

Fundamentals of  
**DATABASE  
SYSTEMS**

FOURTH EDITION

ELMASRI  NAVATHE

# Chapter 13

## Disk Storage, Basic File Structures, and Hashing.



# Chapter Outline

- Disk Storage Devices
- Files of Records
- Operations on Files
- Unordered Files
- Ordered Files
- Hashed Files
  - Dynamic and Extendible Hashing Techniques
- RAID Technology

## Disk Storage Devices (cont.)

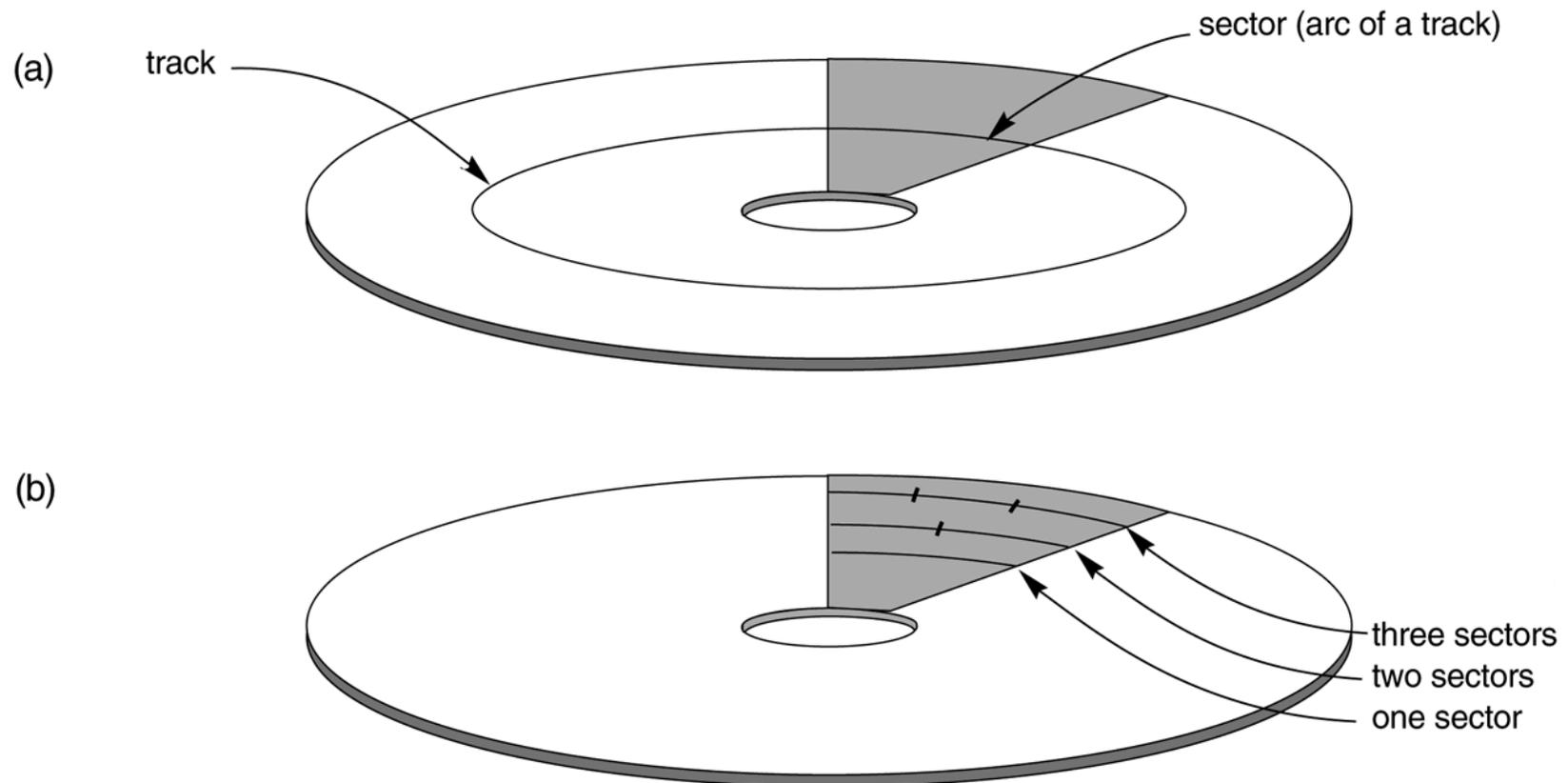
- Preferred secondary storage device for high storage capacity and low cost.
- Data stored as magnetized areas on magnetic disk surfaces.
- A *disk pack* contains several magnetic disks connected to a rotating spindle.
- Disks are divided into concentric circular *tracks* on each disk *surface*. Track capacities vary typically from 4 to 50 Kbytes.

## Disk Storage Devices (cont.)

Because a track usually contains a large amount of information, it is divided into smaller *blocks* or *sectors*.

