Today

- So far, we have treated Database Systems as a “black box”
  - We can define a schema
  - ...and write data into it...
  - ...and read data from it

- Today
  - Opening the “black box”
  - How is data stored?
  - Architectures for larger database systems
Physical Data Storage

- A manifold of options
  - Hard disks, flash memory, magnetic tape, CDs, DVDs, BluRays, ...

- Considerations
  - Speed with which data can be accessed
  - Cost per unit of data
  - Reliability
    - data loss on power failure or system crash
    - physical failure of the storage device
  - Can differentiate storage into:
    - **volatile storage**: loses contents when power is switched off
    - **non-volatile storage**:
      - Contents persist even when power is switched off
      - secondary & tertiary storage, battery backed up main-memory
Storage Hierarchy

- Cache
- Main memory
- Flash memory
- Magnetic disk
- Optical disk
- Magnetic tapes
Storage Hierarchy

- **primary storage:** Fastest media but volatile (cache, main memory)
  - data on which the processor operates
- **secondary storage:** next level in hierarchy, non-volatile, moderately fast access time
  - also called *on-line storage*
  - e.g., flash memory, magnetic disks
  - needs to be loaded in memory for processing
- **tertiary storage:** lowest level in hierarchy, non-volatile, slow access time
  - also called *off-line storage*
  - e.g., magnetic tape, optical storage
  - typically used for backup
Physical Storage

• **Cache**
  - fastest and most costly form of storage; volatile; managed by the computer system hardware

• **Main memory**
  - fast access (10s to 100s of nanoseconds (1 ns = 10^{-9} seconds))
  - generally too small (or too expensive) to store the entire database
    • typically: gigabyte capacity
    • capacities have gone up and per-byte costs have decreased steadily and rapidly (roughly factor of 2 every 2 to 3 years)
  - **Volatile** — contents of main memory are usually lost if a power failure or system crash occurs
Physical Storage

• **Flash memory**
  – Data survives power failure
  – Data can be written at a location only once, but location can be erased and written to again
    • Can support only a limited number (10K – 1M) of write/erase cycles
    • Erasing of memory has to be done to an entire bank of memory
  – Reads are roughly as fast as main memory
  – But writes are slow (few microseconds), erase is slower
  – Widely used in embedded devices such as digital cameras, phones, and USB keys
Physical Storage

• **Magnetic disk (hard disk)**
  – Data is stored on spinning disk, and read/written magnetically
  – Primary medium for the long-term storage of data
  – typically stores entire database
  – Data must be moved from disk to main memory for access, and written back for storage
    • Much slower access than main memory
  – **direct-access** – possible to read data on disk in any order, unlike magnetic tape
  – terabyte sized
    • Much larger capacity and lower cost/byte than (flash) memory
    • Growing constantly and rapidly with technology improvements (factor of 2 to 3 every 2 years)
  – Survives power failures and system crashes
    • disk failure can destroy data, but is rare
Physical Storage

- **Optical storage**
  - non-volatile, data is read optically from a spinning disk using a laser
  - CD-ROM (640 MB), DVD (4.7 to 17 GB), Blu-ray (27 to 54 GB)
  - Write-once, read-many (WORM) optical disks for archival storage
    - Multiple write versions also available (CD-RW, DVD-RW, DVD+RW, and DVD-RAM)
  - Reads and writes are slower than with magnetic disk

- **Juke-box** systems
  - for storing large volumes of data
  - large numbers of removable disks
  - a few drives
  - mechanism for automatic loading/unloading of disks
Physical Storage

- **Tape storage**
  - non-volatile, used primarily for backup (to recover from disk failure), and for archival data
  - **sequential access** – much slower than disk
  - very high capacity (terabyte scale)
  - tape can be removed from drive
    - storage costs much cheaper than disk, but drives are expensive
  - Tape jukeboxes available for storing massive amounts of data
Physical Storage

• Modern, experimental and exotic trends

• Molecular memory
  – bits are stored as charge of single molecules
  – using polymer molecules for storage
  – experimental state (NASA, Hewlett Packard…)

• DNA storage
  – idea: DNA stores information
    (i.e.: genetic instructions)
  – synthesizing DNA for data storage
  – in theory, 1g of DNA can store 215 PB

• Quantum Storage
  – Light photons have to be “caught” between mirrors
Anatomy of a Hard Disk Drive

- **Schematic view**
  - sectors are the smallest unit to be read or written
  - also called *blocks*

- **Goal for storage**
  - minimize number of blocks transferred
File Organization

• The database is stored as a collection of files
  – each file is a sequence of records
  – each record is a sequence of fields

