Storage
The Problem

```
Application
Data
?
Filesystem
Logical Drive
Physical Drive
```
Requirements

There are different classes of requirements:

- **Data Independence**
  - application is shielded from physical storage
  - physical storage can be reorganized
  - hardware can be changed

- **Scalability**
  - must scale to (nearly) arbitrary data sizes
  - fast retrieval
  - efficient access to individual data items
  - updating arbitrary data

- **Reliability**
  - data must never be lost
  - must cope with hardware and software failures

- ...

The Classical Architecture  Storage
Layer Architecture

• implementing all these requirements on the “bare metal” is hard
• and not desirable
• a DBMS must be maintainable and extensible

Instead: use a layer architecture
• the DBMS logic is split into levels of functionality
• each level is implemented by a specific layer
• each layer interacts only with the next lower layer
• simplifies and modularizes the code
A Simple Layer Architecture

**Purpose**
- query translation and optimization
- managing records and access paths
- DB buffer and hardware interface

**Access Granularity**
- declarative queries
- sets of records
- records
- page
A Simple Layer Architecture (2)

- layers can be characterized by the data items they manipulate
- lower layer offers functionality for the next higher level
- keeps the complexity of individual layers reasonable
- rough structure: physical $\rightarrow$ low level $\rightarrow$ high level

This is a reasonable architecture, but simplified.
A more detailed architecture is needed for a complete DBMS.
A More Detailed Architecture

### Query Interface
- **SQL:**
- **granularity:** relation, view, ...
- **application:**
- **logical data:**
- **granularity:** logical record, key, ...

### Record Interface
- **FIND NEXT record, STORE record**
- **granularity:** logical record, key, ...
- **access paths:**
- **data structures:** access path, physical schema
- **granularity:** physical record, ...

### Record Access
- **write record, insert in B-tree,...**
- **granularity:** physical record, ...
- **physical data:**
- **data structures:** free space inventory, page indexes ...
- **granularity:** page, segment

### DB Buffer
- **access page j, release page j**
- **granularity:** page, segment
- **page structure:**
- **data structures:** page table, block map ...
- **granularity:** block, file

### File Interface
- **read block k, write block k**
- **granularity:** block, file
- **storage allocation:**
- **data structures:** free space inventory, extent table ...
- **granularity:** track, cylinder, ...

### Device Interface
- **external storage**
- **DB**
A More Detailed Architecture (2)

A few pieces are still missing:

- transaction isolation
- recovery

but otherwise it is a reasonable architecture.

Some system deviate slightly from this classical architecture

- most DBMSs nowadays delegate drive access to the OS
- some DBMSs delegate buffer management to the OS (tricky, though)
- a few DBMSs allow for direct logical record access
- ...
Influence of Hardware

Must take hardware into account when designing a storage system.

For a long time dominated by Moore’s Law:

The number of transistors on a chip doubles every 18 month.

Indirectly drove a number of other parameters:

- main memory size
- CPU speed
  - no longer true!
- HD capacity
  - start getting problematic, too. density is very high
  - only capacity, not access time

Later we will look at these again.
Memory Hierarchy

capacity
latency

- **bytes**: 1ns
- **K-M bytes**: <10ns
- **G bytes**: <100ns
- **T bytes**: ms
- **T bytes**: sec
- **T-P bytes**: sec-min

- **register**
- **cache**
- **main memory**
- **external storage (online)**
- **archive storage (nearline)**
- **archive storage (offline)**
Memory Hierarchy (2)

There are huge gaps between hierarchy levels

- traditionally, main memory vs. disk is most important
- but memory vs. cache etc. also relevant

The DBMS must aim to maximize locality.
Hard Disk Access

Hard Disks are still the dominant external storage:

- rotating platters, mechanical effects
- transfer rate: ca. 150MB/s
- seek time ca. 3ms
- huge imbalance in random vs. sequential I/O!

The DBMS must take these effects into account

- sequential access is much more efficient
- gap is growing instead of shrinking
- even SSDs are slightly asymmetric (and have other problems)
Hard Disk Access (2)

Techniques to speed up disk access:

- do not move the head for every single tuple
- instead, load larger chunks
- typical granularity: one page
- page size varies. traditionally 4KB, nowadays often 16K and more
- page size is a trade-off
Hard Disk Access (3)

The page structure is very prominent within the DBMS

- granularity of I/O
- granularity of buffering/memory management
- granularity of recovery

Page is still too small to hide random I/O though

- sequential page access is important
- DBMSs use read-ahead techniques
- asynchronous write-back
Buffer Management

Some pages are accessed very frequently

- reduce I/O by buffering/caching
- buffer manager keeps active pages in memory
- limited size, discards/write back when needed
- coupled with recovery, in particular logging

Basic interface:

1. FIX(pageNo,shared)
2. UNFIX(pageNo,dirty)

Pages can only be accessed (or modified) when they are fixed.
Buffer Management

The buffer manager itself is protected by one or more latches.
**Buffer Frame**

Maintains the state of a certain page within the buffer

- **pageNo**: the page number
- **latch**: a read/writer lock to protect the page
  - (note: must not block unrelated pages!)
- **LSN**: LSN of the last change, for recovery
  - (buffer manager must force the log before writing)
- **state**: clean/dirty/newly created etc.
- **data**: the actual data contained on the page

