

Principles of Database Systems (CS307)

Lecture 14: Storage System and Structure

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- Most contents are from slides made by Stéphane Faroult and the authors of Database System Concepts (7th Edition).
- Their original slides have been modified to adapt to the schedule of CS307 at SUSTech.

Physical Storage System

Physical Storage System

- The hardware where data is recorded

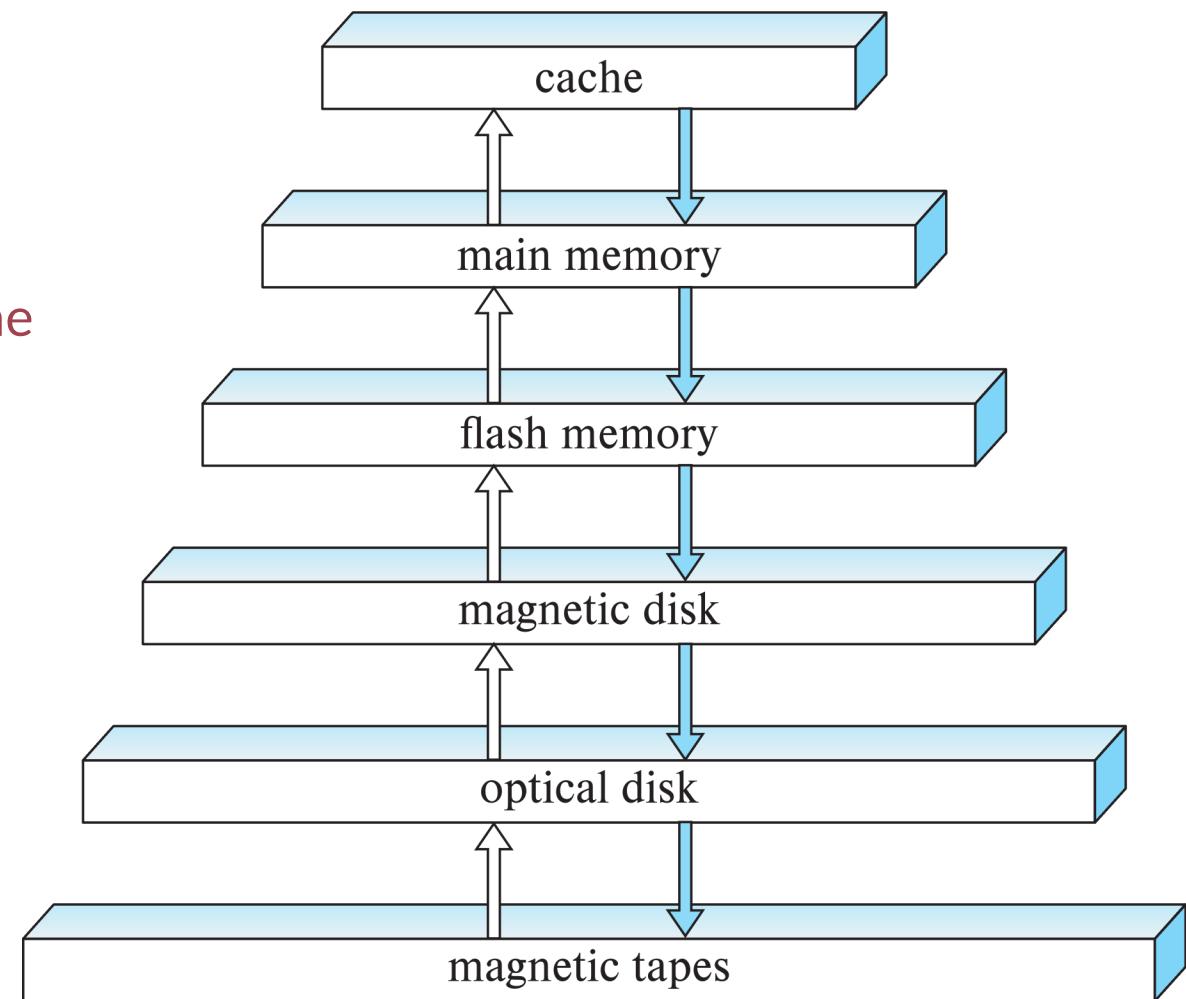


Classification of Physical Storage Media

- Can differentiate storage into:
 - **Volatile storage**
 - Loses contents when power is switched off
 - **Non-volatile storage:**
 - Contents persist even when power is switched off
 - Includes secondary and tertiary storage, as well as battery-backed up main-memory
- Factors affecting choice of storage media include
 - Speed with which data can be accessed
 - Cost per unit of data
 - Reliability

Storage Hierarchy

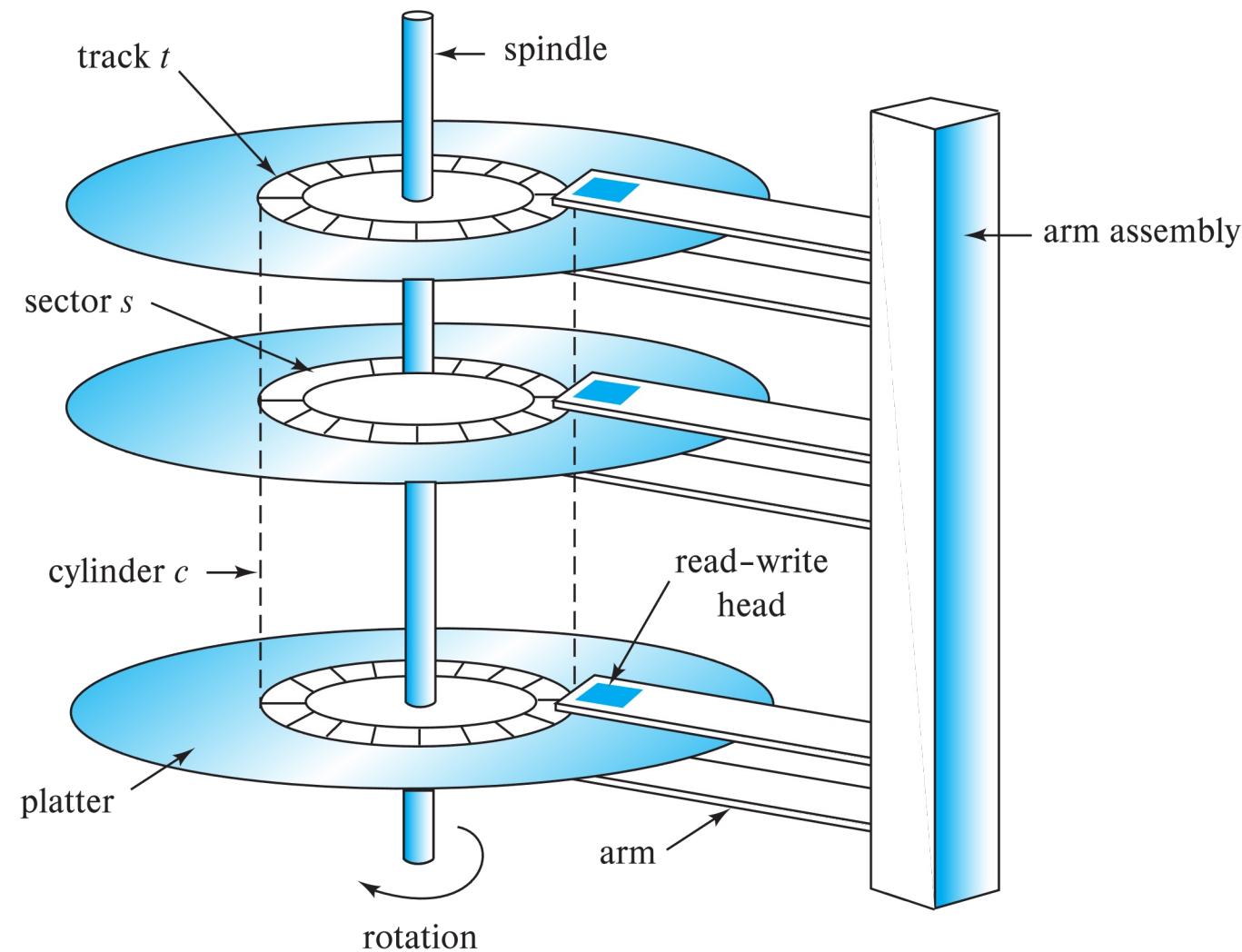
- Primary storage
 - **Fastest** media but **volatile** (cache, main memory).
- Secondary storage
 - Next level in hierarchy, **non-volatile**, moderately fast access time
 - ... also called on-line storage
 - E.g., flash memory, magnetic disks
- Tertiary storage
 - Lowest level in hierarchy, **non-volatile**, **slow access time**
 - ... also called off-line storage and used for archival storage
 - E.g., magnetic tape, optical storage
 - Magnetic tape
 - Sequential access, 1 to 12 TB capacity
 - A few drives with many tapes
 - Juke boxes with petabytes (1000's of TB) of storage



