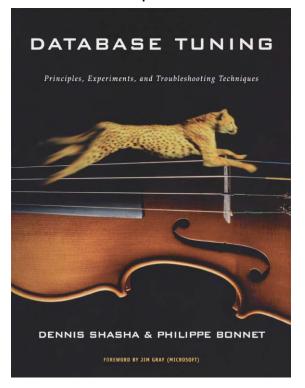
Data Administration in Information Systems

Database tuning (conclusion)

Database Tuning

- Second part for the course will address different tuning aspects, building on previous knowledge
 - Schema tuning
 - Query tuning
 - Index tuning
 - Lock and log tuning
 - Hardware and OS tuning
 - Database monitoring

Chapter 2



Tuning Considerations

- OS
 - Threads
 - Thread switching
 - Priorities
 - Virtual memory
 - Database buffer size
 - File system
 - Disk layout and access

- Hardware
 - Storage subsystem
 - Configuring the disk array
 - Using the controller cache
 - Hardware configuration

Threads

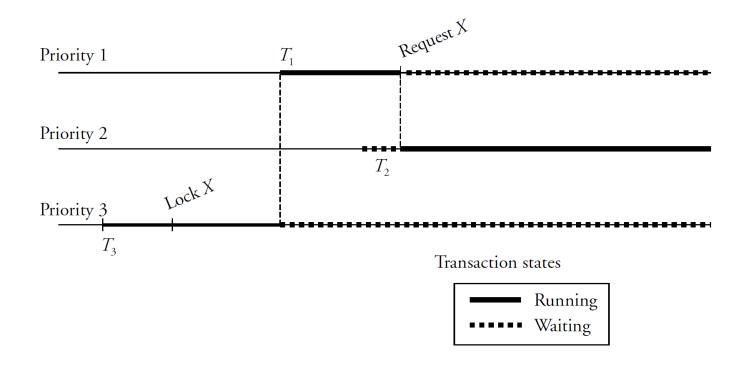
- A database system is an OS process with multiple threads
 - Threads to manage database connections
 - possibly using multiple network protocols
 - Threads to perform system tasks
 - e.g. checkpoints, running in the background
 - A pool of worker threads
 - to handle user requests, namely database queries

Threads (Cont.)

- Initiating (scheduling) a new thread takes some time
 - Pool of worker threads created at startup
- Switching between threads takes some time
 - Time slice of a thread should be long (e.g. 1 second) to dilute this cost
- Threads have priorities
 - Database system threads should not run at low priority

Threads (Cont.)

- Giving higher/lower priority to some transactions can backfire
 - may cause priority inversion
 - example
 - T_1 (higher priority) waiting for lock from T_3 (lower priority)
 - T_2 keeps running while T_3 (and therefore T_1) keep waiting



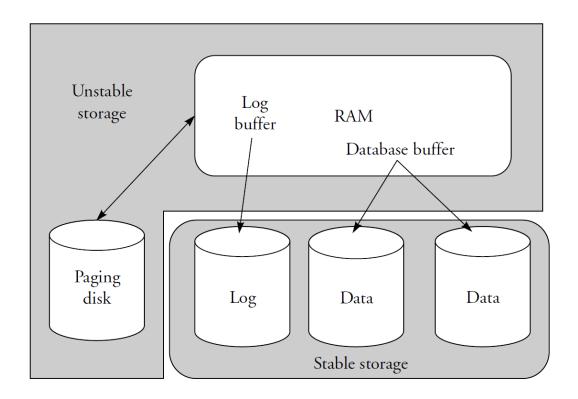
Threads (Cont.)

- Some systems use priority inheritance
 - When T_1 requests lock on X, the priority of T_3 is increased to that of T_1
 - If priority inheritance is unavailable, give same priority to all threads
- In SQL Server, there was priority boosting
 - Giving more priority to the database system than to the OS
 - Did not work out as expected, has been discontinued

Database Buffer

- Ideally, store as much as possible in RAM to avoid disk accesses
- Goal of memory tuning
 - Frequently read pages should rarely require disk accesses
- Logical vs. physical reads
 - Logical reads: pages that need to be accessed
 - Physical reads: pages that need to be retrieved from disk
- Logical vs. physical writes
 - Logical writes: changes to pages in the buffer (dirty pages)
 - Physical writes: dirty pages are written to disk
- Page replacements
 - Dirty pages are written to disk to free buffer space
 - New pages are read from disk into the free buffer space

- When RAM becomes full, the OS may start paging to disk (swap)
 - OS paging is highly detrimental and should be avoided
 - Even worse is when the swap file is on the same disk
 - sequential access will be disrupted

