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Carnegie Mellon Univ.
Dept. of Computer Science
15-415/615 - DB Applications

C. Faloutsos – A. Pavlo

Lecture#23: Distributed Database Systems

(R&G ch. 22)

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Administrivia – Final Exam

- **Who:** You
- **What:** R&G Chapters 15-22
- **When:** Tuesday May 6th 5:30pm- 8:30pm
- **Where:** WEH 7500
- **Why:** Databases will help your love life.

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Today's Class

- High-level overview of distributed DBMSs.
- Not meant to be a detailed examination of all aspects of these systems.

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Today's Class

- Overview & Background
- Design Issues
- Distributed OLTP
- Distributed OLAP
- Real-world Examples

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Why Do We Need Parallel/Distributed DBMSs?

- PayPal in 2008…
- Single, monolithic Oracle installation.
- Had to manually move data every xmas.
- Legal restrictions.

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Why Do We Need Parallel/Distributed DBMSs?

- Increased Performance.
- Increased Availability.
- Potentially Lower TCO.

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Parallel/Distributed DBMS

- Database is spread out across multiple resources to improve parallelism.
- Appears as a single database instance to the application.
  - SQL query for a single-node DBMS should generate same result on a parallel or distributed DBMS.

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Parallel vs. Distributed

- **Parallel DBMSs:**
  - Nodes are physically close to each other.
  - Nodes connected with high-speed LAN.
  - Communication cost is assumed to be small.
- **Distributed DBMSs:**
  - Nodes can be far from each other.
  - Nodes connected using public network.
  - Communication cost and problems cannot be ignored.

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Database Architectures

- The goal is parallelize operations across multiple resources.
  - CPU
  - Memory
  - Network
  - Disk

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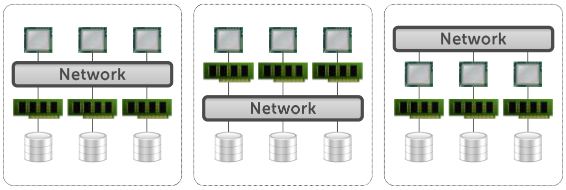
Database Architectures



Shared Memory | Shared Disk | Shared Nothing

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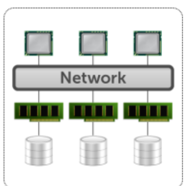
Shared Memory

- CPUs and disks have access to common memory via a fast interconnect.
  - Very efficient to send messages between processors.
  - Sometimes called “shared everything”



- Examples: All single-node DBMSs.

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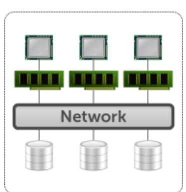
Shared Disk

- All CPUs can access all disks directly via an interconnect but each have their own private memories.
  - Easy fault tolerance.
  - Easy consistency since there is a single copy of DB.



- Examples: Oracle Exadata, ScaleDB.

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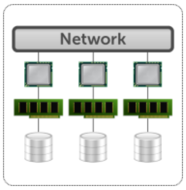
Shared Nothing

- Each DBMS instance has its own CPU, memory, and disk.
- Nodes only communicate with each other via network.
  - Easy to increase capacity.
  - Hard to ensure consistency.



- Examples: Vertica, Parallel DB2, MongoDB.

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Early Systems

- **MUFFIN** – UC Berkeley (1979)
- **SDD-1** – CCA (1980)
- **System R*** – IBM Research (1984)
- **Gamma** – Univ. of Wisconsin (1986)
- **NonStop SQL** – Tandem (1987)


Stonebraker


Bernstein


Mohan


DeWitt


Gray

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Inter- vs. Intra-query Parallelism

- **Inter-Query:** Different queries or txns are executed concurrently.
  - Increases throughput but not latency.
  - Already discussed for shared-memory DBMSs.
- **Intra-Query:** Execute the operations of a single query in parallel.
  - Increases latency for long-running queries.

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Parallel/Distributed DBMSs

- Advantages:
  - Data sharing.
  - Reliability and availability.
  - Speed up of query processing.
- Disadvantages:
  - May increase processing overhead.
  - More database design issues.
  - Harder to ensure ACID guarantees.

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Design Issues

- How do we store data across nodes?
- How does the application find data?
- How to execute queries on distributed data?
  - Push query to data.
  - Pull data to query.
- How does the DBMS ensure correctness?