Storage Interfaces

- Disk interface standards families
 - SATA (Serial ATA)
 - SATA 3 supports data transfer speeds of up to 6 gigabits/sec
 - SAS (Serial Attached SCSI)
 - SAS Version 3 supports 12 gigabits/sec
 - NVMe (Non-Volatile Memory Express) interface
 - Works with PCIe connectors to support lower latency and higher transfer rates
 - Supports data transfer rates of up to 24 gigabits/sec
- Disks usually connected directly to computer system, however...
 - In Storage Area Networks (SAN), a large number of disks are connected by a high-speed network to a number of servers
 - In Network Attached Storage (NAS) networked storage provides a file system interface using networked file system protocol, instead of providing a disk system interface

Magnetic Hard Disk Mechanism



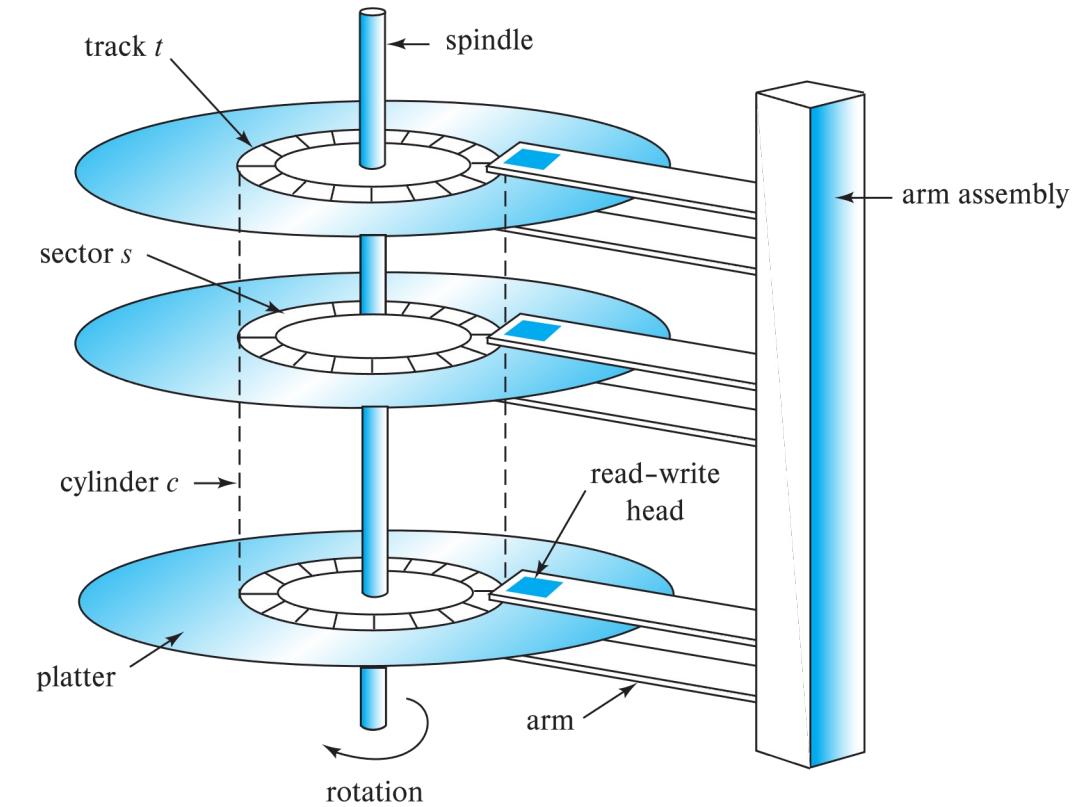
Schematic diagram of magnetic disk drive



Photo of a magnetic disk drive

Magnetic Hard Disk Mechanism

- Read-write head
- Surface of platter divided into circular **tracks**
 - Over 50K-100K tracks per platter on typical hard disks
- Each track is divided into **sectors**
 - A sector is the smallest unit of data that can be read or written.
 - Sector size typically 512 bytes (modern OS requires 4KB)
 - Typical sectors per track: 500 to 1000 (on inner tracks) to 1000 to 2000 (on outer tracks)
- To read/write a sector
 - Disk arm swings to position head on right track
 - Platter spins continually; data is read/written as sector passes under head
- Head-disk assemblies
 - Multiple disk platters on a single spindle (1 to 5 usually)
 - One head per platter, mounted on a common arm.
- **Cylinder i** consists of i th track of all the platters



