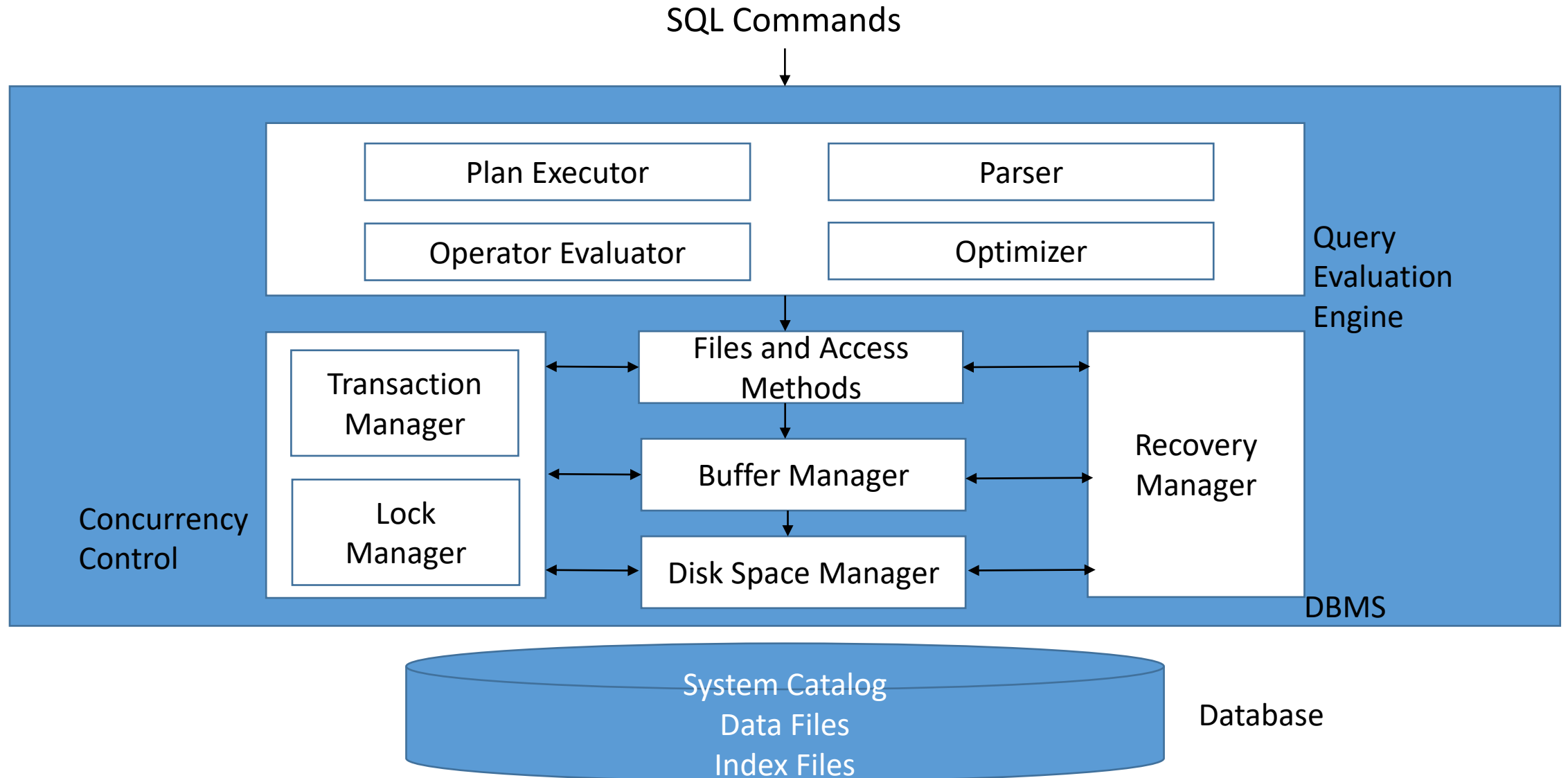


Databases

Lecture 8

The Physical Structure of Databases

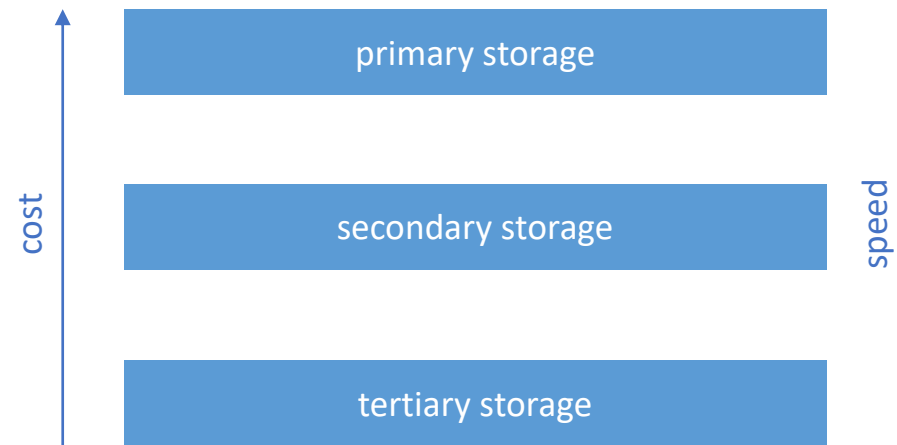
DBMS Architecture



The Memory Hierarchy

- primary storage
 - cache, main memory
 - very fast access to data
 - volatile
 - currently used data
- secondary storage
 - e.g., magnetic disks
 - slower storage devices
 - nonvolatile
 - disks - sequential, direct access
 - main database
- tertiary storage
 - e.g., optical disks, tapes
 - slowest storage devices
 - nonvolatile
 - tapes
 - only sequential access
 - good for archives, backups
 - unsuitable for data that is frequently accessed

