

### UMD DATA605 - Big Data Systems

### **NoSQL** Databases

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- Online tutorials
- Silbershatz Chap 10.2
- High-level view:
  - Seven Databases in Seven Weeks, 2e





### From SQL to NoSQL

#### DBs are central tools to big data

- New applications, new data/storage constraints
- ~2000s NoSQL "movement" started
  - Initially "No SQL"  $\rightarrow$  then "Not Only SQL"



- Different worldviews
- Schema vs schema-less
- Rich vs fast query ability
- Strong consistency (ACID), weak, eventual consistency
- APIs (SQL, JS, REST)
- Horizontal vs vertical scaling, sharding, replication
- Indexing (for rapid lookups) vs no indexing
- Tuned for reads or writes, control over tuning

#### • User base/applications have expanded

- IMO Postgres + Mongo cover 99% of use cases
- Data scientists/engineers need familiarity with both
- "Which DB solves my problem best?"
- Polyglot model
  - Use more than one DB per project
- Relational DBs won't disappear soon



### **Issues with Relational Dbs**

- Relational DBs have drawbacks
  - 1 Application-DB impedance mismatch
  - 2 Schema flexibility
  - 3 Consistency in distributed set-up
  - 4 Limited scalability
- For each drawback:
  - Problem
  - Solutions
    - Within relational SQL paradigm
    - With NoSQL approach



### 1 App-DB Impedance Mismatch: Problem

- Mismatch between data representation in code and relational DB
  - Code uses:
    - Data structures (e.g., lists, dictionaries, sets)
    - Objects
  - Relational DB uses:
    - Tables (entities)
    - Rows (instances of entities)
    - Relationships between tables
- Example of app-DB mismatch:
  - Application stores a Python map: # Store a dictionary from name (string) to tags (list of strings). tag\_dict: Dict[str, List[str]]
  - Relational DB needs 3 tables:
    - Names(<u>nameld</u>, name) for keys
    - Tags(tagld, tag) for values
    - Names\_To\_Tags(<u>nameld</u>, tagld) to map keys to values
  - Denormalize using a single table:
    - Names(name, tag)



## 1 App-DB Impedance Mismatch: Solutions

- Ad-hoc mapping layer
  - Translate objects and data structures into DB model
    - E.g., implement a layer for "Name to Tags" storage
    - Code uses a simple map, but DB has 3 tables
  - Cons
    - · Need to write and maintain code
- Object-relational mapping (ORM)
  - Pros
    - Automatic data conversion between object code and DB
    - E.g., implement Person object using DB
    - . E.g., SQLAlchemy for Python and SQL
  - Cons
    - · Complex types (e.g., struct), polymorphism, inheritance
- NoSQL approach
  - No schema
    - Objects can be flat or complex (e.g., nested JSON)
    - Stored objects (documents) can vary



# 2 Schema Flexibility

#### Problem

- Data may not fit neatly into a schema
- E.g., nested or dishomogeneous data (e.g., List[Obj])

#### Within relational DB

- Use a general schema for all cases
- Cons
  - Complicated schema with implicit relations
  - Sparse DB tables
  - Violates basic relational DB assumptions

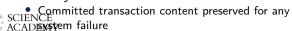
#### NoSQL approach

- E.g., MongoDB does not enforce schema
- Pros
  - · No schema concerns when writing data
- Cons
  - Handle various schemas during data processing
  - Related to ETL vs ELT data pipelines



# 3 Consistency in Relational DBs

- All systems fail
  - Application error (e.g., corner case, internal error)
  - Application crash (e.g., OS issue)
  - Hardware failure (e.g., RAM ECC error, disk)
  - Power failure
- Relational DBs enforce ACID properties
  - Guarantee for any system failure
- Atomicity
  - Transactions are "all or nothing"
  - Transaction (with multiple statements) succeeds completely or fails
- Consistency
  - Transaction brings DB from valid state to another
  - Maintain DB invariants (primary, foreign key constraints)
- Isolation
  - Concurrent transactions yield same result as sequential execution
- Durability





Application error



Hardware failure

# 3 Consistency in Distributed DB

- Scale data or clients → distributed setup
- Goals:
  - Performance (e.g., transactions per second)
  - Availability (e.g., up-time guarantee)
  - Fault-tolerance (recover from faults)
- Achieving ACID consistency:
  - Not easy in single DB
    - E.g., Postgres guarantees ACID
    - E.g., MongoDB doesn't
  - Impossible in distributed DB
    - Due to CAP theorem
    - · Even weak consistency is difficult

A = Atomicity

C = Consistency

I = Isolation

D = Durability



#### **CAP Theorem**

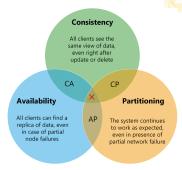
- CAP theorem: Any distributed DB can have at most two of the following three properties
  - Consistent
    - All clients see the same data
    - Writes are atomic and subsequent reads retrieve the new value
  - Available: Returns a value if a single server is running
  - Partition tolerant: System works even if communication is temporarily lost (network partitioned)
- Originally a conjecture (Eric Brewer)
- Made formal later (Gilbert, Lynch, 2002)