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Database Partitioning

- Split database across multiple resources:
  - Disks, nodes, processors.
  - Sometimes called “sharding”
- The DBMS executes query fragments on each partition and then combines the results to produce a single answer.

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Naïve Table Partitioning

- Each node stores one and only table.
- Assumes that each node has enough storage space for a table.

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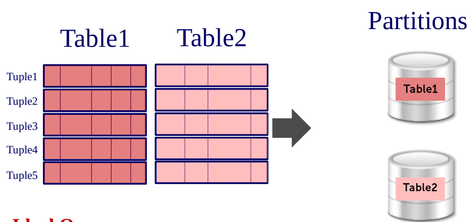
Naïve Table Partitioning



Ideal Query:

```
SELECT * FROM table
```

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Horizontal Partitioning

- Split a table's tuples into disjoint subsets.
  - Choose column(s) that divides the database equally in terms of size, load, or usage.
  - Each tuple contains all of its columns.
- Three main approaches:
  - Round-robin Partitioning.
  - Hash Partitioning.
  - Range Partitioning.

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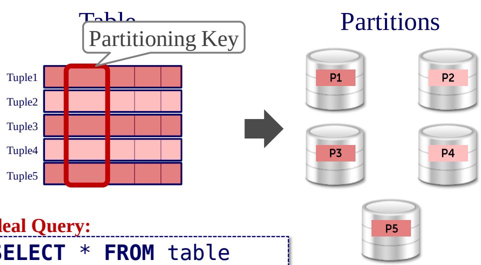
Horizontal Partitioning



Ideal Query:

```
SELECT * FROM table
 WHERE partitionKey = ?
```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Vertical Partitioning

- Split the columns of tuples into fragments:
  - Each fragment contains all of the tuples' values for column(s).
- Need to include primary key or unique record id with each partition to ensure that the original tuple can be reconstructed.

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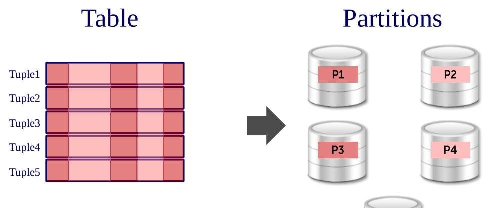
Vertical Partitioning



Ideal Query:

```
SELECT column FROM table
```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Replication

- **Partition Replication:** Store a copy of an entire partition in multiple locations.
  - Master – Slave Replication
- **Table Replication:** Store an entire copy of a table in each partition.
  - Usually small, read-only tables.
- The DBMS ensures that updates are propagated to all replicas in either case.

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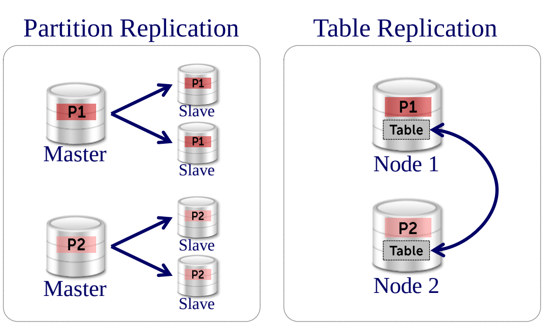
Replication



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Data Transparency

- Users should not be required to know where data is physically located, how tables are partitioned or replicated.
- A SQL query that works on a single-node DBMS should work the same on a distributed DBMS.

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OLTP vs. OLAP

- On-line Transaction Processing:
  - Short-lived txns.
  - Small footprint.
  - Repetitive operations.
- On-line Analytical Processing:
  - Long running queries.
  - Complex joins.
  - Exploratory queries.

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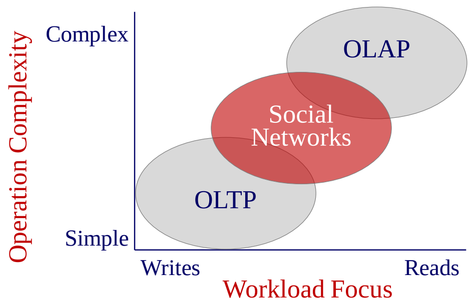
Workload Characterization



Michael Stonebraker – *"Ten Rules For Scalable Performance In Simple Operation' Datastores"*
http://cacm.acm.org/magazines/2011/6/108651

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Distributed OLTP

- Execute txns on a distributed DBMS.
- Used for user-facing applications:
  - Example: Credit card processing.
- Key Challenges:
  - Consistency
  - Availability

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Single-Node vs. Distributed Transactions

- Single-node txns do not require the DBMS to coordinate behavior between nodes.
- Distributed txns are any txn that involves more than one node.
  - Requires expensive coordination.

