

Chapter 13:

Data Storage Structures

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; will consider variable length records later

- We assume that records are smaller than a disk block.

Fixed-Length Records

- Simple approach:
 - Store record i starting from byte $n * (i - 1)$, where n is the size of each record.
 - Accessing records 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 : alternatives:
 1. Move records $i + 1, \dots, n$ to $i, \dots, n - 1$
 2. Move record n to i
 3. Do not move records, but link all free records on a *free list*

(Ex.) Record 3 deleted.

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
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Fixed-Length Records

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 1. Move records $i + 1, \dots, n$ to $i, \dots, n - 1$
 2. **Move record n to i**
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(Ex.) Record 3 deleted and replaced by record 11.

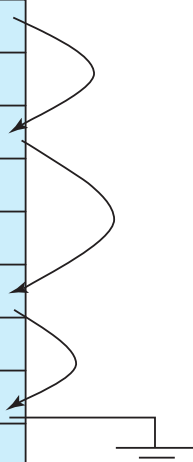
record 0	10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000
record 1	12121	Wu	Finance	90000
record 2	15151	Mozart	Music	40000
record 11	98345	Kim	Elec. Eng.	80000
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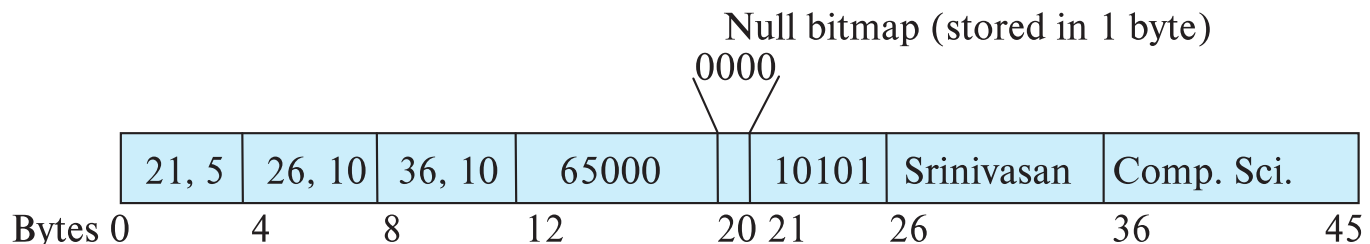
(Ex.) Records 1, 4, and 6 are deleted.

header				
record 0	10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000
record 1				
record 2	15151	Mozart	Music	40000
record 3	22222	Einstein	Physics	95000
record 4				
record 5	33456	Gold	Physics	87000
record 6				
record 7	58583	Califieri	History	62000
record 8	76543	Singh	Finance	80000
record 9	76766	Crick	Biology	72000
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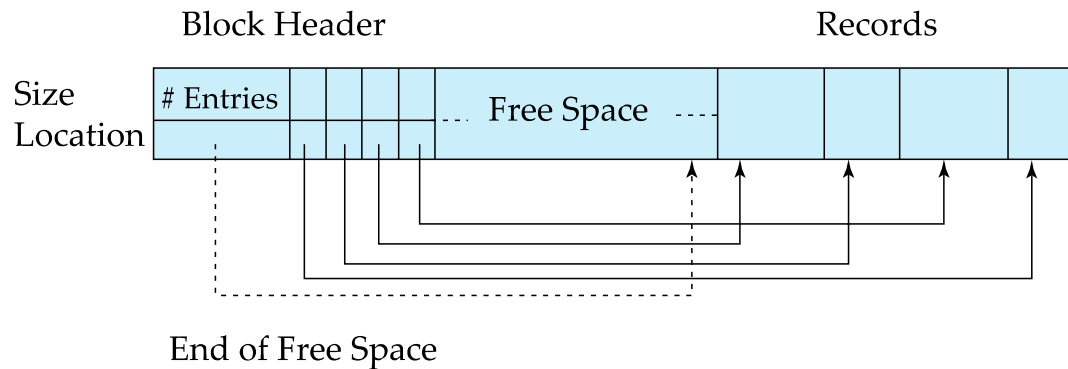


Variable-Length Records

- Variable-length records arise in database systems in several ways:
 - Record types that allow variable lengths for one or more fields such as strings (**varchar**)
 - Storage of multiple record types in a file.
- 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 Structure



- **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 record — instead they should point to the entry for the record in header.