The Memory Hierarchy



- disks and tapes - significantly cheaper than main memory
- large amounts of data that shouldn't be discarded when the system is restarted

=> the need for DBMSs that bring data from disks into main memory for processing

Secondary Storage – Magnetic Disks

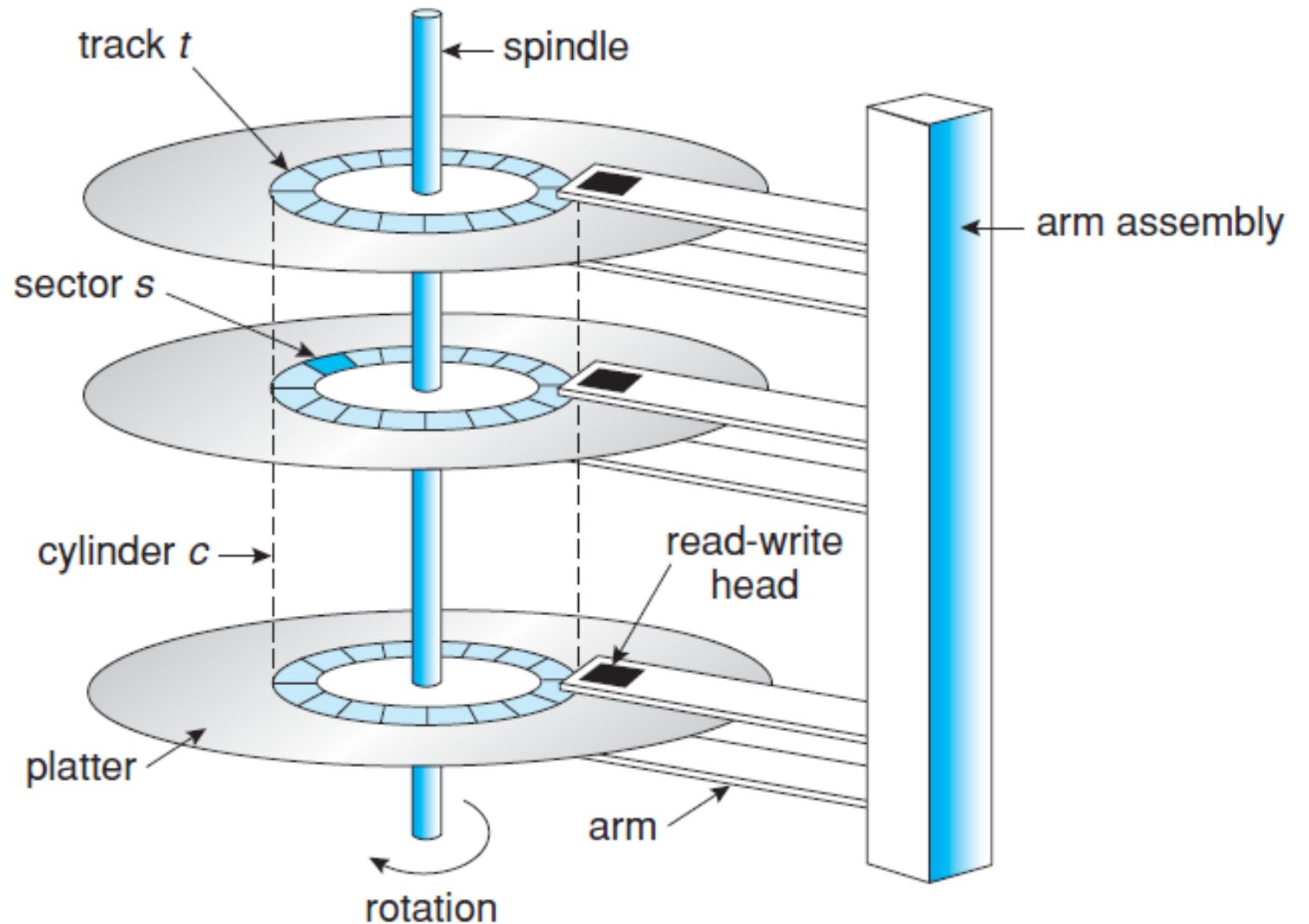
- direct access
- extremely used in database applications
- DBMSs - applications don't need to know whether the data is on disk or in main memory
- *disk block*
 - sequence of contiguous bytes
 - unit for data storage
 - unit for data transfer (reading data from disk / writing data to disk)
 - reading / writing a block - an input / output (I/O) operation
- *tracks*
 - concentric rings containing blocks, recorded on one or more platters

Secondary Storage – Magnetic Disks

- *sectors*
 - arcs on tracks
- *platters*
 - single-sided, double-sided (data recorded on one / both surfaces)
- *cylinder*
 - set of all tracks with the same diameter
- *disk heads*
 - one per recorded surface
 - to read / write a block, a head must be on top of the block
 - all disk heads are moved as a unit
 - systems with one active head

Secondary Storage – Magnetic Disks

- sector size
 - characteristic of the disk, cannot be modified
- block size
 - multiple of the sector size



[Si08]

Secondary Storage – Magnetic Disks

- DBMSs operate on data when it is in memory
- block - unit for data transfer between disk and main memory
- time to access a desired location:
 - main memory - approximately the same for any location
 - disk - depends on where the data is stored
- disk access time:
 - seek time + rotational delay + transfer time
 - seek time
 - time to move the disk head to the desired track (smaller platter size => decreased seek time)
 - rotational delay
 - time for the block to get under the head
 - transfer time
 - time to read / write the block, once the disk head is positioned over it

Secondary Storage – Magnetic Disks

- time required for DB operations - dominated by the time taken to transfer blocks between disk and main memory
- goal
 - minimize access time
 - for this purpose, data should be carefully placed on disk
- records that are often used together should be close to each other:
 - same block
 - same track
 - same cylinder
 - adjacent cylinder
- accessing data in a sequential fashion reduces seek time and rotational delay

Secondary Storage – Magnetic Disks

- * characteristics, e.g.:
 - storage capacity (e.g., GB)
 - platters
 - number, *single-sided* or *double-sided*
 - average / max seek time (ms)
 - average rotational delay (ms)
 - number of rotations / min
 - data transfer rate (MB/s)
 - ...

