SHARED-NOTHING PARTITIONING

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npb9, shared-nothing

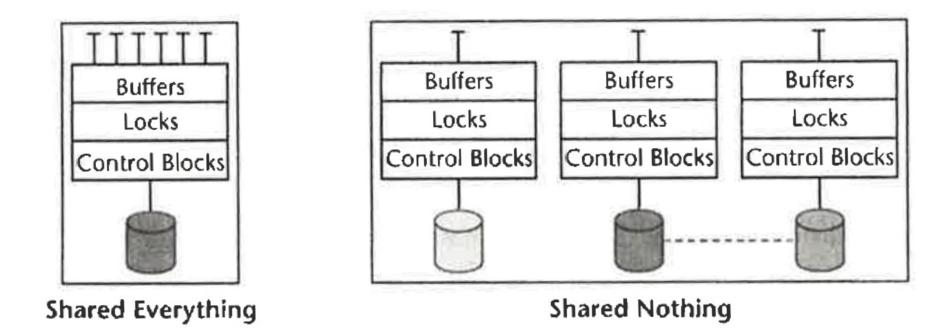
Literature

- Sam Lightstone, Toby Teorey, Tom Nadeau, Physical Database Design, Morgan Kaufmann Publishers, 2007.
 - Chapter 6

- Henry Ford (1863-1947)
 - Nothing is particulary hard if you divide it into small jobs.
- Shared-nothing is a divide-and-conquer strategy for solving
 - Hard problems defined over large data sets
- Divide and conquer is a well known technique in CS
 - Large data set is split into parts
 - One computer solves one part

- One computer solves one part
 - Queries are executed in a fraction of the time
- Partial results are integrated into final solution

- Extremes of parallel-processing architecture
 - Shared everything and
 - Shared nothing
- Shared everything
 - Single computer: shared memory, shared disk and shared bank of CPUs
 - Symetric Multiprocessor (SMP)
 - Nonuniform Memory Architecture (NUMA)
 - NUMA is subset of SMP



- Shared nothing
 - Sets of relatively independent servers working cooperatively on subsets of a problem
 - Occasionally these servers will need to share data
 - High-spead interconnect
 - Ability to scale out to a very large number of servers

- Three major products that offer sharednothing architecture
 - DB2, Data Partitioning Facility
 - Components, servers, disks and network interconnections
 - Informix, Extended Parallel Server (XPS)
 - Commodity components
 - NCR Teradata
 - Commodity disk servers, special hardware interconnect

- IBM Netezza
 - Shared-nothing architecture
 - Powerful business inteligence
- Shared-nothing architectures continue to dominate the industry for large complex data
 - Complex analysis is often required

- Several servers collaborate to solve single problem
 - Each server owns a fragment of data
 - No access to other disks
 - Each server operates on a distinct subset of the database
 - Uses its own resources to perform analysis of the fragment
 - Resultas are gathered by the designated server
 - Each server is called »node« or a »partition«

- The designated server that collects the results is called »coordinator«
 - May itself include a partition
 - Gathers the results and reports to the client
 - Has the deeper view of the cluster (where is what, which nodes do which task, ...)
 - Has no view on the activity of nodes except through network communications

• To see how this improves performance and scalability consider the following simple aggregation query

```
Select SUM(SALES) from
MYSCHEMA.SALESDATA
where SALESDATE < '2006-11-17' and SALESDATE >
'2004-01-01'
```

 If there is an index on [YEAR,SALES] the DBMS will scan the index

- Example database
 - We have 3M entries in the database for a given range (1.1.2004–17.11.2006)
 - Single server would need to access 3M keys
 - We have 10 nodes => 300K keys per node
 - Each node computes sum of the 300K sales
 - 10 summations are passed to the coordinator
 - Each of nodes needed 1/10 of the time
- This impressive scale out has not been achieved with other multiprocessor architectures
- Shared-nothing MPPs have several thousand npb, nodes ing

Shared-nothing scale out

- Casual observer could say that
 - the benefits achieved are simply the result of applying 10 times the processing power
 - Perhaps the use of single server with 10 times
 CPU, memory, etc. scales just as well.
- Problems with trying to increase processing time linearly by simply buying larger servers
 - First
 - server with 10 times the CPU power, 10 times memory, 10 times bus bandwidth, etc. may not be possible

Shared-nothing scale out

- Even the largest NUMA systems are constrained by their bus architecture
- What if num of nodes was 100 or 1000? Would it be possible to buy 1000 times faster system?
- Second
 - It is difficult to design the algorithms that scale linearly to perform parallel processing
 - If we could increase all resources by 10 on single machine
 - What could be the improvement of the algorithms?

