

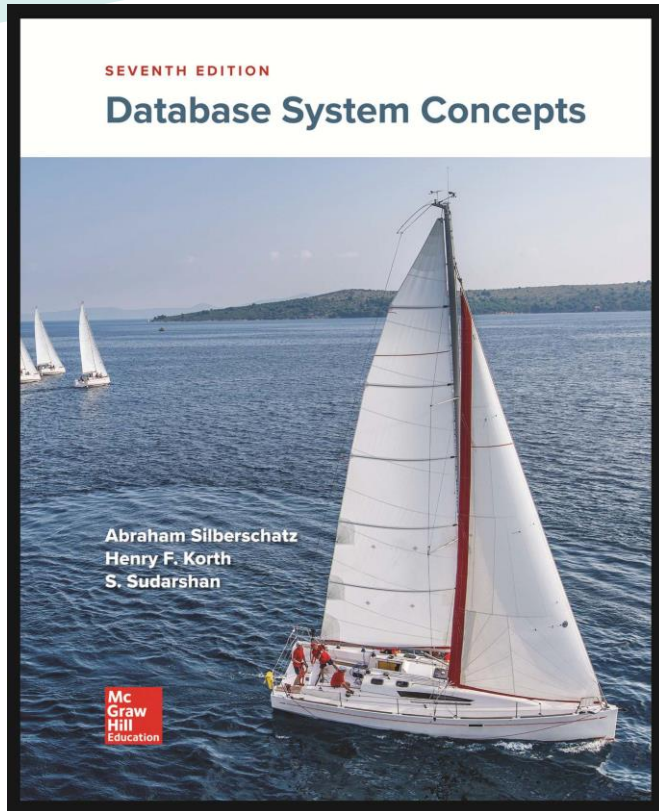
IF3140 Sistem Basis Data

# Database System Architectures

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KNOWLEDGE & SOFTWARE ENGINEERING

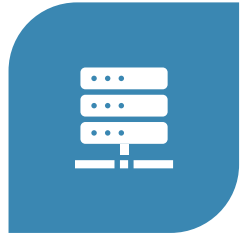


## *References*

Abraham Silberschatz, Henry F. Korth, S. Sudarshan : “**Database System Concepts**”, 7<sup>th</sup> Edition

- Chapter 20 : Database System Architecture

# *Database System Architectures*



CENTRALIZED  
AND CLIENT-  
SERVER SYSTEMS



SERVER SYSTEM  
ARCHITECTURES



PARALLEL  
SYSTEMS



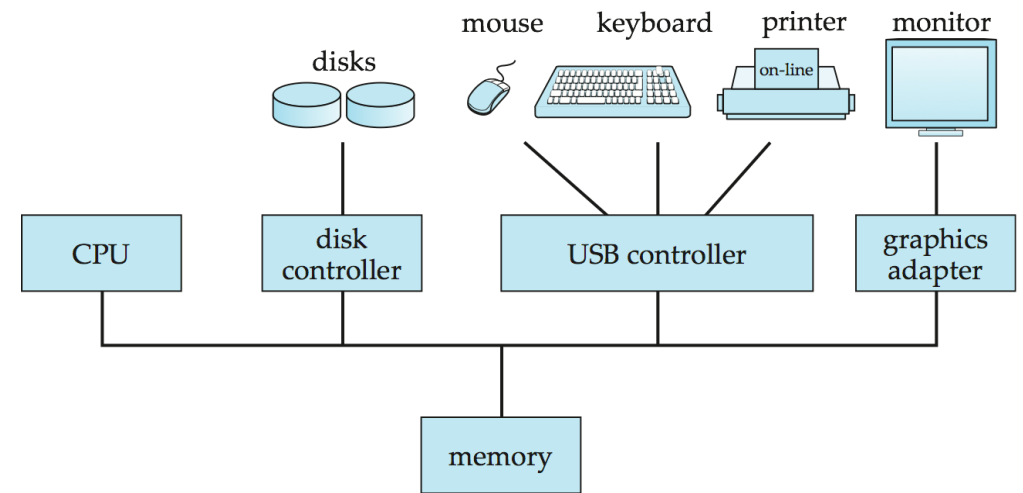
DISTRIBUTED  
SYSTEMS



NETWORK TYPES

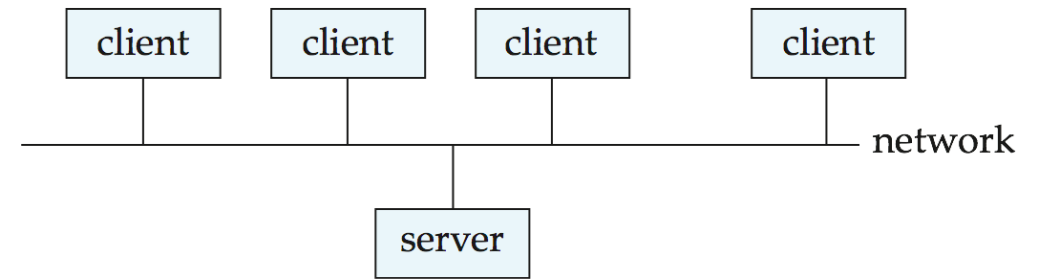
# ***1. Centralized Systems***

- General-purpose computer system: one to a few CPUs and a number of device controllers that are connected through a common bus that provides access to shared memory.
- Single-user system (e.g., personal computer or workstation): desk-top unit, single user, usually has only one CPU and one or two hard 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 via terminals. Often called server systems.



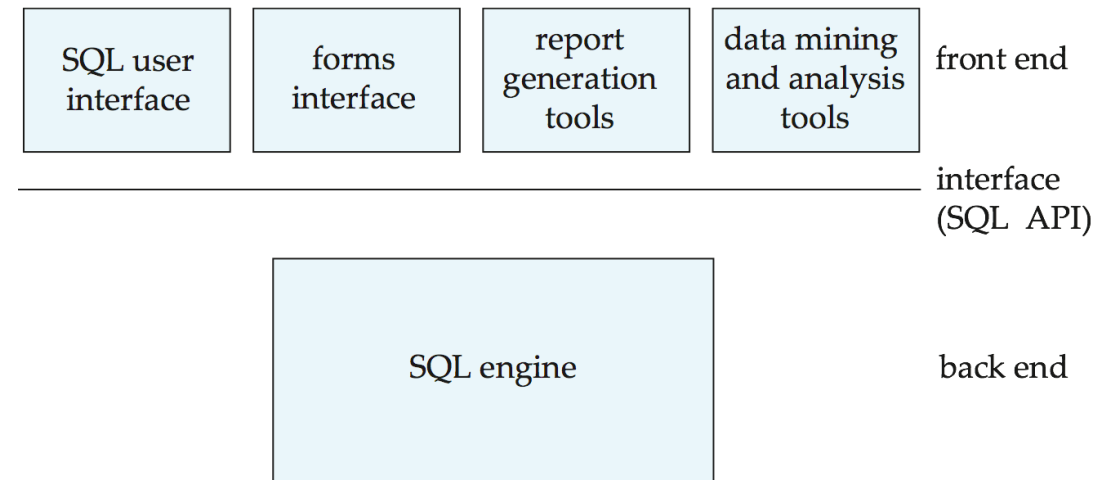
## 2. *Client-Server Systems*

- Server systems satisfy requests generated at  $m$  client systems, whose general structure is shown.



