

### **Chapter 20: Parallel Databases**

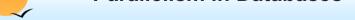
- Introduction
- I/O Parallelism
- Interquery Parallelism
- Intraquery Parallelism
- Intraoperation Parallelism
- Interoperation Parallelism
- Design of Parallel Systems



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# Parallelism in Databases



- Data can be partitioned across multiple disks for parallel I/O.
- Individual relational operations (e.g., sort, join, aggregation) can be executed in parallel
  - ★ data can be partitioned and each processor can work independently on its own partition.
- Queries are expressed in high level language (SQL, translated to relational algebra)
  - \* makes parallelization easier.
- Different queries can be run in parallel with each other.

  Concurrency control takes care of conflicts.
- Thus, databases naturally lend themselves to parallelism.





### Introduction

- Parallel machines are becoming quite common and affordable
  - ★ Prices of microprocessors, memory and disks have dropped sharply
- Databases are growing increasingly large
  - large volumes of transaction data are collected and stored for later analysis.
  - ★ multimedia objects like images are increasingly stored in databases
- Large-scale parallel database systems increasingly used for:
  - \* storing large volumes of data
  - processing time-consuming decision-support queries
  - providing high throughput for transaction processing



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### I/O Parallelism

- Reduce the time required to retrieve relations from disk by partitioning
- the relations on multiple disks.
- Horizontal partitioning tuples of a relation are divided among many disks such that each tuple resides on one disk.
- Partitioning techniques (number of disks = n):

### Round-robin:

Send the  $i^{th}$  tuple inserted in the relation to disk  $i \mod n$ .

### Hash partitioning

- ★ Choose one or more attributes as the partitioning attributes.
- ★ Choose hash function h with range 0...n 1
- ★ Let *i* denote result of hash function *h* applied to the partitioning attribute value of a tuple. Send tuple to disk *i*.

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## I/O Parallelism (Cont.)

- Partitioning techniques (cont.):
- Range partitioning:
  - ★ Choose an attribute as the partitioning attribute.
  - ★ A partitioning vector  $[v_0, v_1, ..., v_{n-2}]$  is chosen.
  - ★ Let v be the partitioning attribute value of a tuple. Tuples such that  $v_i \le v_{i+1}$  go to disk l+1. Tuples with  $v < v_0$  go to disk 0 and tuples with  $v \ge v_{n-2}$  go to disk n-1.
  - E.g., with a partitioning vector [5,11], a tuple with partitioning attribute value of 2 will go to disk 0, a tuple with value 8 will go to disk 1, while a tuple with value 20 will go to disk2.



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# Comparison of Partitioning Techniques

- Evaluate how well partitioning techniques support the following types of data access:
  - 1.Scanning the entire relation.
  - 2.Locating a tuple associatively point queries.
  - ★ E.g., r.A = 25.
  - 3.Locating all tuples such that the value of a given attribute lies within a specified range range queries.
  - **★** E.g.,  $10 \le r.A < 25$ .



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# Comparison of Partitioning Techniques (Cont.)

### Round robin:

- Advantages
  - ★ Best suited for sequential scan of entire relation on each query.
  - ★ All disks have almost an equal number of tuples; retrieval work is thus well balanced between disks.
- Range queries are difficult to process
  - ★ No clustering -- tuples are scattered across all disks



# Comparison of Partitioning Techniques(Cont.)

### Hash partitioning:

- Good for sequential access
  - ★ Assuming hash function is good, and partitioning attributes form a key, tuples will be equally distributed between disks
  - \* Retrieval work is then well balanced between disks.
- Good for point queries on partitioning attribute
  - Can lookup single disk, leaving others available for answering other queries.
  - Index on partitioning attribute can be local to disk, making lookup and update more efficient
- No clustering, so difficult to answer range queries

## **Comparison of Partitioning Techniques (Cont.)**

### Range partitioning:

- Provides data clustering by partitioning attribute value.
- Good for sequential access
- Good for point queries on partitioning attribute: only one disk needs to be accessed.
- For range queries on partitioning attribute, one to a few disks may need to be accessed
- Remaining disks are available for other queries.
- Good if result tuples are from one to a few blocks.
- If many blocks are to be fetched, they are still fetched from one to a few disks, and potential parallelism in disk access is wasted
  - \* Example of execution skew.



