# Parallel and Distributed Databases

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## Centralized vs Distributed Databases

#### Centralized database

- Data is located in one place (e.g. server)
- All DBMS functionalities are done by the server
  - Enforcing ACID properties of transactions
  - Concurrency control, recovery mechanisms
  - Answering queries

#### Distributed databases

- Data is stored in multiple places (each is running a DBMS)
- New notion of distributed transactions
- DBMS functionalities are now distributed over many machines



# Why Distributed Databases?

#### Scalability

 If your data volume, read load or write load grows bigger than a single machine can handle, you can potentially spread the load across multiple machines.

#### Fault tolerance / High availability

 If your application needs to continue working, even if one machine (or several machines) goes down, you can use multiple machines to give you **redundancy**. When one fails, another one can take over.

#### \* Latency

Applications are by nature distributed. If you have users around the world, you might want to have servers at various locations worldwide, so that users can be served from a datacenter that is geographically close to them.



# Why Parallel Processing?

- Processing 1 Terabyte
  - at 10MB/s => ~1.2 days to scan
  - 1000 x parallel => 1.5 minute to scan
- Divide a big problem into many smaller ones to be solved in parallel
- Large-scale parallel database systems increasingly used for:
  - storing large volumes of data
  - processing time-consuming decision-support queries
  - providing high throughput for transaction processing



## **Biggest Database Problem**

- $\diamond$  Large volume of data  $\Rightarrow$  use disk and large memory
- Bottlenecks
  - Speed(disk) << speed(RAM) << speed(microprocessor)</li>
- Predictions
  - Moore's law: processor speed growth (with multicore): 50 % per year
  - DRAM capacity growth: 4 × every three years
  - Disk throughput: 2 × in the last ten years
- Biggest problem: I/O bottleneck
- Solution to increase the I/O bandwidth
  - data partitioning
- - universidade parallel data access

#### **Parallel Databases**

- Parallel databases improve processing and I/O speeds by using multiple CPUs and disks in parallel
  - data can be partitioned across multiple disks
  - each processor can work independently on its own partition
- Exploit the parallelism in data management in order to deliver high-performance, high-availability and extensibility
  - support very large databases with very high loads
- Different queries can be run in parallel
- Concurrency control takes care of conflicts



# Parallel Databases (cont)

#### Critical issues

- data placement
- parallel query processing
- load balancing
- Most research has been done in the context of the relational model that provides a good basis for data-based parallelism
  - individual relational operations (e.g., sort, join, aggregation) can be executed in parallel



## Parallel vs Distributed Databases

Although the basic principles of parallel DBMS are the same as in distributed DBMS, the techniques for parallel database systems are fairly different

typically...

#### Parallel DB

- Fast interconnect
- Homogeneous software
- High performance is goal
- Transparency is goal

#### Distributed DB

- Geographically distributed
- Data sharing is goal (may run into heterogeneity, autonomy)
- Disconnected operation possible



## Parallel vs Distributed Databases

## Distributed processing usually make use of parallel processing (not vise versa)

can have parallel processing on a single machine

#### Assumptions

#### Parallel Databases

- Machines are physically close to each other (e.g. same server room)
- Machines connects with dedicated high-speed LANs and switches
- Communication cost is assumed to be small
- Architecture: can be shared-memory, shared-disk or shared-nothing

#### Distributed Databases

- Machines can be in distinct geographic locations
- And connected using public-purpose network, e.g., Internet
- Communication cost and problems cannot be ignored
- Architecture: usually shared-nothing



## Parallel DBMS – Main Goals

- High-performance through parallelization of various operations
  - High throughput with inter-query parallelism
  - Low response time with intra-operation parallelism
  - Load balancing is the ability of the system to divide a given workload equally among all processors
- High availability by exploiting data replication
- Extensibility with the ideal goals
  - Linear speed-up
  - Linear scale-up



