

Distributed Databases and Replication

Harvard Extension School

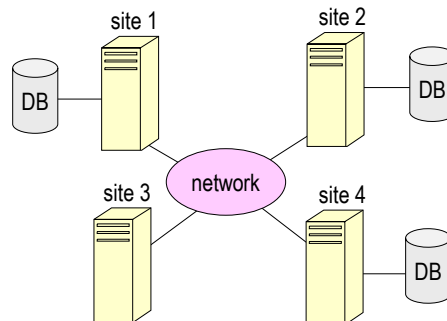
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Lecture designed by David G. Sullivan

What Is a Distributed Database?

- One in which data is:
 - *partitioned* / *fragmented* among multiple machines and/or
 - *replicated* – copies of the same data are made available on multiple machines
- It is managed by a *distributed DBMS (DDBMS)* – processes on two or more machines that jointly provide access to a single logical database.
- The machines in question may be:
 - at different locations (e.g., different branches of a bank)
 - at the same location (e.g., a cluster of machines)
- In the remaining slides, we will use the term *site* to mean one of the machines involved in a DDBMS.
 - may or may not be at the same location

What Is a Distributed Database? (cont.)

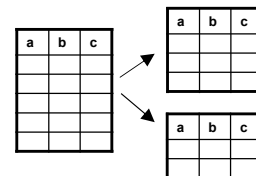


- A given site may have a local copy of all, part, or none of a particular database.
 - makes requests of other sites as needed

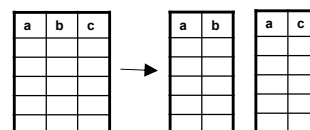
Fragmentation / Sharding

- Divides up a database's records among several sites
 - the resulting "pieces" are known as *fragments/shards*
- Let R be a collection of records of the same type (e.g., a relation).
- *Horizontal fragmentation* divides up the "rows" of R.

- $R(a, b, c) \rightarrow R1(a, b, c), R2(a, b, c), \dots$
- $R = R1 \cup R2 \cup \dots$



- *Vertical fragmentation* divides up the "columns" of R.
 - $R(a, b, c) \rightarrow R1(a, b), R2(a, c), \dots$ (a is the primary key)
 - $R = R1 \bowtie R2 \bowtie \dots$



Fragmentation / Sharding (cont.)

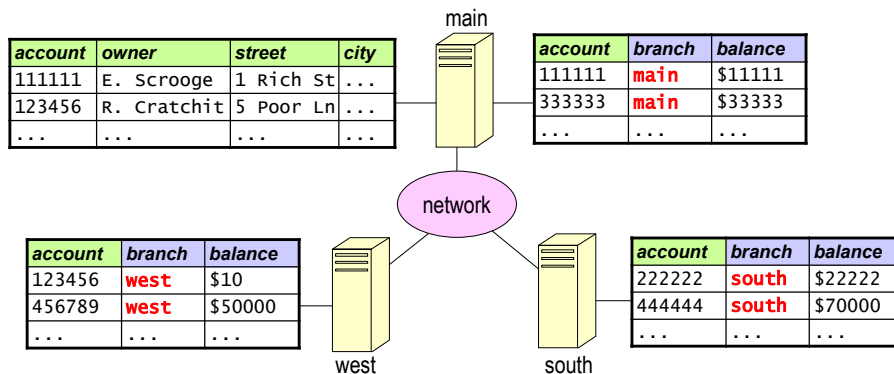
- Another version of vertical fragmentation:
divide up the tables (or other collections of records).
 - e.g., site 1 gets tables A and B
 - site 2 gets tables C and D

Example of Fragmentation

- Here's a relation from a centralized bank database:

