**NDBI040** 

# Big Data Management and NoSQL Databases

Lecture 4. Basic Principles

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## **NoSQL Overview**

- Main objective: implement distributed state
  - □ Different objects stored on different servers
  - □ Same object replicated on different servers
- Main idea: give up some of the ACID
  - □ To improve performance
- Simple interface:
  - □ Write (=Put): needs to write all replicas
  - □ Read (=Get): may get only one
- Strong consistency → eventual consistency

## **Basic Principles**

- Scalability
  - How to handle growing amounts of data without losing performance
- CAP theorem
- Distribution models
  - ☐ Sharding, replication, consistency, ...
  - □ How to handle data in a distributed manner

# Scalability

## Vertical Scaling (scaling up)

- Traditional choice has been in favour of <u>strong</u> <u>consistency</u>
  - System architects have in the past gone in favour of scaling up (vertical scaling)
    - Involves larger and more powerful machines
- Works in many cases but...
- Vendor lock-in
  - □ Not everyone makes large and powerful machines
    - Who do, often use proprietary formats
  - Makes a customer dependent on a vendor for products and services
    - Unable to use another vendor

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# Scalability Vertical Scaling (scaling up)

- Higher costs
  - Powerful machines usually cost a lot more than commodity hardware
- Data growth perimeter
  - Powerful and large machines work well until the data grows to fill it
  - □ Even the largest of machines has a limit
- Proactive provisioning
  - Applications have no idea of the final large scale when they start out
  - Scaling vertically = you need to budget for large scale upfront

## Scalability

#### Horizontal Scaling (scaling out)

- Systems are distributed across multiple machines or nodes (horizontal scaling)
  - Commodity machines, cost effective
  - Often surpasses scalability of vertical approach
- Fallacies of distributed computing:
  - The network is reliable
  - Latency is zero
  - □ Bandwidth is infinite
  - □ The network is secure
  - □ Topology does not change
  - □ There is one administrator
  - □ Transport cost is zero
  - The network is homogeneous



### **CAP** Theorem

#### Consistency

- After an update, all readers in a distributed system see the same data
- All nodes are supposed to contain the same data at all times
- Example:
  - ☐ A single database instance is always consistent
  - If multiple instances exist, all writes must be duplicated before write operation is completed



### **CAP** Theorem

#### **Availability**

- All requests (reads, writes) are always answered, regardless crashes
- Example:
  - □ A single instance has an availability of 100% or 0%
  - □ Two servers may be available 100%, 50%, or 0%

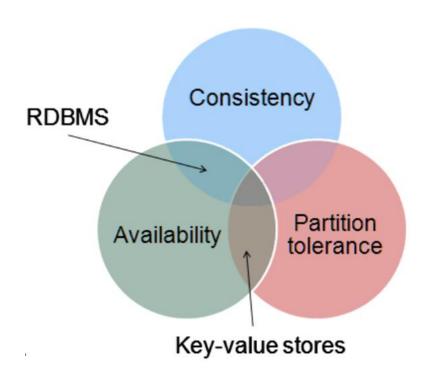
#### **Partition Tolerance**

- System continues to operate, even if two sets of servers get isolated
- Example:
  - Failed connection will not cause troubles if the system is tolerant

### **CAP Theorem**

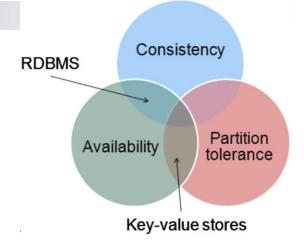
#### ACID vs. BASE

- **Theorem**: Only 2 of the 3 guarantees can be given in a "shared-data" system.
  - □ Proven in 2000, the idea is older
- (Positive) consequence: we can concentrate on two challenges
- ACID properties guarantee consistency and availability
  - pessimistic
  - e.g., database on a single machine
- BASE properties guarantee availability and partition tolerance
  - optimistic
  - □ e.g., distributed databases



#### CAP Theorem

#### Criticism



- Not really a "theorem", since definitions are imprecise
  - The real proven theorem has more limiting assumptions
- CP makes no "sense", because it suggest never available
- No A vs. no C is asymmetric
  - $\square$  No C = all the time
  - □ No A = only when the network is partitioned