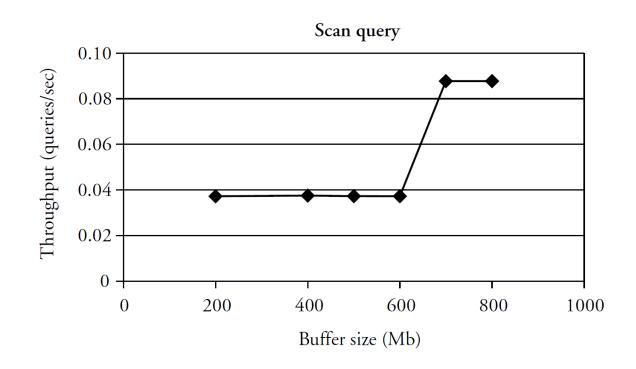


Assuming OS paging and page replacements are low

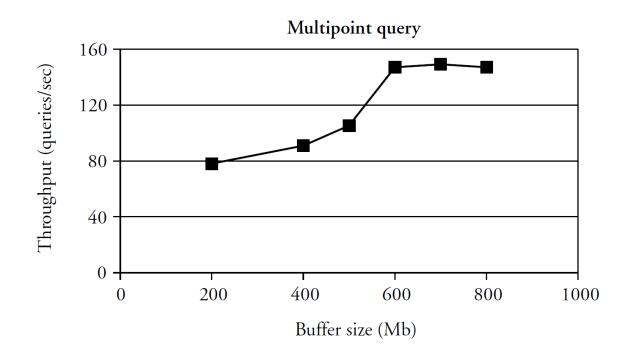
Hit ratio =
$$\frac{\text{(number of logical accesses)} - \text{(number of physical accesses)}}{\text{(number of logical accesses)}}$$

- Aim for hit ratio > 90%
- Run typical workload and check hit ratio
- Increase buffer size until hit ratio flattens out

- Experiment with full table scan
 - If buffer size is small, table must be read entirely from disk
 - LRU replacement strategy keeps evicting pages from memory
 - If buffer size is large, the entire table fits in memory
 - Query is processed entirely from RAM



- Experiment with multipoint query
 - As the buffer size increases, more pages can be held in cache
 - LRU replacement strategy still evicts some pages from memory
 - After a certain point, all the desired pages fit in memory
 - Query is processed from RAM, no further improvement



File System

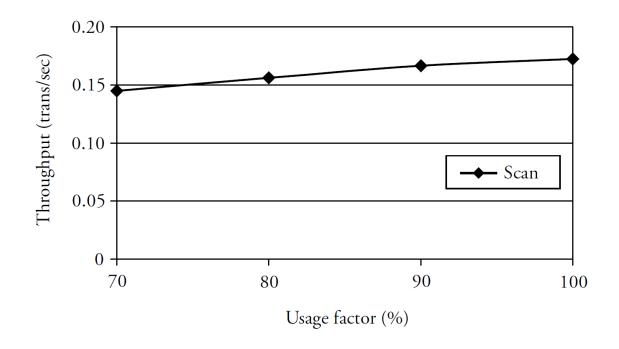
- Size of disk chunks allocated at one time
 - Some file systems call these extents
 - In SQL Server, an extent is 8 physically contiguous pages
 - Allocate large extents to files that need to be scanned often
 - Sequential files such as log or history also benefit form large extents

File System (Cont.)

- Usage factor of disk pages
 - Percentage of a page that is utilized, leaving some room for insertions
 - Depends on scan/insert ratio
 - High usage factor (90% or higher) is good for table scans
 - Low usage factor (70% or less) is good for frequent insertions
 - In SQL Server, there is also an index fill factor
 - percentage of space on each leaf-level page to be filled with data
 - we often rebuild indexes to reduce their internal fragmentation

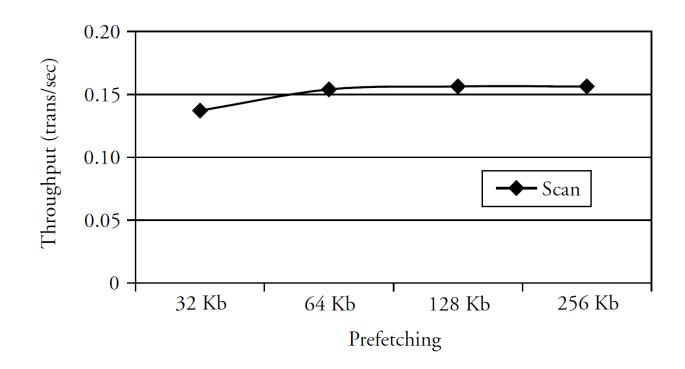
File System (Cont.)

- Experiment with full table scan
 - Cold buffer to read entire table from disk
 - Throughput improves by about 10% when usage factor is increased from 70% to 100%



File System (Cont.)

- Pre-fetching pages from disk
 - Speed up table/index scans by reading ahead more pages from disk
 - Experiment with full table scan
 - Throughput improves by about 10% when the prefetching size is increased from 32 KB to 128 KB



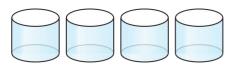
Tuning Considerations

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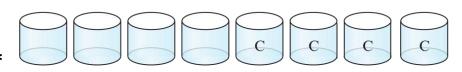
RAID Levels

- RAID level 0
 - Block striping, non-redundant



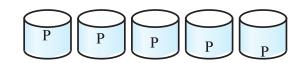
(a) RAID 0: nonredundant striping

- RAID level 1
 - Mirrored disks with block striping*



(b) RAID 1: mirrored disks

- RAID level 5
 - Block-interleaved distributed parity



(c) RAID 5: block-interleaved distributed parity

^{*} Some authors refer to mirrored disks without block striping as RAID level 1 and mirrored disks with block striping as RAID level 10.