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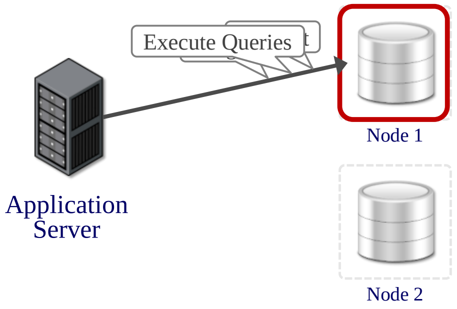
Simple Example



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Transaction Coordination

- Assuming that our DBMS supports multi-operation txns, we need some way to coordinate their execution in the system.
- Two different approaches:
  - **Centralized:** Global "traffic cop".
  - **Decentralized:** Nodes organize themselves.

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TP Monitors

- Example of a centralized coordinator.
- Originally developed in the 1970-80s to provide txns between terminals + mainframe databases.
  - Examples: ATMs, Airline Reservations.
- Many DBMSs now support the same functionality internally.

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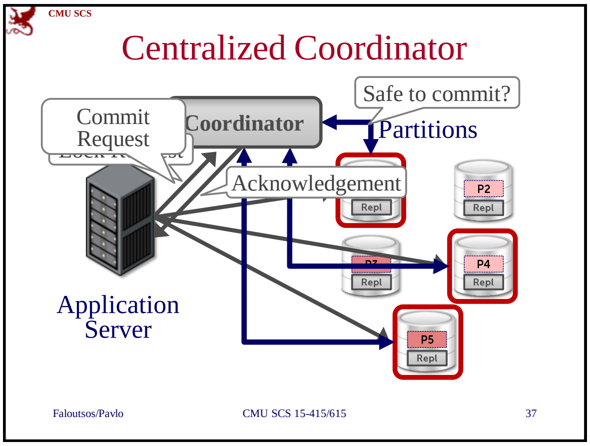
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Centralized Coordinator
Safe to commit?
Commit Request
Coordinator
Partitions
Acknowledgement
P2
Repl
P4
P5
Application Server
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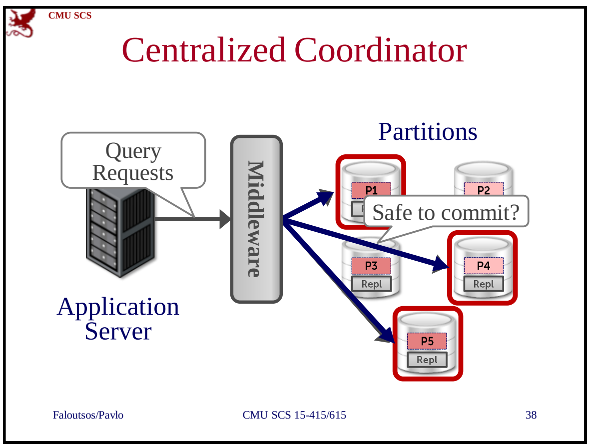
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Centralized Coordinator
Partitions
Query Requests
Middleware
P1
P2
Safe to commit?
P3
P4
P5
Repl
Application Server
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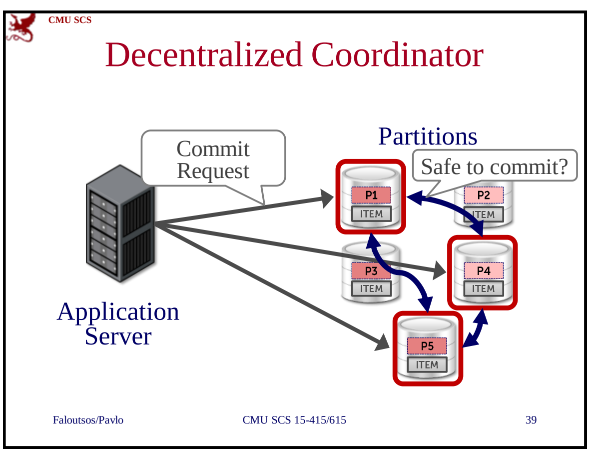
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Decentralized Coordinator
Partitions
Commit Request
Safe to commit?
P1
P2
P3
P4
P5
ITEM
Application Server
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Observation

- **Q:** How do we ensure that all nodes agree to commit a txn?
  - What happens if a node fails?
  - What happens if our messages show up late?