• Simple 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
File Organization

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

- Deletion of record $i$:
  alternatives:
  - move records $i + 1, \ldots, n$ to $i, \ldots, n - 1$
  - move record $n$ to $i$
  - do not move records, but link all free records on a free list

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>record</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Salary</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>10101</td>
<td>Srinivasan</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
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</table>
Record Deletion – Free Lists

- Store the address of the first deleted record in the file header
- Use this first record to store the address of the second deleted record, and so on
- Can think of these stored addresses as pointers since they “point” to the location of a record
- More space efficient representation:
  - reuse space for normal attributes of free records to store pointers
- Insertion:
  - find last deleted record and fill in data there
  - remove previous pointer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Record</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>header</td>
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<td>1</td>
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</table>
Storing Variable Length Records

- Variable-length records arise in database systems in several ways:
  - e.g., storage of multiple record types in a file
  - e.g., record types that allow variable lengths for one or more fields such as strings (`varchar`)
- 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

```
<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>21, 5</th>
<th>26, 10</th>
<th>36, 10</th>
<th>65000</th>
<th>10101</th>
<th>Srinivasan</th>
<th>Comp. Sci.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

Null bitmap (stored in 1 byte)
Storing 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 (e.g., foreign keys) should not point directly to record, but to entry for the record in header
Organization of Records in Files

• **Heap**
  – a record 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
  – requires re-organizations

• **Hashing**
  – a hash function computed on some attribute(s) of each record
  – the result specifies in which block of the file the record should be placed

• Records of different relations
  – stored either in separate files
  – or: store related relations in one file (called: **multitable clustering file organization**)
    • Motivation: store related records on the same block to minimize I/O
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

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<td>80000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Roll No.</th>
<th>Name</th>
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<th>Salary</th>
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</table>
Multitable Clustering File Organization

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>department</th>
<th>dept_name</th>
<th>building</th>
<th>budget</th>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>instructor</th>
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<td>Brandt</td>
<td>Comp. Sci.</td>
<td>92000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**multitable clustering of department and instructor**
Multitable Clustering File Organization

• good for queries
  – involving department × instructor
  – involving one single department (and its instructors)
  – involving only the instructor relation
• bad for queries involving only the department relation
• results in variable size records
• can add pointer chains to link records of a particular relation

<table>
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<th>Taylor</th>
<th>100000</th>
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</table>
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
Data Dictionary Storage

- Many RDBMS use relations also for the data dictionary
- Those relations are typically held in memory for fast access
- Details may vary

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<tr>
<td>index_attributes</td>
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<table>
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<tbody>
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<td>view_name</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>definition</td>
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</table>
Storage Access

- A database file is partitioned into fixed-length storage units called **blocks**
  - 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
  - simple: by keeping as many blocks as possible in main memory
  - advanced: planning which blocks to keep in memory
- **Buffer** – portion of main memory available to store copies of disk blocks
- **Buffer manager** – subsystem responsible for allocating buffer space 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
    • Replaces (i.e., removes) some other block, if required, to make space for the new block
      – If replaced block was changed: write back to disk
      – Read the block from the disk to the buffer
      – return the address of the block in main memory to requester
Buffer Replacement Strategies

• Most operating systems replace the block least recently used (LRU strategy):
  – 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 a bad strategy for certain access patterns involving repeated scans of data

  • Example: when computing the join of 2 relations r and s by a nested loops
    for each tuple tr of r do
      for each tuple ts of s do
        if the tuples tr and ts match …

  – Mixed strategy with hints on replacement strategy provided by the query optimizer is preferable
Buffer Replacement Strategies

- **Pinned block** – memory block that is not allowed to be replaced