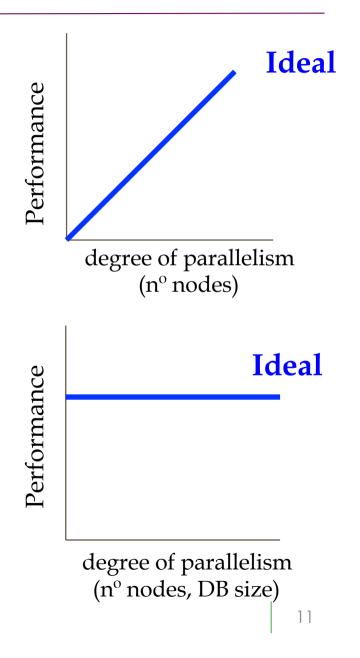
# Ideal Extensibility Scenario

#### Speed-Up

- refers to a linear increase in performance for a constant database size while the number of nodes (i.e. processing and storage power) are increased linearly
- more resources means proportionally less time for given amount of data

#### Scale-Up

- refers to a sustained performance
   for a linear increase in both
   database size and number of nodes
- if resources increased in proportion to increase in data size, time is constant





## **Barriers to Parallelism**

#### Startup

 The time needed to start a parallel operation may dominate the actual computation time

#### Interference

 When accessing shared resources, each new process slows down the others (hot spot problem)

#### Skew

- The response time of a set of parallel processes is the time of the slowest one
- Parallel data management techniques intend to overcome these barriers



## **Database Architectures**

- Architectures to scale to higher load...
- Multiprocessor architecture
  - Shared memory (SM)
  - Shared disk (SD)
  - Shared nothing (SN)
- Hybrid architectures
  - Non-Uniform Memory Architecture (NUMA)
  - Cluster

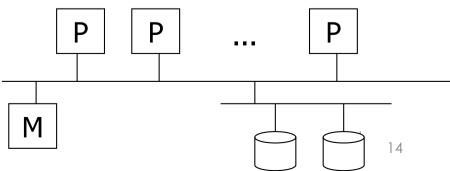


# **Shared Memory**

- Simplest approach buy a more powerful machine
- Also called vertical scaling or scaling up
- Multiple processors share the main memory (RAM) space but each processor has its own disk (HDD)
  - provide communications among them and avoid redundant copies

#### Bottlenecks

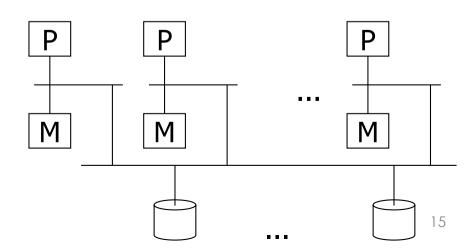
- cost is super-linear: a machine with twice resources (CPU, RAM, disk) typically costs significantly more than twice
- a machine twice the size cannot necessarily handle twice the load
- offer limited fault tolerance





## **Shared Disk**

- Uses several machines with independent CPUs and RAM, but stores data on an array of disks that is shared between the machines, connected via a fast network
- Used for some data warehousing workloads
- Advantages over shared memory
  - each processor has its own memory is not a bottleneck
  - a simple way to provide a degree of fault tolerance.
- Bottleneck
  - limited scalability





# **Shared Nothing**

- Also called horizontal scaling or scaling out
- \* Each machine or virtual machine running the database software is called a node that uses its CPUs, RAM and disks independently
- Any coordination between nodes is done at the software level, using a conventional network
- Most common architecture nowadays
- Advantages:
  - best price/performance ratio
  - extensibility
  - availability
  - reduce latency

P M

Disadvantages:



# **Hybrid Architectures**

- Various possible combinations of the three basic architectures are possible to obtain different tradeoffs between cost, performance, extensibility, availability, etc
- Hybrid architectures try to obtain the advantages of different architectures:
  - efficiency and simplicity of shared-memory
  - extensibility and cost of either shared disk or shared nothing
- Two main types:
  - NUMA (non-uniform memory access)
  - Cluster