- The division of a track into *sectors* is hard-coded on the disk surface and cannot be changed. One type of sector organization calls a portion of a track that subtends a fixed angle at the center as a sector.
- A track is divided into *blocks*. The block size  $B$  is fixed for each system. Typical block sizes range from  $B=512$  bytes to  $B=4096$  bytes. Whole blocks are transferred between disk and main memory for processing.

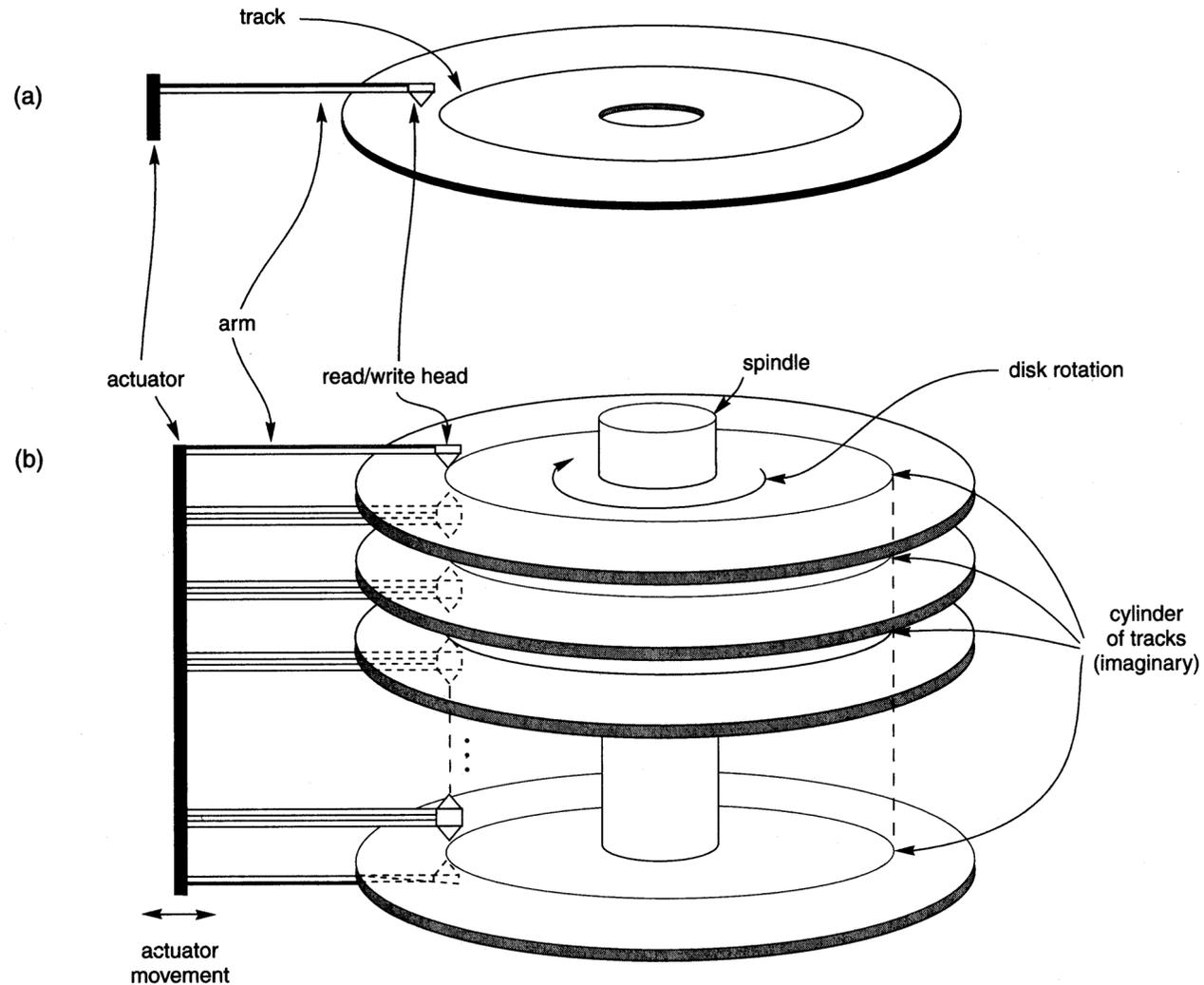
# Disk Storage Devices (cont.)



## Disk Storage Devices (cont.)

- A *read-write* head moves to the track that contains the block to be transferred. Disk rotation moves the block under the read-write head for reading or writing.
- A physical disk block (hardware) address consists of a cylinder number (imaginary collection of tracks of same radius from all recorded surfaces), the track number or surface number (within the cylinder), and block number (within track).
- Reading or writing a disk block is time consuming because of the seek time  $s$  and rotational delay (latency)  $rd$ .
- Double buffering can be used to speed up the transfer of contiguous disk blocks.