# **CAP Corollary**

- CAP Theorem: pick 2 among consistency, availability, partition tolerance
- Network partitions cannot be prevented in large-scale distributed systems
  - Minimize failure probability using redundancy and fault-tolerance
- Sacrifice either:
  - Availability (allow system downtime)
    - E.g., banking system
  - Consistency (allow different system views)
    - É.g., social network

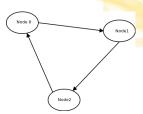


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### **CAP Theorem: Intuition**

- Imagine:
  - Client (Node0)
  - Two DB replicas (Node1, Node2)
- Network partition occurs
  - DB servers (Node1, Node2) can't communicate
  - Users (*Node0*) access only one (*Node2*)
  - Reads: Access data on the same partition
  - Writes: Can't update due to potential inconsistency
- CAP theorem: Sacrifice consistency or availability
- Available, not consistent
  - Inconsistency acceptable (e.g., social networking)
  - Allow updates on accessible replica
- Consistent, not available
  - Inconsistency unacceptable (e.g., banking)
  - Stop service to maintain consistency



X X DB replica DB replica Client



### Replication Schemes

- Replication schemes: Organize multiple servers for a distributed DB
- Primary-secondary replication
  - · Application only communicates with primary
  - Replicas cannot update local data, but require primary for updates
  - Single-point of failure
- Update-anywhere replication
  - Aka "multi-master replication"
  - Every replica can update data, propagated to others
- Quorum-based replication
  - N: Total replicas
  - Write to W replicas
  - Read from R replicas, pick latest update (timestamps)



Primary-secondary replication

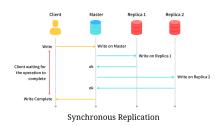


Update-anywhere replication



## Synchronous Replication

- Synchronous replication: updates propagate to replicas in a single transaction
- Implementations
  - 2-Phase Commit (2PC): original method
    - Single point of failure
    - Can't handle primary server failure
  - Paxos: widely used
    - No primary required
    - More fault tolerant
  - Both are complex/expensive
- CAP theorem: only one of Consistency or Availability during Network partition
  - Many systems use relaxed consistency models





## **Asynchronous Replication**

#### Asynchronous replication

- Primary node updates replicas
- Transaction completes before replicas update
- Quick commits, less consistency

#### Eventual consistency

- Popularized by AWS DynamoDB
- Consistency only on eventual outcome
- "Eventual" may mean after server/network fix

#### • "Freshness" property

- Read from replica may not be latest
- Request version with specific "freshness"
  - E.g., "data from not more than 10 minutes ago"
  - E.g., show airplane ticket price a few minutes old
- Replicas use timestamps for data versioning
- Use local replica if fresh, else request primary node



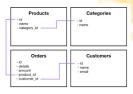
# 4 Scalability Issues with RDMS

- Sources of SQL DB scalability issues:
- Locking data
  - DB engine locks rows/tables for ACID properties
  - When locked:
    - Higher latency  $\rightarrow$  Fewer updates/second  $\rightarrow$  Slower application
- Worse in distributed set-up
  - Requires data replication over multiple servers (scaling out)
  - Slower application due to:
    - Network delays
    - Locks across networks for DB consistency
    - Overhead of replica consistency (2PC, Paxos)



### Scalability Issues with RDMS: Solutions

- Table denormalization
  - Increase performance by adding redundant data
  - Pros
    - Faster reads: Lock one table, no joins
  - Cons
    - Slower writes: More data to update
    - Lose table relations
- Relax consistency
  - Compromise on ACID
  - Weaken consistency (e.g., eventual consistency)
- NoSQL



Normalized data

#### Customer Orders

- id
- product\_name
- product\_code
- category\_name
- customer\_name
- cusomter\_email
  order id
- order\_details
- order\_details - order\_amount

Denormalized data



### **NoSQL Stores**

- Use cases of large-scale web applications
  - · Real-time access with ms latencies
    - E.g., Facebook: 4ms for reads
  - No need for ACID properties
  - MongoDB started at DoubleClick (AdTech), acquired by Google
- Solve problems with relational databases
  - Application-DB impedance mismatch
  - Schema flexibility
  - Consistency in distributed setup
  - Scalability
- To scale out, give up something
  - Consistency
  - Joins
    - Most NoSQL stores don't allow server-side joins
    - Require data denormalization and duplication
  - Restricted transactions
    - Most NoSQL stores allow one object transactions
    - E.g., one document/key



## Relational DB vs MongoDB

- How MongoDB solves four RDBM problems
- 1 Application-DB impedance mismatch
  - Store data as nested objects
- 2 Schema flexibility
  - No schema, tables, rows, columns, or table relationships
- 3 Consistency in replicated set-up
  - Application decides consistency level
    - Synchronous: wait for primary and secondary updates
    - Quorum synchronous: wait for majority of secondary updates
    - · Asynchronous, eventual: wait for primary update
    - "Fire and forget": no wait for primary persistence
- 4 Scalability
  - Lock only one document, not entire collection
  - Sharding: use more machines for more work

