

# Non-Standard Database Systems

## Database System Architectures

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# Outline

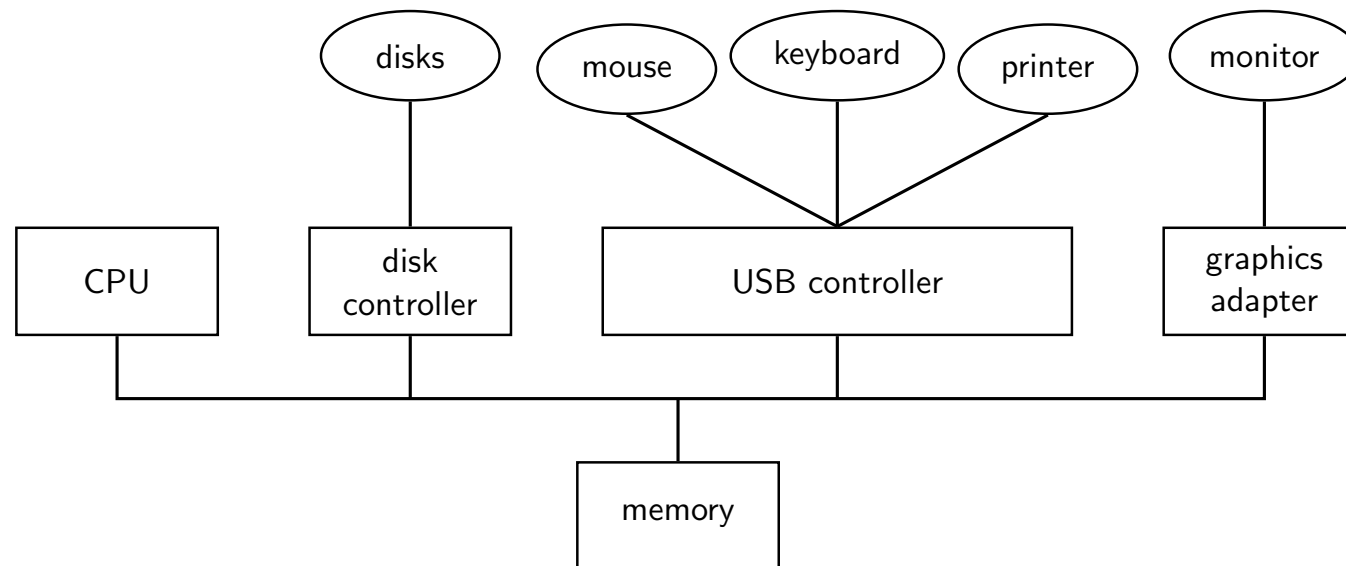
- 1 Centralized and Client-Server Systems
- 2 Server System Architecture
- 3 Parallel Systems
  - Performance Measures
  - Interconnection Networks
  - Parallel Database System Architecture
- 4 Distributed Systems

# Outline

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# Centralized Database Systems

- Run on a **single, centralized computer system** that does not interact with other computer systems.
- A centralized computer system may run **single-user** or **multi-user** systems.



# Single-User and Multi-User Systems

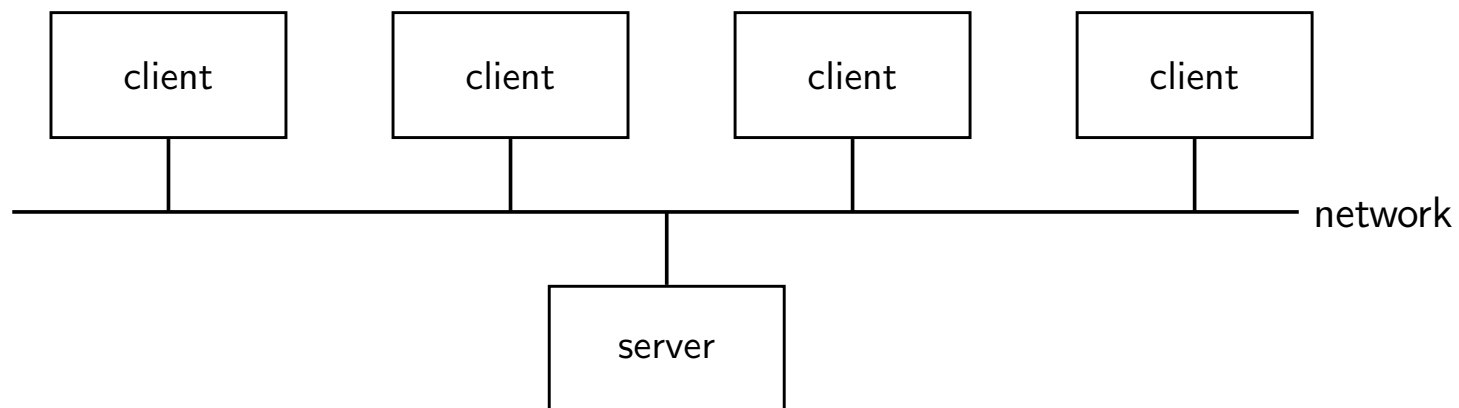
- **Single-user system** (e.g., smartphone or personal computer): single user, usually has only one CPU (with multiple cores) and one or two disks; the OS may support only one user.
- **Multi-user system**: more disks, more memory, multiple CPUs, and a multi-user OS. Serve a large number of users who are connected to the system remotely. Often called **server systems**.