Moore's Law

- Gordon Moore: "the improvement of integrated circuits is following an exponential curve that doubles every 18 months"
 - parameters that follow Moore's law
 - speed of processors (number of instructions executed / sec)
 - no. of bits / chip
 - capacity of largest disks
 - parameters that do not follow Moore's law
 - speed of accessing data in main memory
 - disk rotation speed
- => "latency" keeps increasing
- time to move data between memory hierarchy levels appears to take longer compared with computation time

Solid-State Disks

- NAND flash components
- faster random access
- higher data transfer rates
- no moving parts
- higher cost per GB
- limited write cycles

Managing Disk Space

- the *disk space manager* (DSM) manages space on disk
- page
 - unit of data
 - size of a page = size of a disk block
 - R/W a page - one I/O operation
- upper layers in the DBMS can treat the data as a collection of pages
- DSM
 - commands to allocate / deallocate / read / write a page
 - knows which pages are on which disk blocks
 - monitors disk usage, keeping track of available disk blocks

Managing Disk Space

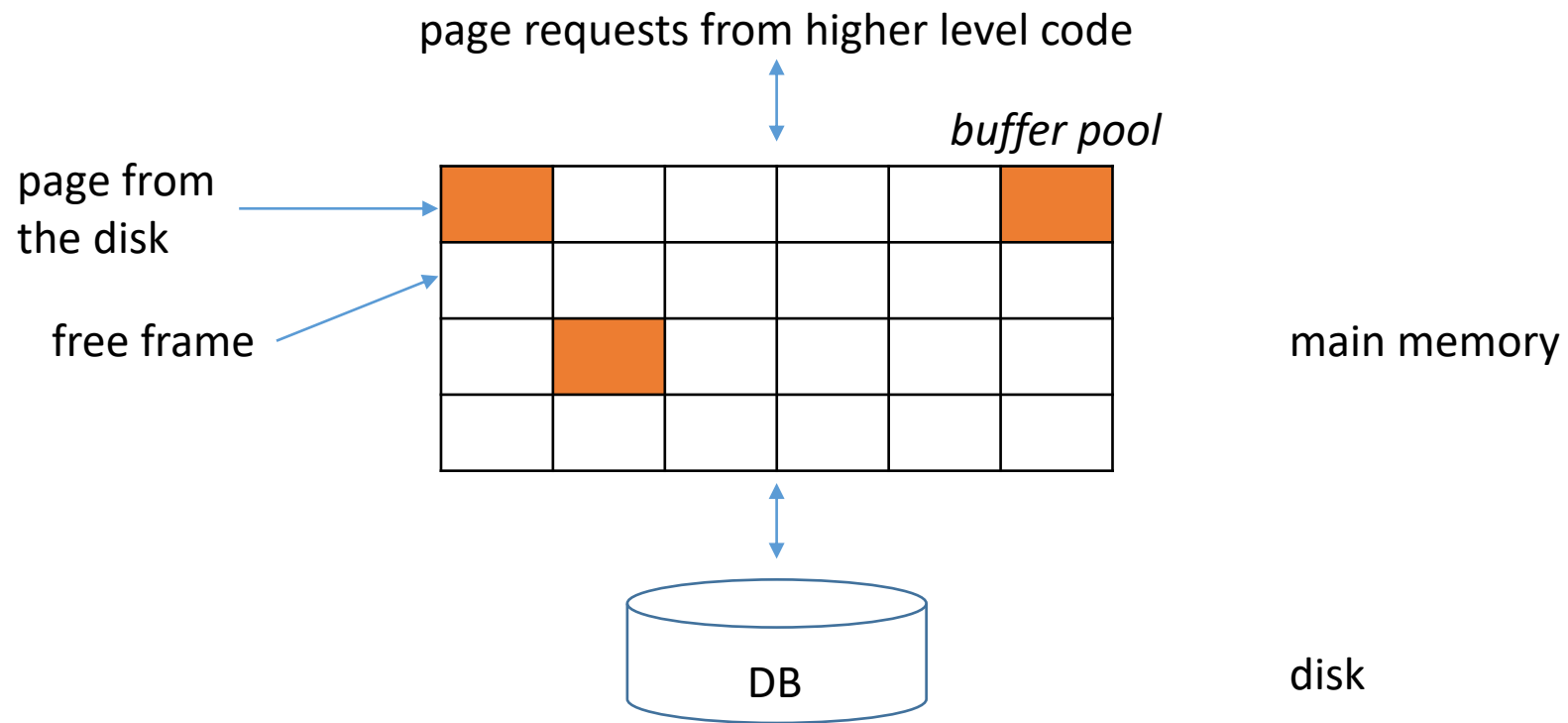
- free blocks can be identified:
 - by maintaining a linked list of free blocks (on deallocation, a block is added to the list)
 - by maintaining a bitmap with one bit / block, indicating whether the corresponding block is used or not
 - allows for fast identification of contiguous available areas on disk

Buffer Manager

- e.g., DB = 500.000 pages, main memory - 1000 available pages, query that scans the entire file
- *buffer manager* (BM)
 - brings new data pages from disk to main memory as they are required
 - decides what main memory pages can be replaced
 - manages the available main memory
 - collection of pages called the *buffer pool* (BP)
 - *frame*
 - page in the BP
 - slot that can hold a page
- *replacement policy*
 - policy that dictates the choice of replacement frames in the BP