# Disk Storage Devices (cont.)



# Typical Disk Parameters

**TABLE 13.1 SPECIFICATIONS OF TYPICAL HIGH-END CHEETAH DISKS FROM SEAGATE**

Description	Cheetah X15 36LP	Cheetah 10K.6
<b>Description</b>		
Model Number	ST336732LC	ST3146807LC
Form Factor (width)	3.5 inch	3.5 inch
Height	25.4 mm	25.4 mm
Width	101.6 mm	101.6 mm
Weight	0.68 Kg	0.73 Kg
<b>Capacity/Interface</b>		
Formatted Capacity	36.7 Gbytes	146.8 Gbytes
Interface Type	80-pin	80-pin
<b>Configuration</b>		
Number of disks (physical)	4	4
Number of heads (physical)	8	8
Number of Cylinders	18,479	49,854
Bytes per Sector	512	512
Areal Density	N/A	36,000 Mbits/sq.inch
Track Density	N/A	64,000 Tracks/inch
Recording Density	N/A	570,000 bits/inch
<b>Performance</b>		
<b>Transfer Rates</b>		
Internal Transfer Rate (min)	522 Mbits/sec	475 Mbits/sec
Internal Transfer Rate (max)	709 Mbits/sec	840 Mbits/sec
Formatted Int. Transfer Rate (min)	51 MBytes/sec	43 MBytes/sec
Formatted Int. Transfer Rate (max)	69 MBytes/sec	78 MBytes/sec
External I/O Transfer Rate (max)	320 MBytes/sec	320 MBytes/sec
<b>Seek Times</b>		
Avg. Seek Time (Read)	3.6 msec (typical)	4.7 msec (typical)
Avg. Seek Time (Write)	4.2 msec (typical)	5.2 msec (typical)
Track-to-track Seek, Read	0.5 msec (typical)	0.3 msec (typical)
Track-to-track Seek, Write	0.8 msec (typical)	0.5 msec (typical)
Average Latency	2 msec	2.99 msec
<b>Other</b>		
Default Buffer (cache) size	8,192 Kbytes	8,000 Kbytes
Spindle Speed	15K rpm	10K rpm

# Records

- Fixed and variable length records
- Records contain fields which have values of a particular type (e.g., amount, date, time, age)
- Fields themselves may be fixed length or variable length
- Variable length fields can be mixed into one record: separator characters or length fields are needed so that the record can be “parsed”.

# Blocking

- Blocking: refers to storing a number of records in one block on the disk.
- Blocking factor (*bfr*) refers to the number of records per block.
- There may be empty space in a block if an integral number of records do not fit in one block.
- *Spanned Records*: refer to records that exceed the size of one or more blocks and hence span a number of blocks.

# Files of Records

- A file is a *sequence* of records, where each record is a collection of data values (or data items).
- A *file descriptor* (or *file header*) includes information that describes the file, such as the *field names* and their *data types*, and the addresses of the file blocks on disk.
- Records are stored on disk blocks. The *blocking factor* *bfr* for a file is the (average) number of file records stored in a disk block.
- A file can have *fixed-length* records or *variable-length* records.

## Files of Records (cont.)

- File records can be *unspanned* (no record can span two blocks) or *spanned* (a record can be stored in more than one block).
- The physical disk blocks that are allocated to hold the records of a file can be *contiguous*, *linked*, or *indexed*.
- In a file of fixed-length records, all records have the same format. Usually, unspanned blocking is used with such files.
- Files of variable-length records require additional information to be stored in each record, such as *separator characters* and *field types*. Usually spanned blocking is used with such files.

# Operation on Files

Typical file operations include:

- **OPEN:** Reads the file for access, and associates a pointer that will refer to a *current* file record at each point in time.
- **FIND:** Searches for the first file record that satisfies a certain condition, and makes it the current file record.
- **FINDNEXT:** Searches for the next file record (from the current record) that satisfies a certain condition, and makes it the current file record.
- **READ:** Reads the current file record into a program variable.
- **INSERT:** Inserts a new record into the file, and makes it the current file record.

## Operation on Files (cont.)

- **DELETE:** Removes the current file record from the file, usually by marking the record to indicate that it is no longer valid.
- **MODIFY:** Changes the values of some fields of the current file record.
- **CLOSE:** Terminates access to the file.
- **REORGANIZE:** Reorganizes the file records. For example, the records marked deleted are physically removed from the file or a new organization of the file records is created.
- **READ\_ORDERED:** Read the file blocks in order of a specific field of the file.

# Unordered Files

- Also called a *heap* or a *pile* file.
- New records are inserted at the end of the file.
- To search for a record, a *linear search* through the file records is necessary. This requires reading and searching half the file blocks on the average, and is hence quite expensive.
- Record insertion is quite efficient.
- Reading the records in order of a particular field requires sorting the file records.