# Embedded Databases

- Databases on single-user systems may come with limited functionality:
  - simple concurrency control schemes
  - basic (e.g., copy before update) or no recovery mechanisms
  - provide API instead of declarative interface like SQL
  
- Such systems are called **embedded databases** and are typically linked to a single application.

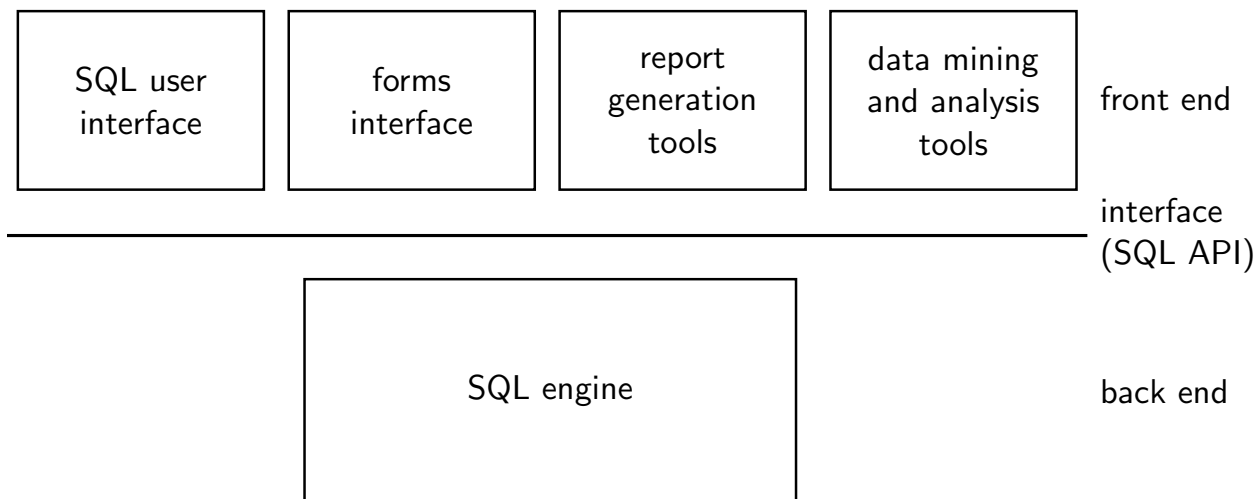
# Client-Server Systems/1

- Server systems satisfy requests generated at client systems.



# Client-Server Systems/2

- 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
- The **interface** between the front-end and the back-end is through SQL or through an application program interface.





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# Server System Architecture

- Server systems can be broadly categorized into two kinds:
  - **transaction servers** which are widely used in relational database systems
  - **data servers** traditionally used in object-oriented database systems

# Transaction Servers

- Also called **query server** or **SQL server**:
  - 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 API (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.

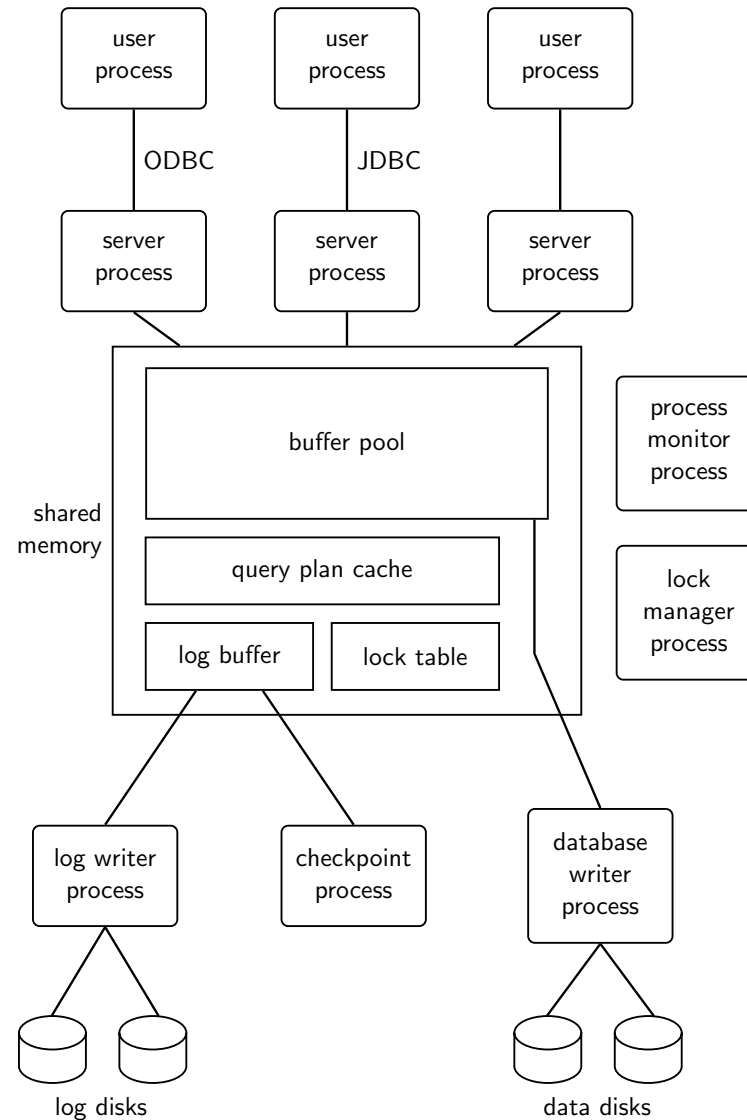
# Transaction Server Process Structure/1