# *Client-Server Systems (Cont.)*

- 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.



# *Client-Server Systems (Cont.)*

- Advantages of replacing mainframes with networks of workstations or personal computers connected to back-end server machines:
  - better functionality for the cost
  - flexibility in locating resources and expanding facilities
  - better user interfaces
  - easier maintenance

# *Server System Architecture*

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





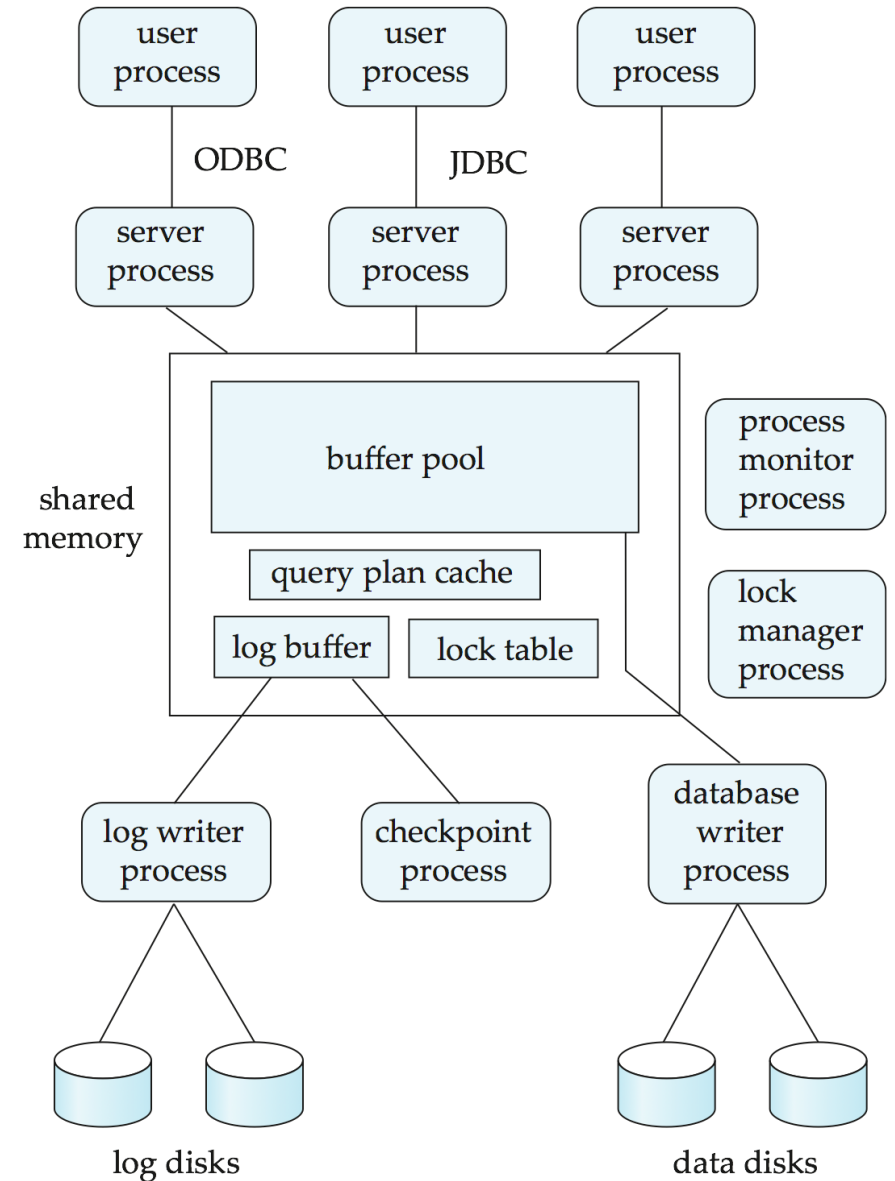
# *Server System Architecture*

## *Transaction Servers*

- Also called **query server** systems or SQL server systems
  - 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.

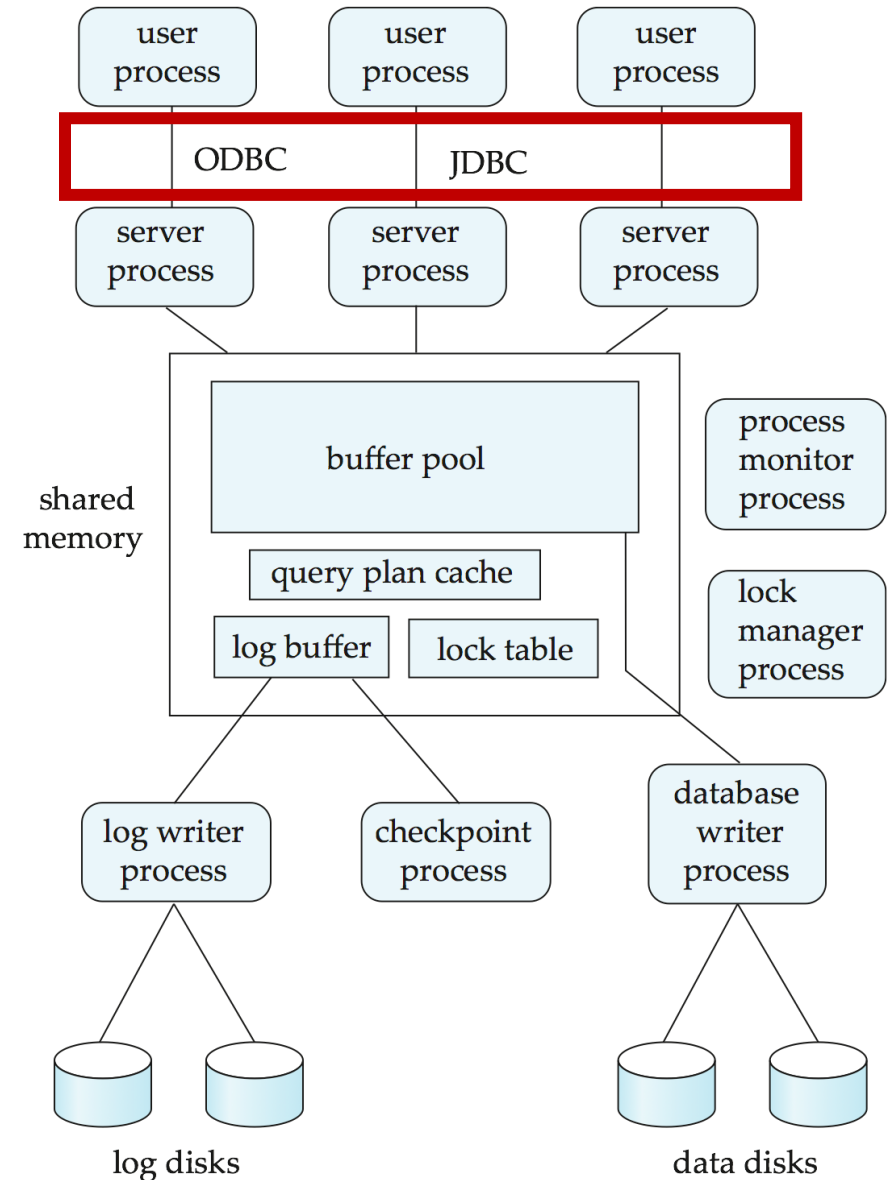


# *Transaction System Processes*



- Open Database Connectivity (ODBC) is a C language 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