Shared-nothing scale out

- There is »N² effect« discussed later
 - Natural consequence of how joins are processed in shared-nothing systems
 - Exponential gain in efficiency of join processing

Key concepts and terms

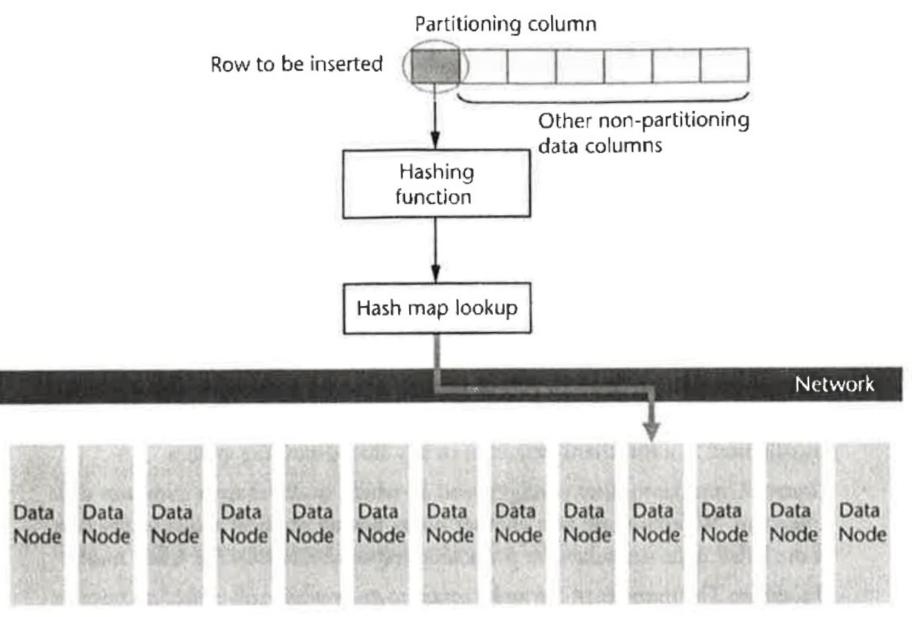
- Shared-nothing architecture
- Massively-parallel processing (MPP)
- Massively parallel processor (MPP)
- Cluster
- Scalability
- Linearity

Hash partitioning

- Most products that use shared-partitioning distribute records to the database nodes using hash function
 - Hash function maps one or more column values of each record to the numeric value
- Depending on the particular configuration
 - Shared-nothing system can have different number of nodes
 - The hash value can not be directly converted to node number

Hash partitioning

- Hash map or partition map
 - Mapping from hash values of records to node numbers
 - Each time the new node is added to MPP the hash map needs to be recomputed
 - Partition map has as many or more entries than the largest number of nodes supported



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Hash partitioning

- In DB2 the partitioning columns are defined during the table creation process
 - Extension of CREATE TABLE DDL
- In Teradata the partitioning is defined by primary index
 - Can be different to primary key of table (often is)
 - If primary index and primary key exist, the later is implemented as secondary index
 - User can have either unique or nonunique primary index

Hash partitioning

- Design goal for good partitioning
 - Minimize the data skew accross the nodes
 - Maximize colocation between tables for joins
- Choosing partitioning columns
 - Should have fairly large number of distinct values
 - Relatively limited data skew is a good design practise
- More on skew and collocation

- 3 most commonly mentioned architectures for multiprocessor high transaction rate systems
 - shared memory (SM)
 - multiple processors shared a common central memory
 - shared disk (SD)
 - multiple processors each with private memory share a common collection of disks
 - shared nothing (SN)
 - neither memory nor peripheral storage is shared among processors