# Ordered Files

- Also called a *sequential file*.
- File records are kept sorted by the values of an *ordering field*.
- Insertion is expensive: records must be inserted in the *correct order*. It is common to keep a separate unordered *overflow* (or *transaction*) file for new records to improve insertion efficiency; this is periodically merged with the main ordered file.
- A *binary search* can be used to search for a record on its *ordering field value*. This requires reading and searching  $\log_2$  of the file blocks on the average, an improvement over linear search.
- Reading the records in order of the ordering field is quite efficient.

# Ordered Files (cont.)

	NAME	SSN	BIRTHDATE	JOB	SALARY	SEX
block 1	Aaron, Ed					
	Abbott, Diane					
			⋮			
	Acosta, Marc					
block 2	Adams, John					
	Adams, Robin					
			⋮			
	Akers, Jan					
block 3	Alexander, Ed					
	Alfred, Bob					
			⋮			
	Allen, Sam					
block 4	Allen, Troy					
	Anders, Keith					
			⋮			
	Anderson, Rob					
block 5	Anderson, Zach					
	Angeli, Joe					
			⋮			
	Archer, Sue					
block 6	Arnold, Mack					
	Arnold, Steven					
			⋮			
	Atkins, Timothy					
			⋮			
block n-1	Wong, James					
	Wood, Donald					
			⋮			
	Woods, Manny					
block n	Wright, Pam					
	Wyatt, Charles					
			⋮			
	Zimmer, Byron					

# Average Access Times

The following table shows the average access time to access a specific record for a given type of file

**TABLE 13.2 AVERAGE ACCESS TIMES FOR BASIC FILE ORGANIZATIONS**

TYPE OF ORGANIZATION	ACCESS/SEARCH METHOD	AVERAGE TIME TO ACCESS A SPECIFIC RECORD
Heap (Unordered)	Sequential scan (Linear Search)	$b/2$
Ordered	Sequential scan	$b/2$
Ordered	Binary Search	$\log_2 b$

# Hashed Files

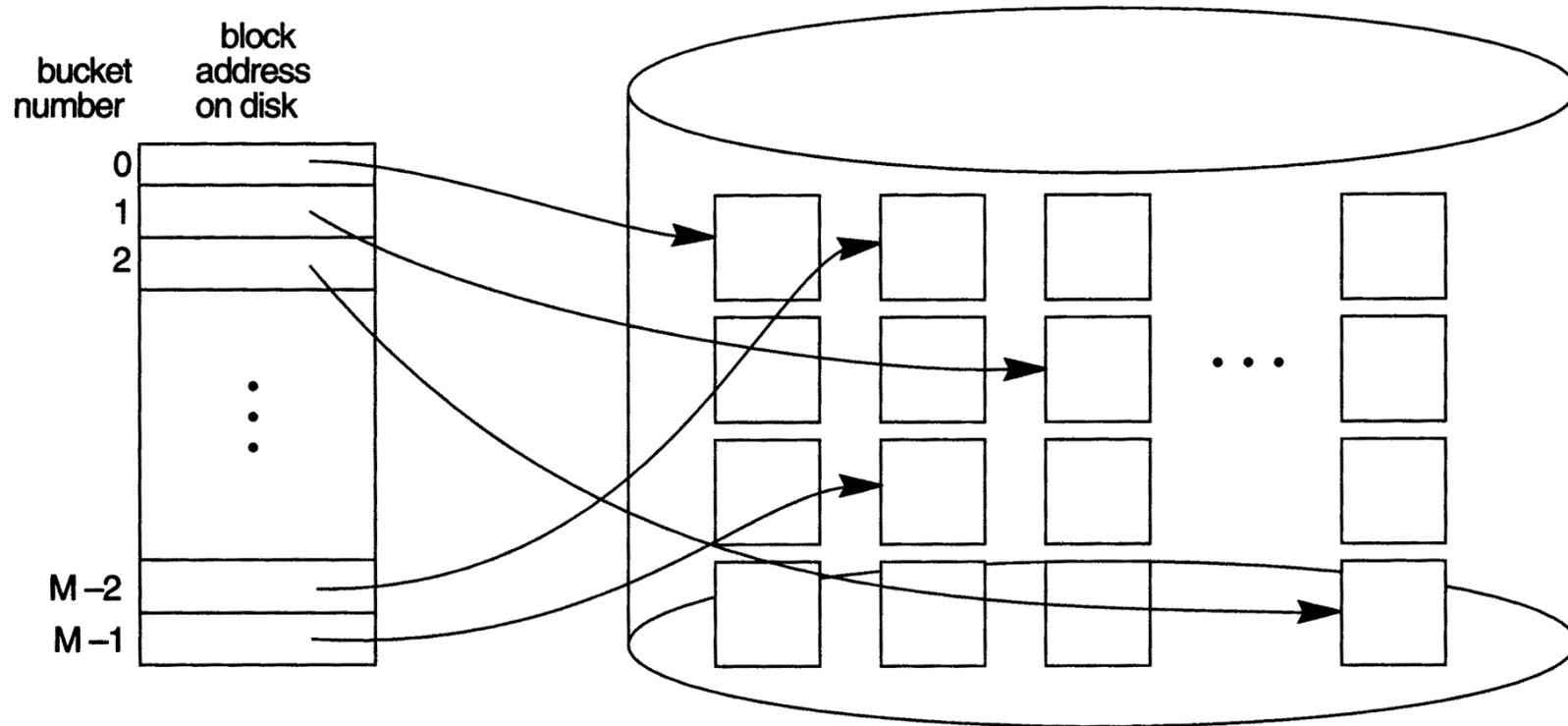
- Hashing for disk files is called *External Hashing*
- The file blocks are divided into M equal-sized *buckets*, numbered  $\text{bucket}_0, \text{bucket}_1, \dots, \text{bucket}_{M-1}$ . Typically, a bucket corresponds to one (or a fixed number of) disk block.
- One of the file fields is designated to be the hash key of the file.
- The record with hash key value K is stored in bucket i, where  $i=h(K)$ , and h is the *hashing function*.
- Search is very efficient on the hash key.
- Collisions occur when a new record hashes to a bucket that is already full. An overflow file is kept for storing such records. Overflow records that hash to each bucket can be linked together.