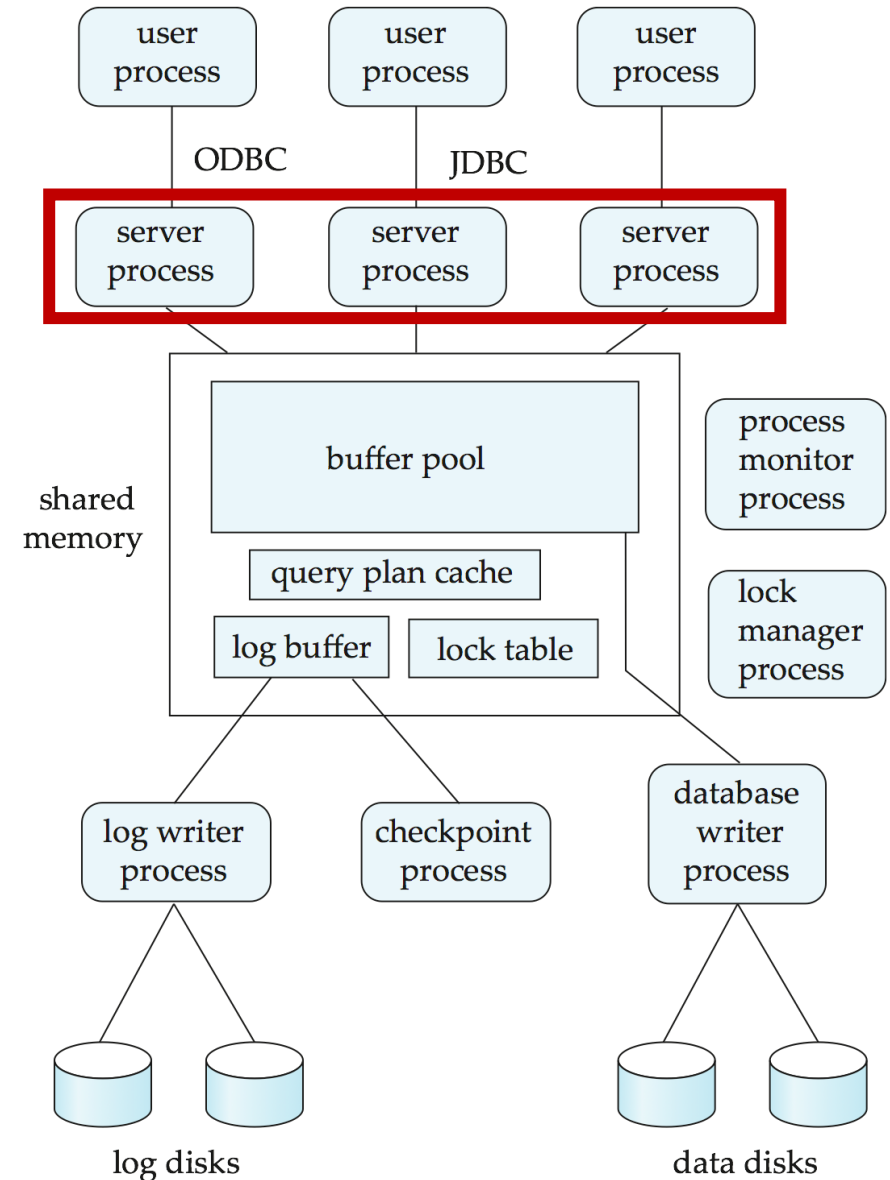
# Transaction System Processes



# Transaction System Processes

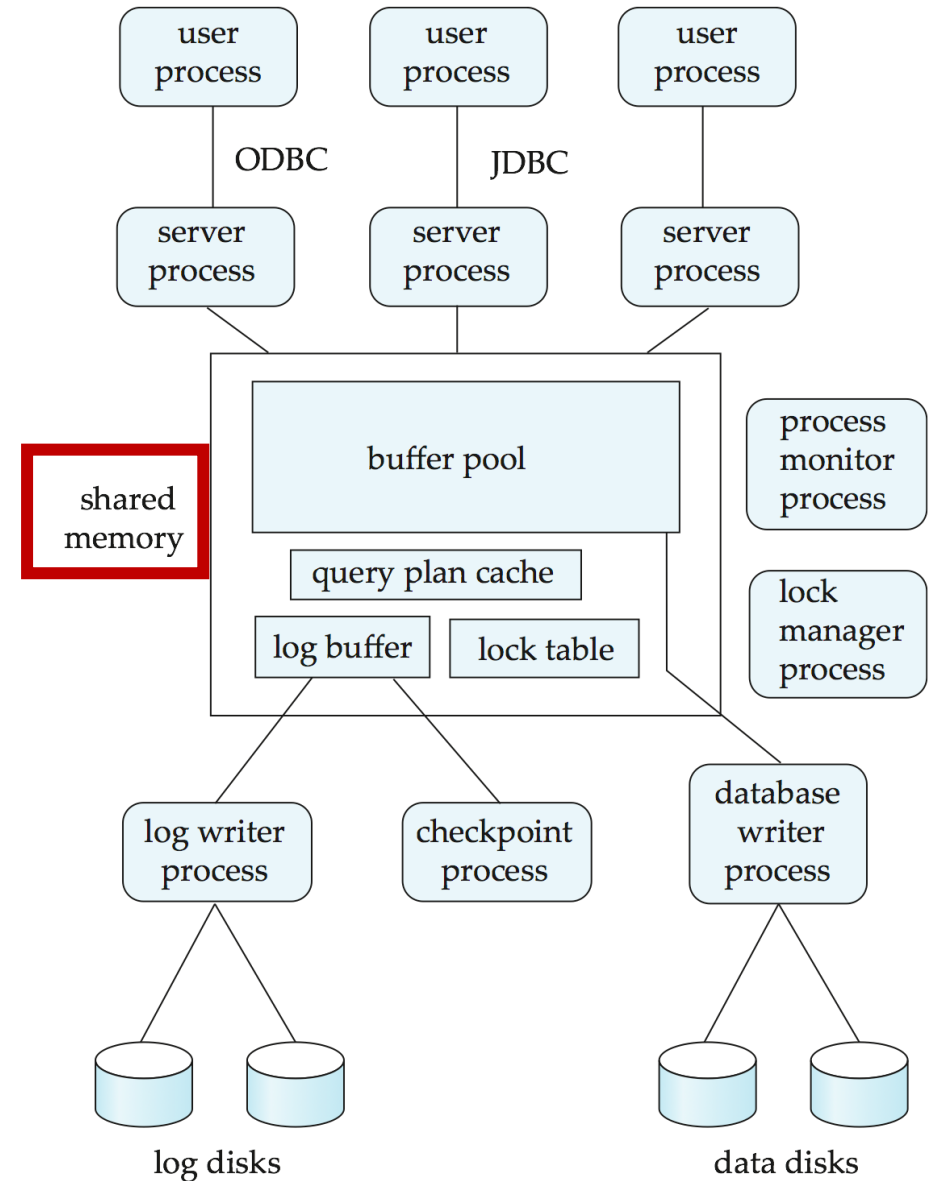
## Server processes

- These 