- A typical transaction server consists of **multiple processes** accessing data in **shared memory**.
- **Server processes**
  - 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 run concurrently (e.g., one multithreaded process per user session)
- **Lock manager process**
  - grants and releases locks, detects deadlocks
- **Database writer process**
  - output modified buffer blocks to disks continually

# Transaction Server Process Structure/2

- Log writer process
  - server processes simply add log records to a 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 them fails  
e.g., abort transaction of a failed server process and restart process

# Transaction Server Process Structure/3



# Transaction Server Process Structure/4

- All database processes can access **shared data**:
  - buffer pool
  - lock table
  - log buffer
  - cached query plans (reuse plan if same query is submitted again)
- To avoid two processes accessing the same data structure at the same time, databases systems implement **mutual exclusion** using either
  - operating system **semaphores** (wait and signal operations)
  - **atomic instructions** (test-and-set or compare-and-swap)
- To avoid overhead of **message passing** (sending requests to lock manager) for lock request/grant, database processes may operate directly on the **lock table**
- **Lock manager process** still used for deadlock detection

# Data Servers

- Originally developed for **object-oriented databases**:
  - create, retrieve, and update persistent objects
  - persistent objects are accessed like main memory objects in programming languages
- All **computations performed on client**:
  - server ships required data items to client
  - client performs compute intensive tasks on data items
  - updated or new data items are shipped from client to server
- **Server** only needs to **store and fetch data**.
- Data servers are **typically used** when
  - the client performs **extensive computations**, e.g., a CAD system fetches a computer chip model and runs simulations
  - client and server are connected via **high-speed network**



# Caching at Clients/1

- Client and server **communicate via network**:
  - **network latency** (also network round-trip time) is the time to send a message over a network and get response back
  - much **slower than local memory** references, e.g., milliseconds vs. 100 nanoseconds even in LAN (local are network)
- **Optimization strategies** to reduce the effect of network latency:
  - prefetching: send a data item before it is requested
  - data caching: client caches data received from server for future use
  - lock caching: client keeps the lock also after accessing the data
  - adaptive lock granularity: use coarse- and fine-grained locks to balance number of lock requests and lock contention

# Caching at Clients/2

- Prefetching
  - network latency is per request: similar for large and small messages
  - sending one item at a time has a large overhead
  - prefetching sends also data items that are not requested, but are likely to be used in the near future
  
- Data Caching
  - data can be cached at client even in between transactions
  - but check that data is up-to-date before it is used (**cache coherence**)
  - check can be done when requesting lock on data item

# Caching at Clients/3

- Lock caching
  - requesting and granting a lock requires a network round trip
  - locks can be retained by client system even in between transactions
  - transactions can acquire cached locks locally, without contacting server
  - server **calls back** locks from clients when it receives conflicting lock request; client returns lock once no local transaction is using it
  - works well when data is partitioned among clients, i.e., two different clients rarely request lock on the same data item

# Caching at Clients/4

- Adaptive lock granularity
  - multi-granularity locking: locks not only on individual data items (fine granularity), but also on pages, tables, etc. (coarse granularity)
  - avoid large number of locks, e.g., get a single page lock instead of multiple item locks on that page
  - coarse-granularity locks decrease number of locks but increase lock contention (i.e., transactions have to wait for a lock)
  - lock de-escalation adaptively decreases the lock granularity when there is lock contention:
    1. server sends de-escalation request to client
    2. client requests finer-granularity locks
    3. when finer-granularity locks are granted, coarse-granularity lock is released

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# Parallel 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

# Speed-Up and Scale-Up

- **Speedup**: a fixed-sized problem executing on a small system is given to a system which is  $N$ -times larger.
  - Measured by:

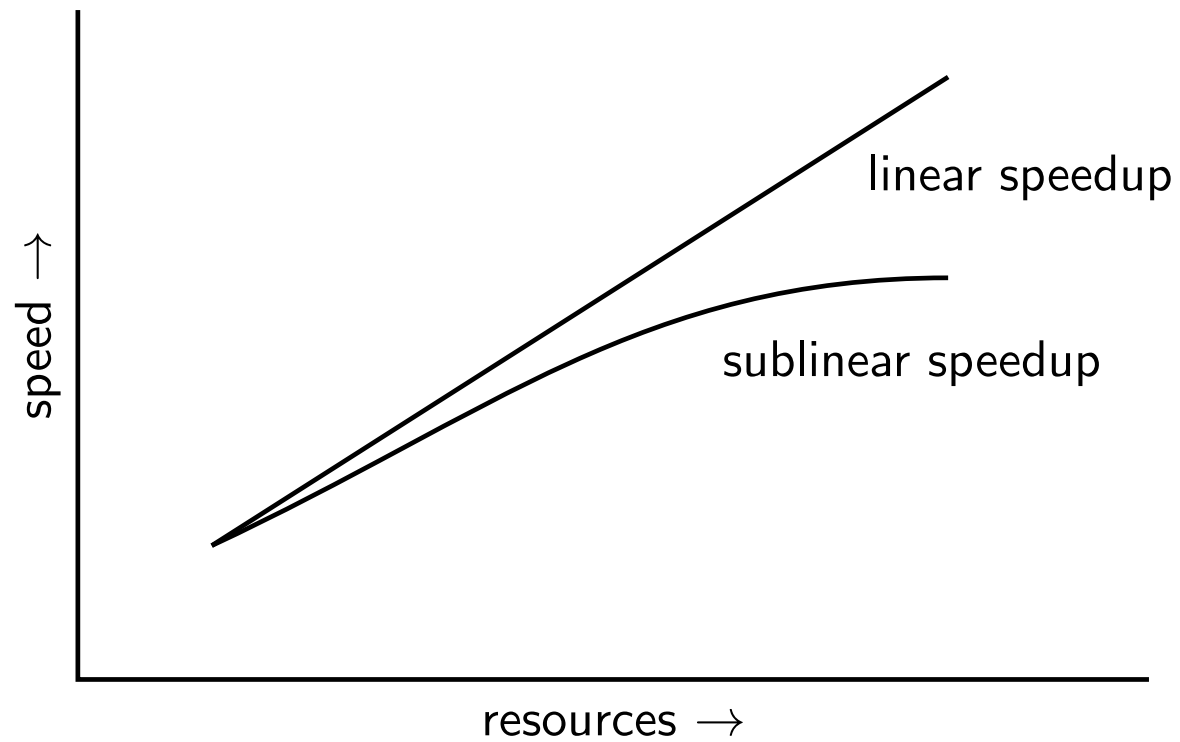
$$\text{speedup} = \frac{\text{small system elapsed time}}{\text{large system elapsed time}}$$

- 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:

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

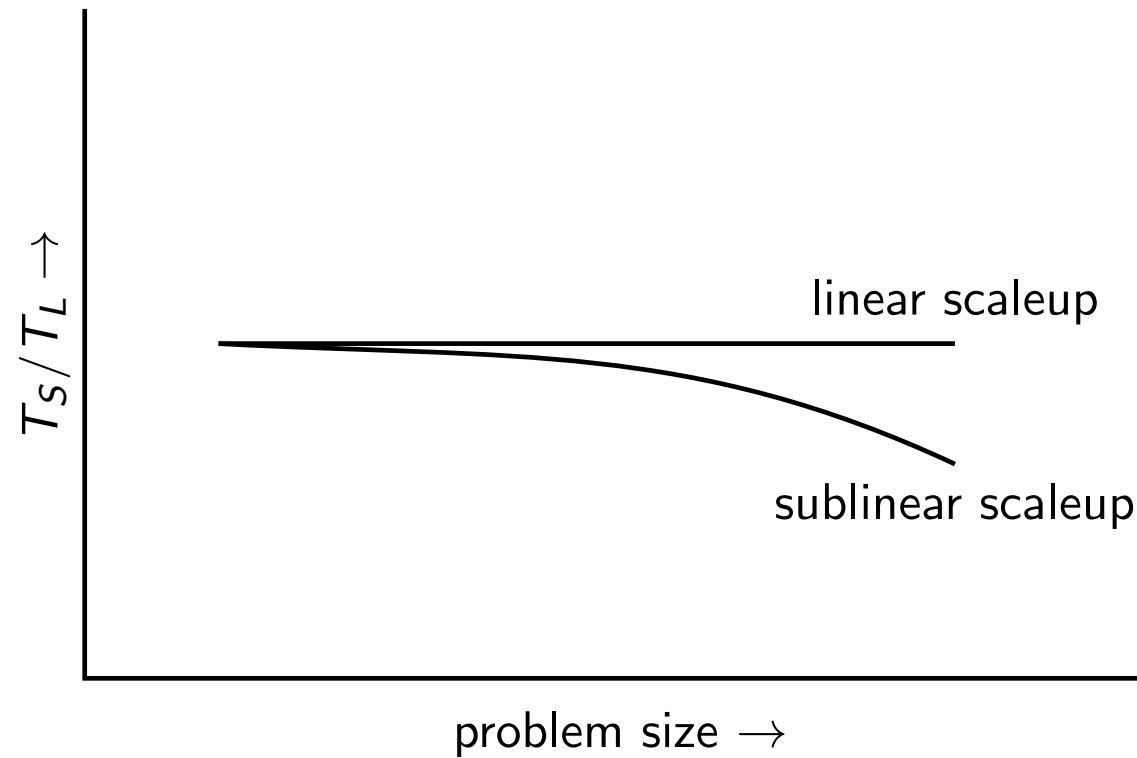
- Scaleup is **linear** if equation equals 1.