- Michael Stonebreaker [1986]
 - On the benefits and drawbacks of shared nothing architecture
 - A table comparing attributes [1..3]
 - 1 is superior
- Difficulty of transaction management (1,2)
 - SM few changes
 - SD more complex, lock table hotspot
 - SN difficult, distr.deadlock det., multiphase commit

System Feature	Shared nothing	Shared memory	Shared disk
Difficulty of concurrency control	2	2	3
Difficulty of crash recovery	2	1	3
Difficulty of data base design	3	2	2
Difficulty of load balancing	3	1	2
Difficulty of high availability	1	3	2
Number of messages	3	1	2
Bandwidth required	1	3	2
Ability to scale to large number of machines	1	3	2
Ability to have large distances between machines	1	3	2
Susceptibility to critical sections	1	3	2
Number of system images	3	1	3
Susceptibility to hot spots	3	3	3

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- Data base design (row 3)
 SM, SD difficult, SN harder
- Load balancing (row 4)
 SN hard, SM, SD easier
- Next five points are fairly straightforward (rows 5-9)
- Critical sections
 - SM hard, SD less hard, SN no problem

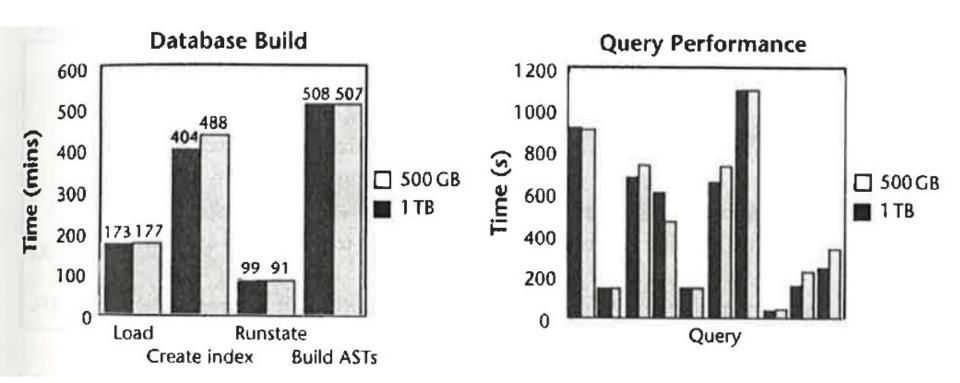
- System images (row 10)
 - SM one image, SN, SD one per CPU
 - More administration
- Hot spots
 - All susceptible to hot spots

- Conclusions
 - SM does not scale to a large number of CPUs
 - SD excels at nothing
 - Justifications of flaws of SN
 - Stonebraker's paper: problems are unlikely to be very significant
 - Recent internet DBMSs prove above

- More conclusions
 - SN improves bandwidth and scalability
 - SN reduces susceptibility to critical sections
 - Negative aspects of SM can be summarized as »complexity«
 - Harder to design and manage
 - Complexity is critical limitation for mainstream?
 - The ability to outperform combined with advances in self-managing systems is shrinking these concerns

- Positive aspects what sets SM arch. apart
 - Impresive linearity and scale-out from complex bussiness inteligence workloads
- Experiment Goddard, 2005
 - Single-server 24-way system, 0.5 TB
 - Two-node 1 TB system, identical HW
 - Each system stores 0.5 TB
 - Data is hash partitioned, SN architecture
 - Experimental data
 - Near-linear scalability for DB build processing and query execution performance !