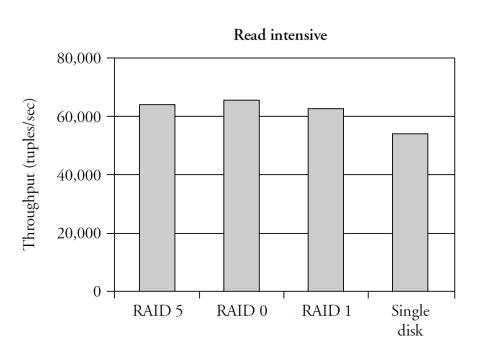
RAID Levels (Cont.)

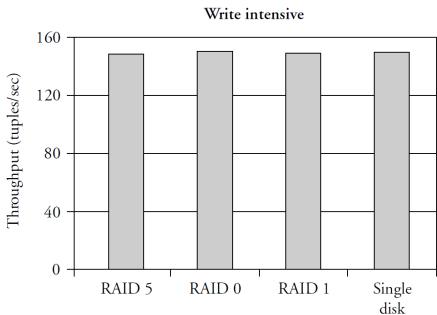
- Database log
 - RAID 1 is appropriate for log file(s)
 - Mirroring provides fault tolerance with high write throughput
 - Writes are synchronous and sequential; no benefit from striping
- Temporary Files
 - RAID 0 is appropriate for temporary tables or sorting files
 - No fault tolerance, high throughput; system can tolerate data loss
- Data and index files
 - RAID 5 provides fault tolerance and is best suited for read intensive apps

RAID Levels (Cont.)

Experiments

- Read performance
 - RAID 0, RAID 1, RAID 5 improve read performance with multiple disks
- Write performance
 - Negative impact of RAID 5 for computing and writing parity block (hidden by controller cache)



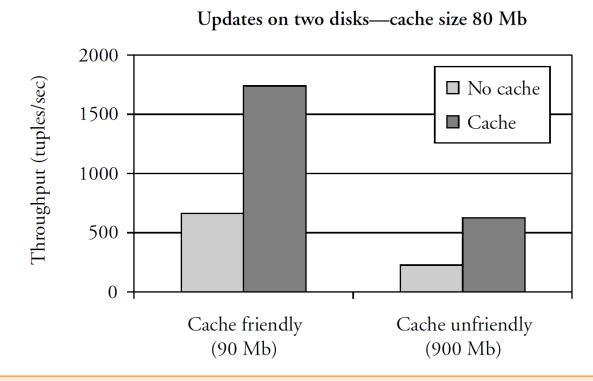


Using the Controller Cache

- Disk controllers have memory that servers as cache
 - On read operations, the cache can be used for read-ahead
 - Similar to pre-fetching, but done internally in the hard drive
 - On write operations, the cache can be used for write-back
 - Write requests conclude as soon as data is written to the cache
 - In contrast with write-through mode, when it is written to disk

Using the Controller Cache (Cont.)

- Experiments with write-back mode
 - Cache friendly: the data volume is slightly larger than cache
 - Cache unfriendly: the data volume is 10x larger than cache
 - when cache is full, requests are serialized and waiting time increases
 - depends on disk access time and on length of waiting queue



Hardware Configuration

Add memory

- Allows increase in buffer size
- Reduces load on disks
- Increases the hit ratio
- Reduces page replacement and OS paging

Hardware Configuration (Cont.)

Add disks

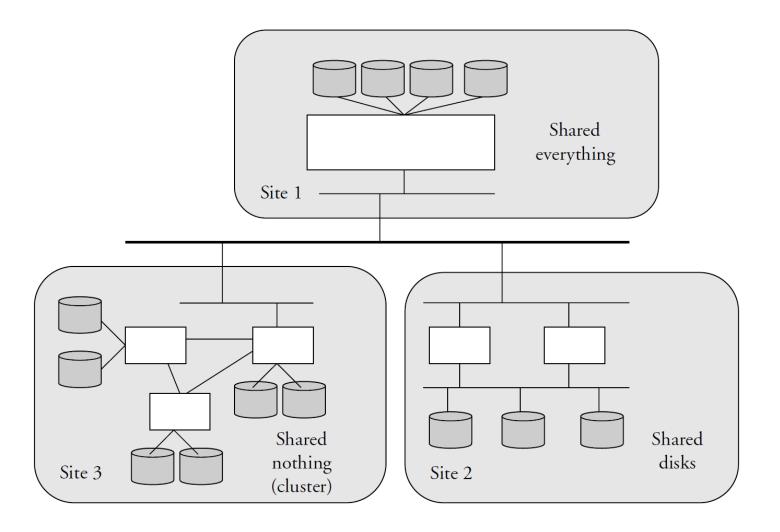
- Put the log on a separate disk to ensure that writes are sequential
- Use a different RAID level to achieve better write performance
 - e.g. switch from RAID 5 to RAID 1 for write-intensive apps
- Partition large tables across several disks
 - Write-intensive apps should have non-clustered indexes to separate disk, because each modification updates those indexes
 - Read-intensive apps should partition tables across multiple disks to balance the read load

Hardware Configuration (Cont.)

- Add processors
 - Off-load non-database tasks to other processors
 - Provide computing power for data mining apps on copy of database
 - Connect many independent systems together by a high-speed network
 - Different options for sharing resources (memory, disks, processors)

Hardware Configuration (Cont.)