## NUMA

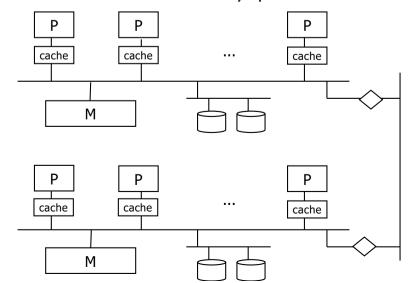
- Shared Memory vs. Distributed Memory
  - mixes two different aspects:
    - addressing: single address space <u>and</u> multiple address spaces
    - physical memory: central <u>and</u> distributed
- NUMA uses single address space on distributed physical memory
  - eases application portability
  - extensibility
- Cache Coherent NUMA (CC-NUMA)
  - the most successful



#### CC-NUMA

#### Principle

- main memory distributed as with shared-nothing
- however, any processor has access to all other processors' memories
  - remote memory access very efficient, only a few times (typically between 2 and 3 times) the cost of local access
- Different processors can access the same data in a conflicting update mode
  - a global cache consistency protocols are needed





## Parallel & Distributed DBMS Techniques

#### Data placement

- Physical placement of the DB onto multiple nodes
- Static vs. Dynamic

#### Parallel data processing algorithms

- Select is easy
- Join (and all other non-select operations) is more difficult

#### Parallel query optimization

- Choice of the best parallel execution plans
- Automatic parallelization of the queries and load balancing

#### Distributed Transaction management



## Distributed Data Storage

Two common ways of distribute data across nodes:

#### Replication

- keeping a copy of the same data on several different nodes; potentially in different locations
- provides redundancy; if some nodes are unavailable, the data can still be served from the remaining nodes
- can also help improve performance

#### Partitioning

- splitting a big database into smaller subsets called partitions
- different partitions can be assigned to different nodes
- Replication and Partitioning can be combined



## **Data Transparency**

#### Definition

 Degree of (system) user abstraction relatively to the details how and where the data items are stored in a distributed system

- Consider transparency issues in relation to:
  - Replication mechanism
  - Partitioning mechanism
  - Location



# I/O Parallelism

- Reduce the time required to retrieve relations from disk by partitioning
- Horizontal partitioning tuples of a relation are divided among many disks
- Partitioning techniques\* (number of disks = n)
  - Round-robin
    - send the ith tuple inserted in the relation to the disk: i mod n.
  - Hash partitioning
    - apply a hash function to one or more attributes that range 0...n 1
  - Range partitioning
    - associates a range of key attribute(s) to every partition

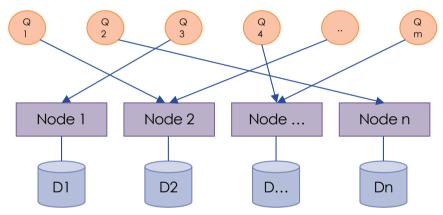
\* simplest vision - a more detailed description in the next lessons



# **Query Parallelism**

## Interquery Parallelism

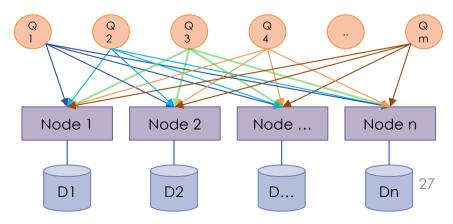
 Parallel execution of multiple queries generated by concurrent transactions



## Intraquery Parallelism

Execution of a single query in parallel on multiple

processors/disks





# Interquery Parallelism

- To increase the transactional throughput
  - used primarily to scale up a transaction processing system
     to support a larger number of transactions per second
- Easiest form of parallelism to support in a sharedmemory parallel database
- More complicated on shared-disk or sharednothing
  - locking and logging must be coordinated by passing messages between processors
  - data in a local buffer may have been updated at another processor
  - cache-coherency has to be maintained: reads and writes of data in buffer must find latest version of data