- **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 processing the final tuple, 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 managers also support **forced output** of blocks for the purpose of recovery (coming back to this in a few weeks)
Database System Architectures

• Variants for creating a database system
  – Centralized and Client-Server Systems
  – Server System Architectures
  – Parallel Systems
  – Distributed Systems
Centralized Systems

• Run on a single computer system
  – and do not interact with other computer systems

• General-purpose computer system
  – one to a few CPUs and a number of device controllers
  – shared memory

• Single-user system
  – e.g., personal computer or workstation
  – desk-top unit, single user, usually one CPU and one or two hard disks

• Multi-user system
  – more disks, more memory, multiple CPUs
  – serve a large number of users, usually connected to the system via terminals
  – also called server systems
Centralized Systems

- Simplified Architecture
Client Server Systems

- Server systems satisfy requests generated at \( m \) client systems
- They are connected to the server via a network
  - local or internet
  - LAN or WIFI
  - ...

![Diagram of client-server systems with clients connected to a server through a network.]
Client-Server Systems

- Database functionality can be divided into:
  - **Back-end**: manages access structures, query evaluation and optimization, concurrency control and recovery
  - **Front-end**: consists of tools such as forms, report-writers, and graphical user interface facilities

- Interface between the front-end and the back-end:
  - SQL or proprietary application program interface (API)
Client-Server Systems

• Advantages of client-server systems over single machine systems:
  – better functionality for the cost
  – flexibility in locating resources and expanding facilities
  – better user interfaces
  – easier maintenance

• Server systems can be broadly categorized into two kinds:
  – transaction servers (used for RDBMS, aka SQL servers)
  – data servers (used for object-oriented databases)
SQL Servers

- Also called **query server** systems or transaction servers
  - Clients send requests to the server
  - Transactions are executed at the server
  - Results are shipped back to the client
- Requests are specified in SQL, and communicated to the server through a *remote procedure call* (RPC) mechanism
- Transactional RPC allows many RPC calls to form a transaction
- *Open Database Connectivity* (ODBC) is a C language application program interface standard from Microsoft for connecting to a server, sending SQL requests, and receiving results
- JDBC standard is similar to ODBC, for Java
  - similar implementations exist for Python etc.
SQL Servers

- A typical SQL server consists of multiple processes accessing data in shared memory

- Server processes
  - These receive user queries (transactions), execute them and send results back
  - Processes may be multithreaded, allowing a single process to execute several user queries concurrently
  - Typically multiple multithreaded server processes

- Lock manager process
  - More on this later

- Database writer process
  - Output modified buffer blocks to disks continually
SQL Server Processes

• Log writer process
  – Server processes simply add log records to log record buffer
  – Log writer process outputs log records to stable storage

• Checkpoint process
  – Performs periodic checkpoints

• Process monitor process
  – Monitors other processes, and takes recovery actions if any of the other processes fail
  – e.g., aborting any transactions being executed by a server process and restarting it
SQL Server Processes: Overview

[Diagram of SQL Server Processes]

- User process
- ODBC
- User process
- JDBC
- Server process
- Shared memory
- Buffer pool
- Query plan cache
- Log buffer
- Lock table
- Process monitor process
- Lock manager process
- Log writer process
- Checkpoint process
- Database writer process
- Log disks
- Data disks
SQL Server Processes: Overview

- Shared memory contains shared data
  - Buffer pool
  - Lock table
  - Log buffer
  - Cached query plans (reused if same query submitted again)
- All database processes can access shared memory
- To avoid concurrency, DBMS implement *mutual exclusion* using either
  - Operating system semaphores
  - Atomic instructions such as test-and-set
- To avoid overhead of interprocess communication for lock request/grant
  - each database process operates directly on the lock table
  - instead of sending requests to lock manager process
- Lock manager process still used for deadlock detection
Parallel Database Systems

• Parallel database systems consist of multiple processors and multiple disks connected by a fast interconnection network

• A **coarse-grain parallel** machine consists of a small number of powerful processors

• A **massively parallel** or **fine grain parallel** machine utilizes thousands of smaller processors

• Two main performance measures:
  – **throughput** – the number of tasks that can be completed in a given time interval
  – **response time** – the amount of time it takes to complete a single task from the time it is submitted
Speedup and Scaleup

• Question: how much performance do we gain by enlarging the system?
  – Optimum: linear scalability: doubling the system doubles the performance

• **Speedup**: a fixed-sized problem executing on a small system is given to a system which is \(N\)-times larger

• Measured by:

\[
speedup = \frac{\text{small system elapsed time}}{\text{large system elapsed time}}
\]

• Speedup is **linear** if equation equals \(N\).

• **Scaleup**: increase the size of both the problem and the system
  – \(N\)-times larger system used to perform \(N\)-times larger job

• Measured by:

\[
scaleup = \frac{\text{small system small problem elapsed time}}{\text{big system big problem elapsed time}}
\]

• Scale up is **linear** if equation equals 1.
Speedup

- Linear speedup