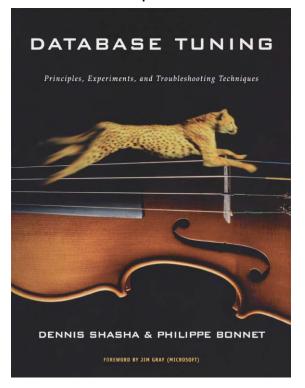
Shared-everything, shared-disks, or shared-nothing environment



Database Tuning

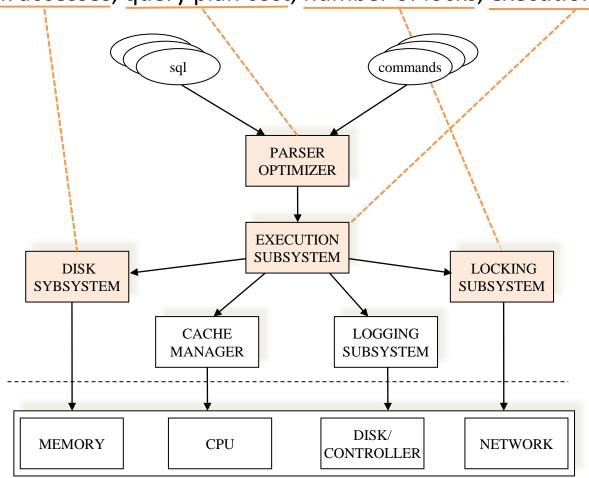
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Chapter 7

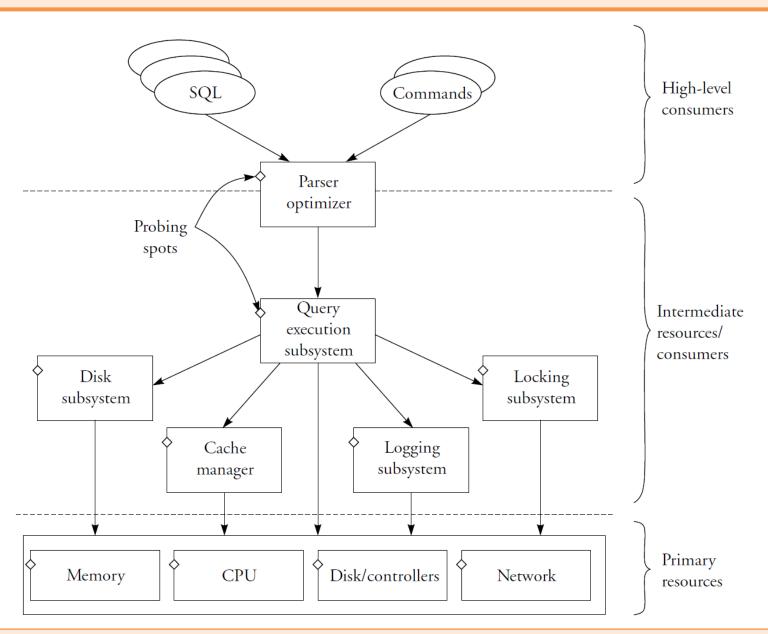


Database Monitoring

- Monitoring database performance requires indicators
 - These indicators can be collected at different points in the system
 - Disk accesses, query plan cost, number of locks, execution time, etc.



Consumption Chain

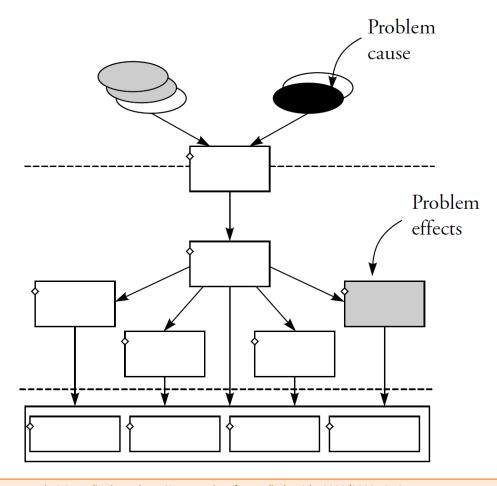


Consumption Chain (Cont.)

- Producer-consumer hierarchy
 - High-level consumers
 - Users or applications issuing SQL queries or database commands
 - Intermediate consumers/resources
 - Database subsystems that interact with each another those requests
 - Primary resources
 - Raw resources of the machine being managed by the OS

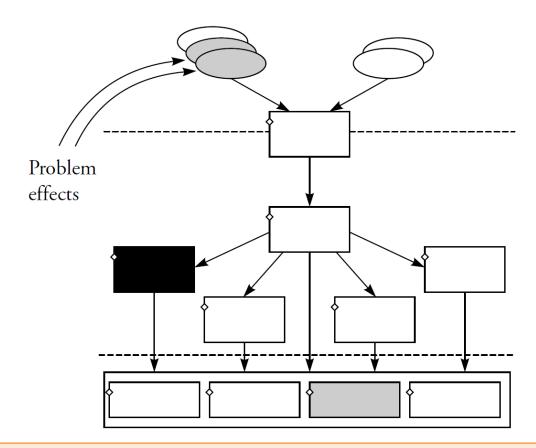
Performance problems

- Example 1
 - A high-level consumer monopolizing an intermediary resource
 - e.g. a query that locks an enormous number of rows