Experiment Goddard, 2005



- How to explain the dramatic difference in scalability?
- N² effect
 - Consider computational complexity of 30x30 join
 - Uniprocessor: single CPU performs 30x30
 - SMP with 3 CPUs working on the problem can be solved in 1/3 the time
 - 3-way MPP can solve this in parallel on 3 nodes obtaining 10x10 join on all 3 nodes

- 30-way MPP can solve this in parallel on 30 nodes obtaining 1x1 join on all 30 nodes
- We assume data has been distributed perfectly
 - Join data is perfectly collocated
 - Part of computation has been done by distribution
 - In practice carful selection of the partitioning keys can give good collocation

N² effect

Processor type	Computational complexity	Total execution time in arbitrary units
Uniprocessor	30.30	900
SMP (3-way)	30.30/3	300
MPP (3-way)	10.10.3/3	100
MPP (30-way)	1.1.30/30	1

Skew and collocation

- First impression
 - Node operates on fragment of data
 - Results are merged in a trivial way
 - Leading to amazing peformance
- Challenges
 - Getting the design right
 - The scalability is rearly perfectly linear

Skew and join collocation

- Most SN systems use hash partitioning
 - Columns are selected as the »partitioning keys|columns«
 - Hash partitioning assigns records to nodes
- Ultimate goal of SN architecture
 - Keep all nodes busy working in a linear fashion on larger DB problems
 - Minimize the degree of data sharing
- Two serious problems
 - Skew and join collocation

Data skew

- In order for SM to be effective data must be distributed evenly
 - If some node has significantly more data, computation will take longer
 - Comp.time is limited to the slowest node
 - In the case of range partitioning this is nearly impossible
 - Each data range includes different number of records
 - Example: sales records partitioned by date

Data skew

- Even very fair hash function large density of data at some points may seriously skew data
 - Example:
 - Hash partitioning sales into weeks may give huge peek in the last week of December
 - Nodes would therefore store disproportionate volume of data
- The solution
 - Not improvement of the hash function
 - Be careful what columns are chosen for partitioning
 - Date of sale may be poor choice
 - Product ID would also seriously skew the data since some products will be more popular

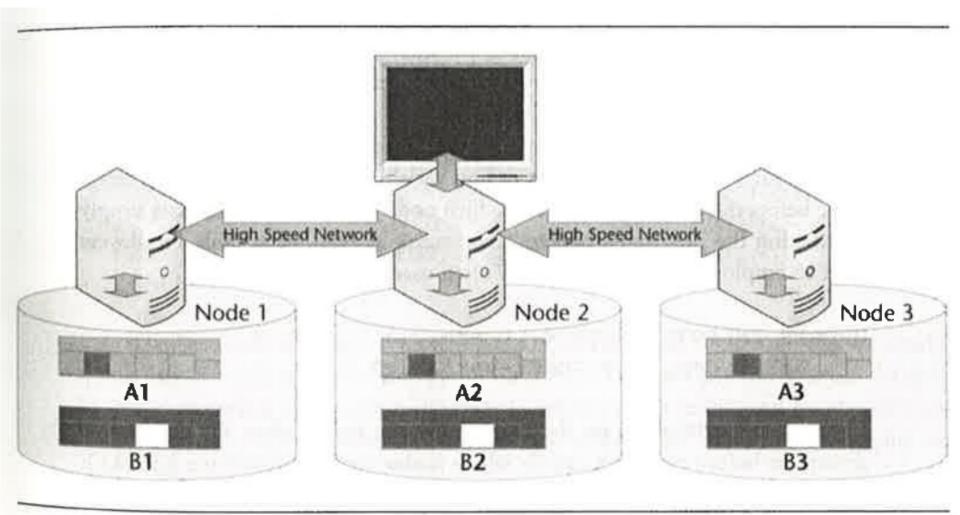
Data skew

- To achieve even distribution select columns that:
 - Have several times more unique values than the number of nodes in the system
 - Have reasonable even distribution of data

Collocation

- In order for SN architecture to scale well
 - Communication should be kept to a minimum
- A common problem
 - Tables that need to be joined are not collocated
 - Data from one node needs to be shiped to another node
 - This is expensive and can cripple benefits of SN

Collocation between two tables



Collocation

- Collocation is placement of rows from different tables that contain related data in the same DB node
 - Tables A and B (from figure) are hashed accross 3 nodes
 - Shaded sections show the join data
 - If data is collocated, the shaded section of A will join to shaded sction of B
 - Worst case scenario: entire data for one table has to be shipped to other nodes for joining

Collocation

- Interesting and challenging design goal
 - Find partitioning keys that achieve good collocation as well as even distribution
 - Rows in collocated tables with the same partitioning key value are always placed in the same DB partition