Buffer Manager

- higher level layer L in the DBMS asks the BM for page P
- if P is not in the BP, the BM brings it into a frame F in the BP
- when P is no longer needed, L notifies the BM (it releases P), so F can be reused
- if P has been modified, L notifies the BM, which propagates the changes in F to the disk



Buffer Manager

- BM maintains 2 variables for each frame F
 - *pin_count*
 - number of current users (requested the page in F but haven't released it yet)
 - only frames with `pin_count = 0` can be chosen as replacement frames
 - *dirty*
 - boolean value indicating whether the page in F has been changed since being brought into F
- incrementing `pin_count`
 - pinning a page P in a frame F
- decrementing `pin_count`
 - unpinning a page

Buffer Manager

- initially, $\text{pin_count} = 0$, $\text{dirty} = \text{off}$, $\forall F \in \text{BP}$
- L asks for a page P; the BM:
 1. checks whether page P is in the BP; if so, $\text{pin_count}(F)++$, where F is the frame containing Potherwise:
 - a. BM chooses a frame FR for replacement
 - if the BP contains multiple frames with $\text{pin_count} = 0$, one frame is chosen according to the BM's replacement policy
 - $\text{pin_count}(\text{FR})++$;
 - b. if $\text{dirty}(\text{FR}) = \text{on}$, BM writes the page in FR to disk
 - c. BM reads page P in frame FR
- 2. the BM returns the address of the BP frame that contains P to L

Buffer Manager

- obs. if no BP frame has `pin_count = 0` and page P is not in BP, BM has to wait / the transaction may be aborted
- page requested by several transactions; no conflicting updates
- crash recovery, Write-Ahead Log (WAL) protocol - additional restrictions when a frame is chosen for replacement
- replacement policies
 - *Least Recently Used (LRU)*
 - queue of pointers to frames with `pin_count = 0`
 - a frame is added to the end of the queue when its `pin_count` becomes 0
 - the frame at the head of the queue is chosen for replacement
 - *Most Recently Used (MRU)*
 - *random*
 - ...

Buffer Manager

- replacement policies
 - *clock replacement*
 - LRU variant
 - n – number of frames in BP
 - frame - *referenced* bit; set to *on* when *pin_count* becomes 0
 - *crt* variable - frames 1 through n , circular order
 - if the current frame is not chosen, then $crt++$, examine next frame
 - if $pin_count > 0$
 - current frame not a candidate, $crt++$
 - if *referenced* = *on*
 - *referenced* := *off*, $crt++$
 - if $pin_count = 0$ AND *referenced* = *off*
 - choose current frame for replacement

Buffer Manager

- replacement policies
 - can have a significant impact on performance
- example:
 - BM uses LRU
 - repeated scans of file f
 - BP: 5 frames, f : ≤ 5 pages
 - first scan of f brings all the pages in the BP
 - subsequent scans find all the pages in the BP
 - BP: 5 frames, f : 6 pages
 - *sequential flooding*: every scan of f reads all the pages
 - MRU – better in this case

Disk Space Manager & Buffer Manager

- DSM
 - portability - different OSs
- BM
 - DBMS can anticipate the next several page requests (operations with a known page access pattern, like sequential scans)
 - *prefetching* - BM brings pages in the BP before they are requested
 - prefetched pages
 - contiguous: faster reading (than reading the same pages at different times)
 - not contiguous: determine an access order that minimizes seek times / rotational delays

Disk Space Manager & Buffer Manager

- BM
 - DBMS needs
 - ability to explicitly force a page to disk
 - ability to write some pages to disk before other pages are written
 - WAL protocol - first write log records describing page changes, then write modified page

Files and Indexes

Files of Records

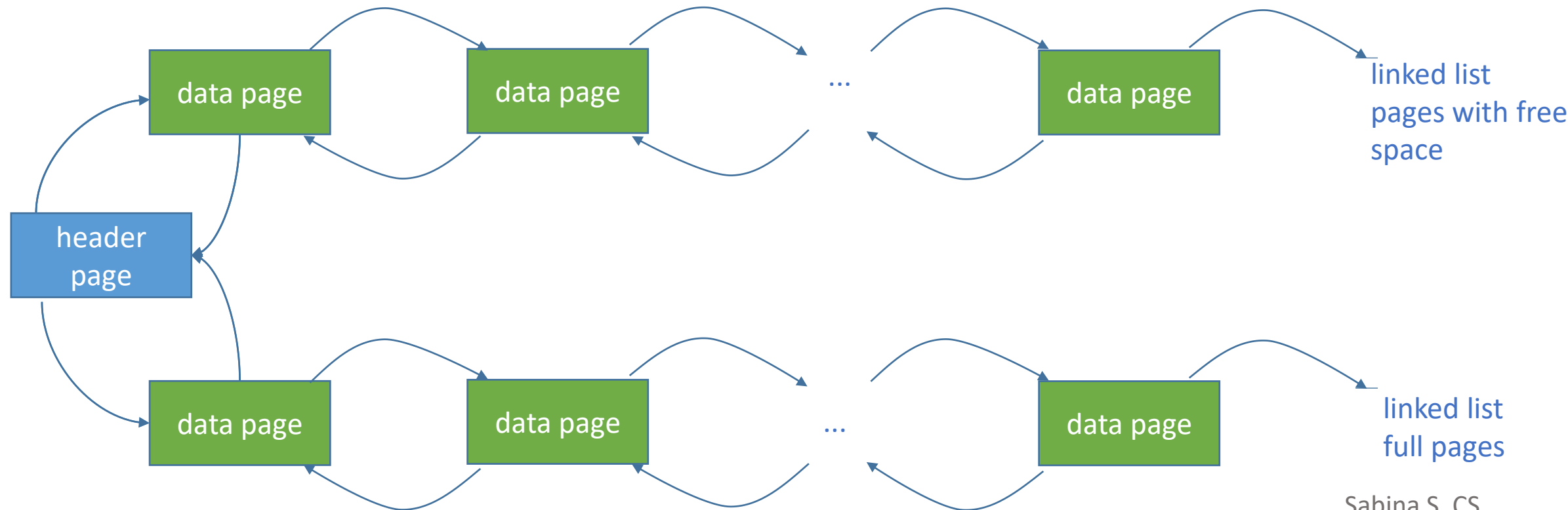
- higher level layers in the DBMS treat pages as collections of records
- file of records
 - collection of records; one or more pages
- different ways to organize a file's collection of pages
- every record has an identifier: the rid
- given the rid of a record, one can identify the page that contains the record