## Hashed Files (cont.)

There are numerous methods for collision resolution, including the following:

- ***Open addressing:*** Proceeding from the occupied position specified by the hash address, the program checks the subsequent positions in order until an unused (empty) position is found.
- ***Chaining:*** For this method, various overflow locations are kept, usually by extending the array with a number of overflow positions. In addition, a pointer field is added to each record location. A collision is resolved by placing the new record in an unused overflow location and setting the pointer of the occupied hash address location to the address of that overflow location.
- ***Multiple hashing:*** The program applies a second hash function if the first results in a collision. If another collision results, the program uses open addressing or applies a third hash function and then uses open addressing if necessary.

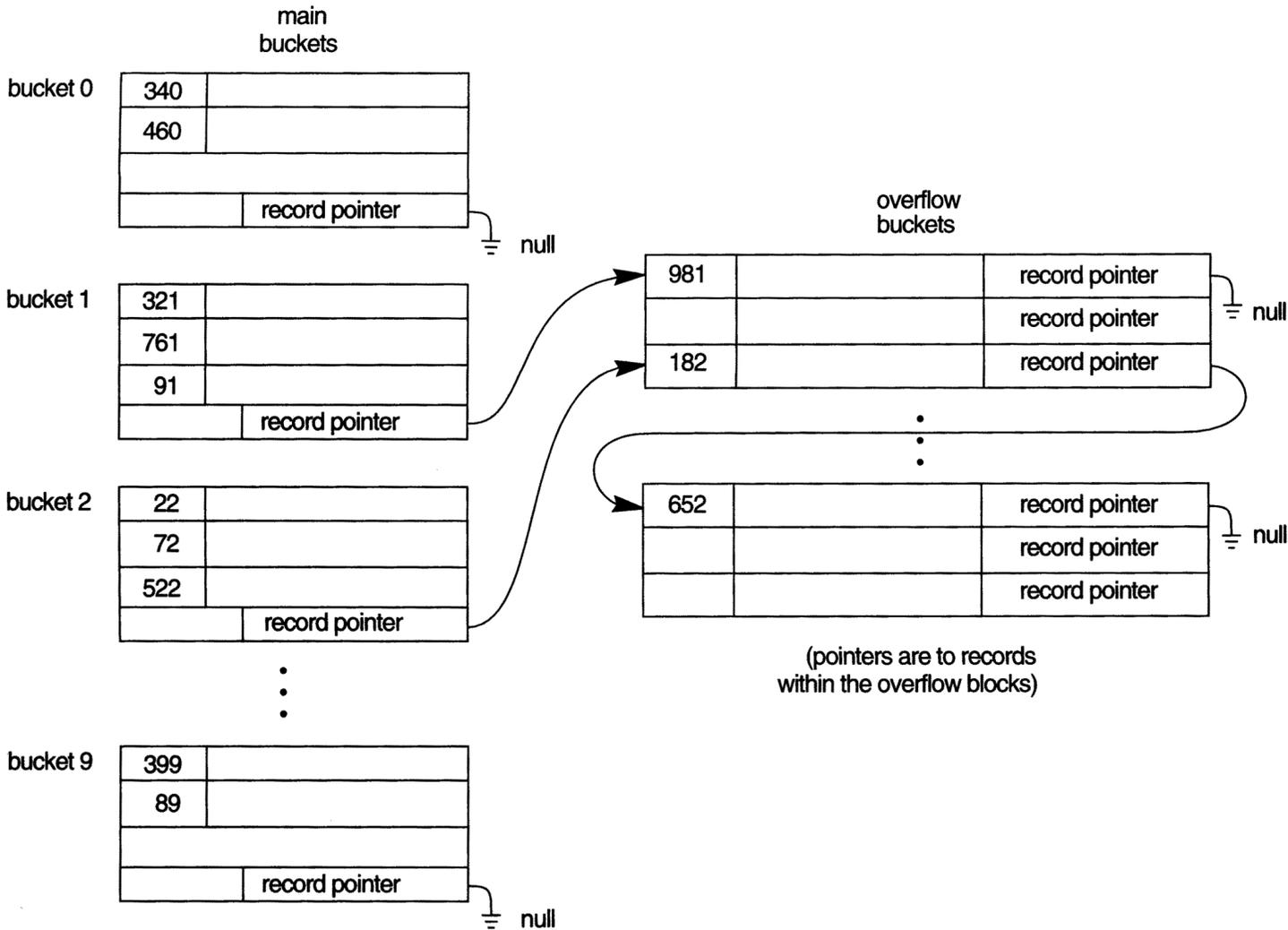
# Hashed Files (cont.)