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CAP Theorem

- Proposed by Eric Brewer that it is impossible for a distributed system to always be:
  - Consistent
  - Always Available
  - Network Partition Tolerant
- Proved in 2002.

Pick Two!

Brewer

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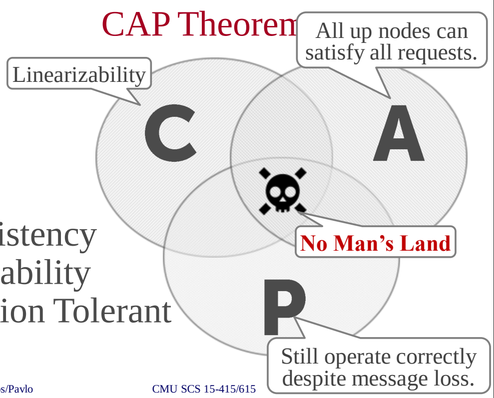
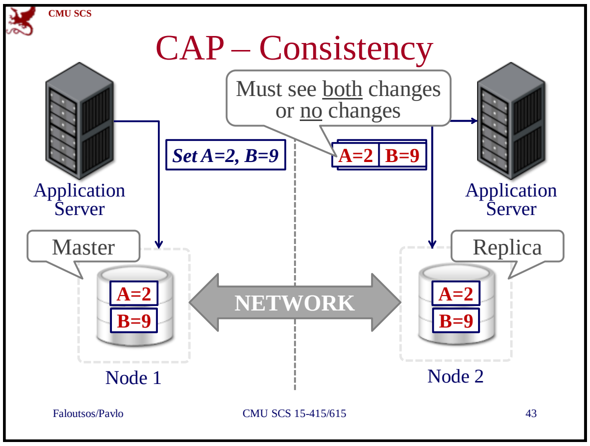
CAP Theorem



Consistency
Availability
Partition Tolerant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CAP – Consistency
Must see both changes or no changes
Set A=2, B=9
A=2
B=9
Application Server
Application Server
Master
Replica
A=2
B=9
NETWORK
A=2
B=9
Node 1
Node 2
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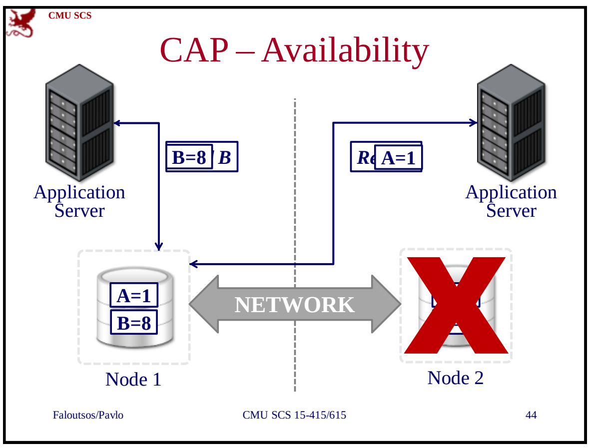
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CAP – Availability
B=8
B
Re
A=1
Application Server
Application Server
A=1
B=8
NETWORK
Node 1
Node 2
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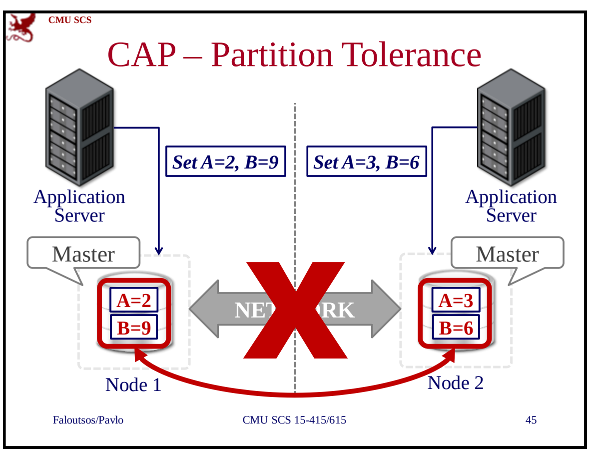
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CAP – Partition Tolerance
Set A=2, B=9
Set A=3, B=6
Application Server
Application Server
Master
Master
A=2
B=9
A=3
B=6
Node 1
Node 2
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CAP Theorem

