

Non-Standard Database Systems

Database System Architectures

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Outline

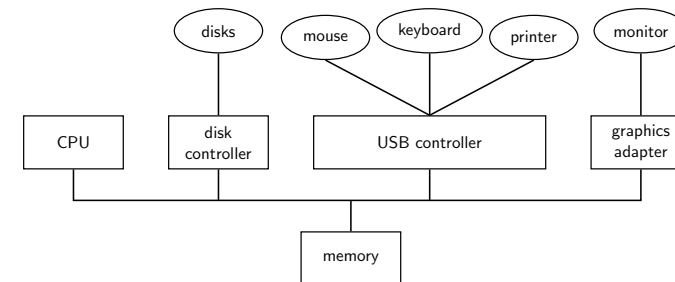
- 1 Centralized and Client-Server Systems
- 2 Server System Architecture
- 3 Parallel Systems
 - Performance Measures
 - Interconnection Networks
 - Parallel Database System Architecture
- 4 Distributed Systems

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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

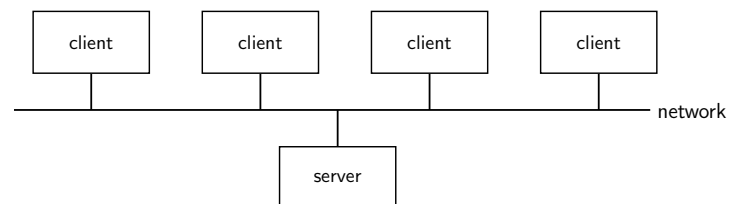
- **Single-user system** (e.g., smartphone or personal computer): single user, usually has only one CPU (with multiple cores) and one or two disks; the OS may support only one user.
- **Multi-user system**: more disks, more memory, multiple CPUs, and a multi-user OS. Serve a large number of users who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

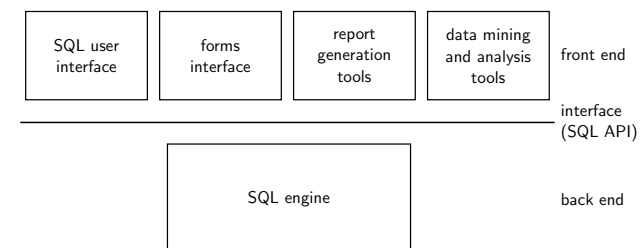
Client-Server Systems/1

- **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.

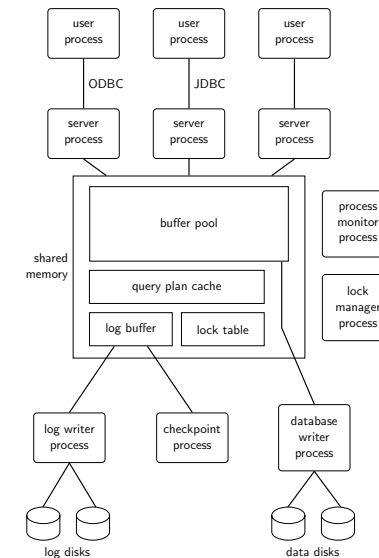
Transaction Server Process Structure/1

- 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:

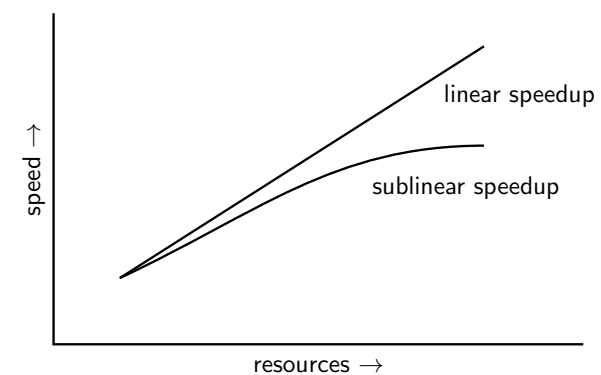
$$\text{speedup} = \frac{\text{small system elapsed time}}{\text{large system elapsed time}}$$

- 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:

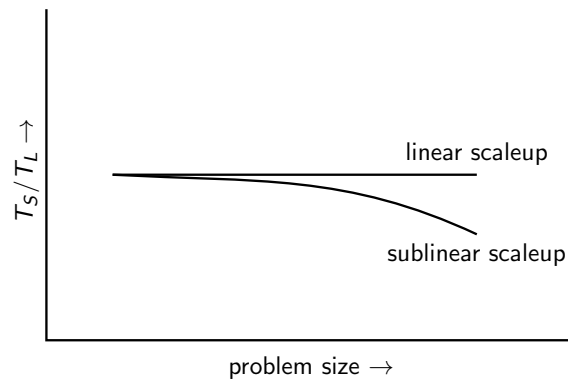
$$\text{scaleup} = \frac{\text{small system small problem elapsed time}}{\text{big system big problem elapsed time}}$$

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

Speedup



Scaleup



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.