#### **CAP Theorem**

#### Consistency

- A single-server system is a CA system
- Clusters have to be tolerant of network partitions
  - □ CAP theorem: you can only get two out of three
  - □ Reality: you can trade off a little Consistency to get some Availability
    - It is not a binary decision

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## BASE

- In contrast to ACID
- Leads to levels of <u>scalability</u> that cannot be obtained with ACID
  - ☐ At the cost of (strong) consistency

#### **Basically Available**

- The system works basically all the time
- Partial failures can occur, but without total system failure

#### **Soft State**

- The system is in flux and non-deterministic
- Changes occur all the time

#### **Eventual Consistency**

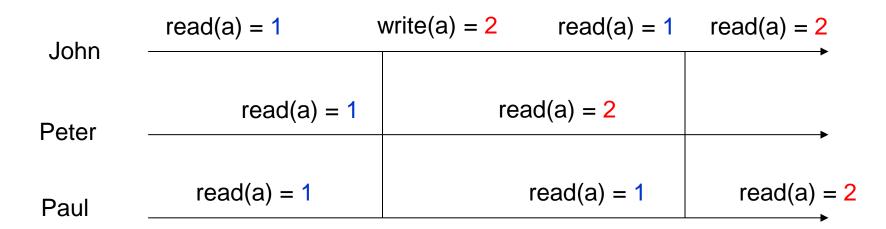
- The system will be in some consistent state
- At some time in future

# Strong Consistency

John	read(a) = 1	write(a) = $\frac{2}{}$	read(a) = 2
JOHH			-
George	read(a) = 1		read(a) = 2
Ocorgo			-
Paul	read(a) = 1		read(a) = 2

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# **Eventual Consistency**



inconsistent window

### Distribution Models

- Scaling out = running the database on a cluster of servers
- Two orthogonal techniques to data distribution:
  - □ Replication takes the same data and copies it over multiple nodes
    - Master-slave or peer-to-peer
  - □ Sharding puts different data on different nodes
- We can use either or combine them

### **Distribution Models**

#### Single Server

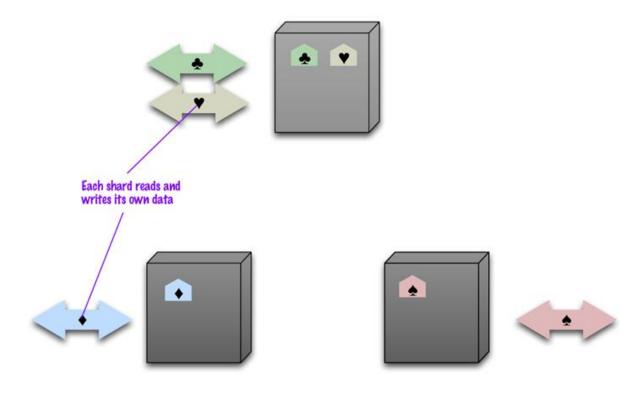
- No distribution at all
  - □ Run the database on a single machine
- It can make sense to use NoSQL with a singleserver distribution model
  - □ Graph databases
    - The graph is "almost" complete → it is difficult to distribute it



#### Distribution Models

#### Sharding

- Horizontal scalability → putting different parts of the data onto different servers
- Different people are accessing different parts of the dataset



# Distribution Models Sharding

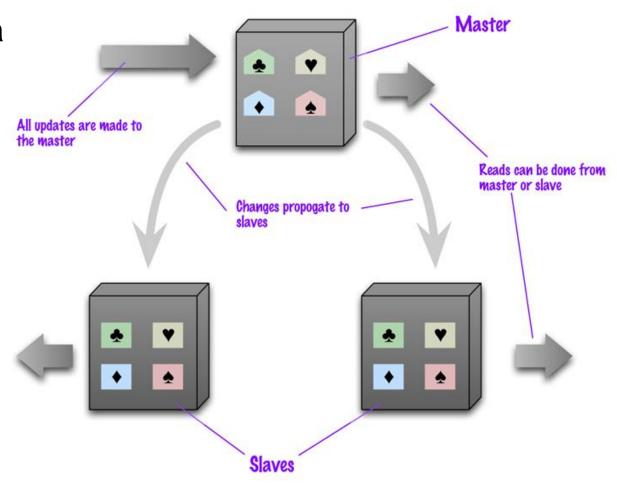
- The ideal case is rare
- To get close to it we have to ensure that data that is accessed together is clumped together
- How to arrange the nodes:
  - a. One user mostly gets data from a single server
  - b. Based on a physical location
  - c. Distributed across the nodes with equal amounts of the load
- Many NoSQL databases offer auto-sharding
- A node failure makes shard's data unavailable
  - ☐ Sharding is often combined with replication