Magnetic Hard Disk Mechanism

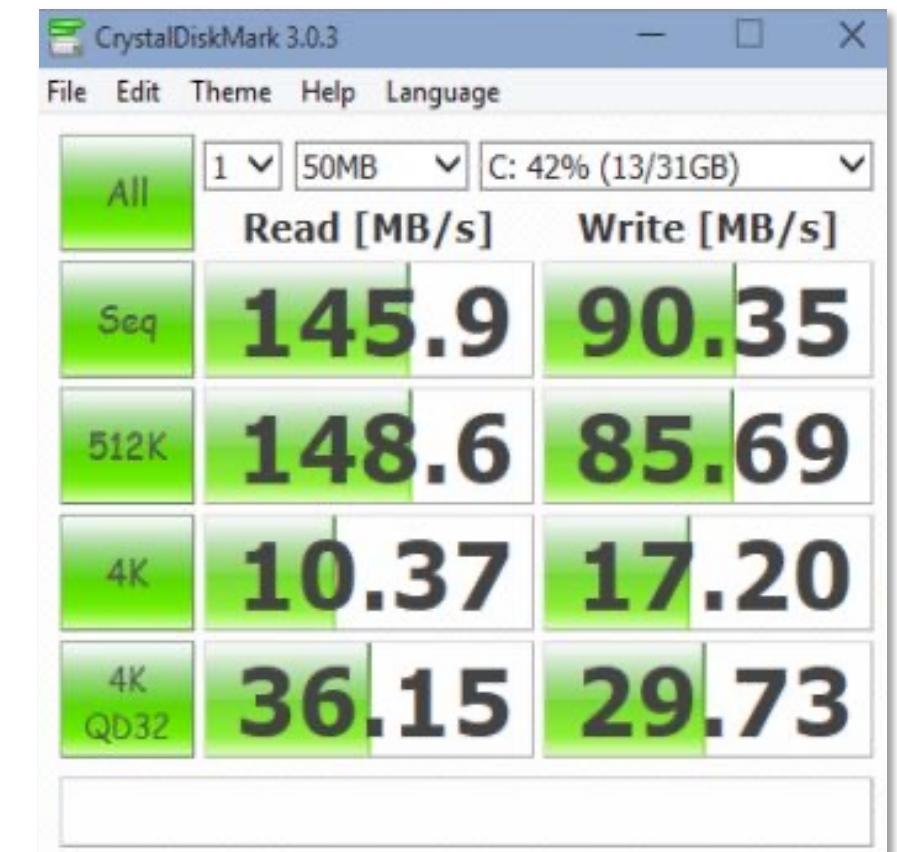
- **Disk controller:** An interface between the computer system and the disk drive hardware
 - Accept high-level commands to read or write a sector
 - Initiate actions such as moving the disk arm to the right track and reading or writing the data
 - Compute and attach **checksums** to each sector to **verify** that data is read back correctly
 - If data is corrupted, with very high probability stored checksum won't match recomputed checksum
 - Ensure successful writing by reading back sector after writing it
 - Perform remapping of bad sectors

Performance Measures of Disks

- **Access time:** The time it takes from when a read or write request is issued to when data transfer begins. Consists of:
 - **Seek time** – time it takes to reposition the arm over the correct **track**.
 - Average seek time is $1/2$ the worst case seek time.
 - Would be $1/3$ if all tracks had the same number of sectors, and we ignore the time to start and stop arm movement
 - **4 to 10 milliseconds** on typical disks
 - **Rotational latency** – time it takes for the **sector** to be accessed to appear under the head.
 - **4 to 11 milliseconds** on typical disks (5400 to 15000 r.p.m.)
 - Average latency is $1/2$ of the above latency.
 - Overall latency is **5 to 20 msec** depending on disk model
- **Data-transfer rate:** The rate at which data can be retrieved from or stored to the disk.
 - **25 to 200 MB per second max rate**, lower for inner tracks

Performance Measures of Disks

- Disk block is a logical unit for storage allocation and retrieval
 - 4 to 16 kilobytes typically
 - Smaller blocks: more transfers from disk
 - Larger blocks: more space wasted due to partially filled blocks
- Sequential access pattern
 - Successive requests are for successive disk blocks
 - Disk seek required only for first block
- Random access pattern
 - Successive requests are for blocks that can be anywhere on disk
 - Each access requires a seek
 - Transfer rates are low since a lot of time is wasted in seeks
- I/O operations per second (IOPS)
 - Number of random block reads that a disk can support per second
 - 50 to 200 IOPS on current generation magnetic disks



Performance Measures of Disks

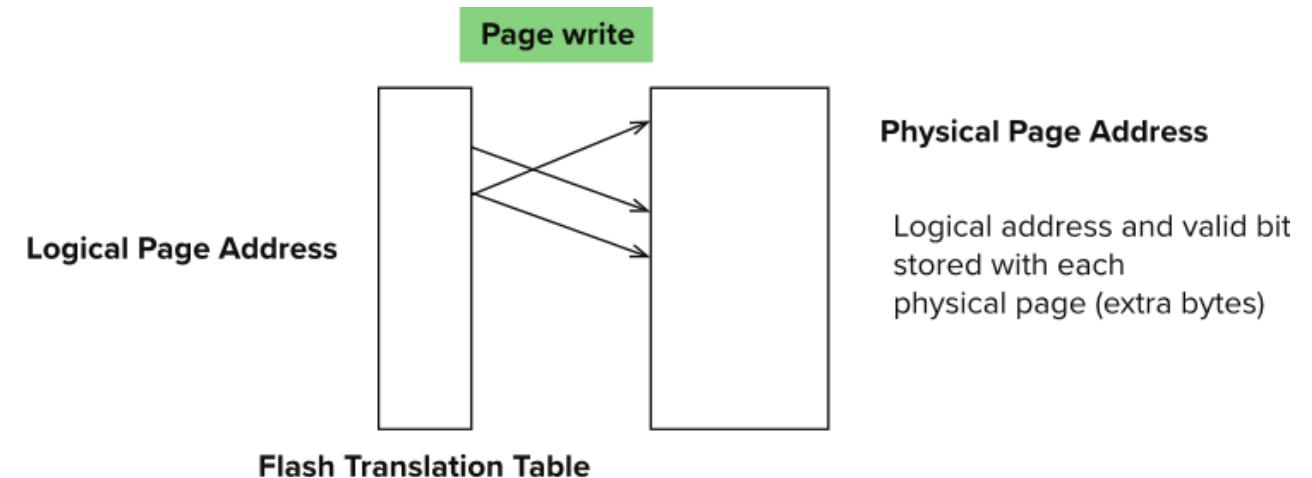
- Mean time to failure (MTTF) – the average time the disk is expected to run continuously without any failure.
 - Typically, 3 to 5 years
 - Probability of failure of new disks is quite low, corresponding to a “theoretical MTTF” of 500,000 to 1,200,000 hours for a new disk
 - E.g., an MTTF of 1,200,000 hours for a new disk means that given 1000 relatively new disks, on an average one will fail every 1200 hours
 - MTTF decreases as disk ages

Flash Storage

- NOR flash vs NAND flash
- NAND flash
 - Used widely for storage, cheaper than NOR flash
 - Requires page-at-a-time read (page: 512 bytes to 4 KB)
 - 20 to 100 microseconds for a page read
 - Not much difference between sequential and random read
 - Page can only be written once
 - Must be erased to allow rewrite
- Solid state disks (SSD)
 - Use standard block-oriented disk interfaces, but store data on **multiple flash storage devices internally**
 - Transfer rate of up to 500 MB/sec using SATA, and up to 3 GB/sec using NVMe PCIe

Flash Storage

- Erase happens in units of erase block
 - Takes 2 to 5 millisecs
 - Erase block typically 256 KB to 1 MB (128 to 256 pages)
- Remapping of logical page addresses to physical page addresses avoids waiting for erase
- Flash translation table tracks mapping
 - Also stored in a label field of flash page
 - Remapping carried out by flash translation layer



- After 100,000 to 1,000,000 erases, erase block becomes unreliable and cannot be used
 - Wear leveling

SSD Performance Metrics

- Random reads/writes per second
 - Typical 4KB reads: 10,000 reads per second (10,000 IOPS)
 - Typical 4KB writes: 40,000 IOPS
 - SSDs support parallel reads
 - Typical 4KB reads:
 - 100,000 IOPS with 32 requests in parallel (QD-32) on SATA
 - 350,000 IOPS with QD-32 on NVMe PCIe
 - Typical 4KB writes:
 - 100,000 IOPS with QD-32, even higher on some models
- Data transfer rate for sequential reads/writes
 - 400 MB/sec for SATA3, 2 to 3 GB/sec using NVMe PCIe
- Hybrid disks: Combine small amount of flash cache with larger magnetic disk