Storing Large Objects

- Basically, records must be smaller than pages
- What about large objects?
 - **Note:** SQL supports **blob/clob** types.
- Alternatives:
 - Store as files in file systems
 - Store as files managed by database
 - [PostgreSQL]
 - Break into pieces and store in multiple tuples in separate relation
 - TOAST(The Oversized-Attribute Storage Technique)

Organization of Records in Files

- **Sequential file organization**

- Store records in sequential order, based on the value of the search key of each record

- **Heap file organization**

- Records can be placed anywhere in the file where there is space

- **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
- More on this in Chapter 14

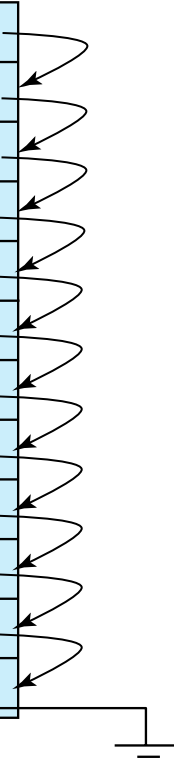
- **Hashing file organization**

- A hash function computed on search key; the result specifies in which block of the file the record should be placed
- More on this in Chapter 14

Sequential File Organization

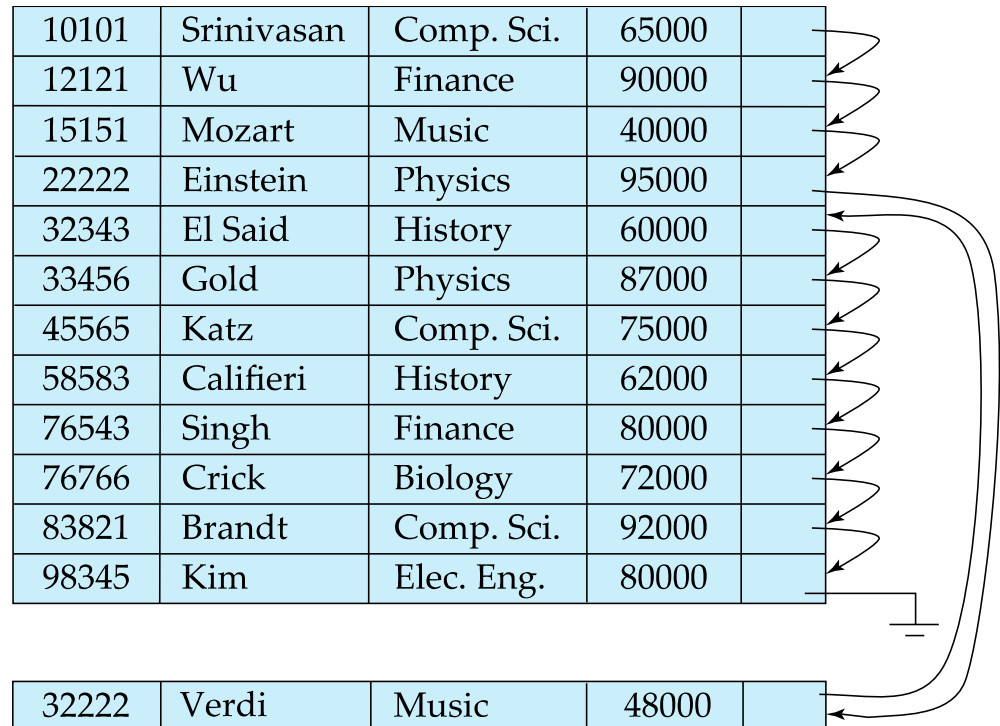
- Suitable for applications that require sequential processing of the entire file
- The records in the file are ordered by a **search-key**

10101	Srinivasan	Comp. Sci.	65000	
12121	Wu	Finance	90000	
15151	Mozart	Music	40000	
22222	Einstein	Physics	95000	
32343	El Said	History	60000	
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Sequential File Organization (Cont.)