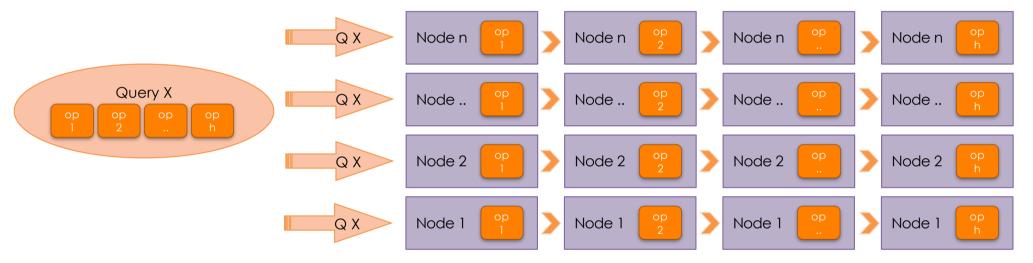
# Intraquery Parallelism

- The same operator is executed by many processors, each one working on a subset of the data
  - for speeding up long-running queries
- Two complementary forms of intraquery parallelism:
  - Intra-operation: parallelize the execution of each individual operation in the query
  - Inter-operation: execute the different operations in a query expression in parallel
- Intra-operation scales better with increasing parallelism because the number of tuples processed by each operation is typically more than the number of operations in a query

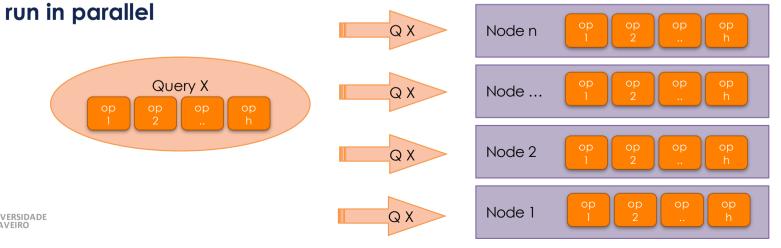


## IntraQuery Operator Parallelism

Inter-operator (Pipeline): ordered (or partially ordered) tasks and different machines are performing different tasks



Intra-operator (Partitioned): a task divided over all machines to



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## **Parallel Data Processing**

#### Assuming:

- Read-only queries
- Shared-nothing architecture
  - shared-nothing architectures can be efficiently simulated on shared-memory and shared-disk systems
- ❖ n processors (P0, ..., Pn-1) and n disks (D0, ..., Dn-1) where disk Di is associated with processor Pi
  - if a processor has multiple disks they can simply simulate a single disk Di



## **Parallel Algorithms**

- Use case:
  - Relational Model
- Parallel algorithms for relational algebra operators are the building blocks necessary for parallel query processing
- Parallel data processing should exploit intraoperator parallelism
  - the query is parallelized
  - all nodes perform all operations requested by query
- Focus on sort, select and join operators
  - other binary operators (such as union) can be handled in similar way to join



# Parallel Selection - $\sigma_c(R)$

- Relation R is partitioned over m machines
  - each partition of R is around | R | /m tuples
- Each machine scans its own partition and applies the Selection condition c
- Data Partitioning impact:
  - round robin or a hash function (over the entire tuple)
    - relation is expected to be well distributed over all nodes
    - > all partitioned will be scanned
  - range or hash-based (on the selection column)
    - relation can be clustered on few nodes
    - > few partitions need to be touched
- Parallel Projection is also straightforward
  - all partitions will be touched
  - not sensitive to how data is partitioned



