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Basic Principles

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### **Lecture Outline**

Different aspects of data distribution

- Scaling
  - Vertical vs. horizontal
- Distribution models
  - Sharding
  - Replication: master-slave vs. peer-to-peer architectures
- CAP properties
  - Consistency, availability and partition tolerance
  - ACID vs. BASE guarantees
- Consistency
  - Read and write quora

# Scalability

# Scalability

### What is scalability?

 = capability of a system to handle growing amounts of data and/or queries without losing performance, or its potential to be enlarged in order to accommodate such a growth

Two general approaches

- Vertical scaling
- Horizontal scaling

# **Vertical Scalability**

### Vertical scaling (scaling up/down)

#### adding resources to a <u>single node</u> in a system

- E.g. increasing the number of CPUs, extending system memory, using larger disk arrays, ...
- I.e. larger and more powerful machines are involved
- Traditional choice
  - In favor of strong consistency
  - Easy to implement and deploy
  - No issues caused by data distribution

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Works well in many cases but ...

# Vertical Scalability: Drawbacks

### **Performance limits**

- Even the most powerful machine has a limit
- Moreover, everything works well... at least until we start approaching such limits

### **Higher costs**

- The cost of expansion increases exponentially
  - In particular, it is higher than the sum of costs of equivalent commodity hardware

### **Proactive provisioning**

- New projects / applications might evolve rapidly
- Upfront budget is needed when deploying new machines
- And so flexibility is seriously suppressed

# Vertical Scalability: Drawbacks

### Vendor lock-in

- There are only a few manufacturers of large machines
- Customer is made dependent on a single vendor
  - Their products, services, but also implementation details, proprietary formats, interfaces, support, ...
- I.e. it is difficult or impossible to switch to another vendor

#### **Deployment downtime**

Inevitable downtime is often required when scaling up

# **Horizontal Scalability**

### Horizontal scaling (scaling out/in)

- adding more nodes to a system
  - I.e. system is distributed across multiple nodes in a cluster
- Choice of many NoSQL systems

Advantages

- Commodity hardware, cost effective
- Flexible deployment and maintenance
- Often surpasses the vertical scaling
- Often no single point of failure

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## **Horizontal Scalability: Consequences**

### Significantly increases complexity

Complexity of management, programming model, ...

### Introduces new issues and problems

- Data distribution
- Synchronization of nodes
- Data consistency
- Recovery from failures

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And there are also plenty of false assumptions ...

## **Horizontal Scalability: Fallacies**

False assumptions

- Network is reliable
- Latency is zero
- Bandwidth is infinite
- Network is secure
- **Topology** does not change
- There is one administrator
- Network is homogeneous
- Transport cost is zero

Source: https://blogs.oracle.com/jag/resource/Fallacies.html

## **Horizontal Scalability: Conclusion**

 $\Rightarrow$  a standalone node still might be a better option in certain cases

- E.g. for graph databases
  - Simply because it is difficult to split and distribute graphs
- In other words
  - It can make sense to run even a NoSQL database system on a single node
  - No distribution at all is the most preferred / simple scenario

But in general, horizontal scaling really opens new possibilities

## **Horizontal Scalability: Architecture**

### What is a cluster?

- = a collection of mutually interconnected commodity nodes
- Based on the shared-nothing architecture
  - Nodes do not share their CPUs, memory, hard drives, ...
  - Each node runs its own operating system instance
  - Nodes send messages to interact with each other
- Nodes of a cluster can be heterogeneous
- Data, queries, calculations, requests, workload, ... this is all <u>distributed</u> among the nodes within a cluster

### **Distribution Models**

### **Distribution Models**

### Generic techniques of data distribution

- Sharding
  - Idea: different data on different nodes
  - Motivation: increasing volume of data, increasing performance
- Replication
  - Idea: the same data on different nodes
  - Motivation: increasing performance, increasing fault tolerance

Both the techniques are mutually orthogonal

• I.e. we can use either of them, or combine them both

#### **Distribution model**

= specific way how sharding and replication is implemented
 NoSQL systems often offer automatic sharding and replication

Sharding (horizontal partitioning)

- Placement of different data on different nodes
  - What different data means? Usually aggregates
    - E.g. key-value pairs, documents, ...
  - Related pieces of data that are accessed together should also be kept together
    - Specifically, operations involving data on multiple shards should be avoided (if possible)

The questions are...

- how to design aggregate structures?
- how to actually distribute these aggregates?



Source: Sadalage, Pramod J. - Fowler, Martin: NoSQL Distilled. Pearson Education, Inc., 2013.