- 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



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

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

- Free space map written to disk periodically, OK to have wrong (old) values for some entries (will be detected and fixed)

Multitable Clustering File Organization

Store several relations in one file using a **multitable clustering** file organization

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

Multitable Clustering File Organization (cont.)

- Results in variable size records
- Can add pointer chains to link records of a particular relation
- **Good** for queries involving *department* ⋈ *instructor*, and for queries involving one single department and its instructors
- **Bad** for queries involving only *department*

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

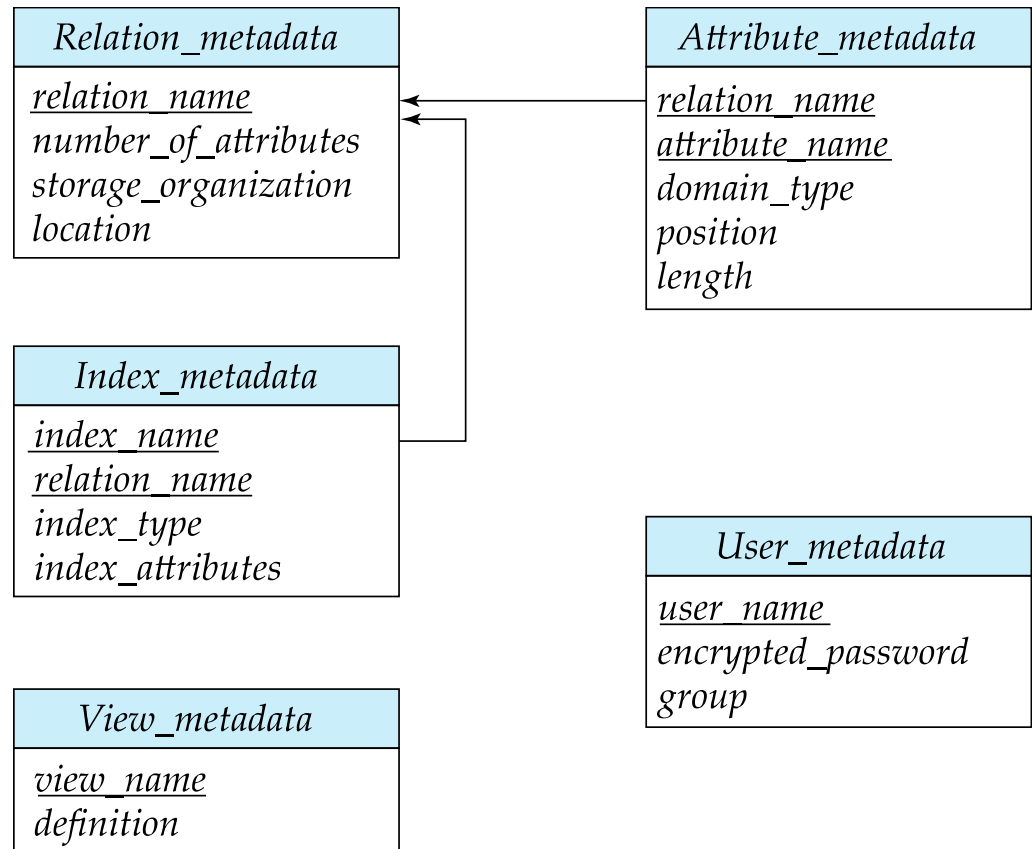
Data Dictionary Storage

The **data dictionary** (also called **system catalog**) stores **metadata**, that is, data about data, such as