## Hashed Files (cont.)

- To reduce overflow records, a hash file is typically kept 70-80% full.
- The hash function  $h$  should distribute the records uniformly among the buckets; otherwise, search time will be increased because many overflow records will exist.
- Main disadvantages of static external hashing:
  - Fixed number of buckets  $M$  is a problem if the number of records in the file grows or shrinks.
  - Ordered access on the hash key is quite inefficient (requires sorting the records).

# Hashed Files - Overflow handling



# Dynamic And Extendible Hashed Files

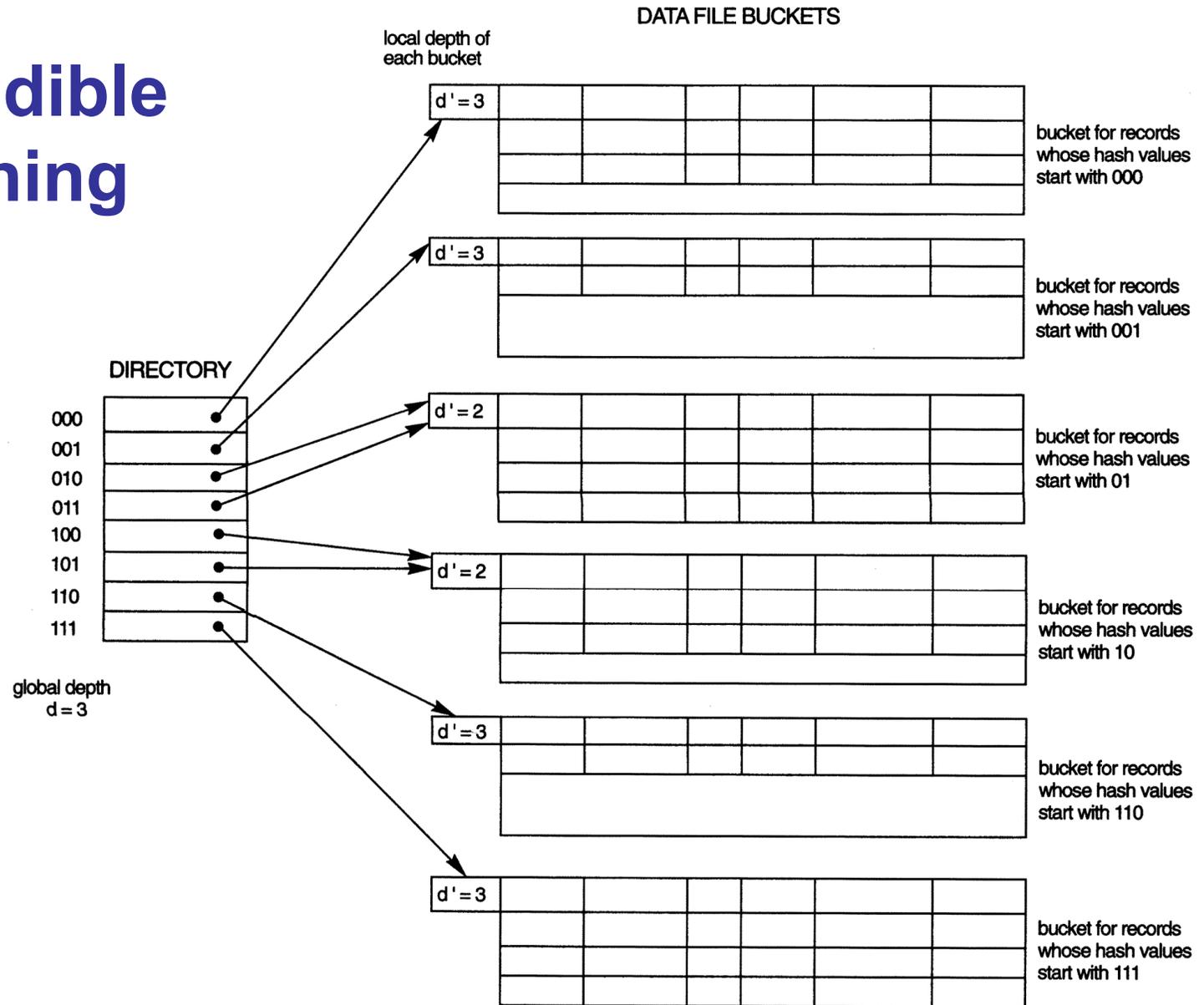
## Dynamic and Extendible Hashing Techniques