Storage Class Memory

- 3D-XPoint memory technology pioneered by Intel
- Available as Intel Optane
 - SSD interface shipped from 2017
 - Allows lower latency than flash SSDs
 - Non-volatile memory interface announced in 2018
 - Supports direct access to words, at speeds comparable to main-memory speeds

Magnetic Tapes

- Hold large volumes of data and provide high transfer rates
 - Few GB for DAT (Digital Audio Tape) format, 10-40 GB with DLT (Digital Linear Tape) format, 100 GB+ with Ultrium format, and 330 GB with Ampex helical scan format
 - Transfer rates from **few to 10s of MB/s**
- **Tapes are cheap, but cost of drives is very high**
- Very slow access time in comparison to magnetic and optical disks
 - limited to sequential access.
 - Some formats (Accelis) provide faster seek (10s of seconds) at cost of lower capacity
- **Used mainly for backup, for storage of infrequently used information, and as an off-line medium for transferring information from one system to another.**
- Tape jukeboxes used for very large capacity storage
 - Multiple petabytes (10^{15} bytes)

RAID

- RAID: Redundant Arrays of Independent Disks
 - Disk organization techniques that manage a large numbers of disks, providing a view of a single disk of
 - high capacity and high speed by using multiple disks in parallel
 - high reliability by storing data redundantly, so that data can be recovered even if a disk fails
- The chance that some disk out of a set of N disks will fail is much higher than the chance that a specific single disk will fail.
 - E.g., a system with 100 disks, each with MTTF of 100,000 hours (approx. 11 years), will have a system MTTF of 1000 hours (approx. 41 days)
 - Techniques for using redundancy to avoid data loss are critical with large numbers of disks

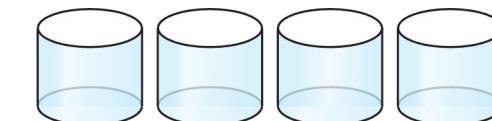
Improvement of Reliability via Redundancy

- Redundancy – Store extra information that can be used to rebuild information lost in a disk failure
 - E.g., Mirroring (or shadowing)
 - Duplicate every disk. Logical disk consists of two physical disks.
 - Every write is carried out on both disks
 - Reads can take place from either disk
 - If one disk in a pair fails, data still available in the other
 - Data loss would occur only if a disk fails, and its mirror disk also fails before the system is repaired
 - Probability of combined event is very small
 - Except for dependent failure modes such as fire or building collapse or electrical power surges
 - Mean time to data loss depends on mean time to failure, and mean time to repair
 - E.g., MTTF of 100,000 hours, mean time to repair of 10 hours gives mean time to data loss of 500×106 hours (or 57,000 years) for a mirrored pair of disks (ignoring dependent failure modes)

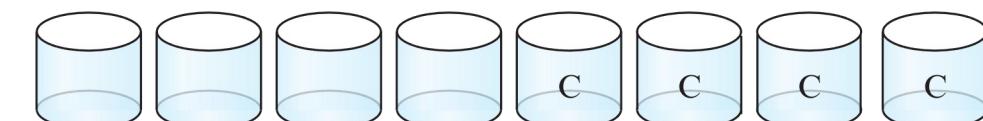
RAID Levels

- Schemes to provide redundancy at lower cost by using disk striping (条带) combined with parity bits (奇偶校验)
 - Different RAID organizations, or **RAID levels**, have differing cost, performance and reliability characteristics

- **RAID 0:** Block striping; non-redundant
- **RAID 1:** Mirrored disks with block striping
- ...
- **RAID 10:** Combination of striping and mirroring

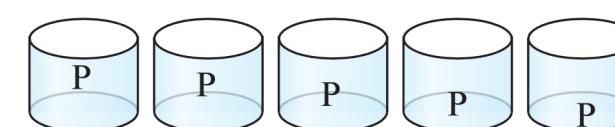


(a) RAID 0: nonredundant striping



(b) RAID 1: mirrored disks

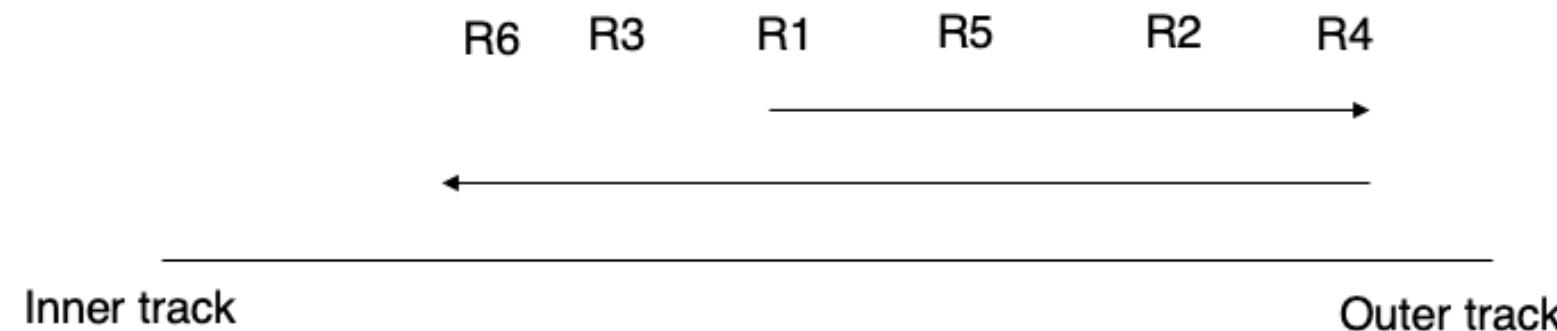
- **RAID 5:** Block-interleaved distributed parity
- **RAID 6:** P+Q Redundancy scheme



(c) RAID 5: block-interleaved distributed parity

Optimization of Disk-Block Access

- Buffering
 - In-memory buffer to cache disk blocks
- Read-ahead
 - Read extra blocks from a track in anticipation that they will be requested soon
- Disk-arm-scheduling algorithms
 - Re-order block requests so that disk arm movement is minimized
 - E.g., elevator algorithm



Optimization of Disk-Block Access

- File organization
 - Allocate blocks of a file in as contiguous a manner as possible
 - Allocation in units of extents
 - Files may get fragmented
 - E.g., if free blocks on disk are scattered, and newly created file has its blocks scattered over the disk
 - Sequential access to a fragmented file results in increased disk arm movement
 - Some systems have utilities to defragment the file system, in order to speed up file access
- Non-volatile write buffers
 - Temporarily store the written data
 - ... and immediately notifies the OS that writing is completed without errors
 - Write data into the disk when idle
 - ... with some optimizations