# **Parallel Sorting**

#### 1. Range-Partitioning Sort

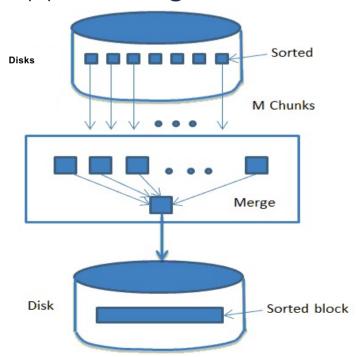
- Choose processors P0, ..., Pm, where  $m \le n 1$  to do sorting
- Re-partition R based on ranges (on the sorting attributes) into m partitions
  - this step requires I/O and communication overhead
- Machine i receives all ith partitions from all machines and sort that partition, without any interaction with the others
  - Pi stores the tuples it received temporarily on disk Di
- Final merge operation is trivial: range-partitioning ensures that, for 1 j m, the key values in processor Pi are all less than the key values in Pj
- Skewed data is an issue
  - ranges can be of different width
  - apply sampling phase first



# Parallel Sorting (Cont.)

#### 2. Parallel External Sort-Merge

- Assume the relation has already been partitioned among disks D0, ..., Dn-1 (in whatever manner).
- Each node sorts its own data
- All nodes start sending their sorted data (one block at a time) to a single machine
- This machine applies merge-sort technique as data come





## **Parallel Join**

- The join operation requires pairs of tuples to be tested to see if they satisfy the join condition
  - If tuples satisfy the join condition, the pair is added to the join output
- Steps...
- Parallel join algorithms attempt to split the pairstesting over several processors
- Each processor then computes part of the join locally
- Results from each processor are collected together to produce the final result



# Join Algorithms

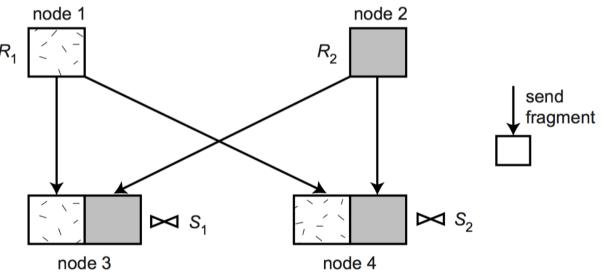
- Three basic parallel join algorithms for partitioned databases
  - Parallel Nested Loop (PNL)
  - Parallel Associative Join (PAJ)
  - Parallel Hash Join (PHJ)
- All previous algorithms are intra-operator parallelism
- They also apply to other complex operators such as duplicate elimination, union, intersection, etc. with minor adaptation
- Next Examples:
  - join of two relations R and S that are partitioned over m and n nodes, respectively



## Parallel Nested Loop Join

- Cartesian product of relations R and S, in parallel.
- Simplest and most general method
- Algorithm phases:
  - each fragment (replica) of R is sent to each node containing a fragment of S (there are n such nodes)
    - this phase is done in parallel by m nodes
  - **2. each S-node** *j* **receives** relation **R entirely**, and **locally joins** *R* with **fragment** *Sj*.
    - join processing may start as soon as data are received

$$R \bowtie S = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} (R \bowtie S_i)$$





## Parallel Associative Join

- Applies only to equijoin with one of the operand relations partitioned according to the join attribute
- Assume
  - equijoin predicate is on attribute A from R, and B from S
  - S is partitioned according to hash function applied to attribute B
    - tuples of S that have the same h(B) value are placed at the same node
  - no knowledge of how R is partitioned
- Algorithm phases:
  - relation R is sent associatively to the S-nodes based on the hash function h applied to attribute A
  - 2. each S-node j receives in parallel from the different R-nodes the relevant subset of R (i.e., Rj) and joins it locally with the fragments Sj

 $\bowtie S_1$ 

node 3

send fragment

 $\bowtie S_2$ 

node 4

$$R \bowtie S = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} (R_i \bowtie S_i)$$