### Distribution Models

#### Master-slave Replication

- We replicate data across multiple nodes
- One node is designed as primary (master), others as secondary (slaves)
- Master is responsible for processing any updates to that data



# Distribution Models Master-slave Replication

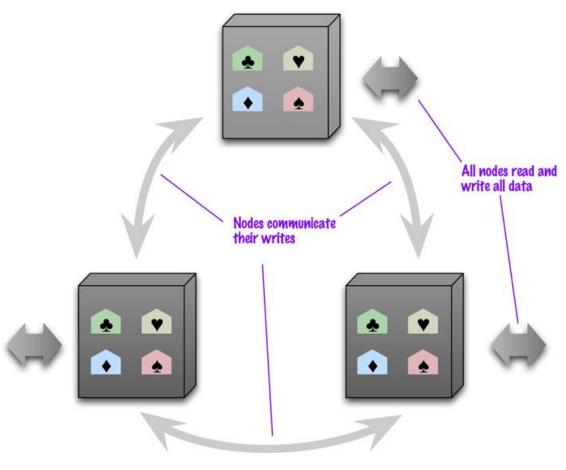
- For scaling a read-intensive dataset
  - More read requests → more slave nodes
  - □ The master fails → the slaves can still handle read requests
    - A slave can be appointed a new master quickly (it is a replica)
- Limited by the ability of the master to process updates
- Masters are appointed manually or automatically
  - □ User-defined vs. cluster-elected



### Distribution Models

#### Peer-to-peer Replication

- Problems of master slave replication:
  - Does not help with scalability of writes
  - Provides resilience against failure of a slave, but not of a master
  - The master is still a bottleneck
- Peer-to-peer replication: no master
  - All the replicas have equal weight



# Distribution Models Peer-to-peer Replication

- Problem: consistency
  - We can write at two different places: a write-write conflict

#### Solutions:

- □ Whenever we write data, the replicas coordinate to ensure we avoid a conflict
  - At the cost of network traffic
- But we do not need all the replicas to agree on the write, just a majority

## Distribution Models

#### Combining Sharding and Replication

- Master-slave replication and sharding:
  - We have multiple masters, but each data item only has a single master
  - A node can be a master for some data and a slave for others
- Peer-to-peer replication and sharding:
  - □ A common strategy for column-family databases
  - □ A good starting point for peer-to-peer replication is to have a replication factor of 3, so each shard is present on three nodes

## Consistency

#### Write (update) Consistency

- Problem: two users want to update the same record (write-write conflict)
  - □ Issue: lost update
- Pessimistic (preventing conflicts from occurring)
   vs. optimistic solutions (lets conflicts occur, but detects them and takes actions to sort them out)
  - □ Write locks, conditional update, save both updates and record that they are in conflict, ...

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## Consistency

#### Read Consistency

- Problem: one user reads, other writes (read-write conflict)
  - □ Issue: inconsistent read
- Relational databases support the notion of transactions
- NoSQL databases support atomic updates within a single aggregate
  - □ But not all data can be put in the same aggregate
- Update that affects multiple aggregates leaves open a time when clients could perform an inconsistent read
  - □ Inconsistency window
- Another issue: replication consistency
  - □ A special type of inconsistency in case of replication
  - Ensuring that the same data item has the same value when read from different replicas

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## Consistency

#### Quorums

- How many nodes need to be involved to get <u>strong</u> <u>consistency</u>?
- Write quorum: W > N/2
  - □ N = the number of nodes involved in replication (replication factor)
  - □ W = the number of nodes participating in the write
    - The number of nodes confirming successful write
  - □ "If you have conflicting writes, only one can get a majority."
- How many nodes you need to contact to be sure you have the most up-to-date change?
- Read quorum: R + W > N
  - R = the number of nodes we need to contact for a read
  - □ "Concurrent read and write cannot happen."



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