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



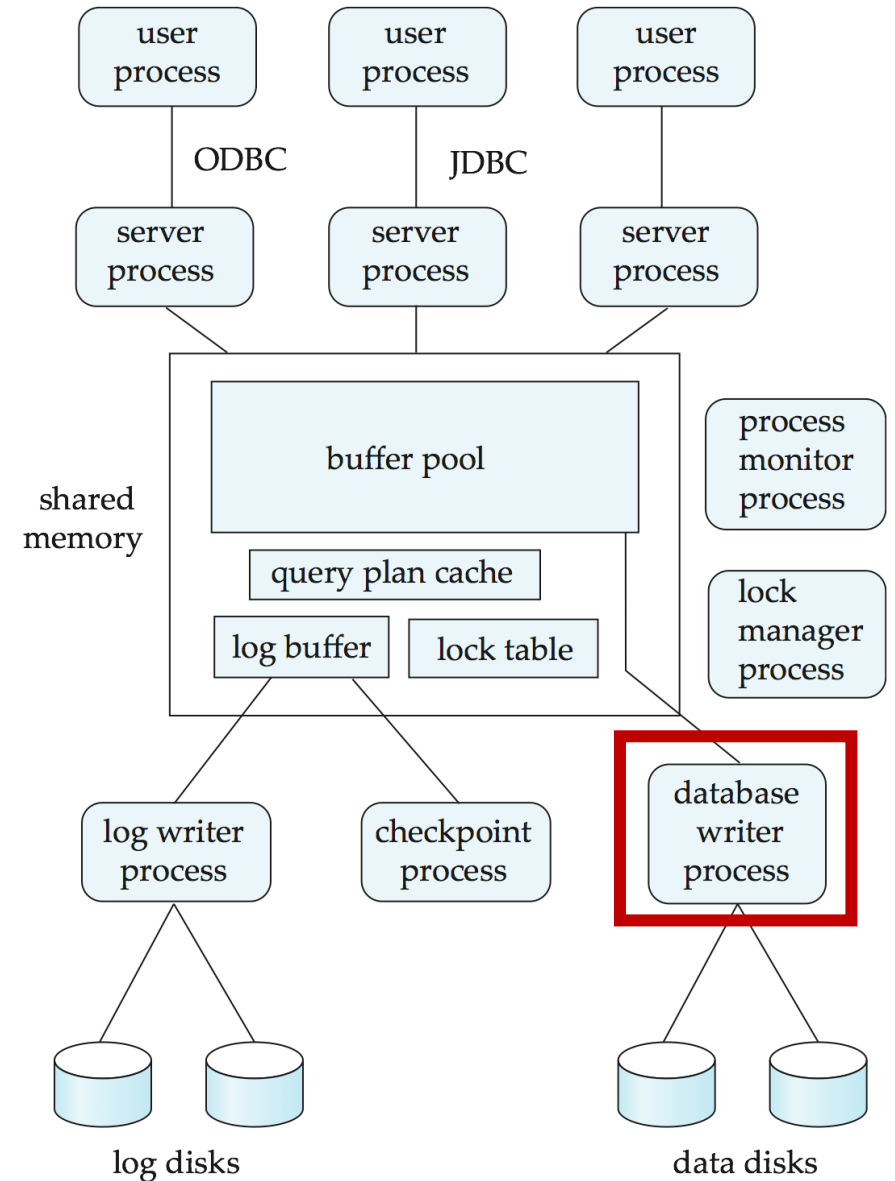
# Transaction System Processes

A typical transaction server consists of multiple processes accessing data in shared memory.