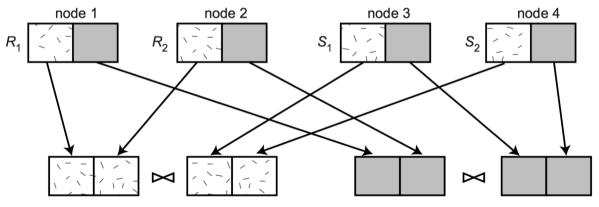


#### **Parallel Hash Join**

- Generalization of parallel associative join algorithm
- Also applies to equijoin but does not require any particular partitioning of the operand relations
- Basic idea: partition of R and S into the same number p of mutually exclusive sets (fragments) R1,R2,...,Rp, and S1,S2,...,Sp,
- The p nodes may actually be selected at run time based on the load of the system
- Algorithm phases:
  - 1. build: hashes R on the join attribute, sends it to the target p nodes that build a hash table for the incoming tuples
  - 2. probe: sends S associatively to the target p nodes that probe the hash

table for each incoming tuple

$$R \bowtie S = \bigcup_{i=1}^{p} (R_i \bowtie S_i)$$





node 1 node 2

## Parallel Processing - Costs

- Join processing is achieved with a degree of parallelism of either n or p
- Each algorithm requires moving at least one of the operand relations
- Ideal scenario: no skew in the partitioning, and no overhead due to the parallel evaluation
  - expected speed-up: 1/n
- Take into account skew and overheads
  - time taken by a parallel operation can be estimated as:

Tpart - time for partitioning the relations (including communications costs)

Tasm - time for assembling the results

Ti - time taken for the operation at processor Pi. This needs to be estimated taking into account the skew, and the time wasted in contentions



# **Parallel Query Optimization**

- The objective is to select the "best" parallel execution plan for a query using the following components:
  - Search space
    - Models alternative execution plans as operator trees
    - Left-deep vs. Right-deep vs. Bushy trees
  - Search strategy
    - Dynamic programming for small search space
    - Randomized for large search space
  - Cost model (abstraction of execution system)
    - Physical schema info. (partitioning, indexes, etc.)
    - Statistics and cost functions
- Target: minimize the movement of data among machines



#### **Best Execution Plan - Example**

- Two Machines
  - M1 has the relation  $R(\underline{A},B)$
  - M2 has the relation  $S(\underline{C},D)$
- ❖ Query SELECT A, C FROM R join S on B = D;
- Result
  - must be at M2
- > Options:
- 1. Copy S to M1
- 2. Compute the result
- 3. Send the result to M2
- OR
- 1. Copy R to M2
- 2. Compute the result

> Scenarios:

size  $R \simeq S$ 



size R > S



# Best Execution Plan - Example (cont.)

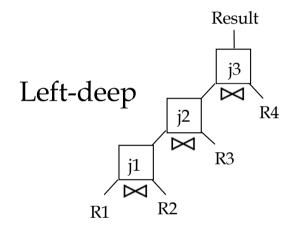
Even better execution plan:

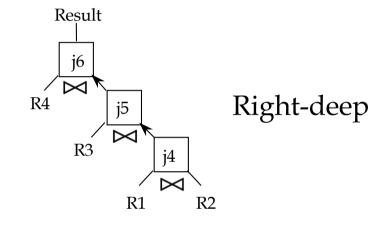
```
    On M2 compute
INSERT INTO TEMP1 SELECT DISTINCT D FROM S;
```

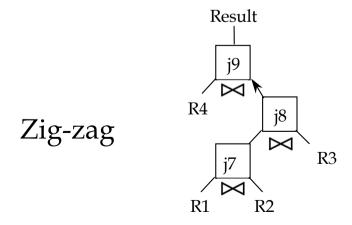
- 2. Copy TEMP1 to M1
- 3. On M1 compute
  INSERT INTO TEMP2
  SELECT A, B FROM R join TEMP1 on B = D;
- 4. Copy TEMP2 to M2  $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{S}$
- 5. On M2 compute
  INSERT INTO ANSWER
  SELECT A, C FROM TEMP2 join S on B = D;
- TEMP2 is left semijoin of R and S
- Very Good if TEMP1 and TEMP2 are relatively small