Heap Files

- the simplest file structure
- records are not ordered
- supported operations
 - create file
 - destroy file
 - insert a record
 - need to monitor pages with free space
 - retrieve a record given its rid
 - delete a record given its rid
 - scan all records
 - need to keep track of all the pages in the file
- appropriate when the expected pattern of use includes scans to obtain all the records

Heap Files - Linked List

- doubly linked list of pages
- DBMS stores the address of the first page (*header page*) of each file (a table holding pairs of the form $\langle \text{heap_file_name}, \text{page1_address} \rangle$)
- 2 lists – pages with free space and full pages

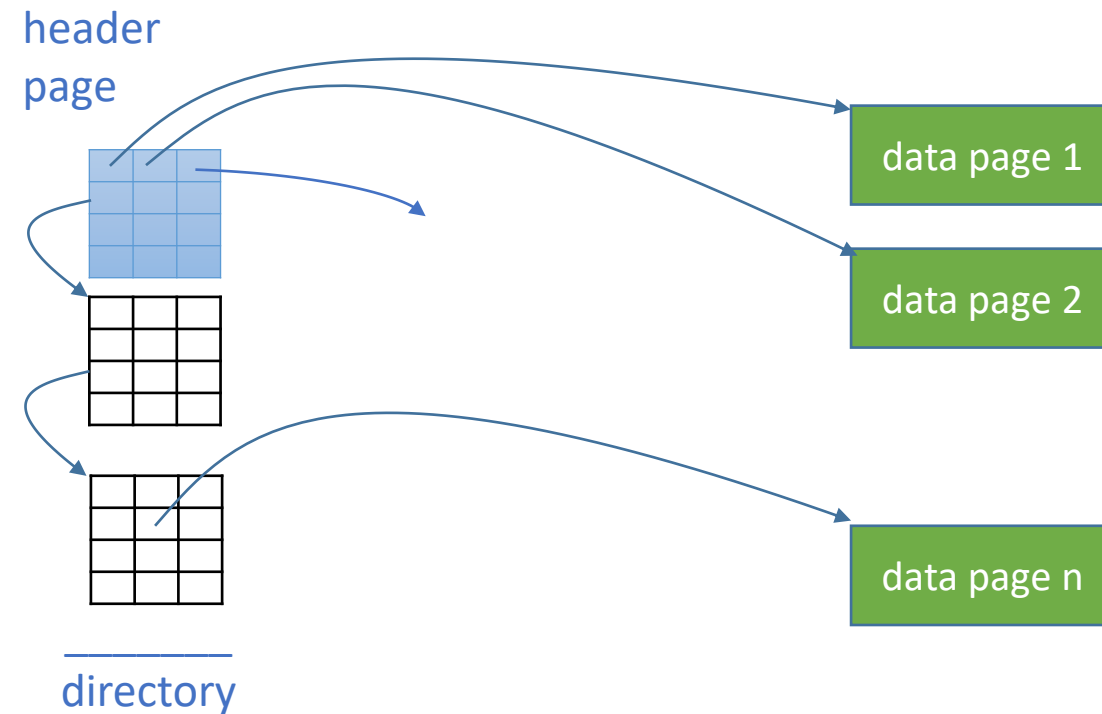


Heap Files - Linked List

- drawback
 - variable-length records => most of the pages will be in the list of pages with free space
 - when adding a record, multiple pages have to be checked until one is found that has enough free space

Heap Files - Directory of Pages

- DBMS stores the location of the header page for each heap file
- directory - collection of pages (e.g., linked list)
- directory entry - identifies a page in the file
- directory entry size - much smaller than the size of a page
- directory size - much smaller than the size of the file
- free space management
 - 1 bit / directory entry - corresponding page has / doesn't have free space
 - count / entry - available space on the corresponding page => efficient search of pages with enough free space when adding a variable-length record

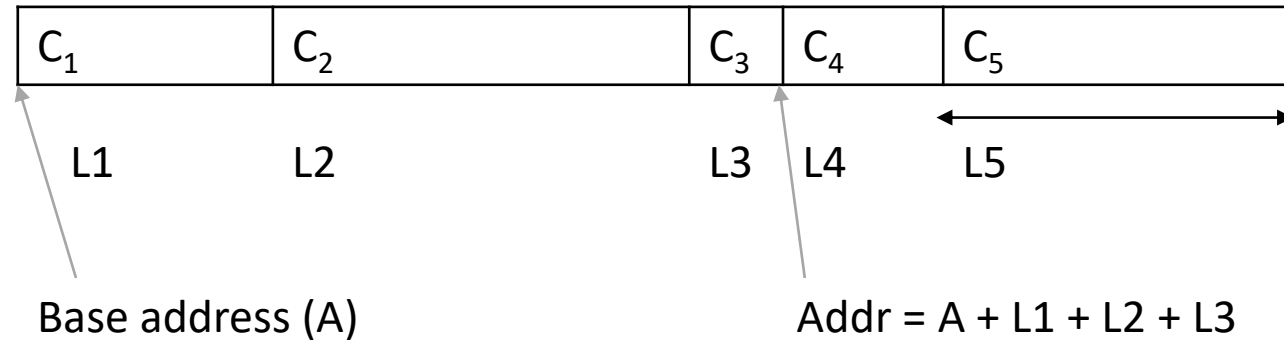


Other File Organizations

- sorted files
 - suitable when data must be sorted, when doing range selections
- hashed files
 - files that are hashed on some fields (records are stored according to a hash function); good for equality selections