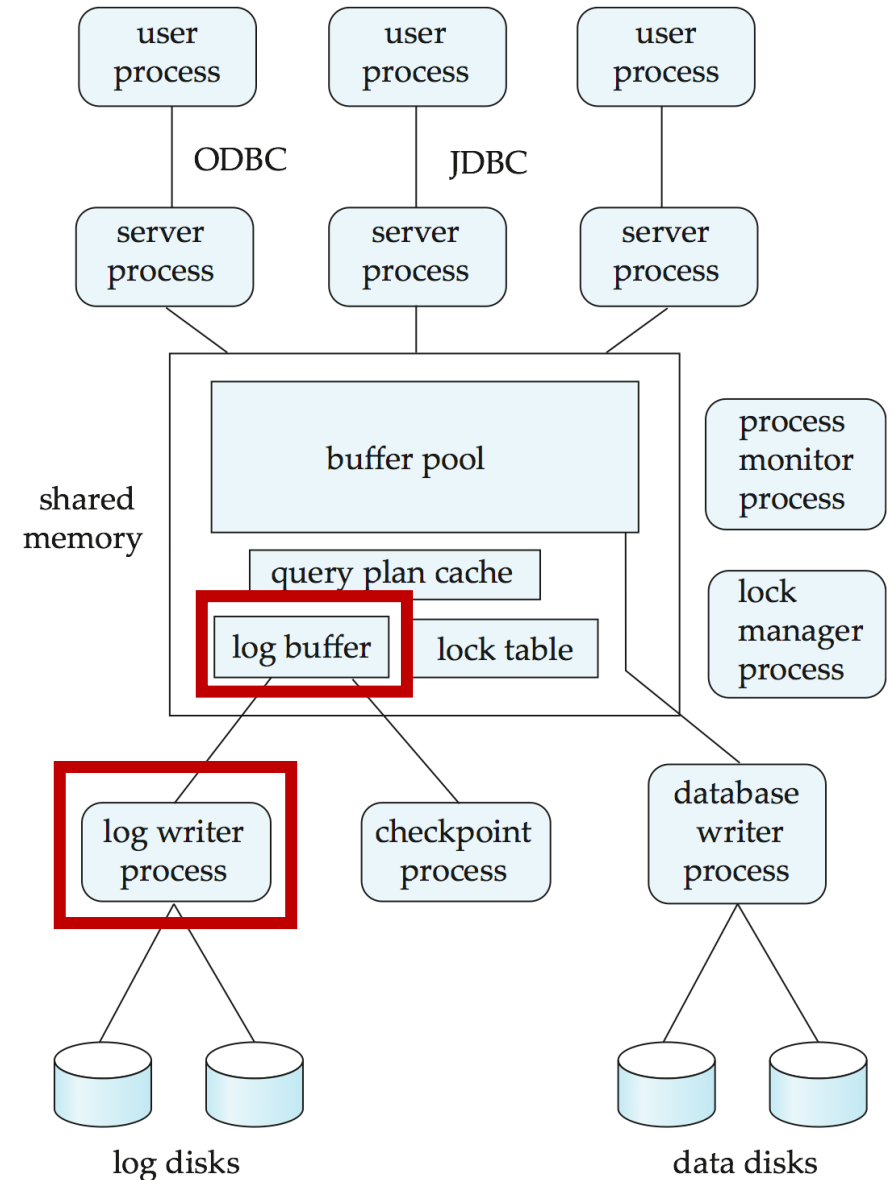
# *Transaction System Processes*

Output modified buffer blocks to disks  
continually



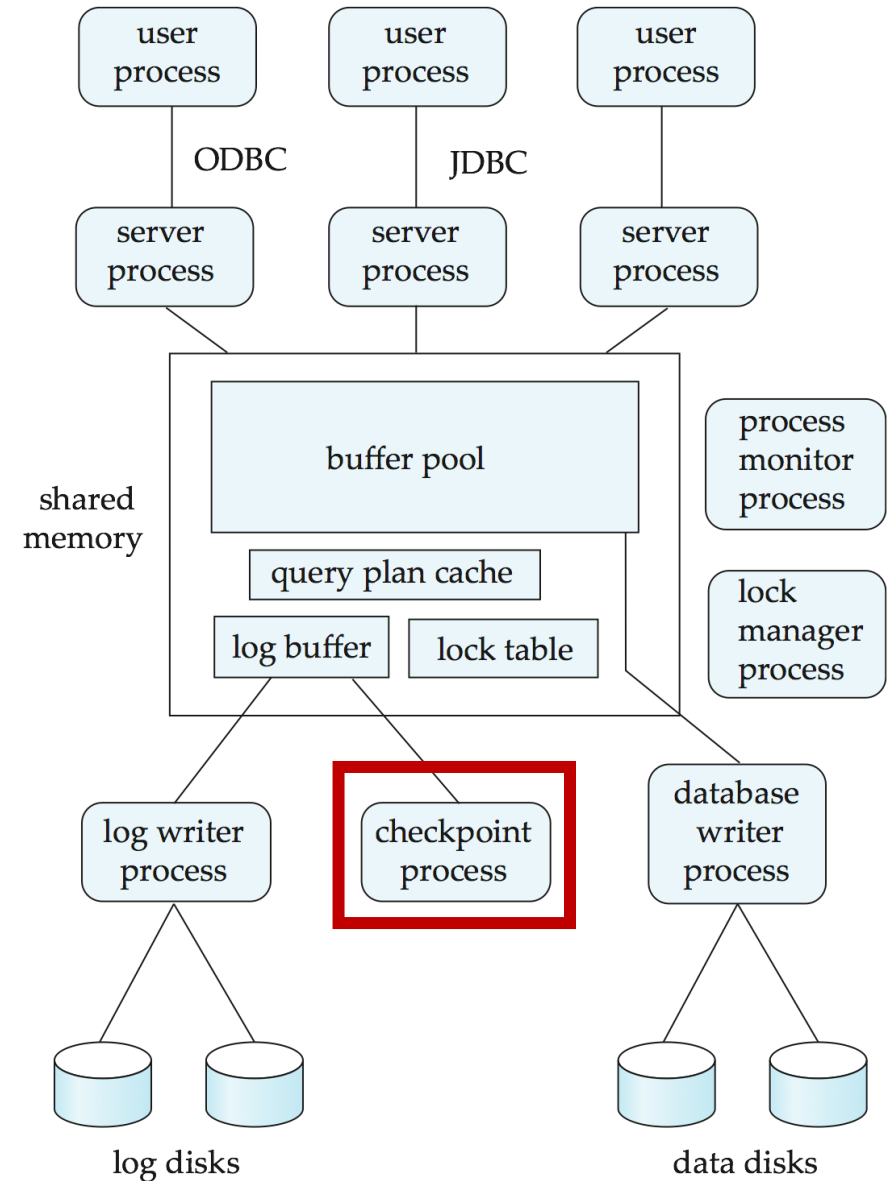
# Transaction System Processes

- Server processes simply add log records to log record buffer
- Log writer process outputs log records to stable storage.