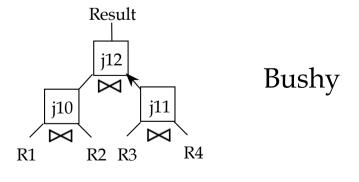


# Search space - Operator Trees











## **Load Balancing**

- Balancing the load of different transactions and queries among different nodes is essential to maximize throughput
- Problems arise for intra-operator parallelism with skewed data distributions
  - attribute data skew (AVS)
    - inherent to dataset (e.g., there are more citizens in Paris than in Aveiro).
  - tuple placement skew (TPS)
    - introduced when the data are initially partitioned (e.g., with range partitioning)
  - selectivity skew (SS)
    - introduced when there is variation in the selectivity of select predicates on each node
  - redistribution skew (RS)
    - occurs in the redistribution step between two operators (similar to TPS)
  - join product skew (JPS)
    - · occurs because the join selectivity may vary between nodes

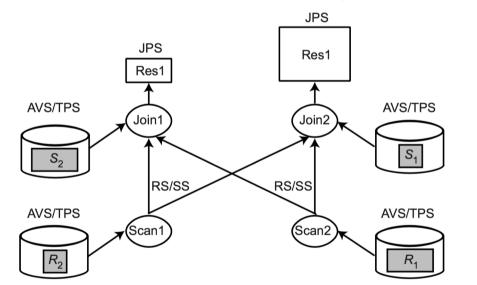
#### Solutions

sophisticated parallel algorithms that deal with skew



#### Data Skew - Example

- A query over two relations R and S that are poorly partitioned
  - due to either data (AVS) or the partitioning function (TPS)
  - processing times of instances (scan1 and scan2) are not equal
- Join operator case is worse
  - the number of tuples received is different due to the poor redistribution of the partitions (RS) or variable selectivity according to the partition of R processed (SS)
  - uneven size of S partitions (AVS/TPS) yields different processing times for tuples sent by scan operator. The result size is different from one partition to the other due to join selectivity (JPS)



boxes are proportional to the size of partitions



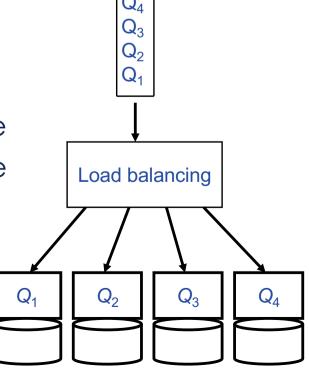
## Load Balancing in a DB Cluster

- Choose the node to execute Q
  - round robin
  - the least loaded
    - Need to get load information
- Failover
  - In case a node N fails, N's queries are taken over by

another node

• requires a copy of N's data or SD

- In case of interference
  - data of an overloaded node
     are replicated to another node