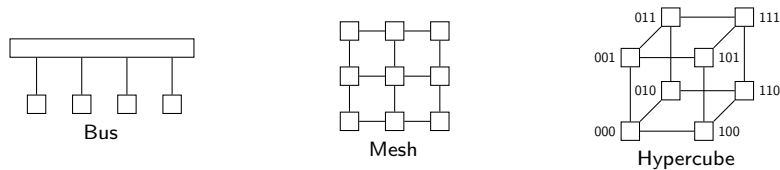
Batch and Transaction Scaleup

- **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**

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

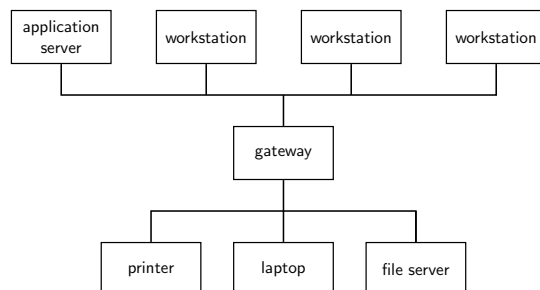
Interconnection Architectures



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.

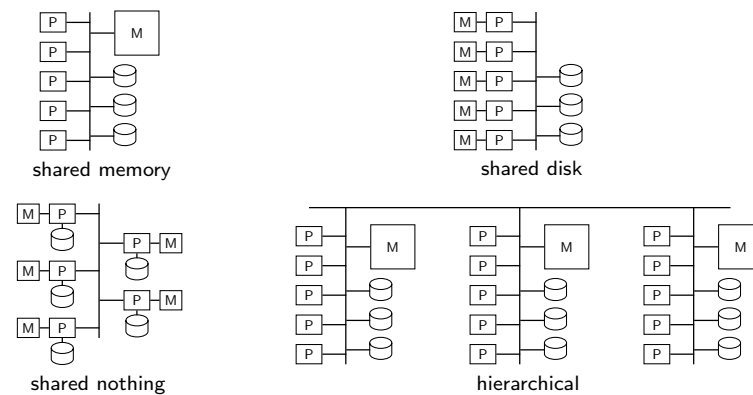
Example: Network Latency

- 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

- 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

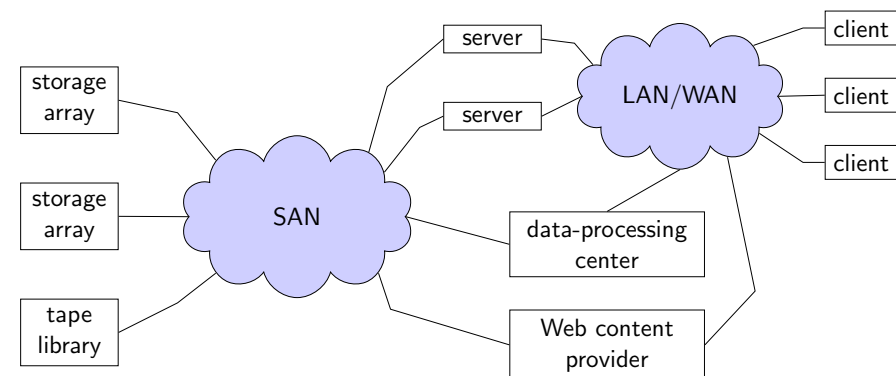
Shared Disk/1

- 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

Outline

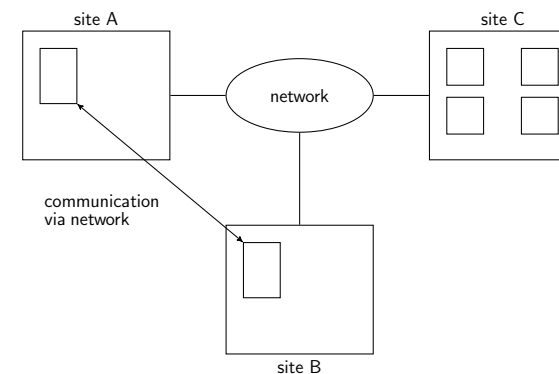
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Hierarchical

- **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

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