- **Relational DBMSs:** CA/CP
  - Examples: IBM DB2, MySQL Cluster, VoltDB
- **NoSQL DBMSs:** AP
  - Examples: Cassandra, Riak, DynamoDB

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Atomic Commit Protocol

- When a multi-node txn finishes, the DBMS needs to ask all of the nodes involved whether it is safe to commit.
  - All nodes must agree on the outcome
- Examples:
  - Two-Phase Commit
  - Three-Phase Commit
  - Paxos

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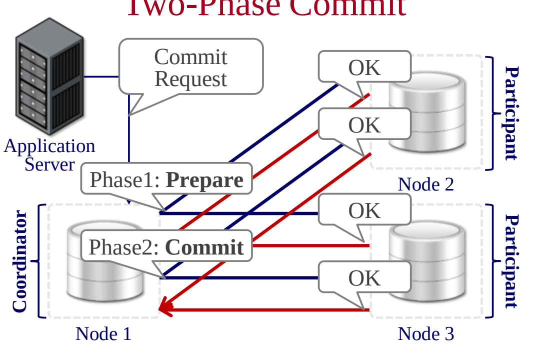
Two-Phase Commit



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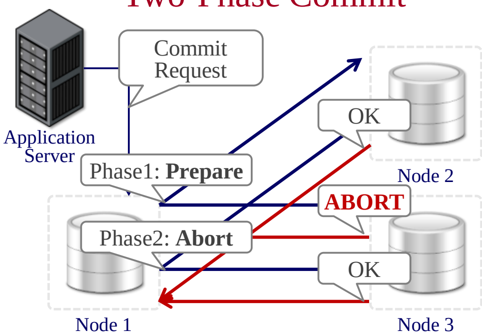
Two-Phase Commit



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Two-Phase Commit

- Each node has to record the outcome of each phase in a stable storage log.
- **Q:** What happens if coordinator crashes?
  - Participants have to decide what to do.
- **Q:** What happens if participant crashes?
  - Coordinator assumes that it responded with an abort if it hasn't sent an acknowledgement yet.
- The nodes have to block until they can figure out the correct action to take.

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Three-Phase Commit

- The coordinator fi hat it intends to commit
- If the coordinator fails, then the participants elect a new coordinator and finish commit.
- Nodes do not have to block if there are no network partitions.

Failure doesn't always mean a hard crash.

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Paxos

- Consensus protocol where a coordinator proposes an outcome (e.g., commit or abort) and then the participants vote on whether that outcome should succeed.
- Does not block if a majority of participants are available and has provably minimal message delays in the best case.
  - First correct protocol that was provably resilient in the face asynchronous networks

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2PC vs. Paxos

- **Two-Phase Commit:** blocks if coordinator fails after the prepare message is sent, until coordinator recovers.
- **Paxos:** non-blocking as long as a majority participants are alive, provided there is a sufficiently long period without further failures.

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Distributed Concurrency Control

- Need to allow multiple txns to execute simultaneously across multiple nodes.
  - Many of the same protocols from single-node DBMSs can be adapted.
- This is harder because of:
  - Replication.
  - Network Communication Overhead.
  - Node Failures.

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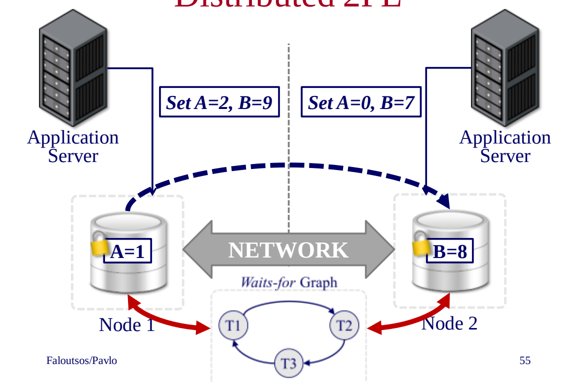
Distributed 2PL



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Recovery

- **Q:** What do we do if a node crashes in CA/CP DBMS?
- If node is replicated, use Paxos to elect a new primary.
  – If node is last replica, halt the DBMS.
- Node can recover from checkpoints + logs and then catch up with primary.

