Database Management and Performance Tuning Recovery Tuning

Pei Li

University of Zurich Institute of Informatics IFI

Unit 11

Acknowledgements: The sides are provided by Nikolaus Augsten and Adapted from "Database Tuning" by Dennis Shasha and Philippe Bonnet.

Outline

- Recovery Tuning
 - Logging and Recovery
 - Tuning the Recovery Subsystem

Atomicity and Durability in Case of Failure



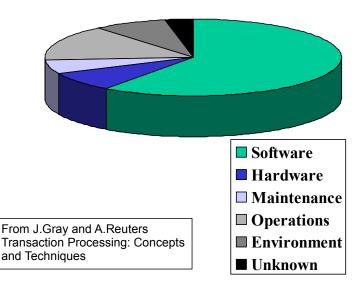
States of a Transaction

- Durability: After a transactions commits, changes to the database persist even in the case of system failure.
- Atomicity: after failure, reconstruct database such that
 - changes of all committed transactions are reflected
 - effects of non-committed and aborted transactions are eliminated
- Recovery subsystem: Guarantee atomicity & durability in failure case.

Failure Types

- Software:
 - 99% are Heisenbugs (non-reproducible, due to timing or overload)
 - Heisenbugs do not appear if system is restarted
 - example: error due to isolation level that was chosen too low
- Hardware: failure in physical device
 - CPU, RAM, disk, network
 - fail-stop: device stops when failure occurs, e.g., CPU
- Maintenance: problem during system repair or maintenance
 - examples: recover from failure, backup
- Operations: regular operations
 - regular system administration and configuration
 - user operations
- Environment: factors outside the computer system
 - examples: fire in the machine room (Credit Lyonnais, 1996), 9/11

Failure Probability



Which Failures Can Database Systems Tolerate?

- Some software failures:
 - crashing client
 - crashing operating system
 - some server errors
- Hardware failure:
 - CPU fail-stop and erasure of main memory
 - single disk fail-stop (if enough redundant disks are available)
- Environment: Power outage
- Backups still important:
 - recovery system does not substitute backups
 - backups required for failures not covered by recovery system
 - example: accidental deletions, natural disaster

Durability

- Durability in databases:
 - goal: make changes permanent before sending commit to client
 - implementation: store transaction data on stable storage
- Stable storage: immune to failure (only approximated in practice)
 - durable media, e.g., disks, tapes, battery-backed RAM
 - replication on several units (redundant disks to survive disk failure)
- Problems:
 - non-durable buffers in some system layer
 - partial disk writes

How To Deal with Non-Durable Buffers?

- Non-durable buffer in some system layer:
 - database tells system to write a disk page
 - but disk page remains in some non-durable buffer
- Operating system buffer:
 - write operations are buffered
 - fsync flushes all pages of a given file OK
- Disk controller cache:
 - common in RAID controllers
 - battery-backed cache OK
 - other caches may lead to inconsistencies in case of failure
- Disk cache: switch off for log disk (critical!)
 - hdparm -I /dev/sda shows meta data of disk /dev/sda
 - hdparm -W 0 /dev/sda switches disk buffer off

How To Deal with Partial Disk Writes?

- Partial disk writes:
 - database writes disk page which consists of several sectors e.g., 8kB page consists of 16 sectors (512B each)
 - power failure during write: page may be only partially written
 - leads to inconsistent database state
- Disk controller: battery backed cache
 - data in cache is written at restart after power outage
 - consistent state is restored
- Operating system: file system
 - file system that prevents partial writes, e.g., Raiser 4
- Database: e.g., full_page_writes in PostgreSQL
 - before-image of page is stored before updating it
 - recovery: partially written page is restored and update is repeated

Guaranteeing Atomicity

- 1. Before images: state at transaction start
 - used to undo the effects of a uncommitted transaction
 - before image must remain on stable storage until commit
- 2. After images: state at transaction end
 - used to install effects of transaction after commit
 - after image must be written to stable storage before commit