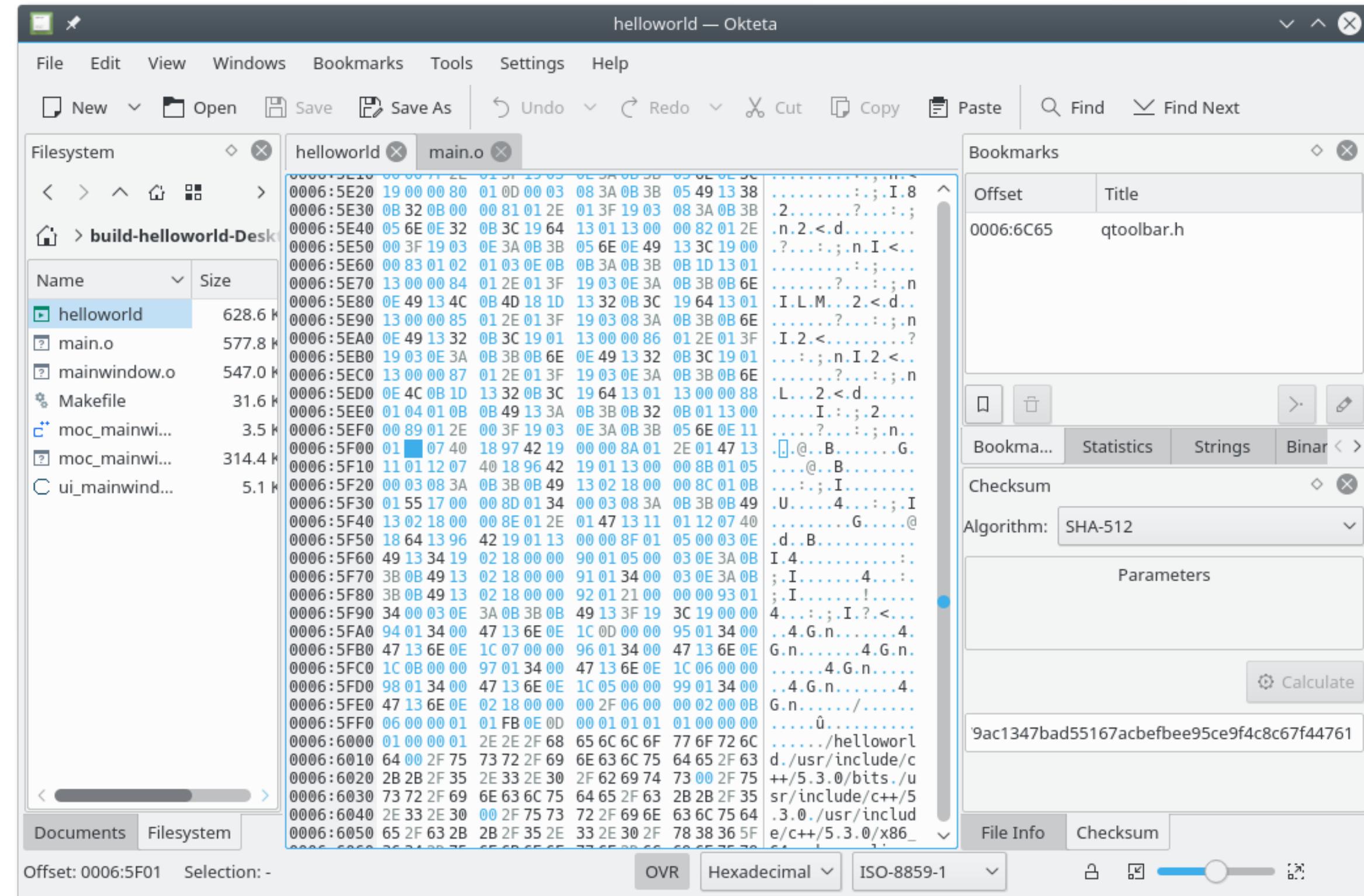
(Logical) Data Storage Structure

File Organization

- The database is stored as a collection of files
 - Each file is a sequence of records
 - A record is a sequence of fields.
 - One approach
 - Assume record size is fixed
 - Each file has records of one particular type only
 - Different files are used for different relations
- * This case is easiest to implement; we will consider variable length records later
- We assume that records are smaller than a disk block

File Organization

- Bitmap of a file



File Organization

- Goals: Time and Space
 - Support CURD operations as fast as possible
 - Save storage space as much as possible
 - Also, to some extent, maintain data integrity

Fixed-Length Records

- Simple approach:
 - Store record i starting from byte $n*(i - 1)$, where n is the size of each record
 - Record access is simple, but records may cross blocks
 - Modification: do not allow records to cross block boundaries

record 0	10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000
record 1	12121	Wu	Finance	90000
record 2	15151	Mozart	Music	40000
record 3	22222	Einstein	Physics	95000
record 4	32343	El Said	History	60000
record 5	33456	Gold	Physics	87000
record 6	45565	Katz	Comp. Sci.	75000
record 7	58583	Califieri	History	62000
record 8	76543	Singh	Finance	80000
record 9	76766	Crick	Biology	72000
record 10	83821	Brandt	Comp. Sci.	92000
record 11	98345	Kim	Elec. Eng.	80000

Fixed-Length Records

- Deletion of record i
 - Way #1: move records $i + 1, \dots, n$ to $i, \dots, n - 1$

record 0	10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000
record 1	12121	Wu	Finance	90000
record 2	15151	Mozart	Music	40000
record 4	32343	El Said	History	60000
record 5	33456	Gold	Physics	87000
record 6	45565	Katz	Comp. Sci.	75000
record 7	58583	Califieri	History	62000
record 8	76543	Singh	Finance	80000
record 9	76766	Crick	Biology	72000
record 10	83821	Brandt	Comp. Sci.	92000
record 11	98345	Kim	Elec. Eng.	80000



Fixed-Length Records

- Deletion of record i
 - Way #2: move record n to i
 - Record 3 is removed and replaced by record 11

record 0	10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000
record 1	12121	Wu	Finance	90000
record 2	15151	Mozart	Music	40000
record 11	98345	Kim	Elec. Eng.	80000
record 4	32343	El Said	History	60000
record 5	33456	Gold	Physics	87000
record 6	45565	Katz	Comp. Sci.	75000
record 7	58583	Califieri	History	62000
record 8	76543	Singh	Finance	80000
record 9	76766	Crick	Biology	72000
record 10	83821	Brandt	Comp. Sci.	92000
record 11	98345	Kim	Elec. Eng.	80000

Fixed-Length Records

- Deletion of record i
 - Way #3: Do not move records, but link all free records on a *free list*

header			
record 0	10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.
record 1			
record 2	15151	Mozart	Music
record 3	22222	Einstein	Physics
record 4			
record 5	33456	Gold	Physics
record 6			
record 7	58583	Califieri	History
record 8	76543	Singh	Finance
record 9	76766	Crick	Biology
record 10	83821	Brandt	Comp. Sci.
record 11	98345	Kim	Elec. Eng.

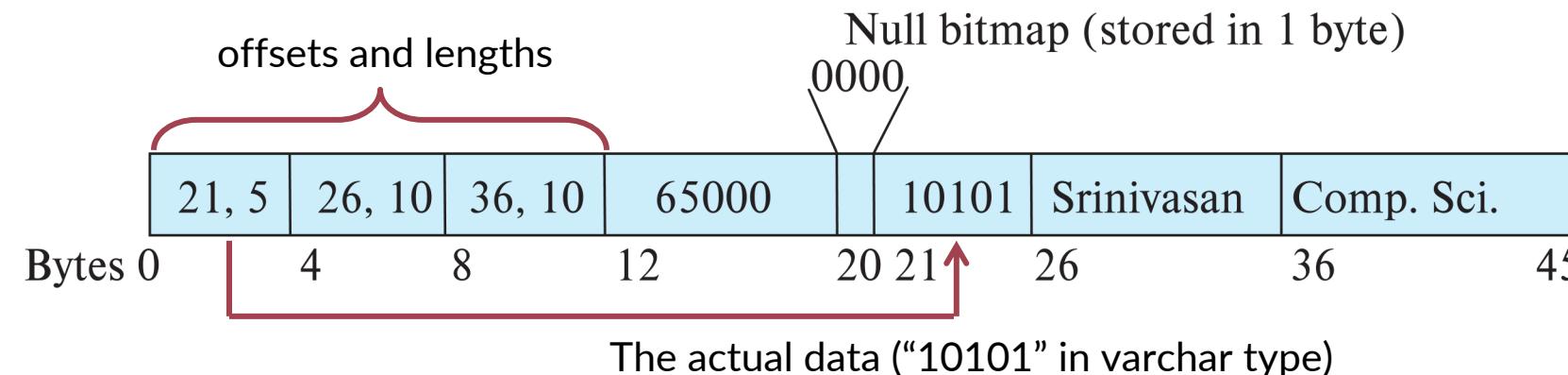
The diagram illustrates a linked list of free records. It shows the empty fields of records 1, 4, 6, and 7 pointing to a common free list pointer at the bottom right. This pointer is represented by a horizontal line with a small vertical line extending downwards, indicating the start of a linked list.