Record Formats

- fixed-length records



- each field has a fixed length
- fixed number of fields
- fields - stored consecutively
- computing a field's address
 - record address, length of preceding fields (from the system catalog)

Record Formats

- variable-length records
 - variable-length fields

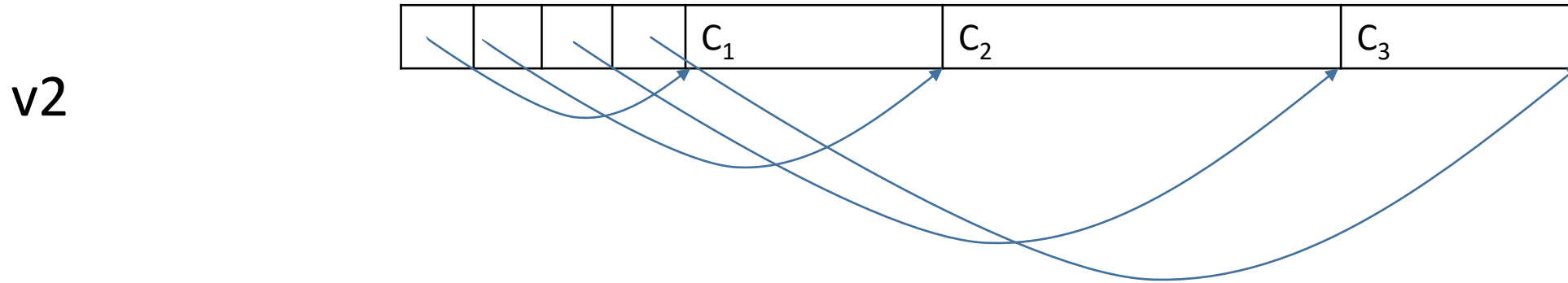
v1

C ₁	\$	C ₂	\$	C ₃	\$
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- fields
 - stored consecutively, separated by delimiters
- finding a field
 - a record scan

Record Formats

- variable-length records



- reserve space at the beginning of the record
 - array of fields offsets, offset to the end of the record
- array overhead, but direct access to every field

Page Formats

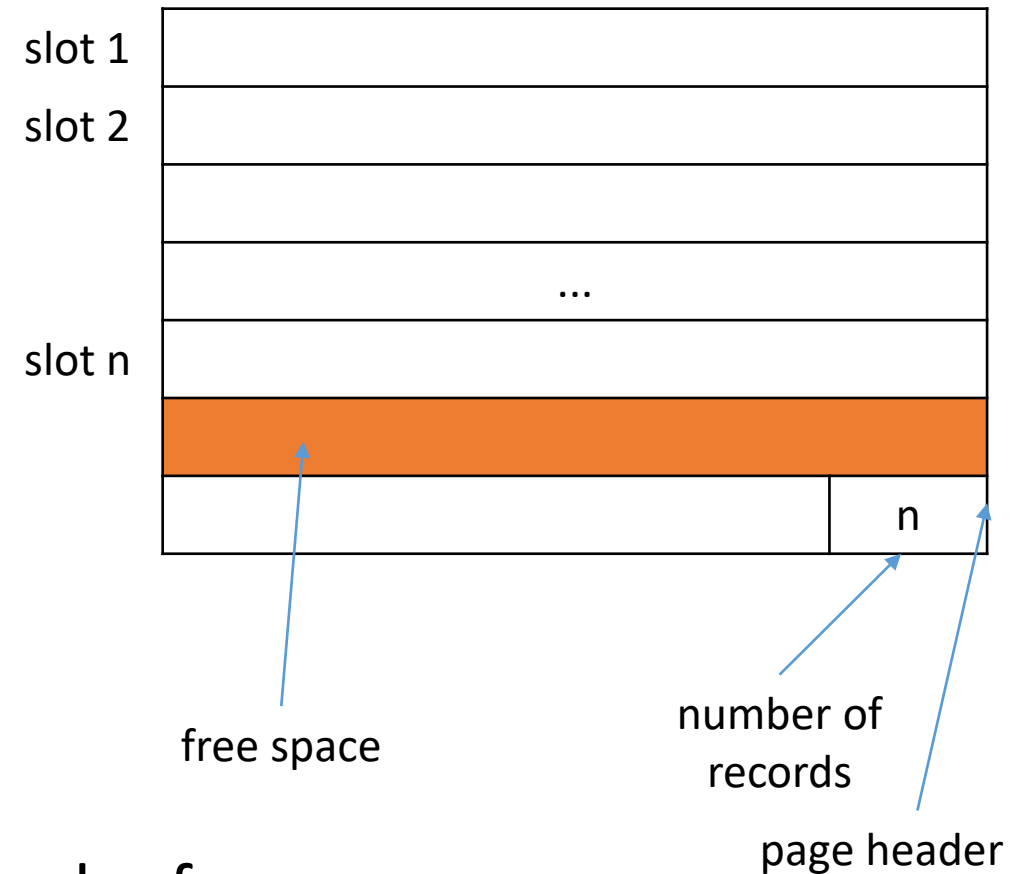
- page
 - collection of slots
 - 1 record / slot
- identifying a record
 - record id (rid): <page id, slot number>
- how to arrange records on pages
- how to manage slots