# Transaction System Processes

Performs periodic checkpoints

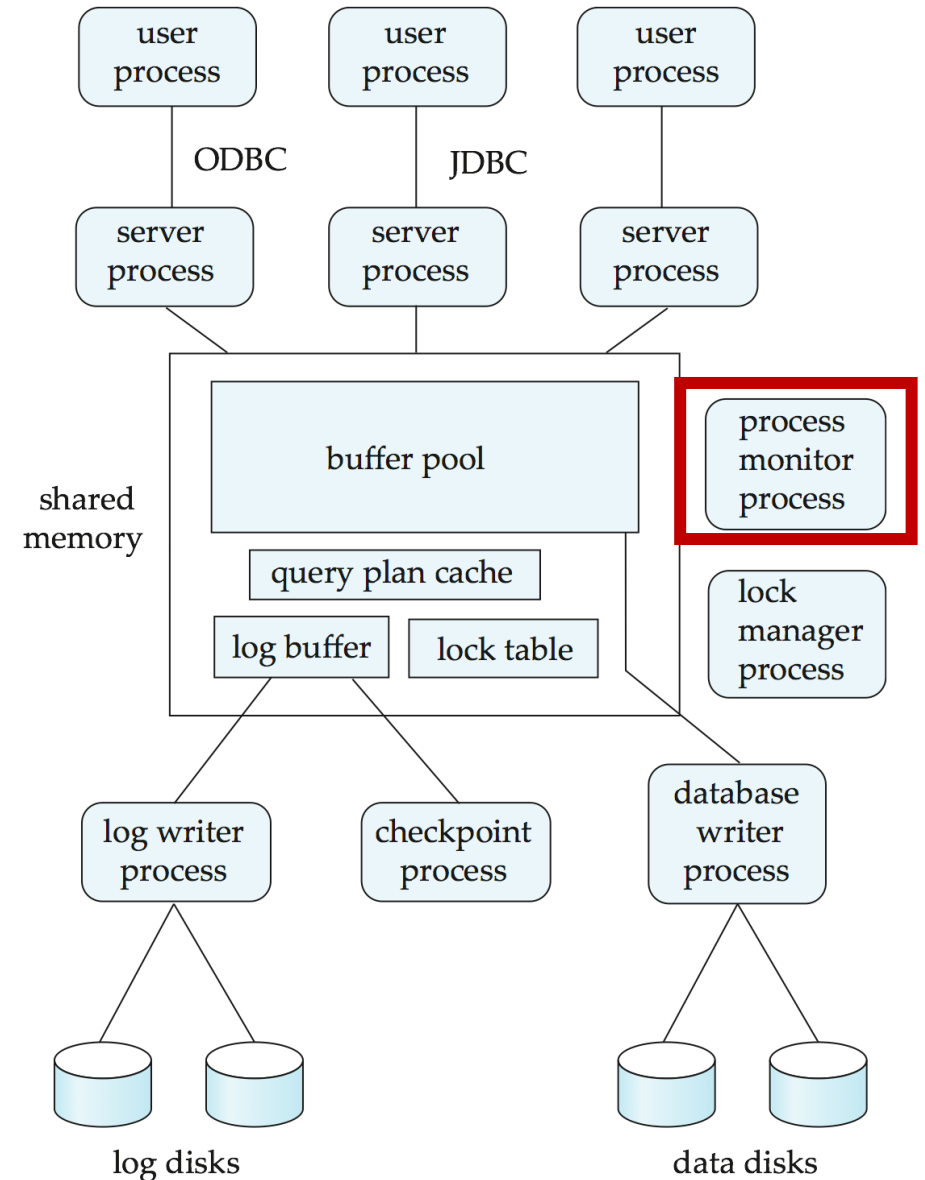




# Transaction System Processes

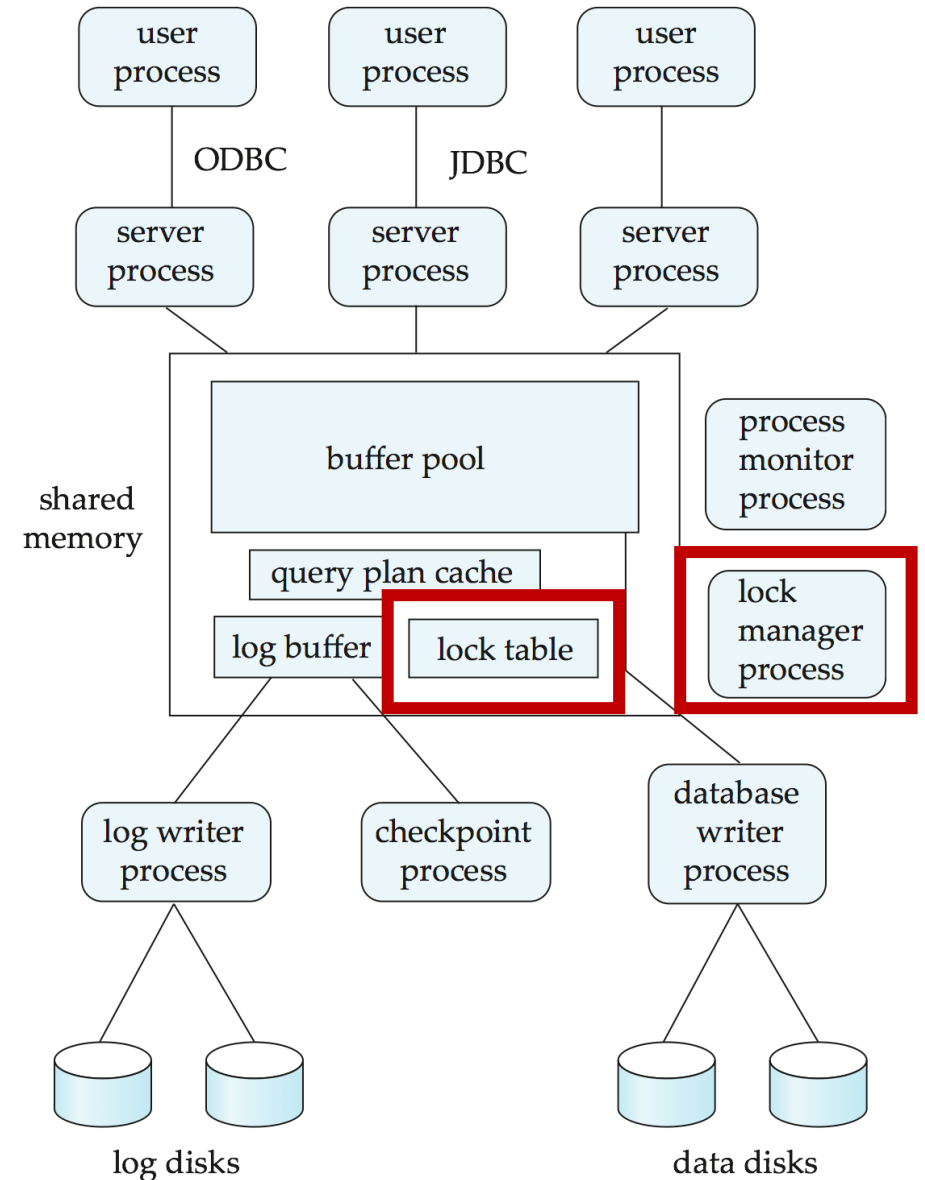
Monitors other processes, and takes recovery actions if any of the other processes fail

- E.g., aborting any transactions being executed by a server process and restarting it



# Transaction System Processes

- To avoid overhead of interprocess communication for lock request/grant, each database process operates directly on the lock table (instead of sending requests to lock manager process)
- Lock manager process still used for deadlock detection



# *Server System Architecture*

## *Data Servers*

- Used in high-speed LANs, in cases where
  - The clients are comparable in processing power to the server
  - The tasks to be executed are compute intensive.
- Data are shipped to clients where processing is performed, and then shipped results back to the server.
- This architecture requires full back-end functionality at the clients.
- Used in many object-oriented database systems
- Issues:
  - Page-Shipping versus Item-Shipping
  - Locking
  - Data Caching
  - Lock Caching



# ***Data Servers (Cont.)***

- **Page-shipping** versus **item-shipping**
  - Smaller unit of shipping  $\Rightarrow$  more messages
  - Worth **prefetching** related items along with requested item
  - Page shipping can be thought of as a form of prefetching
- Locking
  - Overhead of requesting and getting locks from server is high due to message delays
  - Can grant locks on requested and prefetched items; with page shipping, transaction is granted lock on whole page.
  - Locks on a prefetched item can be called back by the server, and returned by client transaction if the prefetched item has not been used.
  - Locks on the page can be **deescalated** to locks on items in the page when there are lock conflicts. Locks on unused items can then be returned to server.



# ***Data Servers (Cont.)***

- **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 coherency**)
- Check can be done when requesting lock on data item

- **Lock Caching**

- 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.
- Similar to deescalation, but across transactions.