- Hashing techniques are adapted to allow the dynamic growth and shrinking of the number of file records.
- These techniques include the following: *dynamic hashing* , *extendible hashing* , and *linear hashing* .
- Both dynamic and extendible hashing use the *binary representation* of the hash value  $h(K)$  in order to access a *directory*. In dynamic hashing the directory is a binary tree. In extendible hashing the directory is an array of size  $2^d$  where  $d$  is called the *global depth*.

## Dynamic And Extendible Hashing (cont.)

- The directories can be stored on disk, and they expand or shrink dynamically. Directory entries point to the disk blocks that contain the stored records.
- An insertion in a disk block that is full causes the block to split into two blocks and the records are redistributed among the two blocks. The directory is updated appropriately.
- Dynamic and extendible hashing do not require an overflow area.
- Linear hashing does require an overflow area but does not use a directory. Blocks are split in *linear order* as the file expands.

# Extendible Hashing

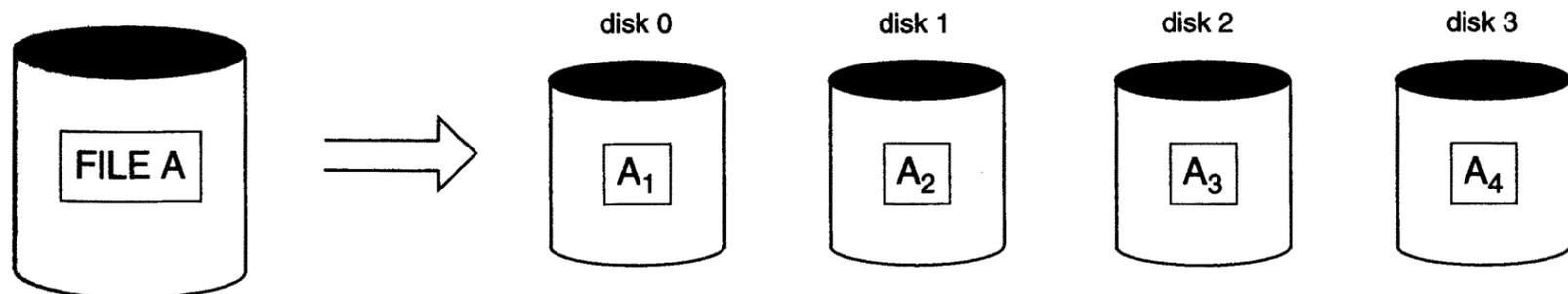


# Parallelizing Disk Access using RAID Technology.

- Secondary storage technology must take steps to keep up in performance and reliability with processor technology.
- A major advance in secondary storage technology is represented by the development of **RAID**, which originally stood for **Redundant Arrays of Inexpensive Disks**.
- The main goal of RAID is to even out the widely different rates of performance improvement of disks against those in memory and microprocessors.

## RAID Technology (cont.)

- A natural solution is a large array of small independent disks acting as a single higher-performance logical disk. A concept called **data striping** is used, which utilizes *parallelism* to improve disk performance.
- Data striping distributes data transparently over multiple disks to make them appear as a single large, fast disk.



# RAID Technology (cont.)

Different raid organizations were defined based on different combinations of the two factors of granularity of data interleaving (striping) and pattern used to compute redundant information.

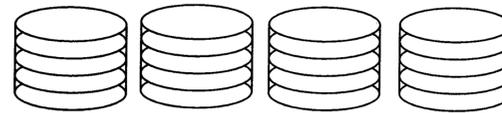
- Raid level 0 has no redundant data and hence has the best write performance.
- Raid level 1 uses mirrored disks.
- Raid level 2 uses memory-style redundancy by using Hamming codes, which contain parity bits for distinct overlapping subsets of components. Level 2 includes both error detection and correction.
- Raid level 3 uses a single parity disk relying on the disk controller to figure out which disk has failed.
- Raid Levels 4 and 5 use block-level data striping, with level 5 distributing data and parity information across all disks.
- Raid level 6 applies the so-called  $P + Q$  redundancy scheme using Reed-Soloman codes to protect against up to two disk failures by using just two redundant disks.