# Speedup





# Scaleup



# Batch and Transaction Scaleup

- **Batch scaleup**: single large job.
  - typical for decision support queries and scientific simulations
  - use an  $N$ -times larger computer on  $N$ -times larger problem
  
- **Transaction scaleup**: numerous small queries.
  - submitted by independent users to a shared database
  - typical for transaction processing and timesharing systems
  - $N$ -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 to **parallel execution**

# Factors Limiting Speedup and Scaleup

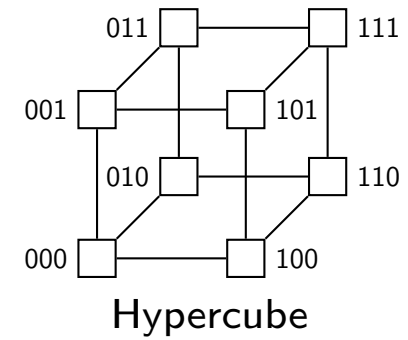
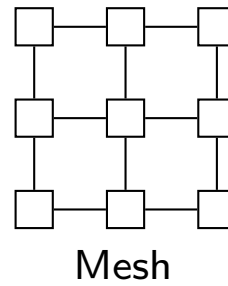
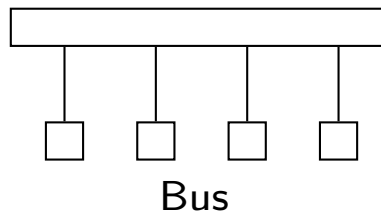
Speedup and scaleup are often sublinear due to:

- **Startup costs:** Cost of starting up multiple processes may dominate computation time if the degree of parallelism is high.
- **Interference:** Processes accessing shared resources (e.g., system bus, disks, or locks) compete with each other, 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 tasks executing in parallel. Overall execution time determined by slowest of tasks executing in parallel.

# Interconnection Network Architectures

- **Bus:** System components send data on and receive data from a single communication bus:
  - does not scale well with increasing parallelism.
- **Mesh:** Components are arranged as nodes in a grid, and each component is connected to all adjacent components:
  - number communication links grow with growing number of components, and so scales better
  - the number of hops to send message to a node is proportional to  $\sqrt{n}$
- **Hypercube:** Components are numbered in binary; components are connected to one another if their binary representations differ in exactly one bit.
  - $n$  components are connected to  $\log(n)$  other components
  - can reach each other via at most  $\log(n)$  links
  - reduces communication delays

