CS-310 Scalable Software Architectures Lecture 08: Relational Databases

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Last Time: Load balancers

We have 2/3 of the *end-to-end* view of a basic scalable architecture! (for *services*, at least)

- *Frontend*: Client connects to "the service" via a load balancer.
 - Really, the client is being directed to one of many copies of the service.
 - Global LBs (DNS and IP anycast) have no central bottlenecks.
 - Local LBs (Reverse Proxy or NAT) provide mid-level scaling and continuous operation (health checks & rolling updates).
- Services: Implemented by thousands of clones.
 - If the code is **stateless** then any worker can equally handle any request.
- Data Storage??
 - The next big topic!

Today's topic

On to Databases

Will summarize the most important parts of CS-339 or CS-217 in one lecture.

Back to Wikipedia

- Recall that we pushed all app state to the DB, allowing MediaWiki app to be stateless and thus trivially parallelizable.
- Databases provide both **persistent storage** and **coordination** in large-scale system.

In general, these are our two biggest scalability challenges and both are the concerns of databases.



Databases

s1: enwiki

Computers have a hierarchy of storage



- Disk is about *ten billion* times larger than registers, but has about *ten million* times larger delay (latency).
- Goal is to work as much as possible in the top levels.
- Large, rarely-needed data is stored at the bottom level



Storage has limited bandwidth

- All types of computer storage are limited to reading/writing just a small fraction at once.
- Magnetic disks:
 - The read/write head can read the charges on a tiny portion of the magnetic disk.
- RAM (memory):
 - Memory and flash chips store lots of data, but only a few bytes can be transferred at once, because there are only a couple hundred electrical connections at the edge.
 - SSDs (flash) is similar, with even fewer electrical connections.

Magnetic disk's data can only be read at current location of the read/write head.



https://animagraffs.com/hard-disk-drive/



Just a couple hundred electrical connections at the edge of a RAM card.

Redundant Array of Independent Disks (RAID)

- Disks have a few shortcomings:
 - *Limited capacity* (~12TB)
 - *Limited throughput* (~150MB/s)
 - *Likelihood of failure* (especially for magnetic/rotating disks)
- RAID uses multiple disks to solve these problems
 - Many different variations of RAID, depending on your budget and which of the above three problems are most important.
- Basic ideas are:
 - Increase *capacity* by making multiple disks available to store data.
 - Increase *throughput* by accessing data in *parallel* on multiple disks.
 - Reduce impact of a disk *failure* by storing data redundantly on multiple disks.
- Disk interface is very simple (just an array of sectors), so it's easy to create a **logical/virtual disk** made of sectors from multiple physical disks.

Basic idea of RAID

- Combine many disks to create one *superior* virtual disk.
- The RAID array provides the same interface as a single disk.



A Database Server @ NU

- 264 fast (10k RPM) magnetic disks
- 56 slow (7200 RPM) magnetic disks (for backup)
- ~150 TB storage capacity
- Comprised of 6 physical chassis (boxes) in one big cabinet, about the size of a coat closet.





Large database servers

- Capacity is practically unlimited, but a single computer has:
 - Limited compute power.
 - Limited I/O bandwidth (theoretical max of ~80 GB/s on PCI-express v4).
- This single-machine design can actually scale pretty well!



• Relational (aka SQL) DBs use this design

Persistent (disk) storage has always been different

- Programming languages rarely deal with storage directly (except SQL).
 - Programmer must write code to move data from memory to disk.
 - Disks are slow, so making the programmer think before using it is OK.
 - But it's also really tedious to operate on large data sets, where data is constantly shuffled between disk and RAM.
- Normal way of accessing persistent storage:
 - Pass data into and out of files using system's open/read/write functions.
- Databases let the programmer use persistent storage w/out worrying about file-level transfers, with advanced performance optimizations.
- Usually interact with DB using a special query language (eg., SQL).

Relational DBs

- **Relational** databases store data in multiple **tables**.
- Each table has pre-defined set of columns (schema).
- Rows are added over time.
- Rows can refer to other rows through **foreign keys**. *(the arrows)*
 - "Philanthropy" is defined once, but referenced by the *industry* id 131 in many user rows.
- The final LinkedIn page may be generated by **JOIN**ing rows from many tables.

http://www.linkedin.com/in/williamhgates



Bill Gates Greater Seattle Area | Philanthropy

Summary

Co-chair of the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation. Chairman, Microsoft Corporation. Voracious reader. Avid traveler. Active blogger.