- 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
- Physical file organization information
 - How relation is stored (sequential/hash/...)
 - Physical location of relation
- Information about indices (Chapter 14)

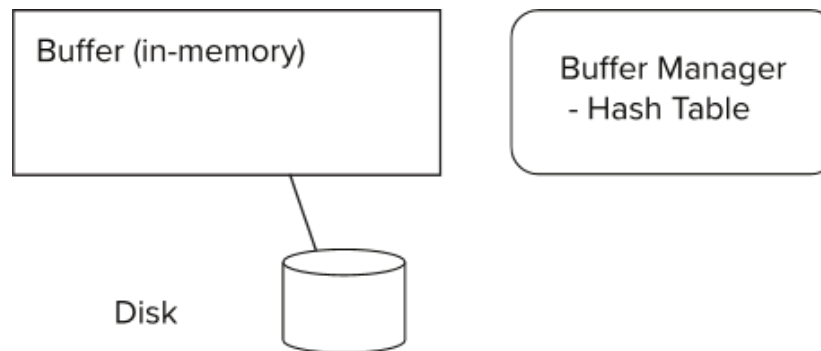
Relational Representation of System Metadata

- DBMSs store the data dictionary in *relations*.
 - E.g., *pg_class*, *pg_attribute*, *pg_database*, *pg_stats*, etc.
- DBMSs use specialized data structures designed for efficient access *in memory*



Storage Access

- Blocks are units of both storage allocation and data transfer.
- **Buffer** – portion of main memory available to store copies of disk blocks.
- **Buffer manager** – subsystem responsible for allocating buffer space in main memory.



- 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 Manager

- Programs call on the buffer manager when they need a block from disk.
 - If the block is already in the buffer, buffer manager returns the address of the block in main memory
 - If the block is not in the buffer, the buffer manager
 - Allocates space in the buffer for the block
 - Replacing (throwing out) some other block, if required, to make space for the new block.
 - Replaced block written back to disk only if it was modified since the most recent time that it was written to/fetched from the disk.
 - Reads the block from the disk to the buffer, and returns the address of the block in main memory to requester.

Buffer-Replacement Policies

- Most operating systems replace the block **least recently used** (LRU strategy)
 - Idea behind LRU – use past pattern of block references as a predictor of future references
- Queries have well-defined access patterns (such as sequential scans), and a database system can use the information in a user's query to predict future references
 - LRU can be bad for some queries
 - Example: computing the join of 2 relations r and s by a nested loops
 - for each tuple t_r of r do**
 - for each tuple t_s of s do**
 - if the tuples t_r and t_s match ...**
- Mixed strategy with hints on replacement strategy provided by the query optimizer is preferable

Buffer-Replacement Policies (Cont.)

- **Toss-immediate** strategy – frees the space occupied by a block as soon as the final tuple of that block has been processed
- **Most recently used (MRU)** strategy – system must pin the block currently being processed. After the final tuple of that block has been processed, the block is unpinned, and it becomes the most recently used block.
- Buffer manager can use statistical information regarding the probability that a request will reference a particular relation
 - E.g., the data dictionary is frequently accessed.
Heuristic: keep data-dictionary blocks in main memory buffer

Buffer Manager

- **Pinned block:** memory block that is not allowed to be written back to disk
 - **Pin** done before reading/writing data from a block
 - **Unpin** done when read /write is complete
 - Multiple concurrent pin/unpin operations possible
 - Keep a pin count, buffer block can be evicted only if pin count = 0
- **Shared and exclusive locks on buffer**
 - Needed to prevent concurrent operations from reading page contents as they are moved/reorganized, and to ensure only one move/reorganize at a time
 - Readers get shared lock, updates to a block require exclusive lock
 - **Locking rules:**
 - Only one process can get exclusive lock at a time
 - Shared lock cannot be acquired concurrently with exclusive lock
 - Multiple processes may be given shared lock concurrently
- Buffer managers support **forced output** of blocks for the purpose of recovery (more in Chapter 19)