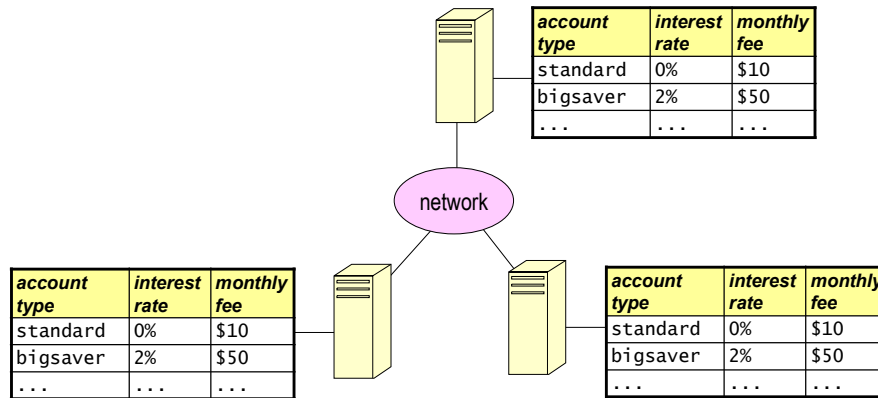
account	owner	street	city	branch	balance
111111	E. Scrooge	1 Rich St	...	main	\$11111
123456	R. Cratchit	5 Poor Ln	...	west	\$10
...	...	...	...	...	...

- Here's one way of fragmenting it:



Replication

- Replication involves putting copies of the same collection of records at different sites.



Reasons for Using a DDBMS

- to improve performance
 - how does distribution do this?
- to provide *high availability*
 - replication allows a database to remain available in the event of a failure at one site
- to allow for modular growth
 - add sites as demand increases
 - adapt to changes in organizational structure
- to integrate data from two or more existing systems
 - without needing to combine them
 - allows for the continued use of legacy systems
 - gives users a unified view of data maintained by different organizations

Challenges of Using a DDBMS (partial list)

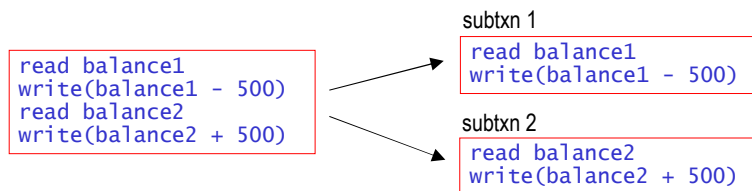
- determining the best way to distribute the data
 - when should we use vertical/horizontal fragmentation?
 - what should be replicated, and how many copies do we need?
- determining the best way to execute a query
 - need to factor in communication costs
- maintaining integrity constraints (primary key, foreign key, etc.)
- ensuring that copies of replicated data remain consistent
- managing *distributed txns*: ones that involve data at multiple sites
 - atomicity and isolation can be harder to guarantee

Failures in a DDBMS

- In addition to the failures that can occur in a centralized system, there are additional types of failures for a DDBMS.
- These include:
 - the loss or corruption of messages
 - TCP/IP handles this type of error
 - the failure of a site
 - the failure of a communication link
 - can often be dealt with by rerouting the messages
 - *network partition*: failures prevent communication between two subgroups of the sites

Distributed Transactions

- A *distributed transaction* involves data stored at multiple sites.
- One of the sites serves as the *coordinator* of the transaction.
 - one option: the site on which the txn originated
- The coordinator divides a distributed transaction into *subtransactions*, each of which executes on one of the sites.



Types of Replication

- In *synchronous replication*, transactions are guaranteed to see the most up-to-date value of an item.
- In *asynchronous replication*, transactions are *not* guaranteed to see the most up-to-date value.

Synchronous Replication I: Read-Any, Write-All

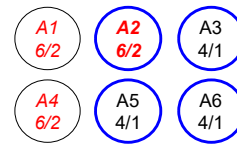
- *Read-Any*: when reading an item, access *any* of the replicas.
- *Write-All*: when writing an item, must update *all* of the replicas.
- Works well when reads are much more frequent than writes.
- Drawback: writes are very expensive.

Synchronous Replication II: Voting

- When writing, update some fraction of the replicas.
 - each value has a version number that is increased when the value is updated
- When reading, read enough copies to ensure you get at least one copy of the most recent value (see next slide).
 - the copies "vote" on the value of the item
 - the copy with the highest version number is the most recent
- Drawback: reads are now more expensive

Synchronous Replication II: Voting (cont.)