Variable-Length Records

- Variable-length records arise in database systems in several ways:
 - Storage of multiple record types in a file.
 - Record types that allow variable lengths for one or more fields such as strings (`varchar`)
 - Record types that allow repeating fields (used in some older data models).
- Problem with variable-length records
 - How can we retrieve the data in an easy way without wasting too much space
 - `varchar(1000)`: do we really need to allocate 1000 bytes for this field, even if most of the actual data items only costs less than 10 bytes?

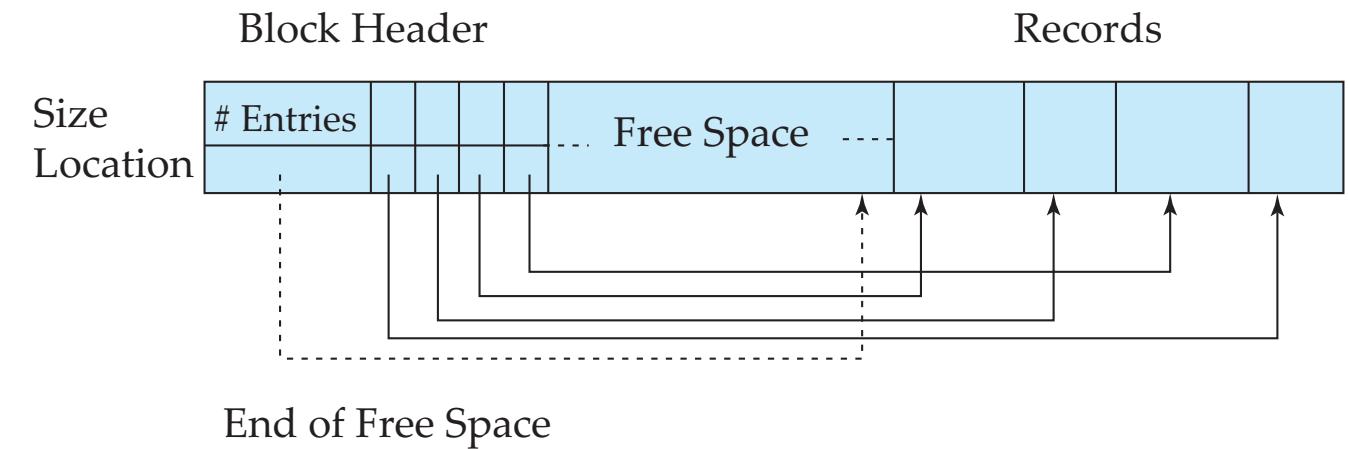
Variable-Length Records

- Attributes are stored in order
 - Variable length attributes represented by fixed size (offset, length), with actual data stored after all fixed length attributes
 - Null values represented by null-value bitmap



Variable-Length Records

- Slotted page header contains:
 - number of record entries
 - end of free space in the block
 - location and size of each record
 - Records can be moved around within a page to keep them contiguous with no empty space between them; entry in the header must be updated
- Pointers should **not** point directly to records – instead, they should point to the entry for the record in header
- Page size is usually aligned with the disk block size (4KB-8KB)



Storing Large Objects

- E.g., BLOB/CLOB types
 - BLOB: Binary Large OBject
 - CLOB: Character Large OBject
- Records must be smaller than pages
- Alternatives:
 - Store as files in file systems
 - Store as files managed by databases
 - Break into pieces and store in multiple tuples in separate relation
 - PostgreSQL TOAST

Organization of Records in Files

- **Heap** – records can be placed anywhere in the file where there is space
- **Sequential** – store records in sequential order, based on the value of the search key of each record
- **Multitable clustering file organization**
 - Records of several different relations can be stored in the same file
 - Motivation: store related records on the same block to minimize I/O
- **B+-tree file organization**
 - Ordered storage even with inserts/deletes
- **Hashing** – a hash function computed on search key; the result specifies in which block of the file the record should be placed

Heap File Organization

- Records can be placed anywhere in the file where there is free space
 - Records usually do not move once allocated
- Important to be able to efficiently find free space within file
- Free-space map
 - Array with 1 entry per block. Each entry is a few bits to a byte, and records fraction of block that is free
 - In example below, 3 bits per block, value divided by 8 indicates fraction of block that is free

4	2	1	4	7	3	6	5	1	2	0	1	1	0	5	6
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

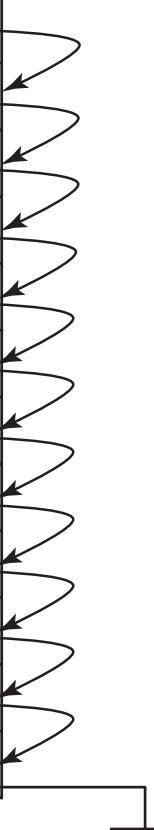
- Can have second-level free-space map
 - In example below, each entry stores maximum from 4 entries of first-level free-space map
- Free space map written to disk periodically, OK to have wrong (old) values for some entries (will be detected and fixed)