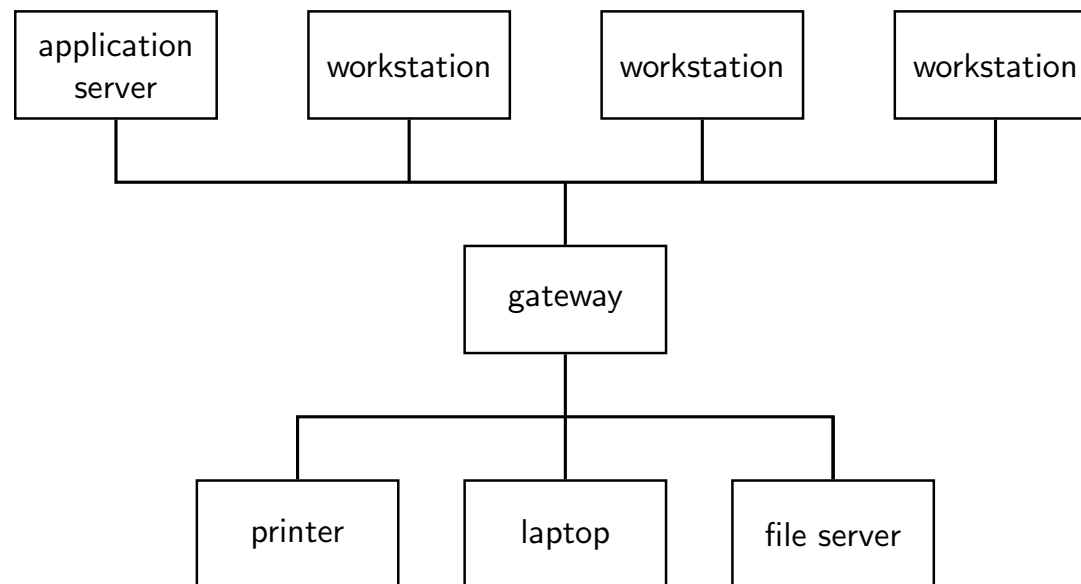
# Interconnection Architectures



# Network Types

- **Local-area networks (LANs)** — composed of processors that are distributed over small geographical areas, such as a single building or a few adjacent buildings.
- **Wide-area networks (WANs)** — composed of processors distributed over a large geographical area.

# Local-Area Network/1



# Local-Area Network/2

- **Link technology:** twisted pair, coaxial cable, fiber optics, wireless connection
- **Ethernet:** Specification for computer networks
  - Software (e.g., protocols)
  - Hardware (e.g., cables, network cards, switches)
- **Transfer rates**
  - Fast Ethernet: 1, 10, 100 Mb/s (1 Mb/s =  $10^6$  bits / second )
  - Gigabit Ethernet: 1 Gb/s
  - Widely used: 10 Gb/s, highest transfer rate: 400 Gb/s
  - Higher transfer rates (1 Tb/s) require new technologies
- **Distances:**
  - usually single building or neighboring buildings
  - up to 70km with fiber optics



# Wide-Area Network

- Fast wide-area links (fiber optics, satellite channel): hundreds of gigabits
- Last link typically slower (e.g., cable modem, wireless connection): some megabits
- **Latency** higher than in LAN
  - speed of light delay
  - queuing delay at routers
- WANs with **continuous connection** (e.g., the Internet) are needed for implementing distributed database systems.

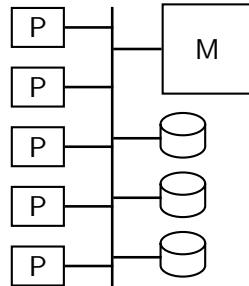
# Example: Network Latency

- What are the number of routers and the **network latency** for
  - localhost (i.e., network connection to the local machine)
  - in the LAN (e.g., ssh.cosy.sbg.ac.at)
  - in the WAN (e.g., www.tum.de, unsw.edu.au)
- Use **ping** to measure latency and **traceroute** to learn how the network packets are routed

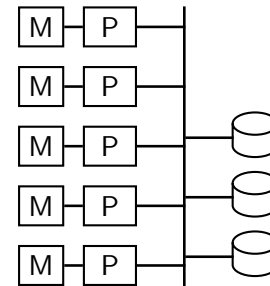
# Parallel Database Architectures

- **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

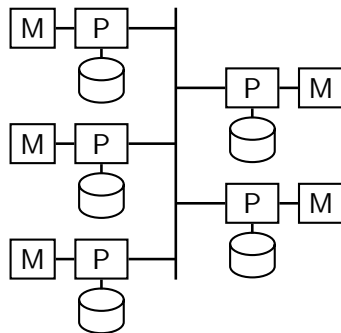
# Parallel Database Architectures



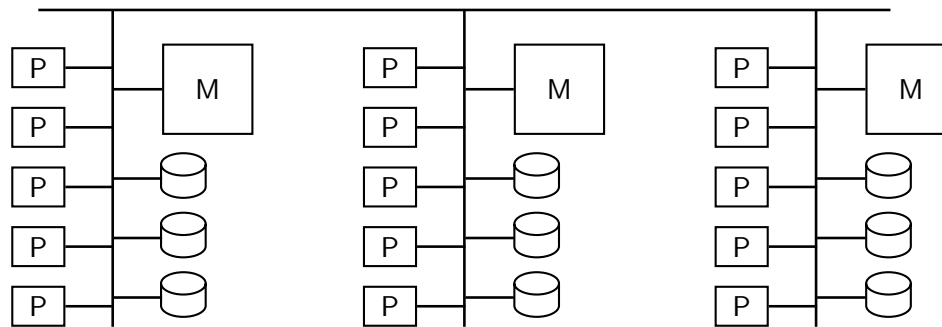
shared memory



shared disk



shared nothing



hierarchical

# Shared Memory

- Processors have access to a **common memory** via bus or interprocessor communication network.
- Extremely **efficient communication** between processors ( $< 1\mu s$ ) — data in shared memory can be accessed by any processor.
- **Memory bus** becomes a bottleneck since only a single processor at a time can use the bus.
- **NUMA** (non-uniform memory access):
  - each processor has locally connected memory
  - processors can access memory of other processors through a high-speed **interprocessor communication network**
  - locally connected memory is faster
- **Does not scalable** beyond a few hundred cores:
  - limited by bus speed and number processors that can be interconnected
  - widely used for lower degrees of parallelism