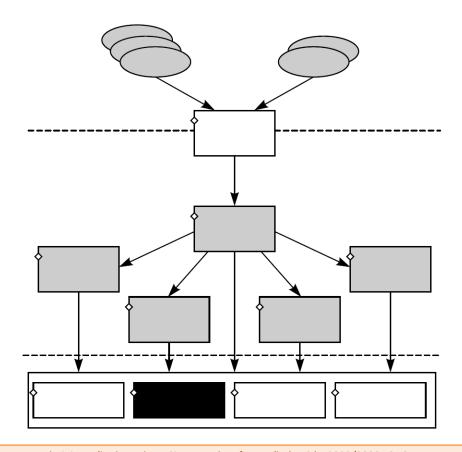
Performance problems (Cont.)

- Example 2
 - A poorly configured subsystem that exhausts a raw resource
 - e.g. a disk subsystem that stores everything on a single disk



Performance problems (Cont.)

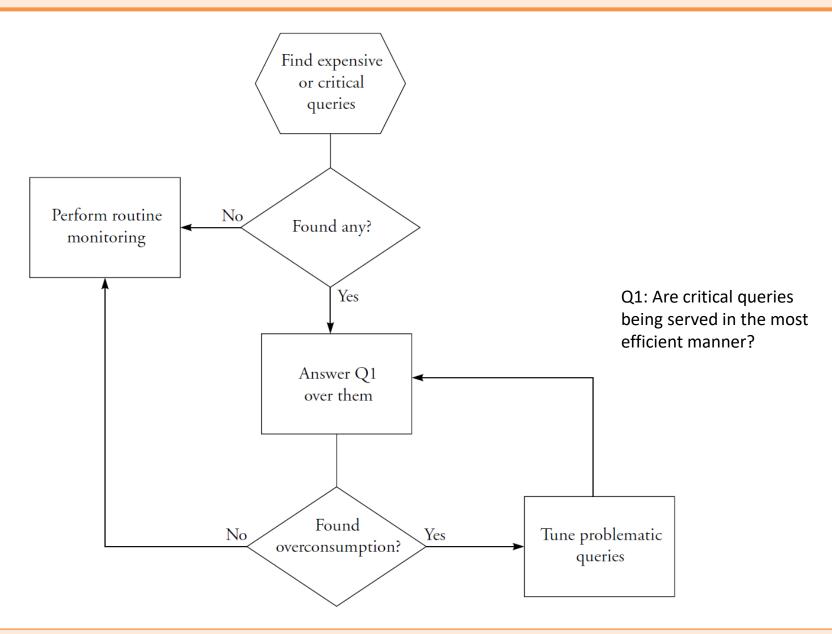
- Example 3
 - An overloaded primary resource can slow down an entire system
 - e.g. a CPU that is overly busy with non-database processes



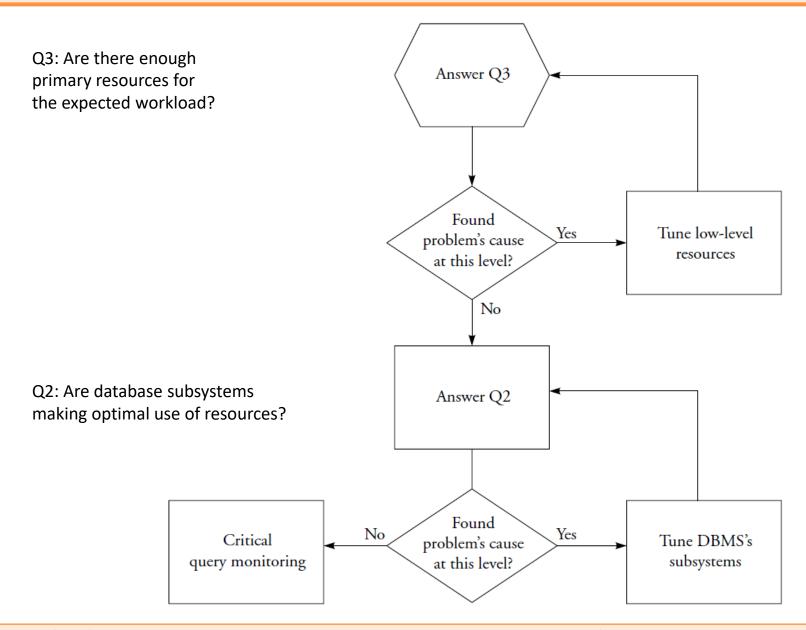
Systematic Approach: Three Questions

- 1. Are critical queries being served in the most efficient manner?
 - High-level consumer question
- 2. Are database subsystems making optimal use of resources?
 - Intermediate consumer/resource question
- 3. Are there enough primary resources for the expected workload?
 - Primary resources question

