

Lecture #04: Database Storage (Part II)

15-445/645 Database Systems (Spring 2024)

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Carnegie Mellon University

Jignesh Patel

1 Log-Structured Storage

Some problems associated with the Slotted-Page Design are:

- **Fragmentation:** Deletion of tuples can leave gaps in the pages, making them not fully utilized.
- **Useless Disk I/O:** Due to the block-oriented nature of non-volatile storage, the whole block needs to be fetched to update a tuple.
- **Random Disk I/O:** The disk reader could have to jump to 20 different places to update 20 different tuples, which can be very slow.

What if we were working on a system which only allows creation of new pages and no overwrites? The log-structured storage model works with this assumption and addresses some of the problems listed above.

Log-Structured Storage Overview

Log-structured Storage is based on the Log-Structured File System (LSFS) by Rosenblum and Ousterhout'92 and Log-structured Merge Trees (LSM Tree) by O'Neil, Cheng, and Gawlick'96. Instead of storing tuples, the DBMS only stores the log records of changes to the tuples. The DBMS appends new log entries to an in-memory buffer without checking previous records and then writes out the changes sequentially to disk. Records contain the tuple's unique identifier, the type of operation (PUT/DELETE), and, for put, the contents of the tuple. Effectively, you only keep track of the latest values for each key (most recent PUT/DELETE). Disk writes are sequential and existing pages are immutable which leads to reduced random disk I/O. This is good for append-only storage. To read a record, the DBMS scans the log file backwards from newest to oldest to find the most recent contents of the tuple. To avoid long reads, the DBMS can have indexes (for bookkeeping) to allow it to jump to specific locations in the log.

Compaction

Eventually, the log will get quite big. The DBMS can periodically compact the log by taking only the most recent change for each tuple across several pages. After compaction, the ordering is no longer needed since there's only one of each tuple, so the DBMS can sort by id for faster lookup. These are called Sorted String Tables (SSTables). In **Universal Compaction**, any log files can be compacted together. In **Level Compaction**, the smallest files are level 0. Level 0 files can be compacted to create a bigger level 1 file, level 1 files can be compacted to a level 2 file, etc. **Tiering** is another log compaction method that will not be covered in this course.

Tradeoffs

The tradeoffs of using Log-Structured Storage can be summarized below:

- Fast sequential writes, good for append only storage
- Reads may be slow

- Compaction is expensive
- Subject to write amplification (for each logical write, there could be multiple physical writes).

2 Index-Organized Storage

Observe that both page-oriented storage and log-structured storage rely on additional index to find individual tuples because the tables are inherently unsorted. In the **index-organized storage** scheme, the DBMS directly stores a table's tuples as the value of an index data structure. The DBMS would use a page layout that looks like a slotted page, and tuples are typically sorted in page based on key.

3 Data Representation

The data in a tuple is essentially just byte arrays and doesn't keep track of what kinds of values the attributes are. It is up to the DBMS to know how to keep track of that and interpret those bytes. A *data representation* scheme is how a DBMS stores the bytes for a value.

DBMSs want to make sure the tuples are word-aligned so that the CPU to access it without any unexpected behavior or additional work. Two approaches are usually taken:

- **Padding:** Add empty bits after attributes to ensure that tuple is word aligned.
- **Reordering:** Switch the order of attributes in the physical layout to make sure they are aligned.

There are five high level datatypes that can be stored in tuples: integers, variable-precision numbers, fixed-point precision numbers, variable length values, and dates/times.

Integers

Most DBMSs store integers using their “native” C/C++ types as specified by the IEEE-754 standard. These values are fixed length.

Examples: INTEGER, BIGINT, SMALLINT, TINYINT.

Variable Precision Numbers

These are inexact, variable-precision numeric types that use the “native” C/C++ types specified by IEEE-754 standard. These values are also fixed length.

Operations on variable-precision numbers are faster to compute than arbitrary precision numbers because the CPU can execute instructions on them directly. However, there may be rounding errors when performing computations due to the fact that some numbers cannot be represented precisely.

Examples: FLOAT, REAL.

Fixed-Point Precision Numbers

These are numeric data types with arbitrary precision and scale. They are typically stored in exact, variable-length binary representation (almost like a string) with additional meta-data that will tell the system things like the length of the data and where the decimal should be.

These data types are used when rounding errors are unacceptable, but the DBMS pays a performance penalty to get this accuracy.

Examples: NUMERIC, DECIMAL.

Variable-Length Data

These represent data types of arbitrary length. They are typically stored with a header that keeps track of the length of the string to make it easy to jump to the next value. It may also contain a checksum for the data.

Most DBMSs do not allow a tuple to exceed the size of a single page. The ones that do store the data on a special “overflow” page and have the tuple contain a reference to that page. These overflow pages can contain pointers to additional overflow pages until all the data can be stored.

Some systems will let you store these large values in an external file, and then the tuple will contain a pointer to that file. For example, if the database is storing photo information, the DBMS can store the photos in the external files rather than having them take up large amounts of space in the DBMS. One downside of this is that the DBMS cannot manipulate the contents of this file. Thus, there are no durability or transaction protections.

Examples: VARCHAR, VARBINARY, TEXT, BLOB.

Dates and Times

Representations for date/time vary for different systems. Typically, these are represented as some unit time (micro/milli)seconds since the unix epoch.

Examples: TIME, DATE, TIMESTAMP.

Null Data Types

There are three common approaches to represent nulls in a DBMS.

- **Null Column Bitmap Header:** Store a bitmap in a centralized header that specifies what attributes are null. This is the most common approach.
- **Special Values:** Designate a value to represent NULL for a data type (e.g., INT32_MIN).
- **Per Attribute Null Flag:** Store a flag that marks that a value is null. This approach is not recommended because it is not memory-efficient. For each value, the DBMS has to use more than just a single bit to avoid messing up with word alignment.

4 System Catalogs

In order for the DBMS to be able to decipher the contents of tuples, it maintains an internal catalog to tell it meta-data about the databases.

Metadata Contents:

- The tables and columns the database has as well as any indexes on those tables.
- Users of the database and what permissions they have.
- Statistics about the table and what contents are contained within them (i.e., max value of an attribute).

Most DBMSs store their catalog inside of themselves in the format that they use for their tables. They use special code to “bootstrap” these catalog tables.