Optimizations of Disk Block Access

- **Nonvolatile write buffers** speed up disk writes by writing blocks to a non-volatile RAM or flash buffer immediately
 - *Writes can be reordered to minimize disk arm movement*
- **Log disk** – a disk devoted to writing a sequential log of block updates
 - Write to log disk is very fast since no seeks are required
- **Journaling file systems** write data in-order to NV-RAM or log disk
 - Reordering without journaling: risk of corruption of file system data

Column-Oriented Storage

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

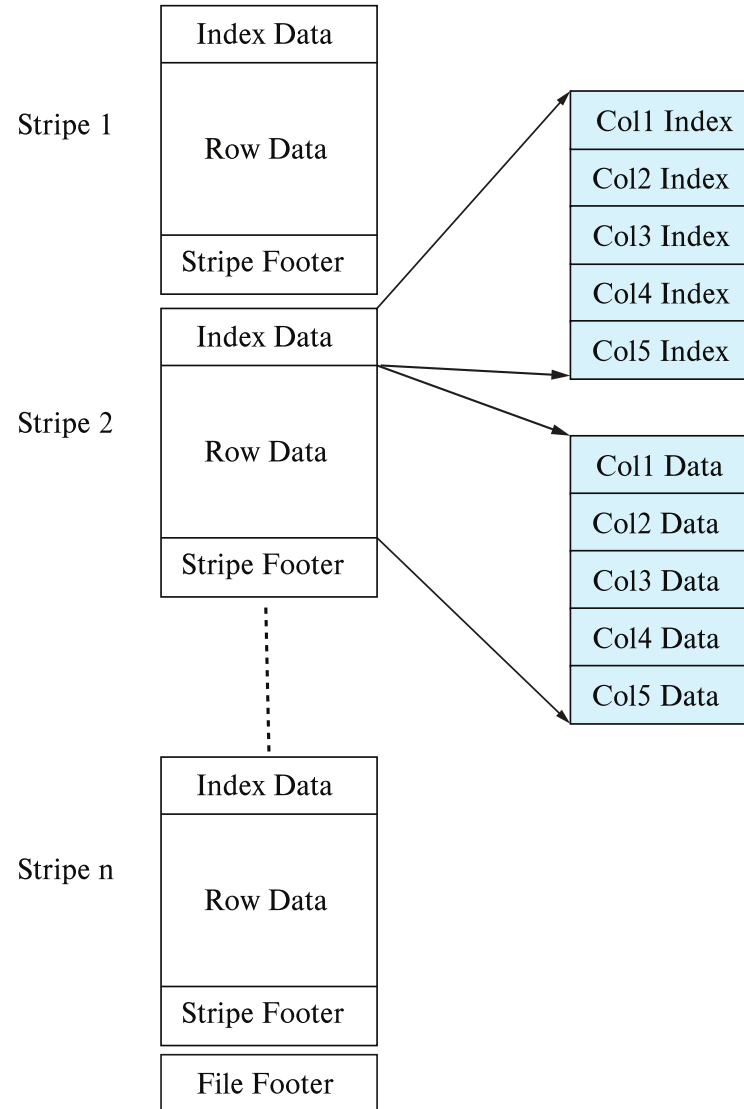
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Columnar Representation

- Benefits:
 - Reduced IO if only some attributes are accessed
 - Improved CPU cache performance
 - Multiple consecutive bytes (i.e., a cache line) are fetched from memory to CPU cache
 - Improved compression
 - **Vector processing** on modern CPU architectures
- Drawbacks
 - Cost of tuple reconstruction from columnar representation
 - Cost of tuple deletion and update; Cost of decompression
- 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**