### ***3. 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



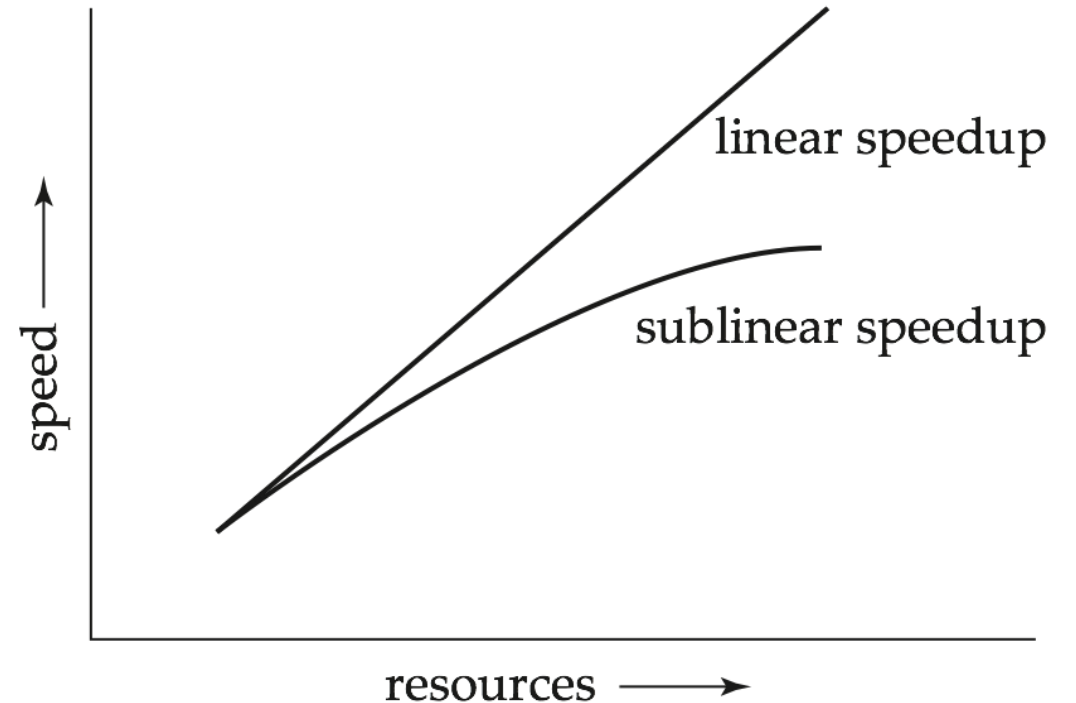
# Speedup

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

Measured by:

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

Speedup is **linear** if equation equals  $N$ .



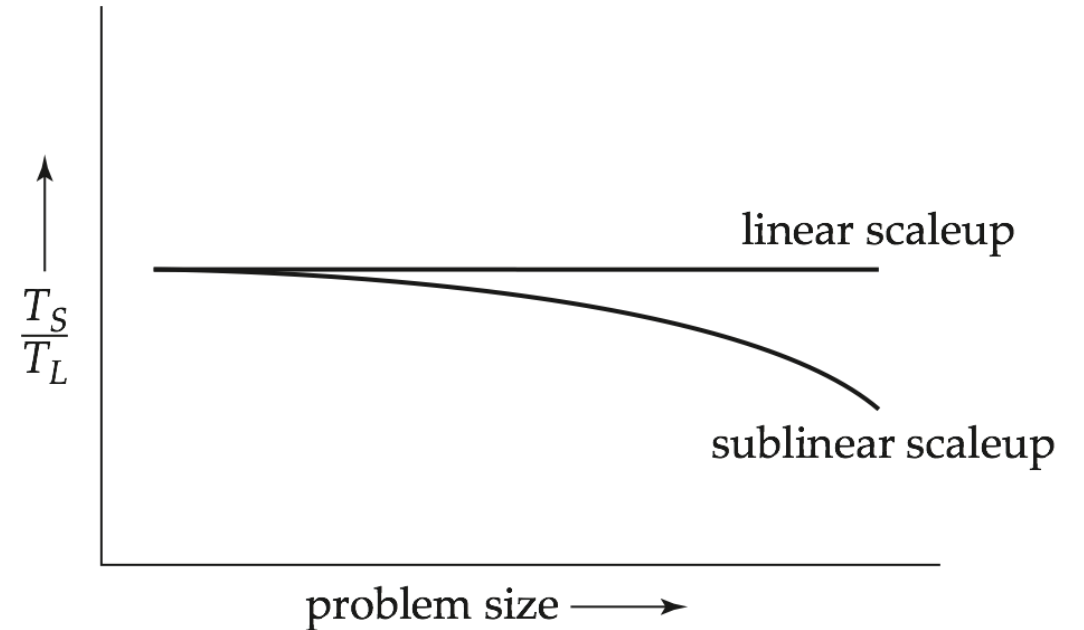
# Scaleup

**Scaleup:** increase the size of both the problem and the system.  $N$ -times larger system used to perform  $N$ -times larger job

Measured by:

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

Scale up is **linear** if equation equals 1.





# ***Batch and Transaction Scaleup***

- **Batch scaleup:**

- A single large job; typical of most decision support queries and scientific simulation.
- 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 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.



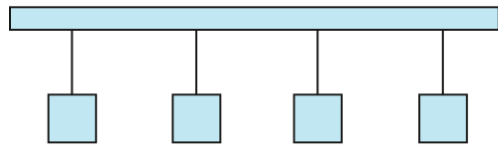
# ***Factors Limiting Speedup and Scaleup***

Speedup and scaleup are often sublinear due to:

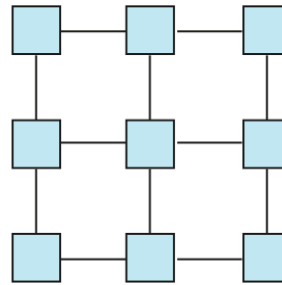
- **Startup costs**: Cost of starting up multiple processes may dominate computation time, if the degree of parallelism is high.
- **Interference**: Processes accessing shared resources (e.g., system bus, disks, or locks) compete with each other, thus spending time waiting on other processes, rather than performing useful work.
- **Skew**: Increasing the degree of parallelism increases the variance in service times of parallelly executing tasks. Overall execution time determined by **slowest** of parallelly executing tasks.



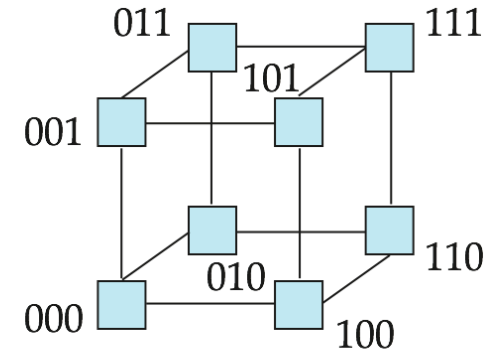
# *Interconnection Network Architectures*



(a) bus



(b) mesh



(c) hypercube

**Bus.** System components send data on and receive data from a single communication bus;

- Does not scale well with increasing parallelism.

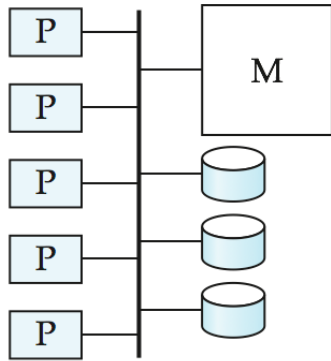
**Mesh.** Components are arranged as nodes in a grid, and each component is connected to all adjacent components

- Communication links grow with growing number of components, and so scales better.
- But may require  $2(\sqrt{n}-1)$  hops to send message to a node (or  $\sqrt{n}$  with wraparound connections at edge of grid).