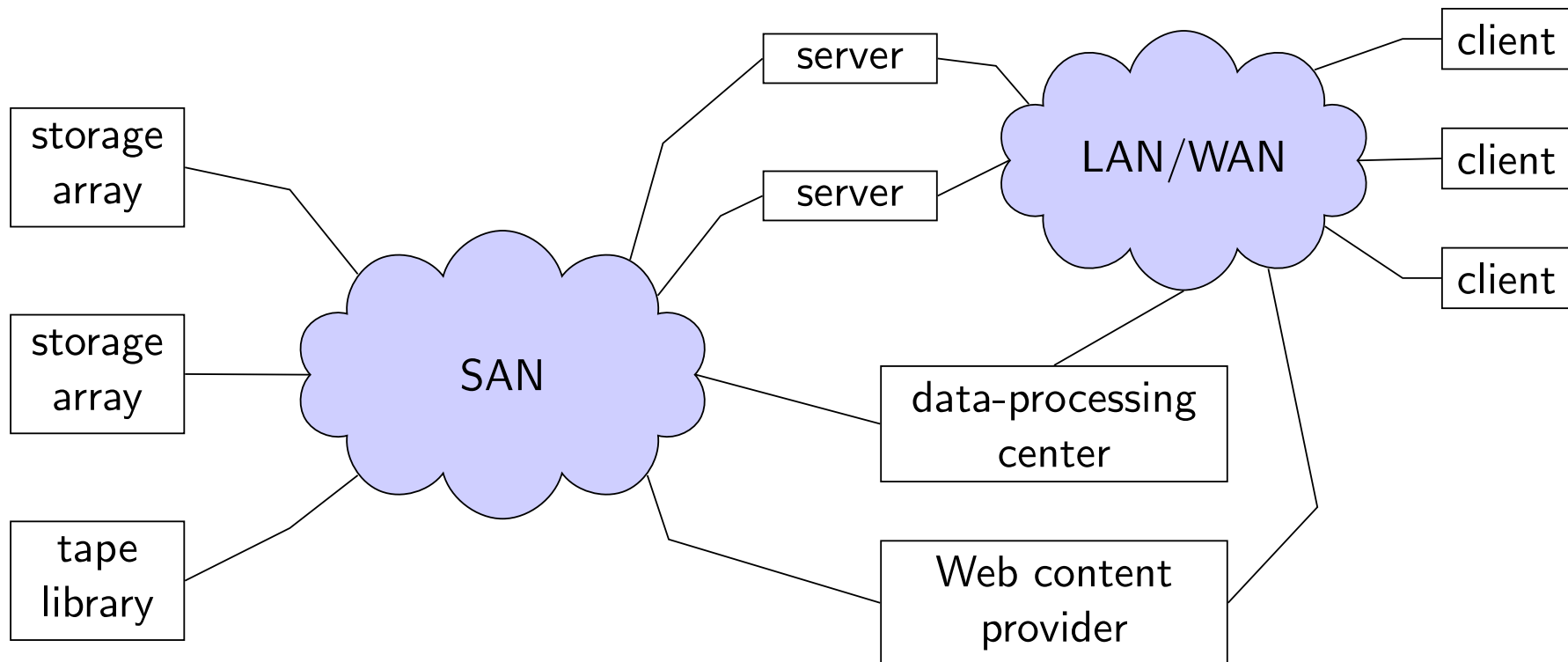
# Shared Disk/1

- All processors can directly access **all disks** via an interconnection network, but the processors have **private memories**.
  - The **memory bus** is not a bottleneck
  - Architecture provides a degree of **fault-tolerance** — if a processor fails, the other processors can take over its tasks since the database is resident on disks that are accessible from all processors.
- **Examples:** IBM Sysplex and DEC clusters (now part of Compaq) running Rdb (now Oracle Rdb) were early commercial users
- **Downside:** bottleneck now occurs at **interconnection to the disk subsystem**.
- Shared-disk systems **scale to a larger number of processors**, but communication between processors is slower (some *ms*).