(will usually contain extra information for buffer replacement)

Usually kept in a hash table.
Buffer Replacement

When memory is full, some buffer pages have to be replaced

- clean pages can be simply discarded
- dirty pages have to be written back first
- discarded pages are replaced with new pages
Buffer Replacement - FIFO

First In - First Out

- simple replacement strategy
- buffer frames are kept in a linked list
- inserted at the end, remove from the head
- “old” pages are removed first

Does not take locality into account.
Buffer Replacement - LRU

Least Recently Used

- similar to FIFO, buffer frames are kept in a double-linked list
- remove from the head
- when a frame is unfixed, move it to the end of the list
- “hot” pages are kept in the buffer

A very popular strategy. Latching requires some care.
Buffer Replacement - LFU

Least Frequently Used

- remembers the number of access per page
- in-frequently used pages are remove first
- maintains a priority queue of pages

Sounds plausible, but too expensive in practice.
Buffer Replacement - Second Chance

LRU is nice, but the LRU list is a hot spot.

Idea: use a simpler mechanism to simulate LRU
- one bit per page
- bit is set when page is unfixed
- when replacing, replace pages with unset bit
- set bits are cleared during the process
- strategy is called “second chance” or “clock”

Easy to implement, but a bit crude.
Buffer Replacement - 2Q

Maintain not one queue but two

- many pages are referenced only once
- some pages are hot and reference frequently
- maintain a separate list for those

1. maintain all pages in FIFO queue
2. when a page is references again that is currently in FIFO, move it into an LRU queue
3. prefer evicting from FIFO

Hot pages are in LRU, read-once pages in FIFO. Good strategy for common DBMS operations.
Buffer Replacement - Hints

Application knowledge can help buffer replacement

- 2Q tries to recognize read-once pages
- these occur when scanning over data
- but the DBMS knows this anyway!
- it could therefore give **hints** when unfixing
  - e.g., *will-need*, or *will-not-need* (changes placement in queue)
Segments

While page granularity is fine for I/O, it is somewhat unwieldy
  • most structures within a DBMS span multiple pages
  • relations, indexes, free space management, etc.
  • convenient to treat these as one entity
  • all DBMS pages are partitioned into sets of pages

Such a set of pages is called a **segment**.

Conceptually similar to a file or virtual memory.
Segments (2)

A segment offers a virtual address space within the DBMS

- can allocate and release new pages
- can iterate over all pages
- can drop the whole segment
- optionally offers a linear address space

Greatly simplifies the logic of higher layers.
Block Allocation

static file-mapping   dynamic extent-mapping   dynamic block-mapping
Block Allocation

All approaches have pros and cons:

- **static file-mapping**
  - very simple, low overhead
  - resizing is difficult

- **dynamic block-mapping**
  - maximum flexibility
  - administrative overhead, additional indirection

- **dynamic extent-mapping**
  - can handle growth
  - slight overhead

In most cases extent-based mapping is preferable.
Block Allocation (5)

Dynamic extent-mapping:

- grows by adding a new extent
- should grow exponentially (e.g., factor 1.25)
- bounds the number of extents
- reduces both complexity and space consumption
- and helps with sequential I/O!
Segment Types

Segments can be classified into types

- private vs. public
- permanent vs. temporary
- automatic vs. manual
- with recovery vs. without recovery

Differ in complexity and required effort.
Standard Segments

Most DBMS will need at least two low-level segments:

- segment inventory
  - keeps track of all pages allocated to segments
  - keeps extent lists or page tables or ...

- free space inventory
  - keeps track of free pages
  - maintains bitmaps or free extents or ...

High-level segments built upon these.

Common high-level segments:

- schema
- relations
- temp segments (created and discard on demand)
- ...
Update Strategies

DBMSs have different update behavior

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>steal</th>
<th>¬ steal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>force</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>¬ force</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

• usually one prefers steal, ¬ force
• but then pages contain dirty data
• when using update-in-place, dirty data is on disk
• complicates recovery
• transactions could see dirty data
Shadow Paging

uses a page table, dirty pages are stored in a shadow copy.
Shadow Paging (2)

Advantages:
- the clean data is always available on disk
- greatly simplified recovery
- can be used for transaction isolation, too

Disadvantages:
- complicates the page access logic
- destroys data locality

Nowadays rarely used in disk-based systems.
Delta Files

Similar idea to shadow paging:
- on change pages are copied to a separate file
- a copied page can be changed in-place
- on commit discard the file, on abort copy back

Can be implemented in two flavors:
- store a clean copy in the delta
- store the dirty data in the delta

Both have pros and cons.
Delta Files (2)

Delta files have some advantages over shadow paging:

- preserve data locality
- no mixture of clean and dirty pages

Disadvantages:

- cause more I/O
- abort (or commit) becomes expensive
- keeping track of delta pages is non-trivial

Still, often preferable over shadow paging.