Critical Query Monitoring



Routine Monitoring

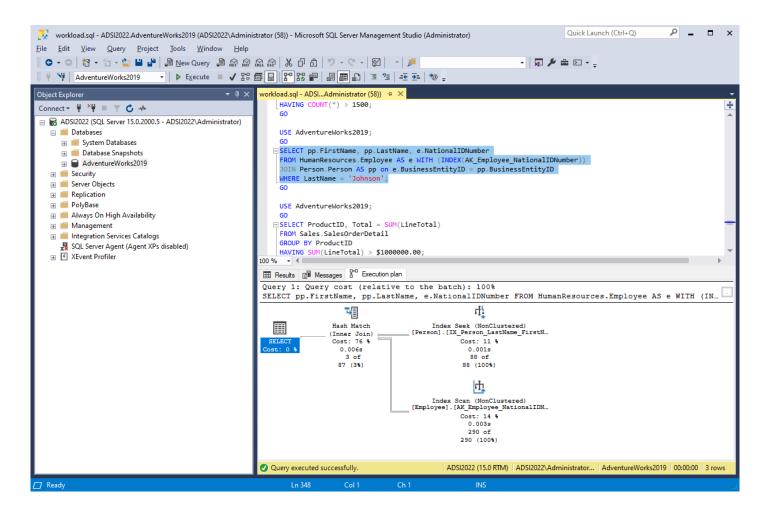


Monitoring Tools

- Query Plan Explainers
 - Shows the execution plan and estimated costs
- Performance Monitors
 - Tools that access the database internal counters and metrics
- Event Monitors
 - Record performance measures only when an event occurs

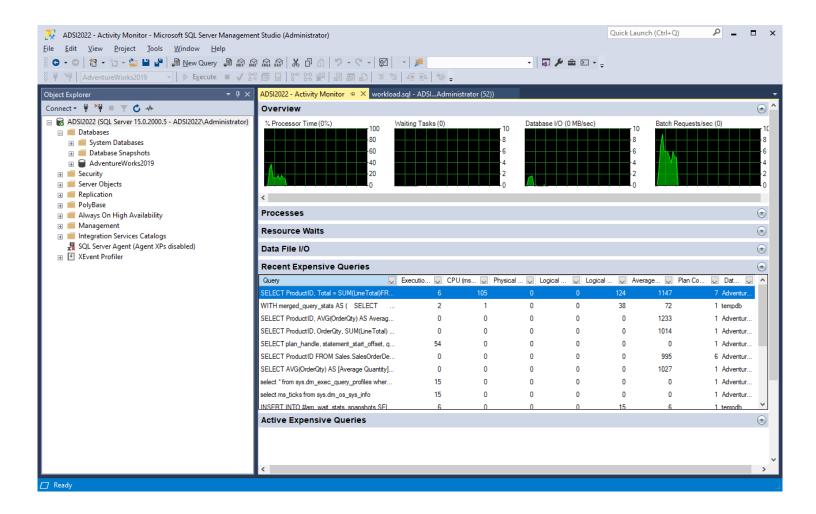
Monitoring Tools (Cont.)

- Query Plan Explainers
 - Shows the execution plan and estimated costs



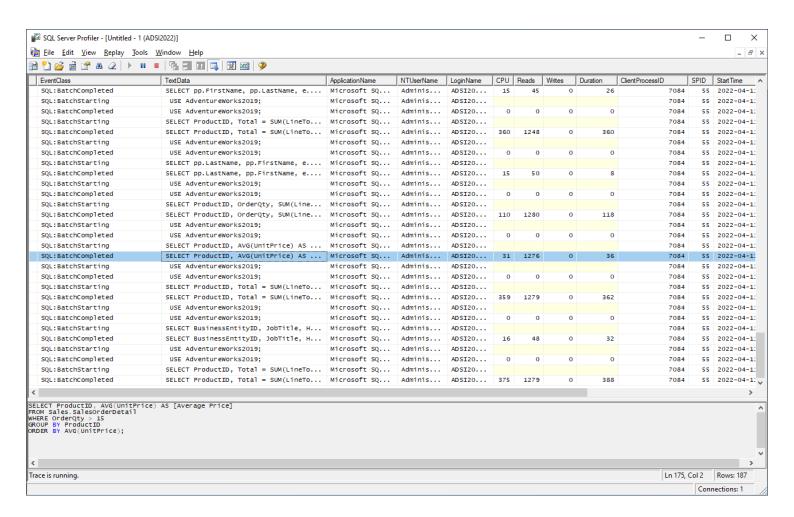
Monitoring Tools (Cont.)

- Performance Monitors
 - Tools that access the database internal counters and metrics



Monitoring Tools (Cont.)