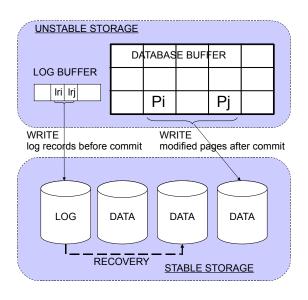
Concepts

- Data files: tables, indexes
- Log file: stores before and after images
- Database buffer: contains pages that transactions modify
- Dirty page: buffer page with uncommitted changes

Write-Ahead Logging

- WAI commit:
 - write after images to log file before transaction commits
 - data files can be updated later (after commit)
- WAI abort:
 - variant 1: explicitly store before image in log
 - variant 2: use data file as a before image
 - only in variant 1 it is safe to write dirty pages to the data file
 - dirty pages are typically written when the database buffer is full
- Example: WAL for a transaction T that modifies pages P_i and P_i
 - pages P_i and P_i are loaded to the database buffer
 - transaction T modifies the pages P_i and P_i
 - database generates log records lr_i and lr_i for the modifications
 - database writes log records to stable storage before committing
 - modified pages are written to data file after transaction T commits

Write-Ahead Logging



Logging Variants

- Logging granularity: what does a log record store?
 - page-level logging
 - byte-level logging (log partial pages)
 - record-level logging
- Logical logging: log operation and argument that caused update
 - e.g., operation: insert into employee, argument: (103-4403-33, Brown)
 - saves disk space
 - implemented in DB2

Logging Guarantee

Guarantee by logging algorithms:

current database state = current state of data files $+ \log$

- Current database state:
 - reflects all committed transactions
- Current state of data file:
 - reflects only committed transactions physically in data file
 - some transactions may be committed and stored in the log, but not yet written to the database

Checkpoint and Dump

- Checkpoint: force data files to reflect current database state
 - write all committed changes to data file
 - committed changes may be in database buffer or log
- When do checkpoints happen?
 - at regular intervals (tuning parameter)
 - log is full (Oracle)
 - explicit SQL command
- Dump: transaction-consistent database state
 - entire database including changes of all committed transactions
 - recovery guarantee:

current database state = database dump + log (after dump)

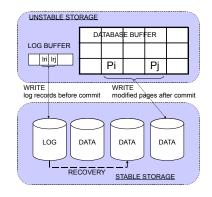
Recovering after Main Memory and Disk Failure

- Main memory failure: database buffer is lost
 - log needs to be considered only starting after last checkpoint
 - all committed changes before checkpoint are already in data file
- Data disk failure: (disk with log is still OK)
 - database dump required
 - log after database dump needs to be considered
 - checkpoints irrelevant
- Log disk failure: disaster!
 - committed transactions after last checkpoint get lost
 - database may be inconsistent last consistent state is last dump
 - to prevent disaster, replicate disk with log
 - make sure to avoid risk of non-durable buffers and partial writes

Outline

- Recovery Tuning
 - Logging and Recovery
 - Tuning the Recovery Subsystem

Tuning Activities

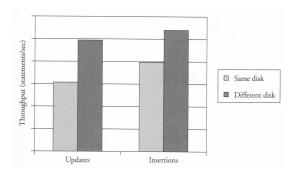


- 1. Log on separate disk
- 2. Log buffer tuning: group commit
- 3. Log buffer tuning: trading in durability
- 4. Tuning data writes (checkpoints)

1. Log on Separate Disk

- Update transaction must write to the log, i.e., to the disk
- If log and data files share disk, disk seeks are required.
- Separate disk for log:
 - sequential writes instead of seeks (10 to 100 times faster)
 - log independent from data files in case of disk failure
 - disk setting can be tailored to log (e.g., switch off buffer)
- PostgreSQL: How to move log to an other disk?
 - log directory: pg_xlog (location: show data_directory;)
 - move log directory to log disk and create symbolic link

Experiment – Separate Disk for Log



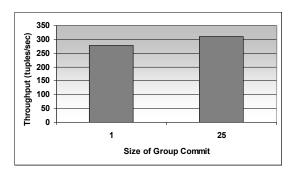
- 300k inserts or update statements.
- Each statement is a separate transaction and forces a write.
- Same disk: data files and log are on the same disk.
- Different disks: log has its own disk.

