> (*e.g.*, "pre join") related tuples and store them together in the same page.
 - Potentially reduces the amount of I/O for common workload patterns.
 - Can make updates more expensive.
 - ▶ IBM System R did this in the 1970s.
 - Several NoSQL DBMSs do this as well.

```
CREATE TABLE foo (
```

```
a INT PRIMARY KEY,
```

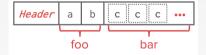
```
b INT NOT NULL
```

```
);
```

```
CREATE TABLE bar (
```

```
c INT PRIMARY KEY,
```

```
a INT REFERENCES foo (a)
```



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- Each tuple is assigned a unique record identifier.
 - Most common. page_id + offset/slot -
 - Can also contain file location info.
- An application <u>cannot</u> rely on these ids to mean anything.
- Examples

Tuple IDs

- PostgreSOL: CTID (6-bytes)
- SOLite: ROWID (10-bytes)
- Oracle: ROWID (8-bytes)



Conclusion

- Database systems have a layered architecture.
- Design of database system components affected by hardware properties.

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- Database is physically organized as a collection of pages on disk.
- Different ways to manage pages and tuples.





Next Class

- Value Representation
- Storage Models