Objectives

- Achieve uniform data distribution
- Achieve balanced workload (read and write requests)
- Respect physical locations
  - E.g. different data centers for users around the world

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Unfortunately, these objectives...

- may mutually contradict each other
- may change in time

So, how to actually determine shards for aggregates?

#### **Sharding strategies**

- Based on <u>mapping structures</u>
  - Data is placed on shards in a random fashion
    - E.g. round-robin, ...
  - Knowledge of the mapping of individual aggregates to particular shards must then be maintained
    - Thus usually maintained using a centralized index structures with all the disadvantages
- Based on general rules
  - Each shard is responsible for storing certain data
  - Hash partitioning, range partitioning, ...

### Why is sharding difficult?

- Not only we need to be able to determine particular shards during write requests
  - I.e. when a new aggregate is about to be inserted
  - So that we can actually make a decision where it should be physically stored
- but also during read requests
  - I.e. when existing aggregate/s are about to be retrieved
  - So that we can actually find and return them efficiently (or detect they are missing)
  - And all that <u>only based on the search criteria provided</u> (e.g. key, id, ...) unless all the nodes should be accessed

Why is sharding even more difficult?

- Structure of the cluster may be changing
  - Nodes can be added or removed
- Nodes may have incomplete / obsolete cluster knowledge
  - Nodes involved, their responsibilities, sharding rules, ...
- Individual nodes may be failing
- Network may be partitioned
  - Messages may not be delivered even though sent

#### Replication

- Placement of multiple copies of the same data (replicas) on different nodes
- Replication factor = number of such copies

Two approaches

- Master-slave architecture
- Peer-to-peer architecture

#### **Master-Slave Architecture**



Source: Sadalage, Pramod J. - Fowler, Martin: NoSQL Distilled. Pearson Education, Inc., 2013.

**Master-Slave Architecture** 

#### Architecture

- One node is primary (master), all the other secondary (slave)
- Master node bears all the management responsibility
- All the nodes contain identical data

### Read requests can be handled by both the master or slaves

- Suitable for read-intensive applications
  - More read requests to deal with → more slaves to deploy
- When the master fails, read operations can still be handled

**Master-Slave Architecture** 

#### Write requests can only be handled by the master

- Newly written replicas are propagated to all the slaves
- <u>Consistency issue</u>
  - Luckily enough, at most one write request is handled at a time
  - But the propagation still takes some time during which obsolete reads might happen
  - Hence certain synchronization is required to avoid conflicts
- In case of master failure, a new one needs to be appointed Manually (user-defined) or automatically (cluster-elected) Since the nodes are identical, appointment can be fast
  - Master might therefore represent a **bottleneck** (because of the performance or failures)

#### **Peer-to-Peer Architecture**



Source: Sadalage, Pramod J. - Fowler, Martin: NoSQL Distilled. Pearson Education, Inc., 2013.

**Peer-to-Peer Architecture** 

### Architecture

- All the nodes have equal roles and responsibilities
- All the nodes contain identical data once again

Both read and write requests can be handled by any node

- No bottleneck, no single point of failure
- Both the operations scale well
  - More requests to deal with  $\rightarrow$  more nodes to deploy
- <u>Consistency issues</u>
  - Unfortunately, multiple write requests can be initiated independently and being executed at the same time
  - Hence synchronization is required to avoid conflicts

Observations with respect to the replication:

- Does the replication factor really need to correspond to the number of nodes?
  - No, replication factor of 3 will often be the right choice
  - Consequences
    - Nodes will no longer contain identical data
    - Replica placement strategy will be needed
- Do all the replicas really need to be successfully written when write requests are handled?
  - No, but consistency issues have to be tackled carefully
- Sharding and replication can be combined... but how?

#### **Sharding and Master-Slave Replication**

master for two shards



#### slave for two shards



#### master for one shard





master for one shard and slave for a shard



slave for two shards



slave for one shard

Source: Sadalage, Pramod J. - Fowler, Martin: NoSQL Distilled. Pearson Education, Inc., 2013.

**Sharding and Peer-to-Peer Replication** 



Source: Sadalage, Pramod J. - Fowler, Martin: NoSQL Distilled. Pearson Education, Inc., 2013.

Combinations of sharding and replication

- Sharding + master-slave replication
  - Multiple masters, each for different data
  - Roles of the nodes can overlap
    - Each node can be master for some data and/or slave for other

#### Sharding + peer-to-peer replication

 Basically placement of anything anywhere (although certain rules can still be applied)

Questions to figure out for any distribution model

- Can all the nodes serve both read and write requests?
- Which replica placement strategy is used?
- How the mapping of replicas is maintained?
- What level of consistency and availability is provided?
- What extent of infrastructure knowledge do the nodes have?