4	7	2	6
---	---	---	---

Sequential File Organization

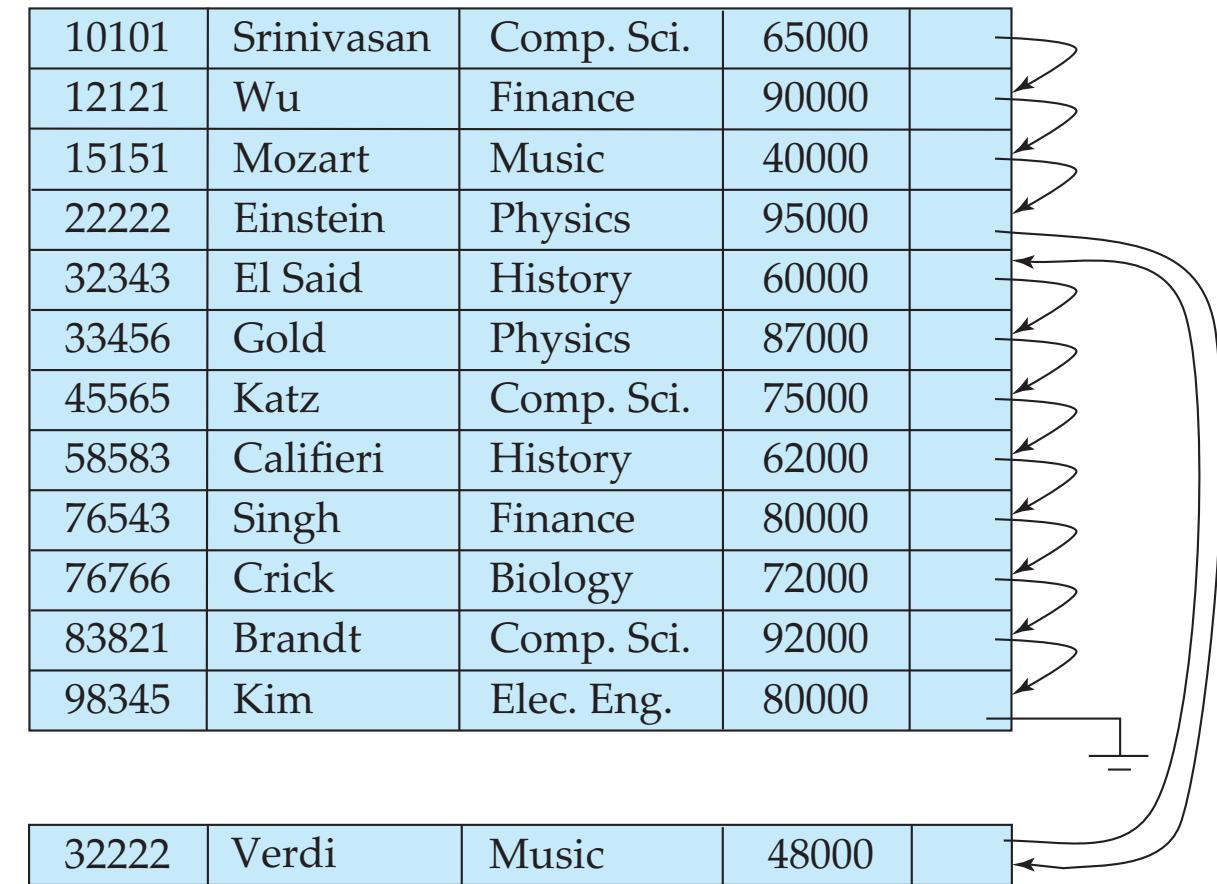
- Suitable for applications that require sequential processing of the entire file
- The records in the file are ordered by a search-key

10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000	
12121	Wu	Finance	90000	
15151	Mozart	Music	40000	
22222	Einstein	Physics	95000	
32343	El Said	History	60000	
33456	Gold	Physics	87000	
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76766	Crick	Biology	72000	
83821	Brandt	Comp. Sci.	92000	
98345	Kim	Elec. Eng.	80000	



Sequential File Organization

- Deletion – Use pointer chains
- Insertion – Locate the position where the record is to be inserted
 - if there is free space insert there
 - if no free space, insert the record in an overflow block
 - In either case, pointer chain must be updated
- Need to reorganize the file from time to time to restore sequential order



Multitable Clustering File Organization

- Store several relations in one file using a **multitable clustering** file organization
 - Good for queries involving:
 - *department* \bowtie *instructor*
 - or: one single department and its instructors (one-to-many correspondence)
 - Bad for queries involving only *department*
 - Results in variable size records
 - Can add pointer chains to link records of a particular relation
 - Bad for large databases
 - where other operations than joins are required

department

<i>dept_name</i>	<i>building</i>	<i>budget</i>
Comp. Sci.	Taylor	100000
Physics	Watson	70000

instructor

<i>ID</i>	<i>name</i>	<i>dept_name</i>	<i>salary</i>
10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000
33456	Gold	Physics	87000
45565	Katz	Comp. Sci.	75000
83821	Brandt	Comp. Sci.	92000

Multitable clustering of *department* and *instructor*

Comp. Sci.	Taylor	100000	
10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000
45565	Katz	Comp. Sci.	75000
83821	Brandt	Comp. Sci.	92000
Physics	Watson	70000	
33456	Gold	Physics	87000

Partitioning

- Table partitioning: Records in a relation can be partitioned into smaller relations that are stored separately
 - E.g., `transaction` relation may be partitioned into `transaction_2018`, `transaction_2019`, etc.
- Queries written on `transaction` must access records in all partitions
 - Unless query has a selection such as `year=2019`, in which case only one partition is needed
- Partitioning
 - Reduces costs of some operations such as free space management
 - Allows different partitions to be stored on different storage devices
 - E.g., `transaction` partition for current year on SSD, for older years on magnetic disk

Column-Oriented Storage

- (Also known as **columnar representation**)
- Store each attribute of a relation separately

10101
12121
15151
22222
32343
33456
45565
58583
76543
76766
83821
98345

Srinivasan
Wu
Mozart
Einstein
El Said
Gold
Katz
Califieri
Singh
Crick
Brandt
Kim

Comp. Sci.
Finance
Music
Physics
History
Physics
Comp. Sci.
History
Finance
Biology
Comp. Sci.
Elec. Eng.

65000
90000
40000
95000
60000
87000
75000
62000
80000
72000
92000
80000

Column-Oriented Storage

- Benefits:
 - Reduced IO if only some attributes are accessed
 - Improved CPU cache performance
 - Improved compression
 - Data in the same type can be compressed more efficiently
 - Vector processing on modern CPU architectures
- Drawbacks
 - Cost of tuple reconstruction from columnar representation
 - Cost of tuple deletion and update
 - Cost of decompression