- Sublinear speedup

speed vs. resources
Scaleup

\[ \frac{T_S}{T_L} \]

problem size

linear scaleup

sublinear scaleup
Batch and Transaction Scaleup

• **Batch scaleup:**
  – A single large job
  – Use an $N$-times larger computer on $N$-times larger problem

• **Transaction scaleup:**
  – Numerous small queries submitted by independent users to a shared database
  – $N$-times as many users submitting requests (hence, $N$-times as many requests) to an $N$-times larger database, on an $N$-times larger computer
  – Well-suited for parallel execution
Limitation of Speedup and Scaleup

Speedup and scaleup are often sublinear due to:

- **Startup costs**
  - Cost of starting up multiple processes may dominate computation time
  - Especially if the degree of parallelism is high

- **Interference**
  - Processes accessing shared resources (e.g., system bus, disks, or locks) compete with each other → bottlenecks
  - Thus spending time waiting on other processes, rather than performing useful work

- **Skew**
  - Increasing the degree of parallelism increases the variance in service times of parallelly executing tasks
  - Overall execution time determined by **slowest** of parallelly executing task
Interconnection Networks

- **Bus**: does not scale well with increasing parallelism
- **Mesh**:
  - scalability grows with number of links
  - but number of hops grows at $O(\sqrt{n})$
- **Hypercube**:
  - good tradeoff
  - number of hops is $O(\log(n))$
Parallel Database Architectures

- **Shared memory** – processors share a common memory
- **Shared disk** – processors share a common disk
- **Shared nothing** – processors share neither a common memory nor common disk
- **Hierarchical** – hybrid of the above architectures
Parallel Database Architectures

(a) shared memory

(b) shared disk

(c) shared nothing

(d) hierarchical
Shared Memory

- Processors and disks have access to a common memory
  - typically via a bus or through an interconnection network
- Extremely efficient communication between processors
  - data in shared memory can be accessed by any processor
  - without having to move it using software
- Architecture is not scalable beyond 32 or 64 processors
  - interconnection network becomes a bottleneck
- Widely used for lower degrees of parallelism (4 to 8)
Shared Disk

- All processors can directly access all disks via an interconnection network, but the processors have private memories
  - i.e., the memory bus is not a bottleneck
- Downside
  - bottleneck now occurs at interconnection to the disk subsystem
- Shared-disk systems can scale to a somewhat larger number of processors, but communication between processors is slower
Shared Nothing

- Each node consists of a processor, memory, and one or more disks.
- Node functions as the server for the data on the disk(s) it owns.
- Data accessed from local disks (and local memory accesses) do not pass through interconnection network, thereby minimizing the interference of resource sharing.
- Shared-nothing multiprocessors can be scaled up to thousands of processors without interference.
- Main drawback:
  - cost of communication and non-local disk access;
  - sending data involves software interaction at both ends.

(c) shared nothing
Hierarchical

• Combines characteristics of all three architectures
• Top level is a shared-nothing architecture
  – Each node of the system could be a shared-memory system or a shared-disk system
• Reduce the complexity of programming such systems by distributed virtual-memory architectures
• Also called non-uniform memory architecture (NUMA)
Distributed Database Systems

- Data spread over multiple machines (also: *sites*)
- Network interconnects the machines
- Data shared by users on multiple machines
Distributed Database Systems

- Homogeneous distributed databases
  - Same software/schema on all sites, data may be partitioned among sites
  - Goal: provide a view of a single database, hiding details of distribution

- Heterogeneous distributed databases
  - Different software/schema on different sites
  - Goal: integrate existing databases to provide useful functionality

- Differentiate between local and global transactions
  - A local transaction accesses data in the single site at which the transaction was initiated
  - A global transaction either accesses data in a site different from the one at which the transaction was initiated or accesses data in several different sites
Trade Offs in Distributed Database Systems

• Sharing data
  – users at one site able to access the data residing at some other sites

• Autonomy
  – each site is able to retain a degree of control over data stored locally

• Higher system availability through redundancy
  – data can be replicated at remote sites, and system can function even if a site fails

• Disadvantage: added complexity required to ensure proper coordination among sites
  – Software development cost
  – Greater potential for bugs
  – Increased processing overhead
Implementation Issues

- Atomicity needed even for transactions that update data at multiple sites
- The two-phase commit protocol (2PC) is used to ensure atomicity
  - Basic idea: each site executes transaction until just before commit, and the leaves final decision to a coordinator
  - Each site must follow decision of coordinator, even if there is a failure while waiting for coordinators decision
- 2PC is not always appropriate: other transaction models based on persistent messaging, and workflows, are also used
- Distributed concurrency control (and deadlock detection) required
- Data items may be replicated to improve data availability
Summary

- Data storage is layered
  - trading off cost/byte vs. access speed
- Data organization in files
  - trading off disk usage vs. reorganization cost
  - minimize block transfer
- Database architectures
  - single machine vs. distributed
  - scalability of distributed databases (speedup/scaleup)
  - design issues of distributed databases
Questions?