Experience

Co-chair • Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation 2000 – Present

Co-founder, Chairman • Microsoft 1975 – Present

Education

Harvard University 1973 – 1975 Lakeside School, Seattle

Contact Info

Blog: thegatesnotes.com Twitter: @BillGates

users tabl										
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	id	id user_id type			url					
	155	155 • 251			http://thegatesnotes.com					

http://twitter.com/BillGates

• 251

twitter

156

12

13

users table



- Regions:
 - Allows many users to refer to shared region data without repetition or inconsistency.
- Positions:
 - Allows a user to have an arbitrary number of positions (zero to infinity).
- Industries? Education? Contact_info?

In summary:

A "relation" is a table

• A multi-table (relational) DB allows **many-toone** and **many-to-many** relationships while keeping columns finite and clearly defined.

user_id	first_name	last_n	ame	e summar		ry		
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	14										
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11	Bob	100	1		2	Computer Sci.	2	\rightarrow	2	Ford	1-5003
20	Betsy	100	2		4	Chemistry	1		4	Mudd	1-2005
21	Fran	101	1		5	Physics	4		5	Cook	1-3004
22	Frank	102	4		7	Materials Sci.	5		6	Garage	1-6001
35	Sarah	200	5					J		0	
40	Sam	10	7	1							
54	Pat	102	2								

DB Design diagram: (my style)

- A graphical representation of the DB schema.
- Defines the tables, columns, primary and foreign keys



For more coverage of relational DB schema design:

- <u>https://youtu.be/kqNpwL14nns?t=267</u>
- Or search Youtube for "Tarzia 317 Lecture 07"
- This is **highly recommended** if you have not taken a database course, and probably helpful even if you *have* taken CS-339.

SQL Query language

SELECT staff.id, staff.name, staff.room, department.name, department.buildingId

FROM staff JOIN department

```
ON staff.departmentId=department.id
```

staff <i>.id</i>	staff .name	staff. <i>room</i>	department .name	department .buildingId	
11	Bob	100	Industrial Eng.	1	
20	Betsy	100	Computer Sci.	2	
21	Fran	101	Industrial Eng.	1	
22	Frank	102	Chemistry	1	
35	Sarah	200	Physics	4	
40	Sam	10	Materials Sci.	5	
54	Pat	102	Computer Sci.	2	

Why a Relational Database?

Most importantly:

- Scalability work with data larger than computer's RAM.
- Persistence keep data around after your program finishes.
- Indexing efficiently sort & search along various dimensions.
- **Concurrency** multiple users or applications can read/write.
- Analysis SQL query language is concise yet powerful.

And also:

- Integrity restrict data type, disallow duplicate entries, transactions.
- **Deduplication** save space, keep common data consistent.
- Security different users can have access to specific data.

Can we just read/write files to disk to achieve these?

- Scalability work with data larger than computer's RAM.
- Persistence keep data around after your program finishes.
- Indexing efficiently sort & search along various dimensions.
- **Concurrency** multiple users or applications can read/write.
- Analysis SQL query language is concise yet powerful.
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- Security different users can have access to specific data.

STOF

Filesystem is like a basic database, it gives:

- Scalability work with data larger than computer's RAM.
- Persistence keep data around after your program finishes.
- Indexing efficient access in just one dimension the path/filename.
- Concurrency multiple apps can read/write, but lacks transactions.
- Analysis SQL query language is concise yet powerful.
- Integrity restrict data type, disallow duplicate entries, transactions.
- Deduplication save space, keep common data consistent.
- Security different users can have access to specific data.



- When working with large amounts of data it can be a challenge to find an item of interest.
- We don't want to read every storage address to find what we're looking for.
- Sorting the data can help tremendously, because it allows binary search.



Why sorting is not enough

- You can't sort in multiple dimensions
 - Let's say you want to find a product quickly according to either it's name, manufacturer, or price. You can only sort by one of the there three columns.
- Can't insert new data without *shifting* everything over to make room.
 - Shifting data in storage would require rewriting about half of it (on average).
 - That's incredibly amount of work to accommodate just one tiny addition.
- Sorting doesn't take advantage of the hardware's storage hierarchy.
 - The binary search will have to access the disk in every step because the index is distributed over the full data set.
 - It would be better to put all the index data close together (spatial locality).