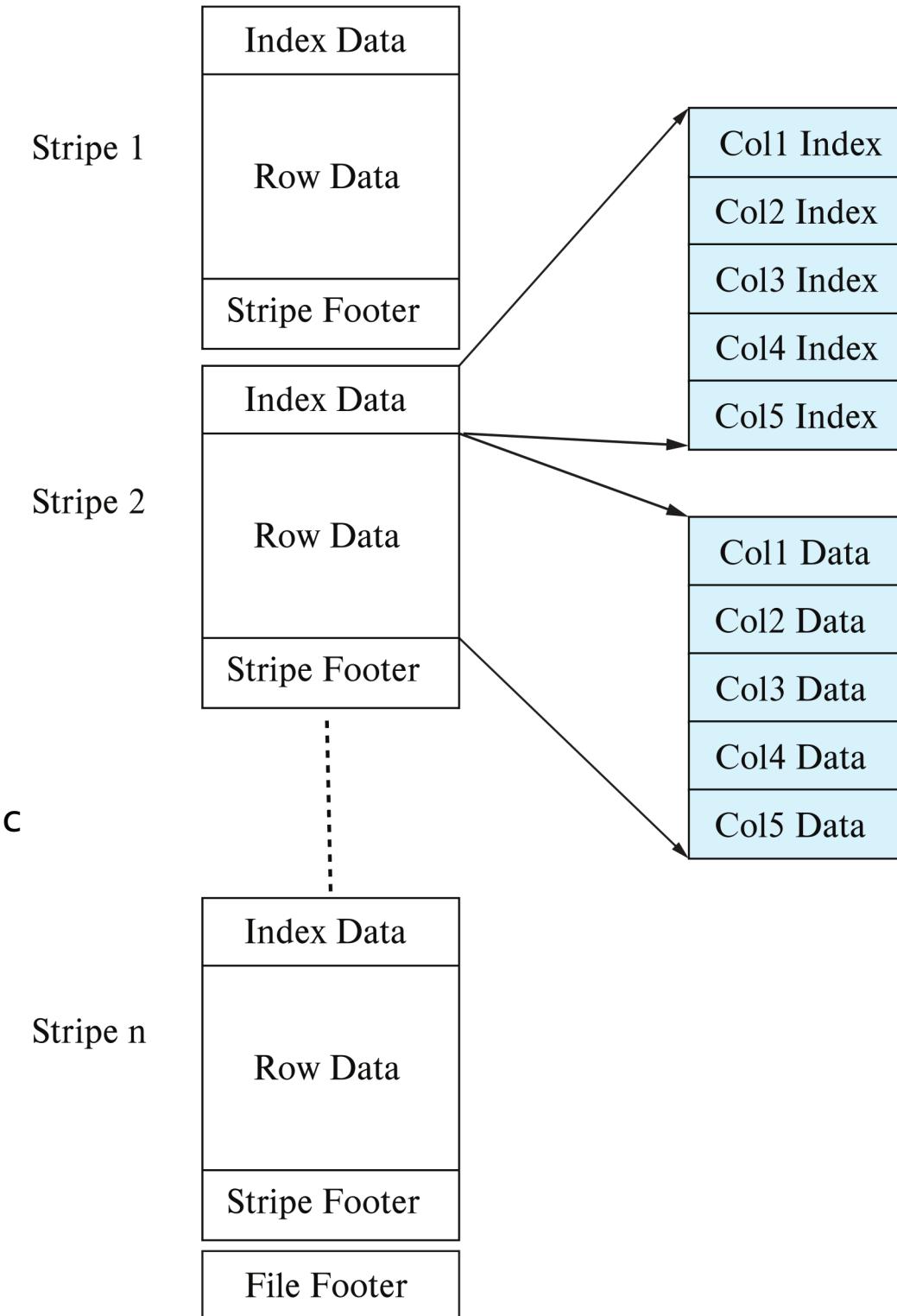
Column-Oriented Storage

- Columnar representation found to be more efficient for decision support than row-oriented representation
- Traditional row-oriented representation preferable for transaction processing
- Some databases support both representations
 - Called hybrid row/column stores

Column-Oriented Storage

- ORC (Optimized Row Columnar) File Format
 - File format with columnar storage inside file
- Details if you are interested in big data processing:

<https://cwiki.apache.org/confluence/display/hive/languagemanual+orc>



Data Dictionary Storage

- The **Data dictionary** (also called **system catalog**) stores metadata
 - ... that is, data about data – “meta” means “of”
- It includes
 - Information about relations
 - Names of relations
 - Names, types and lengths of attributes of each relation
 - Names and definitions of views
 - Integrity constraints
 - User and accounting information, including passwords
 - Statistical and descriptive data
 - Number of tuples in each relation

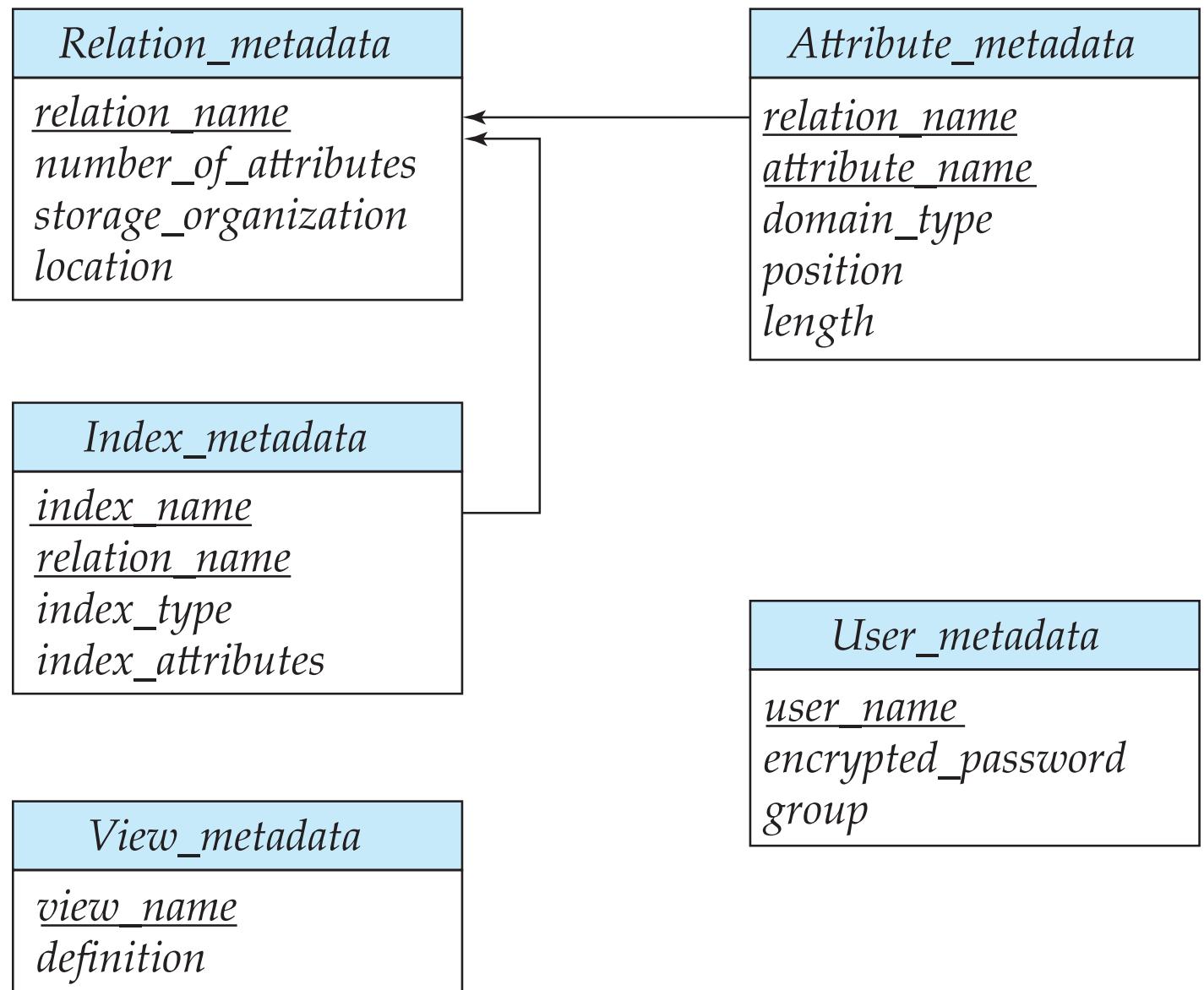
Data Dictionary Storage

- It includes (continue)
 - Physical file organization information
 - How relation is stored (sequential/hash/...)
 - Physical location of relation
 - Information about indices/indexes

(we will learn it later)

Relational Representation of System Metadata

- An example of the relational representation of the metadata
 - Relational representation on disk
 - Specialized data structures designed for efficient access, in memory
 - Different DBMS may have their own implementation



Storage Access

- **Blocks** are units of both storage allocation and data transfer
- Database system seeks to **minimize** the number of block transfers between the disk and memory
 - We can **reduce** the number of **disk accesses** by keeping as many blocks as possible in main memory
- **Buffer:** Portion of main memory available to store copies of disk blocks
- **Buffer Manager:** Subsystem responsible for allocating buffer space in main memory

Self Study

- Database System Concepts , 7th Edition
 - Chapter 13.5 “Database Buffer”