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## **CAP** Theorem

## **CAP** Theorem

Assumptions

- Distributed system with sharding and replication
- Read and write operations on a single aggregate only

### **CAP** properties

- Properties of a distributed system
- <u>Consistency</u>, <u>Availability</u>, and <u>Partition</u> tolerance

### **CAP theorem**

It is not possible to have a distributed system that would guarantee **consistency**, **availability**, and **partition tolerance** at the same time. Only 2 of these 3 properties can be enforced.

But, what these properties actually mean?

### **CAP Properties**

### Consistency

### Read and write operations must be executed atomically

A bit more formally...

There must exist a total order on all operations such that each operation looks as if it was completed at a single instant, i.e. as if all the operations were executed sequentially one by one on a single standalone node

Practical consequence:

#### after a write operation, all readers see the same data

 Since any node can be used for handling of read requests, atomicity of write operations means that changes must be propagated to all the replicas

 As we will see later on, other ways for such a strong consistency exist as well

### **CAP Properties**

### Availability

#### • If a node is working, it must respond to user requests

A bit more formally...

Every read or write request successfully <u>received</u> by a non-failing node in the system must result in a response, i.e. their execution must not be rejected

#### Partition tolerance

- System continues to operate even when two or more sets of nodes get isolated
  - A bit more formally...
    The network is allowed to lose arbitrarily many messages sent from one node to another
- I.e. a connection failure must not shut the whole system down

## **CAP Theorem Consequences**

If at most two properties can be guaranteed...

- CA = consistency + availability
  - Traditional ACID properties are easy to achieve
  - Examples: RDBMS, Google BigTable
  - Any single-node system, but even clusters (at least in theory)
    - However, should the network partition happen, all the nodes must be forced to stop accepting user requests
- CP = consistency + partition tolerance
  - Other examples: distributed locking
- AP = availability + partition tolerance
  - New concept of BASE properties
  - Examples: Apache Cassandra, Apache CouchDB
  - Other examples: web caching, DNS

## **CAP Theorem Consequences**

#### Partition tolerance is necessary in clusters

- Why?
  - Because it is difficult to detect network failures
- Does it mean that only purely CP and AP systems are possible?
- No...
- The real meaning of the CAP theorem:
  - The real-world does not need to be just black and white
  - **Partition tolerance** is a must, but we can **trade off consistency versus availability** 
    - Just a little bit relaxed consistency can bring a lot of availability
    - Such trade-offs are not only possible, but often work very well in practice

## **ACID Properties**

### Traditional ACID properties

- <u>A</u>tomicity
  - Partial execution of transactions is not allowed (all or nothing)
- <u>Consistency</u>
  - Transactions bring the database from one consistent (valid) state to another
- Isolation
  - Transactions executed in parallel do not see uncommitted effects of each other
- Durability
  - Effects of committed transactions must remain durable

### **BASE Properties**

New concept of **BASE** properties

- Basically Available
  - The system works basically all the time
  - Partial failures can occur, but there are no total system failures
- <u>Soft State</u>
  - The system is in flux (unstable), non-deterministic state
  - Changes occur all the time
- Eventual Consistency
  - Sooner or later the system will be in some consistent state

BASE is just a vague term, no formal definition was provided

 Proposed to illustrate design philosophies at the opposite ends of the consistency-availability spectrum

## **ACID and BASE**

### ACID

- Choose <u>consistency over availability</u>
- Pessimistic approach
- Implemented by traditional relational databases

### BASE

- Choose <u>availability over consistency</u>
- Optimistic approach
- Common in NoSQL databases
- Allows levels of scalability that cannot be acquired with ACID

Current trend in NoSQL:

strong consistency  $\rightarrow$  eventual consistency

## Consistency

# Consistency

Consistency in general...

- Consistency is the lack of contradiction in the database
- However, it has many facets...
  - For example, we only assume atomic operations always manipulating just a single aggregate, but set operations could also be considered etc.

**Strong consistency** is achievable even in clusters, but **eventual consistency** might often be sufficient

- One minute obsolete article on a news portal does not matter
- Even when an already unavailable hotel room is booked once again, the situation can still be figured out in the real world

### **Lecture Conclusion**

There is a wide range of options influencing...

- Scalability how well the entire system scales?
- Availability when nodes may refuse to handle user requests?
- Consistency what level of consistency is required?
- Latency how long does it take to handle user requests?
- Durability is the committed data written reliably?
- Resilience can the data be recovered in case of failures?
- $\Rightarrow$  it's good to know these properties and choose the right trade-off

Xpath & XQuery