

Storing Data: Disks and Files

Chapter 9

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Overview



Topics covered in this chapter:

- The memory hierarchy
- ❖ Redundant arrays of independent disks (RAID)
- Disk space management
- Buffer manager
- ❖ Files of records
- Page and record formats

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Disks and Files



- ❖ DBMS stores information on ("hard") disks.
- This has major implications for DBMS design!
 - READ: transfer data from disk to main memory (RAM).
 - WRITE: transfer data from RAM to disk.
 - Both are high-cost operations, relative to in-memory operations, so must be planned carefully!

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Why Not Store Everything in Main Memor

- * Costs too much. \$100 will buy you either 16 GB of RAM or 3 TB of disk today.
- * Main memory is volatile. We want data to be saved between runs. (Obviously!)
- Typical storage hierarchy:
 - Main memory (RAM) for currently used data.
 - Disk for the main database (secondary storage).
 - DVDs for archiving older versions of the data (tertiary storage).

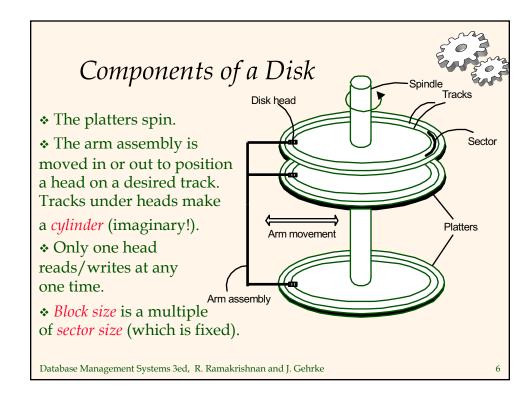
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Disks



- Secondary storage device of choice.
- * Main advantage: <u>random access</u>.
- Data is stored and retrieved in units called disk blocks or pages.
- Unlike RAM, time to retrieve a disk page varies depending upon location on disk.
 - Therefore, relative placement of pages on disk has major impact on DBMS performance!

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Accessing a Disk Page



- ❖ Time to access (read/write) a disk block:
 - seek time (moving arms to position disk head on track)
 - rotational delay (waiting for block to rotate under head)
 - *transfer time* (actually moving data to/from disk surface)
- ❖ Seek time and rotational delay dominate.
 - Seek time varies from about 1 to 20msec
 - Rotational delay varies from 0 to 10msec
 - Transfer rate is about 1msec per 4KB page
- * Key to lower I/O cost: reduce seek/rotation delays!

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Arranging Pages on Disk



- Next' block concept:
 - blocks on same track, followed by
 - blocks on same cylinder, followed by
 - blocks on adjacent cylinder
- Blocks in a file should be arranged sequentially on disk (by `next'), to minimize seek and rotational delay.
- For a sequential scan, <u>pre-fetching</u> several pages at a time is a big win!

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RAID (Redundant Arrays of Independent Disks)



- ❖ Disk Array: Arrangement of several disks that gives abstraction of a single, large disk.
- ❖ Goals: Increase performance and reliability.
- Two main techniques:
 - Data striping: Data is partitioned; size of a partition is called the striping unit. Partitions are distributed over several disks.
 - Redundancy: More disks. Redundant information allows reconstruction of data if a disk fails.

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Redundancy



- While having more disks increases storage system performance, it also lowers overall storage system reliability.
- ❖ Assume that the mean-time-to-failure (MTTF) of a single disk is 50,000 hours (5.7 years).
- ❖ The MTTF of an array of 100 disks is only 50,000/100 = 500 hours (21 days).
- ❖ Reliability of a disk array can be increased by storing redundant information.

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RAID Levels



- Level 0: No redundancy (only data stripping to increase access bandwidth)
- Level 1: Mirrored (two identical copies)
 - Each disk has a mirror image (check disk)
 - Reads schedule to the disk with smaller expected access time, a write involves two disks.
 - Maximum transfer rate = transfer rate of one disk (no data stripping)
- Level 0+1: Striping and Mirroring
 - Parallel reads, a write involves two disks.
 - Maximum transfer rate = aggregate bandwidth

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RAID Levels (Contd.)