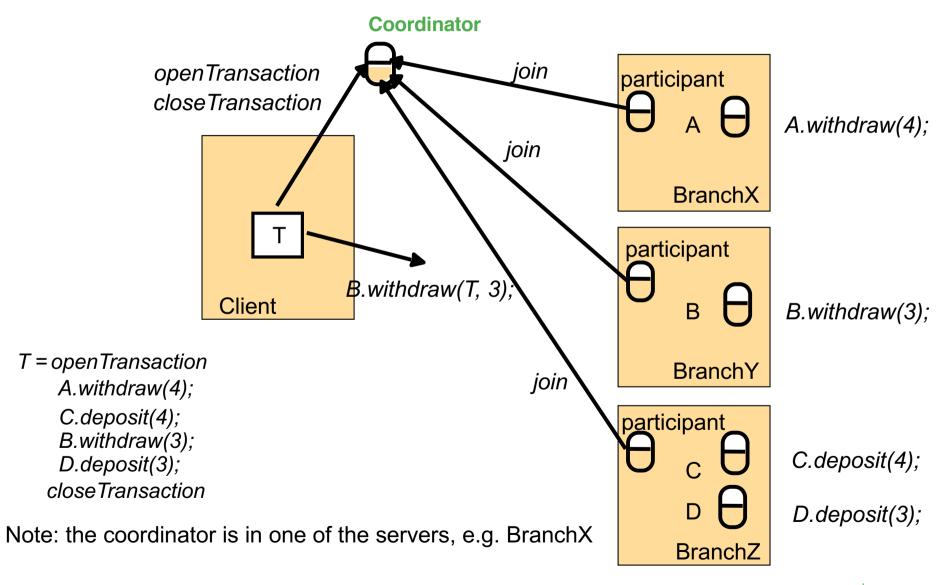




#### **Distributed Transactions**

- Transaction may access data at several sites
- Each site has a local transaction manager responsible for:
  - maintaining a log for recovery purposes
  - participating in coordinating the concurrent execution of the transactions executing at that site
- Each site has a transaction coordinator, which is responsible for:
  - starting the execution of transactions that originate at the site
  - distributing subtransactions at appropriate sites for execution
  - coordinating the **termination** of each transaction that originates at the site, which may result in the transaction being committed at all sites or aborted at all sites

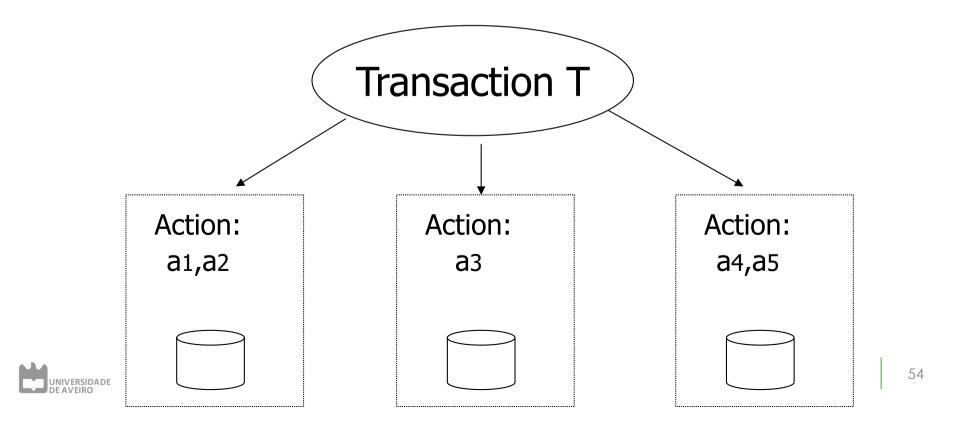
# Distributed Banking Transaction





#### Distributed commit problem

- Commit must be atomic...
- \* How a distributed transaction that has components at several sites can execute atomically?
- Solution: Two-phase commit (2PC), Centralized 2PC, Distributed 2PC, Linear 2PC, etc



## Two-phase commit protocol

- First phase coordinator collecting a vote (commit or abort) from each participant
  - Participant stores partial results in permanent storage before voting
- Second phase coordinator makes a decision
  - if all participants want to commit and no one has crashed, coordinator multicasts "commit"
     message
    - everyone commits
    - if participant fails, then on recovery, can get commit msg from coordinator
  - else if any participant has crashed or aborted, coordinator multicasts "abort" message to all participants



#### Resources

- Martin Kleppmann, Designing Data-Intensive Applications, O'Reilly Media, Inc., 2017.
- M. Tamer Ozsu, Patrick Valduriez, Principles Of Distributed Database Systems – 3rd ed, Springer, 2011.
- Abraham Silberschatz, Henry F. Korth, S. Sudarshan, Database System Concepts – 6<sup>th</sup> ed, McGraw-Hill, 2010.



# Summary

- Centralized vs Distributed vs Parallelized Systems
- Parallel Databases
  - Concept / Objectives
  - Architectures
  - Types of Parallelism
  - DBMS Techniques
    - Data Placement
    - Processing Algorithms
    - Query Optimization
    - Transaction Management