- How many copies must be read?
 - let: n = the number of copies
 w = the number of copies that are written
 r = the number of copies that are read
 - need: $r > n - w$ (i.e., at least $n - w + 1$)
 - example: $n = 6$ copies
 update $w = 3$ copies
 must read at least 4 copies
- Example: 6 copies of data item A,
 each with value = 4, version = 1.
 - txn 2 updates A1, A2, and A4 to be 6
 (and their version number becomes 2)
 - txn 1 reads A2, A3, A5, and A6
 - A2 has the highest version number (2),
 so its value (6) is the most recent.



Which of these allow us to ensure that clients always get the most up-to-date value?

- 10 replicas – i.e., 10 copies of each item
- voting-based approach with the following requirements:

	number of copies <u>accessed when reading</u>	number of copies <u>accessed when writing</u>
A.	7	3
B.	5	5
C.	9	2
D.	4	8

(select all that work)

Distributed Concurrency Control

- To ensure the isolation of distributed transactions, need some form of distributed concurrency control.
- Extend the concurrency control schemes that we studied earlier.
 - we'll focus on extending strict 2PL
- If we just used strict 2PL at each site, we would ensure that the schedule of subtxns *at each site* is serializable.
 - why isn't this sufficient?

Distributed Concurrency Control (cont.)

- Example of why special steps are needed:
 - voting-based synchronous replication with 6 replicas
 - let's say that we configure the voting as before:
 - each write updates 3 copies
 - each read accesses 4 copies
 - can end up with schedules that are not conflict serializable
 - example:

T ₁	T ₂
xl(A1); xl(A2); xl(A3) w(A1); w(A2); w(A3)	xl(A4); xl(A5); xl(A6) w(A4); w(A5); w(A6) xl(B4); xl(B5); xl(B6) w(B4); w(B5); w(B6)
xl(B1); xl(B2); xl(B3) w(B1); w(B2); w(B3)	

X_i = the copy of item X at site i

T1 should come *before* T2 based on the order in which they write A.

T1 should come *after* T2 based on the order in which they write B.

What Do We Need?

- We need shared and exclusive locks for a *logical item*, not just for individual copies of that item.
 - referred to as *global locks*
 - doesn't necessarily mean locking every copy
- Requirements for global locks:
 - no two txns can hold a global exclusive lock for the same item
 - any number of txns can hold a global shared lock for an item
 - a txn cannot acquire a global exclusive lock on an item if another txn holds a global shared lock on that item, and vice versa

What Do We Need? (cont.)

- In addition, we need to ensure the correct ordering of operations *within* each distributed transaction.
 - don't want a subtxn to get ahead of where it should be in the context of the txn as a whole
 - relevant even in the absence of replication
 - one option: have the coordinator of the txn acquire the necessary locks before sending operations to a site

Option 1: Centralized Locking

- One site manages the lock requests for *all* items in the distributed database.
 - even items that don't have copies stored at that site
 - since there's only one place to acquire locks, these locks are obviously global locks!
- Problems with this approach?
 - the lock site can become a bottleneck
 - if the lock site crashes, operations at all sites are blocked

Option 2: Primary-Copy Locking

- One copy of an item is designated the *primary copy*.
- The site holding the primary copy handles all lock requests for that item.
 - acquiring a shared lock for the primary copy gives you a global shared lock for the item
 - acquiring an exclusive lock for the primary copy gives you a global exclusive lock for the item
- To prevent one site from becoming a bottleneck, distribute the primary copies among the sites.
- Problem: If a site goes down, operations are blocked on all items for which it holds the primary copy.

Option 3: Fully Distributed Locking

- No one site is responsible for managing lock requests for a given item.
- A transaction acquires a global lock for an item by locking a sufficient number of the item's copies.
 - these local locks combine to form the global lock
- To acquire a global shared lock, acquire local shared locks for a sufficient number of copies (see next slide).
- To acquire a global exclusive lock, acquire local exclusive locks for a sufficient number of copies (see next slide).