- Event Monitors
 - Record performance measures only when an event occurs

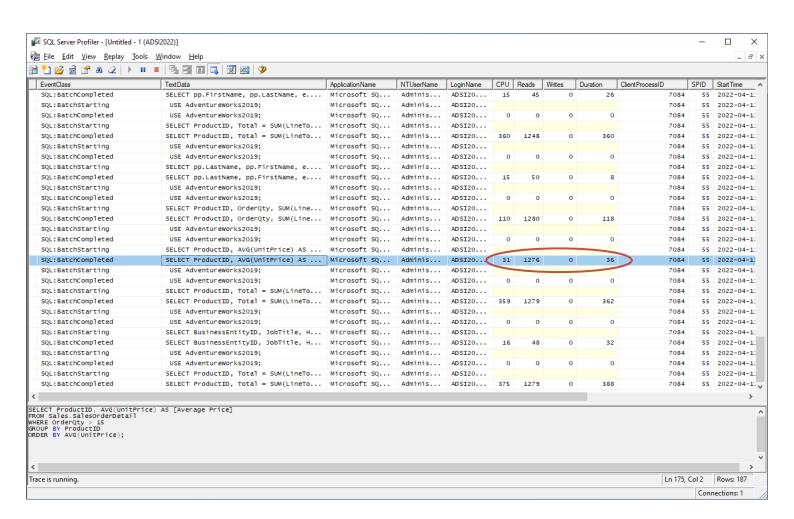


Investigating High-Level Consumers

- Answer question 1
 - Are critical queries being served in the most efficient manner?
- 1. Identify the critical queries
- 2. Analyze the execution plan
- 3. Profile the execution

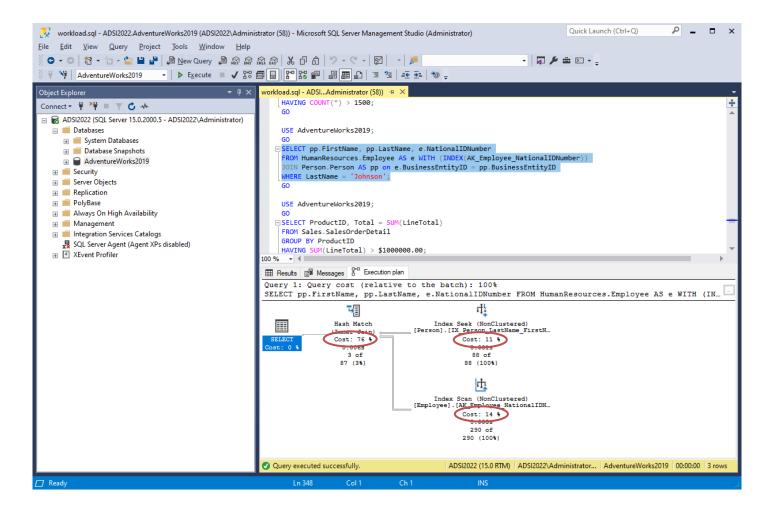
1. Identify the critical queries

Use Event Monitor to find end-of-statement with execution measures



2. Analyze the execution plan

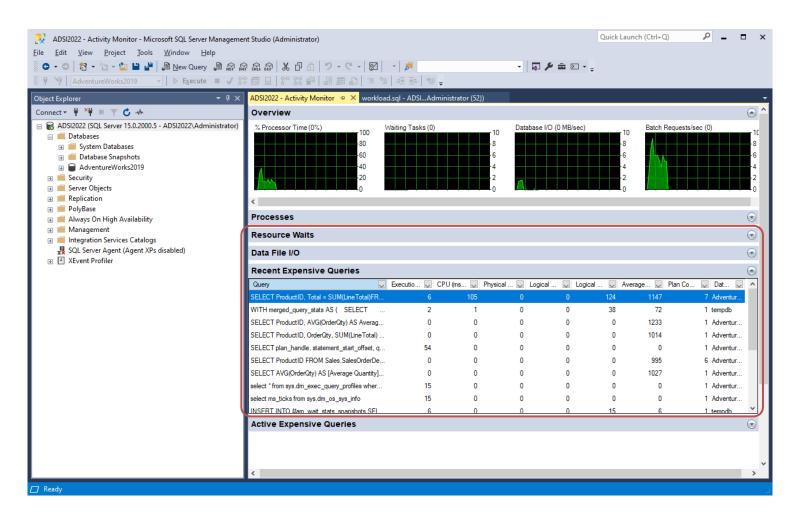
Use Query Plan Explainer to analyze the relative cost of each operation



- In the execution plan, pay attention to:
 - Access methods
 - sequential scan, index lookup, etc.
 - Sorts
 - caused by ORDER BY, GROUP BY or DISTINCT
 - Intermediate results
 - materialization to temporaries
 - Order of operations
 - joins, sorts, aggregations, filtering
 - Algorithms used in operations
 - types of join, etc.

3. Profile the execution

Use Performance Monitor to analyze duration and resource consumption



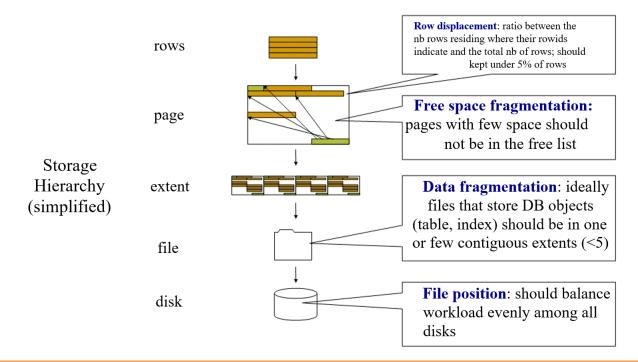
- Duration involves 3 indicators:
 - Elapsed time
 - The time it took to process the query as perceived by a user
 - CPU time
 - The time that was actually used by the CPU to process the query
 - Wait time
 - The time the query was waiting for a resources to become available
- Resource consumption includes:
 - I/O
 - Physical and logical reads/writes
 - Locking
 - Number of locks, lock escalations, deadlocks/timeouts, total wait time
 - SQL activity
 - Number of sorts and temporary area usage