# Use of RAID Technology (cont.)

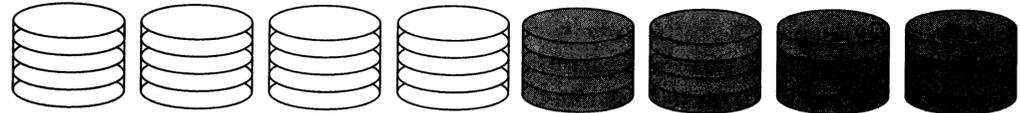
Different raid organizations are being used under different situations

- Raid level 1 (mirrored disks) is the easiest for rebuild of a disk from other disks
  - It is used for critical applications like logs
- Raid level 2 uses memory-style redundancy by using Hamming codes, which contain parity bits for distinct overlapping subsets of components. Level 2 includes both error detection and correction.
- Raid level 3 (single parity disks relying on the disk controller to figure out which disk has failed) and level 5 (block-level data striping) are preferred for Large volume storage, with level 3 giving higher transfer rates.
- Most popular uses of the RAID technology currently are: Level 0 (with striping), Level 1 (with mirroring) and Level 5 with an extra drive for parity.
- Design Decisions for RAID include – level of RAID, number of disks, choice of parity schemes, and grouping of disks for block-level striping.

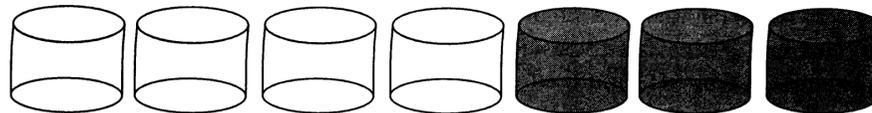
# Use of RAID Technology (cont.)



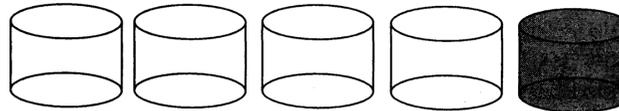
Non-Redundant (RAID Level 0)



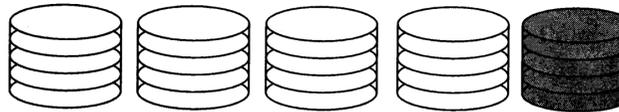
Mirrored (RAID Level 1)



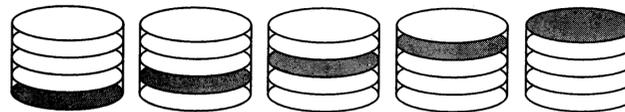
Memory-Style ECC (RAID Level 2)



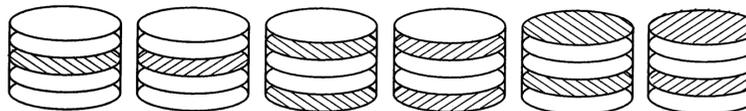
Bit-Interleaved Parity (RAID Level 3)



Block-Interleaved Parity (RAID Level 4)



Block-Interleaved Distribution-Parity (RAID Level 5)



P+Q Redundancy (RAID Level 6)

# Trends in Disk Technology

**TABLE 13.3 TRENDS IN DISK TECHNOLOGY**

	<b>1993 PARAMETER VALUES*</b>	<b>HISTORICAL RATE OF IMPROVEMENT PER YEAR (%)*</b>	<b>CURRENT (2003) VALUES**</b>
Areal density	50–150 Mbits/sq. inch	27	36 Gbits/sq. inch
Linear density	40,000–60,000 bits/inch	13	570 Kbits/inch
Inter-track density	1500–3000 tracks/inch	10	64,000 tracks/inch
Capacity (3.5" form factor)	100–2000 MB	27	146 GB
Transfer rate	3–4 MB/s	22	43–78 MB/sec
Seek time	7–20 ms	8	3.5–6 msec

\*Source: From Chen, Lee, Gibson, Katz, and Patterson (1994), *ACM Computing Surveys*, Vol. 26, No. 2 (June 1994). Reprinted by permission.

\*\*Source: IBM Ultrastar 36XP and 18ZX hard disk drives.

# Storage Area Networks

- The demand for higher storage has risen considerably in recent times.
- Organizations have a need to move from a static fixed data center oriented operation to a more flexible and dynamic infrastructure for information processing.
- Thus they are moving to a concept of Storage Area Networks (SANs). In a SAN, online storage peripherals are configured as nodes on a high-speed network and can be attached and detached from servers in a very flexible manner.
- This allows storage systems to be placed at longer distances from the servers and provide different performance and connectivity options.

# Storage Area Networks (contd.)

## Advantages of SANs are:

- Flexible many-to-many connectivity among servers and storage devices using fiber channel hubs and switches.
- Up to 10km separation between a server and a storage system using appropriate fiber optic cables.
- Better isolation capabilities allowing nondisruptive addition of new peripherals and servers.
- SANs face the problem of combining storage options from multiple vendors and dealing with evolving standards of storage management software and hardware.