- ❖ Level 3: Bit-Interleaved Parity
 - Striping Unit: *One bit*. One check disk with parity info.
 - Each read and write request involves all disks; disk array can process one request at a time.
- Level 4: Block-Interleaved Parity
 - Striping Unit: One disk block. One check disk.
 - Parallel reads possible for small requests, large requests can utilize full bandwidth
 - Writes involve modified block and check disk
- ❖ Level 5: Block-Interleaved Distributed Parity
 - Similar to RAID Level 4, but parity blocks are distributed over all disks

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Disk Space Management



- Lowest layer of DBMS software manages space on disk.
- * Higher levels call upon this layer to:
 - allocate/de-allocate a page
 - read/write a page
- * Request for a *sequence* of pages must be satisfied by allocating the pages sequentially on disk! Higher levels don't need to know how this is done, or how free space is managed.

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Page Requests from Higher Levels BUFFER POOL disk page free frame MAIN MEMORY DISK Choice of frame dictated by replacement policy Data must be in RAM for DBMS to operate on it!

* Table of <frame#, pageid> pairs is maintained.

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When a Page is Requested ...



- Check the buffer pool to see if some frame contains the requested page.
- ❖ If requested page is not in pool:
 - Choose a frame for *replacement* (if no free frame)
 - If frame is dirty, write it to disk
 - Read requested page into chosen frame
- ❖ Pin the page (the number of current users of the page) and return its address.
- ► If requests can be predicted (e.g., sequential scans) pages can be <u>pre-fetched</u> several pages at a time!

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More on Buffer Management



- ❖ Requestor of page must unpin it, and indicate whether page has been modified:
 - *dirty* bit is used for this.
- * Page in pool may be requested many times,
 - a *pin count* is used. A page is a candidate for replacement iff *pin count* = 0.

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Buffer Replacement Policy



- Frame is chosen for replacement by a replacement policy:
 - Least-recently-used (LRU), MRU, FIFO, etc.
- ❖ Policy can have big impact on # of I/O's; depends on the access pattern.
- Sequential flooding: Nasty situation caused by LRU + repeated sequential scans.
 - # buffer frames < # pages in file means each page request causes an I/O. MRU (Most-recently-used) much better in this situation (but not in all situations, of course).

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DBMS vs. OS File System



OS does disk space & buffer mgmt: why not let OS manage these tasks?

- * Differences in OS support: portability issues
- ❖ Some limitations, e.g., files can't span disks.
- ❖ Buffer management in DBMS requires ability to:
 - pin a page in buffer pool, force a page to disk,
 - adjust *replacement policy*, and pre-fetch pages based on access patterns in typical DB operations.

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Files of Records



- Page or block is OK when doing I/O, but higher levels of DBMS operate on *records*, and *files of records*.
- FILE: A collection of pages, each containing a collection of records. Must support:
 - insert/delete/modify record
 - read a particular record (specified using *record id*)
 - scan all records (possibly with some conditions on the records to be retrieved)

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Unordered (Heap) Files

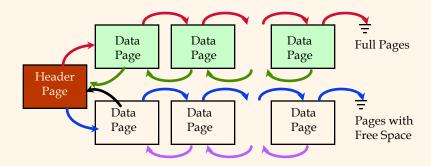


- ❖ Simplest file structure contains records in no particular order.
- ❖ As a file grows and shrinks, disk pages are allocated and de-allocated.
- * To support record level operations, we must:
 - keep track of the *pages* in a file
 - keep track of *free space* on pages
 - keep track of the *records* on a page
- There are many alternatives for keeping track of this.

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Heap File Implemented as a List



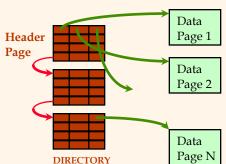


- ❖ The header page id and Heap file name must be stored someplace.
- ❖ Each page contains 2 `pointers' plus data.