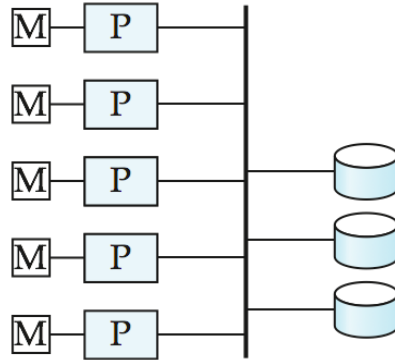
**Hypercube.** Components are numbered in binary; components are connected to one another if their binary representations differ in exactly one bit.

- $n$  components are connected to  $\log(n)$  other components and can reach each other via at most  $\log(n)$  links; reduces communication delays.

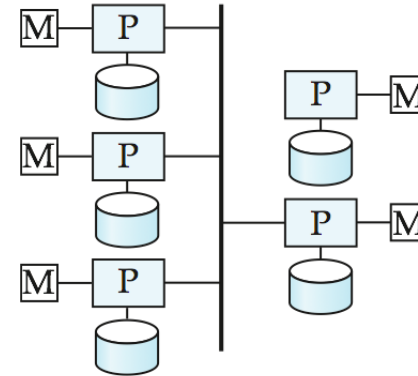
# *Parallel Database Architectures*



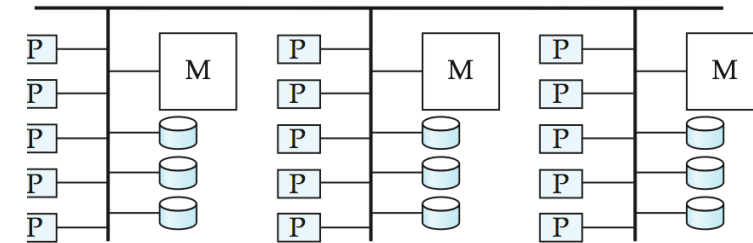
(a) shared memory



(b) shared disk



(c) shared nothing



(d) hierarchical

**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 and disks have access to a common memory, typically via a bus or through an interconnection network.
- Extremely efficient communication between processors — data in shared memory can be accessed by any processor without having to move it using software.
- Downside – architecture is not scalable beyond 32 or 64 processors since the bus or the interconnection network becomes a bottleneck
- Widely used for lower degrees of parallelism (4 to 8).



# ***Parallel Database Architectures***

## ***Shared Disk***

- 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 can scale to a somewhat larger number of processors, but communication between processors is slower.



# ***Parallel Database Architectures***

## ***Shared Nothing***

- Node consists of a processor, memory, and one or more disks. Processors at one node communicate with another processor at another node using an interconnection network. A node functions as the server for the data on the disk or disks the node owns.
- Examples: Teradata, Tandem, Oracle-n CUBE
- Data accessed from local disks (and local memory accesses) do not pass through interconnection network, thereby minimizing the interference of resource sharing.
- Shared-nothing multiprocessors can be scaled up to thousands of processors without interference.
- Main drawback: cost of communication and non-local disk access; sending data involves software interaction at both ends.



# ***Parallel Database Architectures***

## ***Hierarchical***

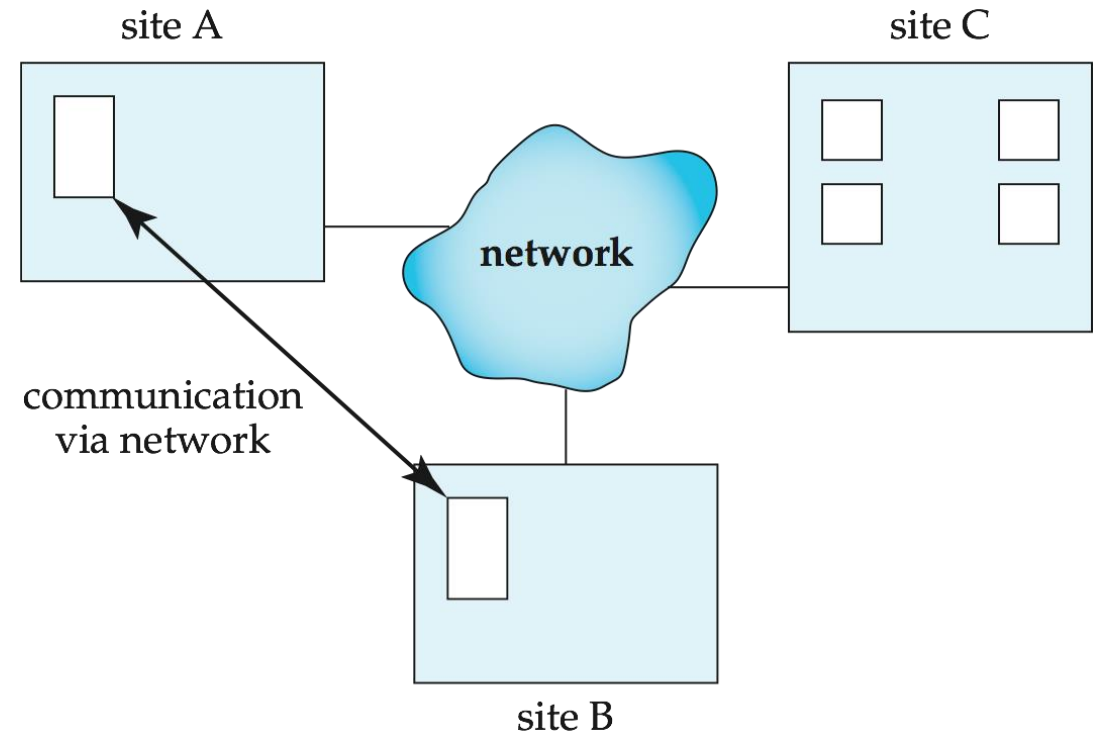
- Combines characteristics of shared-memory, shared-disk, and shared-nothing architectures.
- Top level is a shared-nothing architecture – nodes connected by an interconnection network, and do not share disks or memory with each other.
- Each node of the system could be a shared-memory system with a 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
  - Also called **non-uniform memory architecture (NUMA)**





# 4. *Distributed Systems*

- Data spread over multiple machines (also referred to as **sites** or **nodes**).
- Network interconnects the machines
- Data shared by users on multiple 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



# ***Distributed Databases (cont.)***

- 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*

## Advantage:

- Sharing data – users at one site able to access the data residing at some other sites.
- Autonomy – each site is able to retain a degree of control over data stored locally.
- Higher system availability through redundancy — data can be replicated at remote sites, and system can function even if a site fails.

## Disadvantage:

- added complexity required to ensure proper coordination among sites.
  - Software development cost.
  - Greater potential for bugs.
  - Increased processing overhead.

# *Implementation Issues for Distributed Databases*

- Atomicity needed even 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
- Details of above in Chapter 19



# ***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.