Page Formats

- fixed-length records
 - records have the same size
 - uniform, consecutive slots
 - adding a record
 - finding an available slot
 - problems
 - keeping track of available slots
 - locating records

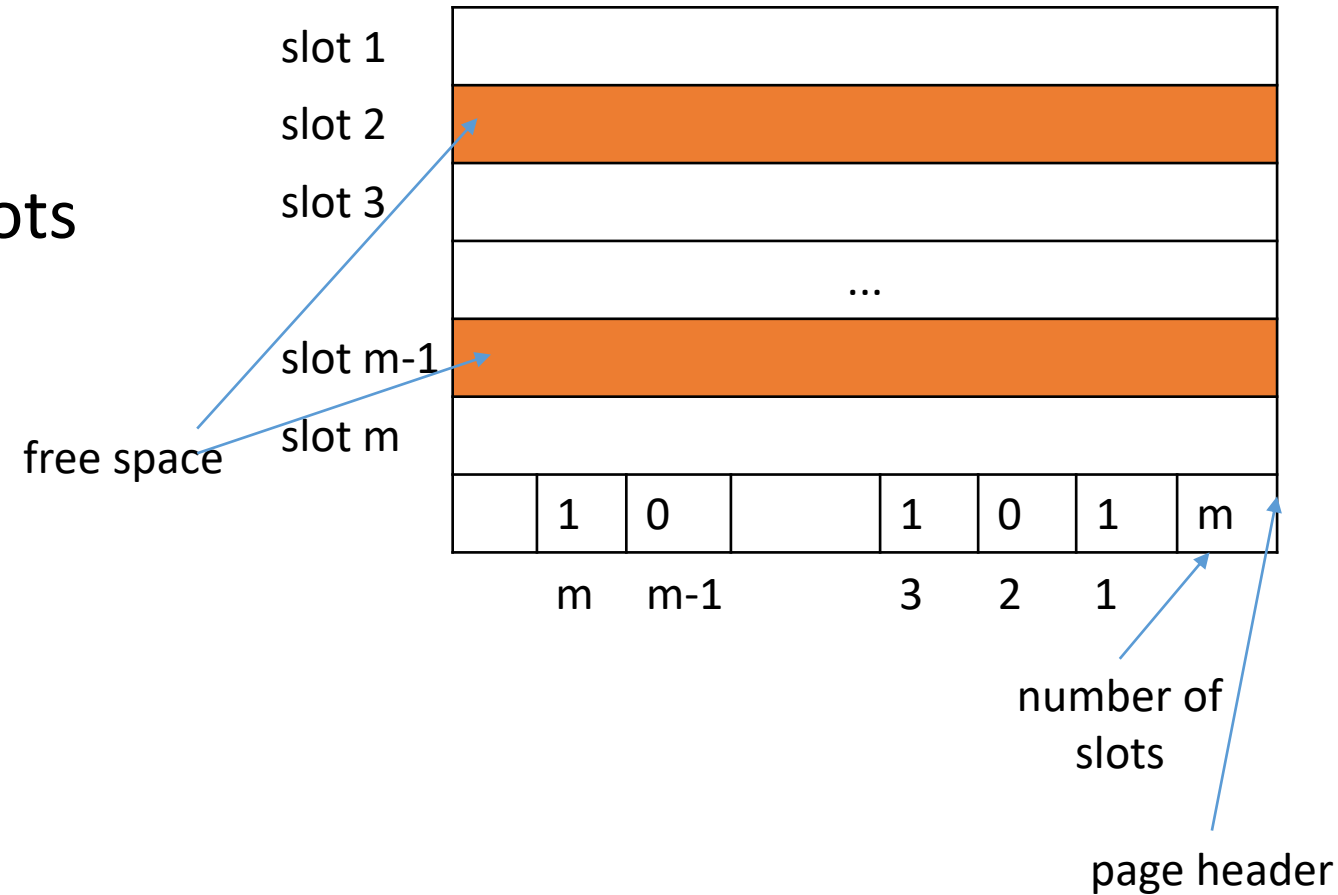
Page Formats

- fixed-length records - v1
 - n – number of records on the page
 - records are stored in the first n slots
 - locating record i - compute corresponding offset
 - deleting a record - the last record on the page is moved into the empty slot
 - empty slots - at the end of the page
- problems when a moved record has external references
 - the record's slot number would change, but the rid contains the slot number!



Page Formats

- fixed-length records - v2
- array of bits to monitor available slots
- 1 bit / slot
- deleting a record - turning off the corresponding bit