Option 3: Fully Distributed Locking (cont.)

- How many copies must be locked?
 - let: n = the total number of copies
 x = the number of copies that must be locked to acquire a global exclusive lock
 s = the number of copies that must be locked to acquire a global shared lock
- we need $x > n/2$
 - guarantees that no two txns can both acquire a global exclusive lock at the same time
- we need $s > n - x$ (i.e., $s + x > n$)
 - if there's a global exclusive lock on an item, there aren't enough unlocked copies for a global shared lock
 - if there's a global shared lock on an item, there aren't enough unlocked copies for a global excl. lock

Option 3: Fully Distributed Locking (cont.)

- Our earlier example would no longer be possible:

T ₁	T ₂
xl(A1); xl(A2); xl(A3) w(A1); w(A2); w(A3) xl(B1); xl(B2); xl(B3) w(B1); w(B2); w(B3)	xl(A4); xl(A5); xl(A6) w(A4); w(A5); w(A6) xl(B4); xl(B5); xl(B6) w(B4); w(B5); w(B6)



T ₁	T ₂
xl(A1); xl(A2); xl(A3); xl(A6) w(A1); w(A2); w(A3); w(A6)	xl(A4); xl(A5); xl(A6) – denied must wait for T1

- $n = 6$
- need $x > 6/2$
- must acquire at least 4 local exclusive locks before writing

Synchronous Replication and Fully Distributed Locking

- Read-any write-all:
 - when writing an item, a txn must update all of the replicas
 - this gives it $x = n$ exclusive locks, so $x > n/2$
 - when reading an item, a txn can access any of the replicas
 - this gives it $s = 1$ shared lock, and $1 > n - n$
- Voting:
 - when writing, a txn updates **a majority of the copies** – i.e., w copies, where **$w > n/2$** .
 - this gives it $x > n/2$ exclusive locks as required
 - when reading, a txn reads $r > n - w$ copies
 - this gives it $s > n - x$ shared locks as required

Which of these would work?

- 9 replicas – i.e., 9 copies of each item
- *fully distributed* locking
- voting-based approach with the following requirements:

	number of copies <u>read</u>	<u>written</u>
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A.	5	5
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B.	6	4
----	---	---

C.	7	3
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D.	4	5
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(select all that work)

Which of these would work?

- 9 replicas – i.e., 9 copies of each item
- *primary-copy* locking
- voting-based approach with the following requirements:

	number of copies <u>read</u>	<u>written</u>
--	---------------------------------	----------------

A.	5	5
----	---	---

B.	6	4
----	---	---

C.	7	3
----	---	---

D.	4	5
----	---	---

(select all that work)

Distributed Deadlock Handling

- Under centralized locking, we can just use one of the schemes that we studied earlier in the semester.
- Under the other two locking schemes, *deadlock detection* becomes more difficult.
 - local waits-for graphs alone will not necessarily detect a deadlock

- example:



- one option: periodically send local waits-for graphs to one site that checks for deadlocks
- Instead of using deadlock detection, it's often easier to use a timeout-based scheme.
 - if a txn waits too long, presume deadlock and roll it back!

Recall: Types of Replication

- In *synchronous replication*, transactions are guaranteed to see the most up-to-date value of an item.
- In *asynchronous replication*, transactions are *not* guaranteed to see the most up-to-date value.

Asynchronous Replication I: Primary Site

- In *primary-site replication*, one replica is designated the *primary* or *master* replica.
- All writes go to the primary.
 - propagated asynchronously to the other replicas (the *secondaries*)
- The secondaries can only be read.
 - no locks are acquired when accessing them
 - thus, we only use them when performing read-only txns
- Drawbacks of this approach?

Asynchronous Replication II: Peer-to-Peer

- In *peer-to-peer replication*, more than one replica can be updated.
- Problem: need to somehow resolve conflicting updates!