Oracle 9i on Linux server with internal hard drives (no RAID controller)

2. Group Commit

- Log buffer is flushed to disk before each commit.
- Group commit:
 - commit a group of transactions together
 - only one disk write (flush) for all transactions
- Advantage: higher throughput
- Disadvantages: some transactions must wait before committing
 - locks are held longer (until commit)
 - lower response time for waiting transactions

Group Commit – Experiment



Increasing the group commit size increases the throughput.

DB2 UDB V7.1 on Windows 2000

WAL Buffer and Group Commit in PostgreSQL

- WAL buffer: Write ahead log buffer
 - RAM buffer, size 64kB=8pages (wal_buffers)
 - all log records are written to this buffer
 - WAL page is flushed at commit or every 200ms (wal_writer_delay)
 - data is written to a file called WAL segment
- commit_delay: (default: 0)
 - time delay between a commit and flushing WAL buffer
 - during waiting period, hopefully other transactions commit
 - if other transaction commits, do group commit
 - if no other transaction commits, waiting time is lost
- commit_sibling: (default: 5)
 - minimum number of concurrent open transactions for group commit
 - if less transactions are open, commit_delay is disabled

- synchronous_commit: (default: on)
 - call fsync to force operating system to flush disk buffer
 - commit only after fsync returns
 - switch off if you do not want to wait for fsync
 - parameter can be set for each transaction individually
- Switching off synchronous commit increases performance.
- Worst case: database consistency not in danger
 - system crash may cause loss of most recently committed transactions
 - lost transactions seem uncommitted to database and are cleanly aborted at startup, resulting in consistent database state
 - client thinks that transaction committed, but it was aborted
 - maximum delay between commit and flush (risk period): $3 \times \text{wal_writer_delay} (= 3 \times 200 \text{ms} \text{ by default})$
- fsync: (default: on)
 - switching off fsync might result in unrecoverable data corruption
 - synchronous_commit: similar performance, less risk

4. Tuning Data Writes

- At commit time
 - database buffer (in RAM) has committed information
 - log (on disk) has committed information
 - data file may not have committed information
- Why is data not immediately written to data file?
 - each page write requires a seek
 - resulting random I/O bad for performance
- Convenient writes:
 - wait and write larger chunks at once
 - write when cheap, e.g., disk heads are on the right cylinder

Database Writes – Tuning Options

- Fill ratio of the database buffer (RAM):
 - Oracle: DB_BLOCK_MAX_DIRTY_TARGET specifies maximum number of dirty pages in database buffer
 - SQL Server: pages in free lists falls below threshold (3% by default)
- Checkpoint frequency:
 - checkpoint forces all committed writes that are only in database buffer or log to the data file
 - less frequent checkpoints allow more convenient writes
 - less frequent checkpoints increase recovery time

Checkpoint Tuning in PostgreSQL

- Checkpoints have a cost:
 - disk activity to transfer dirty pages to data file
 - if full_page_writes is on (avoid partial disk writes), after checkpoint a before image must be stored in log for each new page that is modified
- Checkpoint is triggered if one of the following is reached:
 - checkpoint_timeout (5min): max interval between checkpoints
 - checkpoint_segments (3): max number of log file segments (16MB)

Checkpoint Tuning in PostgreSQL

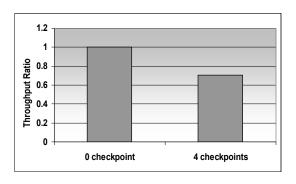
Spreading checkpoint traffic:

- checkpoint traffic is distributed to reduce I/O load
- checkpoint_completion_target (0.5): fraction of time before next checkpoint will happen
- checkpoint should finish within this time period

Monitoring checkpoints:

- checkpoint_warning (30s): write warning to log if checkpoints happen more frequently
- frequent appearance indicates that checkpoint_segments should be increased

Checkpoint Tuning – Experiment



- Long transaction with many updates.
- Checkpoints triggered while transaction still active (log file to small).
- Negative impact on performance: size of log files should be increased.

Oracle 8i FF on Windows 2000