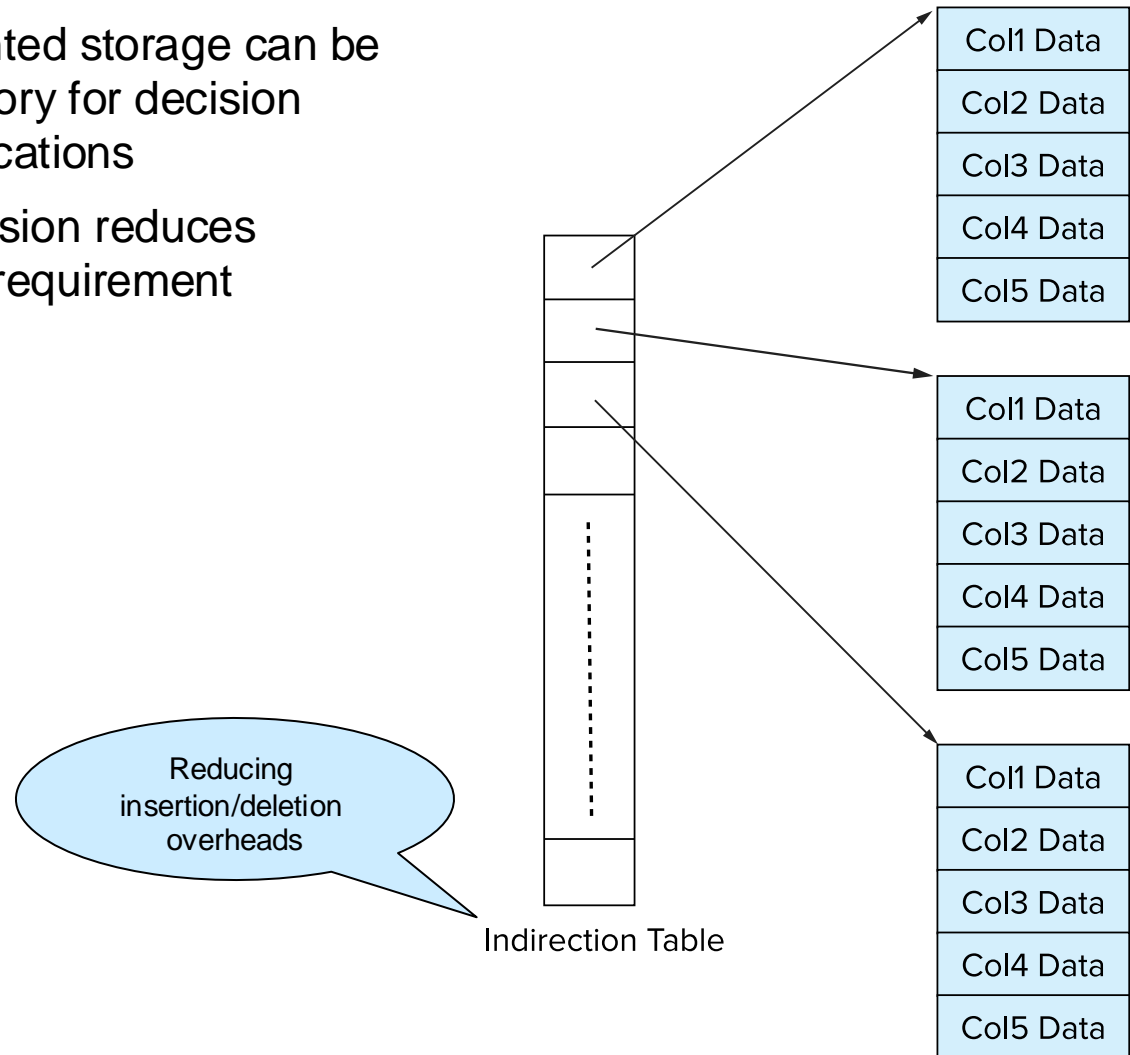
Columnar File Representation

- ORC and Parquet: file formats with columnar storage inside file
- Very popular for big-data applications
- **Orc** file format shown on right:



Storage Organization in Main-Memory Databases

- Column-oriented storage can be used in-memory for decision support applications
 - Compression reduces memory requirement



End of Chapter 13