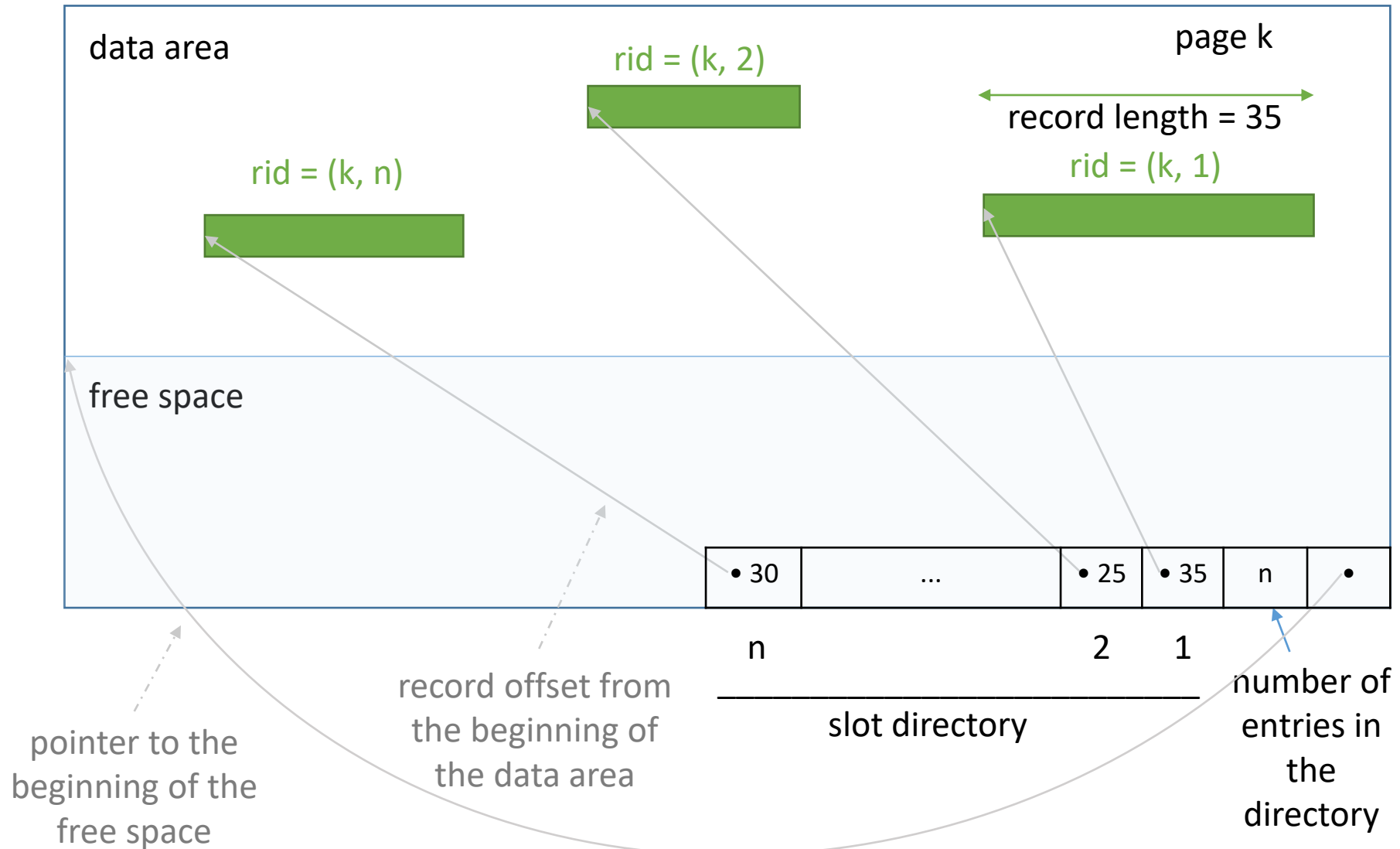


Page Formats

- variable-length records
 - adding a record
 - finding an empty slot of the right size
 - deleting a record
 - contiguous free space
 - a directory of slots / page
 - a pair <record offset , record length> / slot
 - a pointer to the beginning of the free space area on the page
 - moving a record on the page
 - only the record's offset changes
 - its slot remains unmodified
 - can also be used for fixed-length records (when records need to be kept sorted)

Page Formats

- variable-length records



Indexes

- motivating example
 - file of students records sorted by name
 - good file organization
 - retrieve students in alphabetical order
 - not a good file organization
 - retrieve students whose age is in a given range
 - retrieve students who live in Timișoara
- index
 - auxiliary data structure that speeds up operations which can't be efficiently carried out given the file's organization
 - enables the retrieval of the rids of records that meet a selection condition (e.g., the rids of records describing students who live in Timișoara)

Indexes

- *search key*
 - set of one or more attributes of the indexed file (different from the *key* that identifies records)
- an index speeds up queries with equality / range selection conditions on the search key
- *entries*
 - records in the index (e.g., <search key, rid>)
 - enable the retrieval of records with a given search key value

Indexes

- example
 - files with students records
 - index built on attribute *city*
 - entries: $\langle \text{city}, \text{rid} \rangle$, where rid identifies a student record
 - such an index would speed up queries about students living in a given city:
 - find entries in the index with $\text{city} = \text{'Timișoara'}$
 - follow rids from obtained entries to retrieve records describing students who live in Timișoara

Indexes

- an index can improve the efficiency of certain types of queries, not of all queries (analogy - when searching for a book at the library, index cards sorted on author name cannot be used to efficiently locate a book given its title)
- organization techniques (access methods) - examples
 - B+ trees
 - hash-based structures
- changing the data in the file => update the indexes associated with the file (e.g., inserting records, updating search key columns, updating columns that are not part of the key, but are included in the index)
- index size
 - as small as possible, as indexes are brought into main memory for searches

Indexes - Data Entries

- problems
 - what does a data entry contain?
 - how are the entries of an index organized?
- let k^* be a data entry in an index; the data entry:
 - alternative 1
 - is an actual data record with search key value = k
 - alternative 2
 - is a pair $\langle k, \text{rid} \rangle$ (rid – id of a data record with search key value = k)
 - alternative 3
 - is a pair $\langle k, \text{rid_list} \rangle$ (rid_list – list of ids of data records with search key value = k)

Indexes - Data Entries

- a1
 - the file of data records needn't be stored in addition to the index
 - the index is seen as a special file organization
 - at most 1 index / collection of records should use alternative a1 (to avoid redundancy)
- a2, a3
 - data entries point to corresponding data records
 - in general, the size of an entry is much smaller than the size of a data record
 - a3 is more compact than a2, but can contain variable-length records
 - can be used by several indexes on a collection of records
 - independent of the file organization

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