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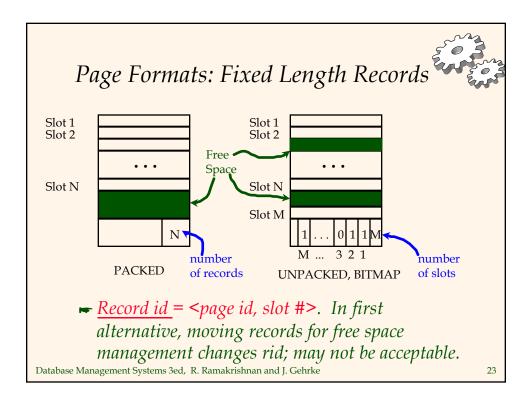
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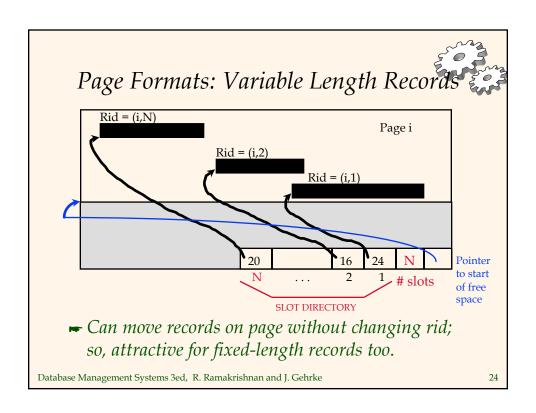
Heap File Using a Page Directory

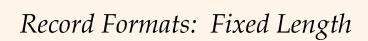


- ❖ The entry for a page can include the number of free bytes on the page.
- The directory is a collection of pages.
 - Much smaller than linked list of all HF pages!

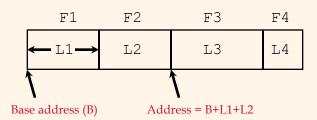
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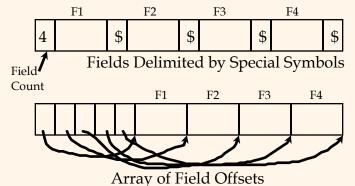
- Information about field types same for all records in a file; stored in system catalogs.
- ❖ Finding i'th field does not require scan of record.

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Record Formats: Variable Length

Two alternative formats (# fields is fixed):



Second offers direct access to i'th field, efficient storage of *nulls* (special *don't know* value); small directory overhead.

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System Catalogs



- ❖ For each index:
 - structure (e.g., B+ tree) and search key fields
- ❖ For each relation:
 - name, file name, file structure (e.g., Heap file)
 - attribute name and type, for each attribute
 - index name, for each index
 - integrity constraints
- * For each view:
 - view name and definition
- Plus statistics, authorization, buffer pool size, etc.
 - **►** Catalogs are themselves stored as relations!

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Attr_Cat(attr_name, rel_name, type, position)

| attr_name | rel_name | type | position |
|-----------|---------------|---------|----------|
| attr_name | Attribute_Cat | string | 1 |
| rel_name | Attribute_Cat | string | 2 |
| type | Attribute_Cat | string | 3 |
| position | Attribute_Cat | integer | 4 |
| sid | Students | string | 1 |
| name | Students | string | 2 |
| login | Students | string | 3 |
| age | Students | integer | 4 |
| gpa | Students | real | 5 |
| fid | Faculty | string | 1 |
| fname | Faculty | string | 2 |
| sal | Faculty | real | 3 |

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Summary



- ❖ Disks provide cheap, non-volatile storage.
 - Random access, but cost depends on location of page on disk; important to arrange data sequentially to minimize seek and rotation delays.
- * Buffer manager brings pages into RAM.
 - Page stays in RAM until released by requestor.
 - Written to disk when frame chosen for replacement (which is sometime after requestor releases the page).
 - Choice of frame to replace based on *replacement policy*.
 - Tries to *pre-fetch* several pages at a time.

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Summary (Contd.)



- * DBMS vs. OS File Support
 - DBMS needs features not found in many OS's, e.g., forcing a page to disk, controlling the order of page writes to disk, files spanning disks, ability to control pre-fetching and page replacement policy based on predictable access patterns, etc.
- Variable length record format with field offset directory offers support for direct access to i'th field and null values.
- Slotted page format supports variable length records and allows records to move on page.

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Summary (Contd.)

- File layer keeps track of pages in a file, and supports abstraction of a collection of records.
 - Pages with free space identified using linked list or directory structure (similar to how pages in file are kept track of).
- ❖ Indexes support efficient retrieval of records based on the values in some fields.
- ❖ Catalog relations store information about relations, indexes and views. (*Information that* is common to all records in a given collection.)

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