Czech Technical University in Prague, Faculty of Information Technology

MIE-PDB: Advanced Database Systems

http://www.ksi.mff.cuni.cz/~svoboda/courses/171-MIE-PDB/

Lecture 7

### **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
  - ..

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
- ...

### **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
- ..

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

### **Horizontal Scalability: Conclusion**

- ⇒ 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

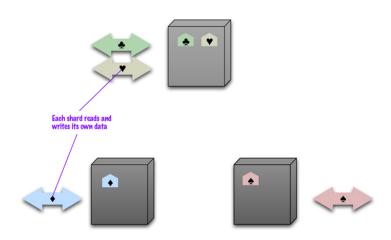
NoSQL systems often offer automatic sharding and replication

### **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
- ...

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

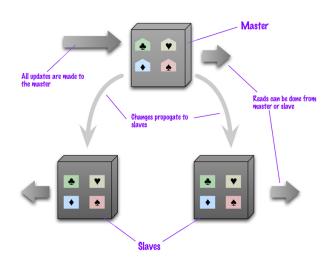
### Replication

- 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

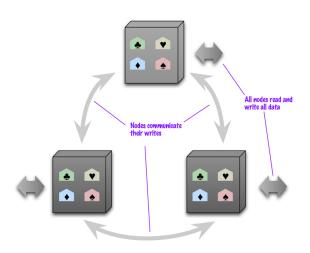
- Suitable for read-intensive applications
  - More read requests to deal with  $\rightarrow$  more slaves to deploy
- When the master fails, read operations can still be handled

**Master-Slave Architecture** 

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

- Newly written replicas are propagated to all the slaves
- Consistency issue
  - 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

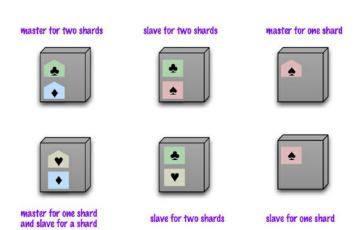
- No bottleneck, no single point of failure
- Both the operations scale well
  - More requests to deal with  $\rightarrow$  more nodes to deploy
- Consistency issues
  - Unfortunately, multiple write requests can be initiated independently and being executed at the same time
  - Hence synchronization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

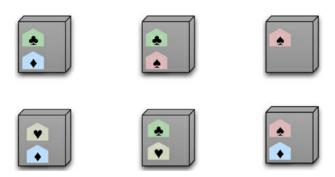
**Sharding and replication can be combined**... but how?

**Sharding and Master-Slave Replication** 



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?
- ..

# **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
- Consistency, <u>A</u>vailability, and <u>P</u>artition 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 works very well in practice

### **ACID Properties**

#### Traditional ACID properties

- Atomicity
  - Partial execution of transactions is not allowed (all or nothing)
- Consistency
  - 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
- Soft State
  - 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 consistency over availability
- · 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 o eventual 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
- ..

### Write consistency (update consistency)

- Problem: write-write conflict
  - Two or more write requests on the same aggregate are initiated concurrently
- Context: peer-to-peer architecture only
- Issue: lost update
- Solution:
  - Pessimistic strategies
    - Preventing conflicts from occurring
    - Write locks, ...
  - Optimistic strategies
    - Conflicts may occur, but are detected and resolved later on
    - Version stamps, vector clocks, ...

### Read consistency (replication consistency)

- Problem: read-write conflict
  - Write and read requests on the same aggregate are initiated concurrently
- Context: both master-slave and peer-to-peer architectures
- Issue: inconsistent read
- When not treated, inconsistency window will exist
  - Propagation of changes to all the replicas takes some time
  - Until this process is finished, inconsistent reads may happen
  - Even the initiator of the write request may read wrong data!
    - Session consistency / read-your-writes / sticky session

# **Strong Consistency**

#### How many nodes need to be involved to get strong consistency?

- Write quorum: W > N/2
  - Idea: only one write request can get the majority
  - W = number of nodes successfully participating in the write
  - N = number of nodes involved in replication (replication factor)
- Read quorum: R > N W
  - Idea: concurrent write requests cannot happen
  - R = number of nodes participating in the read
  - Should the retrieved replicas be mutually different,
    the newest version is resolved and then returned

When a quorum is not attained o the request cannot be handled

## **Strong Consistency**

#### **Examples**

### Examples for replication factor N=3

- Write quorum W=3 and read quorum R=1
  - All the replicas are always updated
  - ⇒ we can read any one of them
- Write quorum W=2 and read quorum R=2
  - Typical configuration, reasonable trade-off

#### Consequence

- Quora can be configured to balance read and write workload
  - The higher the write quorum is required, the lower the read quorum can then be required

### **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