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- ➡ Distributed OLAP
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Distributed OLAP

- Execute analytical queries that examine large portions of the database.
- Used for back-end data warehouses:
  - Example: Data mining
- Key Challenges:
  - Data movement.
  - Query planning.

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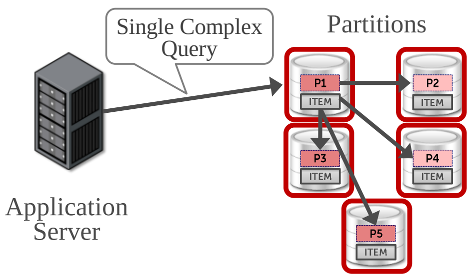
Distributed OLAP



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Distributed Joins Are Hard

```
SELECT * FROM table1, table2
 WHERE table1.val = table2.val
```

- Assume tables are horizontally partitioned:
  - Table1 Partition Key → table1.key
  - Table2 Partition Key → table2.key
- **Q:** How to execute?
- Naïve solution is to send all partitions to a single node and compute join.

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Semi-Joins

- Main Idea: First distribute the join attributes between nodes and then recreate the full tuples in the final output.
  - Send just enough data from each table to compute which rows to include in output.
- Lots of choices make this problem hard:
  - What to materialize?
  - Which table to send?

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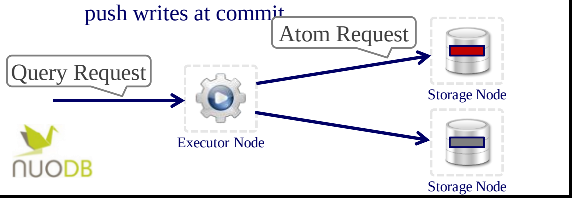
NuoDB

- Distributed MVCC+OCC.
- Split the database into "atoms" (i.e., blocks)
  - Nodes assigned as executor and storage nodes.
  - Move atoms to the node where a txn is executing, push writes at commit.



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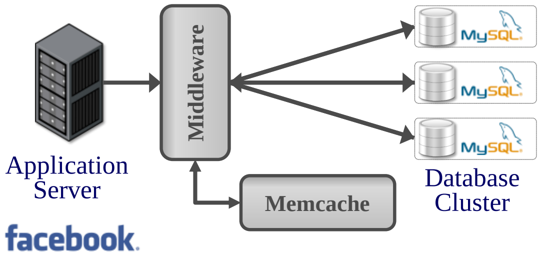
Facebook Infrastructure

- World's largest MySQL cluster.



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Google Spanner

- 2PL + T/O
- Ensures ordering through globally unique timestamping ordering generated from atomic clocks and GPS devices.

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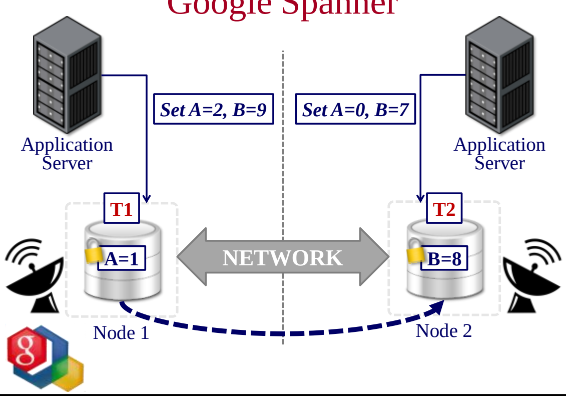
Google Spanner



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Summary

- Everything is harder in a distributed setting:
  - Concurrency Control
  - Query Execution
  - Recovery

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Next Class

- Discuss distributed OLAP more.
  - You'll learn why MapReduce was a bad idea.
- Compare NoSQL vs. NewSQL
- Learn the answer to the #1 student question:
  - What DBMS should I use for my start-up?

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