A printed catalog can add multiple indexes



- Grainger catalog is sorted according to high-level *product categories*.
- It has both yellow and blue index pages.
- These allow efficient lookup by:
 - product type names
 - manufacturer names
- In total, products can be efficiently found in three ways.
- Simple sorted lists are effective here because data is never added.

DB indexes use a tree or hashtable instead of sorting

- Self-balanced binary trees give the log(N) speed of a binary search, while also allowing entries to be quickly added and deleted.
- This is all review of CS-214 Data Structures.



Balanced binary search tree

- Finding an element is very similar to binary search of a sorted list.
- Start from the root. Move to the **left subtree** if the value you're looking for is smaller, otherwise move to the **right subtree**.



Creating indexes/keys

- Indexes are usually defined when the table is created
 - *Primary key* must be unique for each row.
 - We must be able to quickly check that new value does not already exist.
 - Thus, unique/primary keys are indexed.
- But you may later realize that certain queries are too slow
 - Without proper indexes, DBMS will have to examine every row in the table to find the relevant rows.
 - Adding one or more indexes may dramatically speed up a query.

Basic syntax:

CREATE INDEX index_name **ON** table_name (column_name)

Multiple indexes in one table are possible

- Allow finding rows quickly based on multiple criteria
- Need two indexes to quickly get results for both:
 - SELECT * FROM Person WHERE SSN=543230921
 - SELECT * FROM Person WHERE birthYear BETWEEN 1979 AND 1983



Composite indexes involve multiple columns

- Useful when WHERE clauses involves pairs of column values: SELECT * FROM Person WHERE firstName = "Alice" AND lastName = "Sanders"
- Unlike two separate indexes, you can find the *matching pair* of values with one lookup.
- Otherwise, would have to first find results for firstName = "Alice" and scan through all the Alices checking for lastName = "Sanders"
- However, example below does not allow you to quickly find rows by lastName



Query execution plans

- The DBMS must translate your SELECT query into a series of table lookups.
- A complex query has many choices about what to do first, and it will try to make the most efficient choice.
 - For example, if a JOIN is used, either of the two tables can be examined first.
 - The presence of indexes make some choices more efficient than others.
- DBMSs have special commands that explain the query execution plan:
 - SQLite: EXPLAIN QUERY PLAN SELECT ...
 - MySQL: **EXPLAIN** SELECT ...
 - This usually tells you how many rows will be examined, and adding indexes can reduce these numbers.

When to index columns?

- When a query is slow!
- Generally, add an index if the column is:
 - Used in WHERE conditions, or
 - Used in JOIN ... ON conditions, or
 - A foreign key refers to it.
- Also helpful if the column is:
 - In a MIN or MAX aggregation function

Indexes are not free!

- Don't add indexes unless you need them.
- Rookie mistake is to index every column "just in case."
- Indexes consume storage space *(storage overhead),*
- Indexes must be updated when data is modified *(performance overhead).*



Key and Index terminology in SQL

- Plain key or index is just a way to find rows quickly
 - Just creates a search tree.
- Unique key is an index that prevents duplicates
 - Bottom level of search tree has no repeated values
 - DBMS can use the tree to quickly search for existing rows with that value before allowing a row insertion (or column update) to proceed.
- Primary key is just a unique key, but there can only be one per table
 - We think of the primary key as the most important unique key in the table
- Foreign key makes a column's values match a column in another table
 - The referenced column in the other table should be indexed (usually it's the primary key).

Summary

- **Persistent** storage requires special consideration due to slow performance and lack of language-level support.
- Databases solve lots of problems:
 - scalability, persistence, indexing, concurrency, etc.
 - Filesystems can solve some, but not all, of these problems.
- Relational (SQL) databases store data in tables.
- Developer defines the DB schema first (tables, columns, keys).
 - Rows are added during DB operation, and they must fit the schema.
- Indexes let us find rows quickly with value of one or more column.
- SQL query language lets us run analysis code "close to" data storage (filtering, aggregation sum, count, min, max, avg, etc.).