- Two common scenarios
 - Elapsed time close to CPU time
 - Probably difficult to optimize any further
 - Discrepancy between elapsed time and CPU time
 - Points to a problem in resource consumption
 - Possibly a contention problem or a poorly performing resource
 - Run the query in isolation to investigate the cause

- Answer question 2
 - Are database subsystems making optimal use of resources?
- 1. Disk subsystem
- 2. Buffer manager
- 3. Locking subsystem
- 4. Logging subsystem

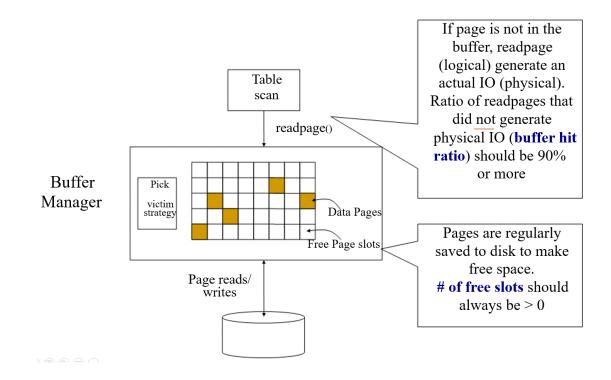
1. Disk subsystem

- A table should be stored contiguously in a physical disk
 - Avoid free space between records (data fragmentation)
- Table records should be stored in their correct order
 - Avoid records out of place (row displacement)
- Periodic file reorganization may be necessary



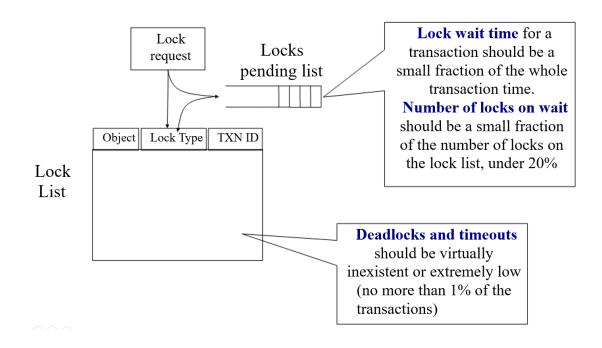
2. Buffer Manager

- Two main performance indicators to monitor
 - Hit ratio percentage of times that requested page is already in buffer
 - Number of free pages how much space is left in the buffer
- In SQL Server, these and other metrics can be obtained from system views



3. Locking subsystem

- Useful indicators
 - Average lock wait time
 - Number of locks on wait
 - Number of deadlocks or timeouts
- SQL Server provides comprehensive wait statistics through system views



4. Logging subsystem

- Useful indicators
 - Number of log waits ensure log can keep up with transactions
 - Log expansions or log archives due to lack of space
 - Log cache hit ratio analogous to buffer cache hit ratio
- Log waits > 0 means transactions are being held due to log writes

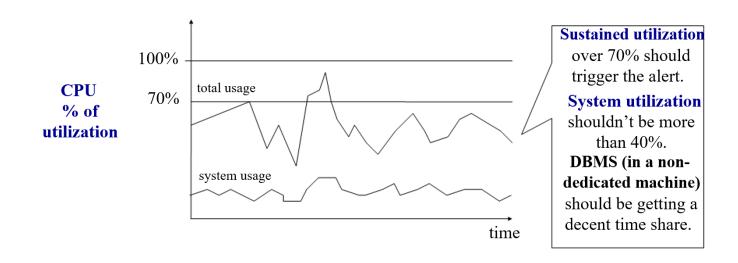
Investigating Primary Resources

- Answer question 3
 - Are there enough primary resources for the expected workload?
- 1. CPU
- 2. Disks
- 3. Memory

Investigating Primary Resources (Cont.)

1. CPU

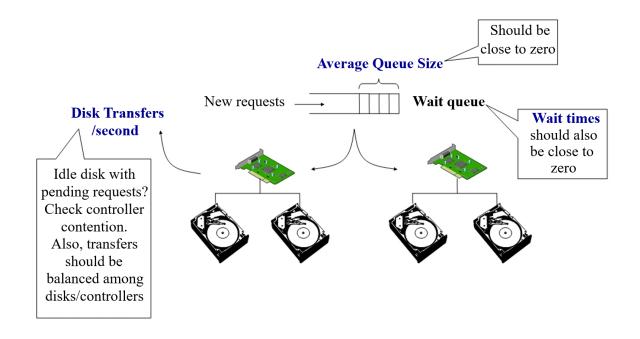
- Main indicator
 - Percentage of utilization
- Use OS task manager to monitor CPU utilization
- Identify whether processes are database or non-database related
- Check CPU utilization of system (OS) processes in idle state



Investigating Primary Resources (Cont.)

2. Disks

- Main indicators
 - Average size of the waiting queue
 - Average time taken to service a request
 - Bytes transferred per second
- Disk utilization can be monitored with OS utilities



Investigating Primary Resources (Cont.)

3. Memory

- Some indicators
 - Number of page faults/time
 - Percentage of paging file in use
- Size of paging/swap file is an indication of how much memory is lacking