# Shared Disk/2

- File server / NAS (Network Attached Storage)
  - disks connected via RAID controller
  - mounted as directory in file system
    - Samba
    - NFS - Network File System
- SAN - Storage Array Network
  - block level access
  - appears to be locally attached block device
  - shared disk file system runs on top of SAN
    - IBM GPFS (General Parallel FS)
    - Oracle Cluster FS
    - Lustre (mainly super computing/Linux)

# Storage Area Network





# Shared Nothing

- **Node** consists of a processor, memory, and one or more disks.
- Nodes function as **servers for the data on the disks** they own.
- **Communication** between processors through interconnection network.
- **Examples:** Teradata, Tandem, Oracle-n CUBE
- **Minimize interference** of resource sharing: data accessed from local disks (and local memory accesses) do not pass through interconnection network
- Can be scaled up to **thousands of processors** without interference.
- **Main drawbacks:**
  - cost of communication
  - cost of non-local disk access
  - sending data involves software interaction at both ends

# Hierarchical

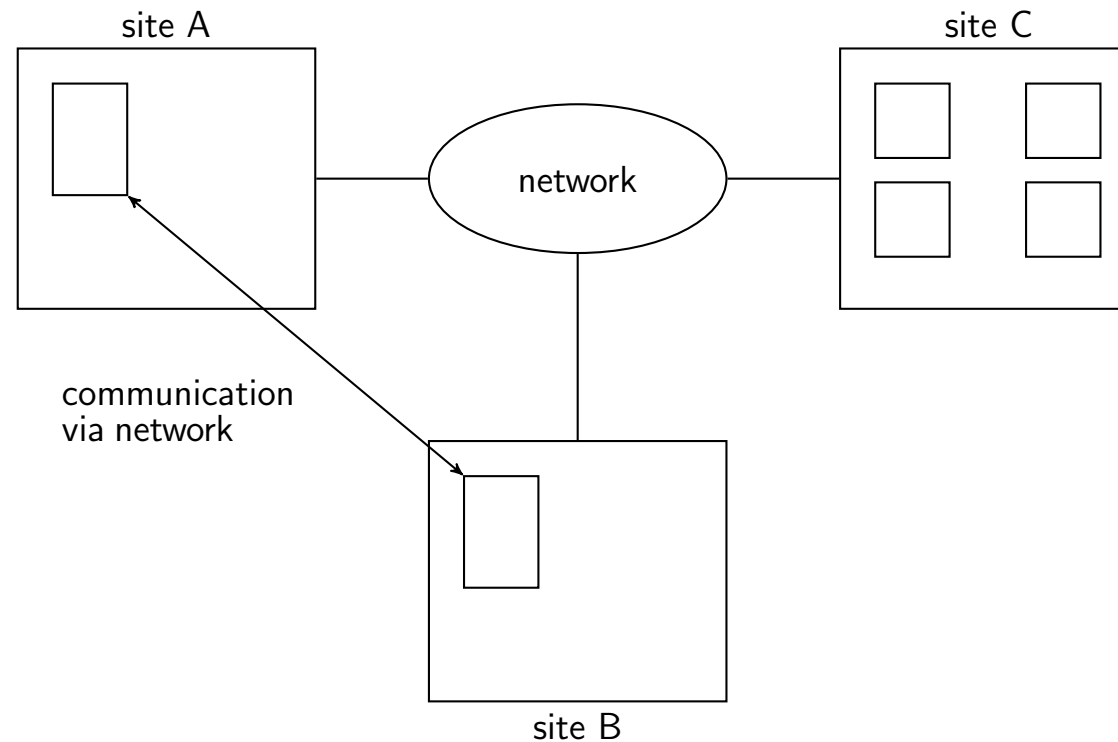
- Combines characteristics of shared-memory, shared-disk, and shared-nothing architectures.
- Top level is a shared-nothing architecture – nodes connected by an interconnection network, and do not share disks or memory with each other.
- Each node of the system could be a shared-memory system with a few processors.
- Alternatively, each node could be a shared-disk system, and each of the systems sharing a set of disks could be a shared-memory system.
- Reduce the complexity of programming such systems by distributed virtual-memory architectures

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# Distributed Systems

- Data spread over multiple machines (called **sites** or **nodes**).
- Network interconnects the machines.



# Distributed Databases

- **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

# Differences to Shared-Nothing Parallel Systems

- Sites **geographically separated**.
- Sites may be **separately administrated**.
- Slower and less reliable **interconnection between sites**.
  - higher latency, lower bandwidth
  - greater potential for network failure (network partitioning)
- 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 Systems

- **Sharing data:** users can access data residing at some other sites (heterogeneous distributed databases)
- **Autonomy:** each site retains a degree of control over data stored locally (heterogeneous distributed databases)
- **Higher system availability through redundancy:** data can be replicated at remote sites, and system can function even if a site fails.
- **Disadvantage:** proper coordination among sites adds complexity.
  - software development cost
  - greater potential for bugs
  - increased processing overhead

# Implementation Issues for Distributed Databases

- **Atomicity** 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 then 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



# Conclusion

- Homogeneous vs. heterogeneous distributed database systems.
- Distributed database different from a shared nothing parallel systems.
- Geographical separation of sites comes with opportunities and challenges:
  - higher availability through geographically distributed redundancy
  - new implementation challenges