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## **Handling of Skew**

- The distribution of tuples to disks may be skewed that is, some disks have many tuples, while others may have fewer tuples.
- Types of skew:
  - **★** Attribute-value skew.
    - Some values appear in the partitioning attributes of many tuples; all the tuples with the same value for the partitioning attribute end up in the same partition.
    - > Can occur with range-partitioning and hash-partitioning.
  - **★** Partition skew
    - > With range-partitioning, badly chosen partition vector may assign too many tuples to some partitions and too few to others.
    - Less likely with hash-partitioning if a good hash-function is chosen.



## **Partitioning a Relation across Disks**

- If a relation contains only a few tuples which will fit into a single disk block, then assign the relation to a single disk.
- Large relations are preferably partitioned across all the available disks.
- If a relation consists of m disk blocks and there are n disks available in the system, then the relation should be allocated min(m,n) disks.



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- To create a balanced partitioning vector (assuming partitioning attribute forms a key of the relation):
  - Sort the relation on the partitioning attribute.
  - ★ Construct the partition vector by scanning the relation in sorted order as follows.
    - > After every 1/n<sup>th</sup> of the relation has been read, the value of the partitioning attribute of the next tuple is added to the partition vector.
  - $\star$  *n* denotes the number of partitions to be constructed.
  - ★ Duplicate entries or imbalances can result if duplicates are present in partitioning attributes.
- Alternative technique based on histograms used in practice

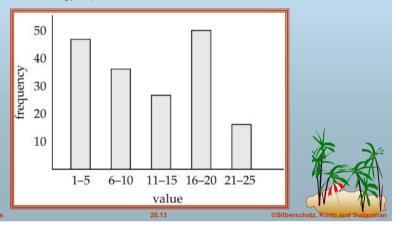


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## **Handling Skew using Histograms**

- Balanced partitioning vector can be constructed from histogram in a relatively straightforward fashion
  - Assume uniform distribution within each range of the histogram
- Histogram can be constructed by scanning relation, or sampling (blocks containing) tuples of the relation





## **Interquery Parallelism**

- Queries/transactions execute in parallel with one another.
- Increases transaction throughput; used primarily to scale up a transaction processing system to support a larger number of transactions per second.
- Easiest form of parallelism to support, particularly in a sharedmemory parallel database, because even sequential database systems support concurrent processing.
- More complicated to implement on shared-disk or shared-nothing architectures
  - ★ Locking and logging must be coordinated by passing messages between processors.
  - ★ Data in a local buffer may have been updated at another processor.
  - ★ Cache-coherency has to be maintained reads and writes of data in buffer must find latest version of data.



- Skew in range partitioning can be handled elegantly using virtual processor partitioning:
  - ★ create a large number of partitions (say 10 to 20 times the number of processors)
  - ★ Assign virtual processors to partitions either in round-robin fashion or based on estimated cost of processing each virtual partition
- Basic idea:
  - ★ If any normal partition would have been skewed, it is very likely the skew is spread over a number of virtual partitions
  - Skewed virtual partitions get spread across a number of processors. so work gets distributed evenly!





## **Cache Coherency Protocol**

- Example of a cache coherency protocol for shared disk systems:
  - ★ Before reading/writing to a page, the page must be locked in shared/exclusive mode.
  - ★ On locking a page, the page must be read from disk
  - ★ Before unlocking a page, the page must be written to disk if it was modified.
- More complex protocols with fewer disk reads/writes exist.
- Cache coherency protocols for shared-nothing systems are similar. Each database page is assigned a *home* processor. Requests to fetch the page or write it to disk are sent to the home processor.



### **Intraquery Parallelism**

- Execution of a single query in parallel on multiple processors/disks; important for speeding up long-running queries.
- Two complementary forms of intraquery parallelism :
  - ★ Intraoperation Parallelism parallelize the execution of each individual operation in the query.
  - **★ Interoperation Parallelism** execute the different operations in a query expression in parallel.

the first form scales better with increasing parallelism because the number of tuples processed by each operation is typically more than the number of operations in a query

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## **Parallel Sort**

### Range-Partitioning Sort

- Choose processors  $P_0$ , ...,  $P_m$ , where  $m \le n$  -1 to do sorting.
- Create range-partition vector with m entries, on the sorting attributes
- Redistribute the relation using range partitioning
  - ★ all tuples that lie in the i<sup>th</sup> range are sent to processor P<sub>i</sub>
  - ★ P<sub>i</sub> stores the tuples it received temporarily on disk D<sub>i</sub>.
  - ★ This step requires I/O and communication overhead.
- Each processor P<sub>i</sub> sorts its partition of the relation locally.
- Each processors executes same operation (sort) in parallel with other processors, without any interaction with the others (data parallelism).
- Final merge operation is trivial: range-partitioning ensures that, for 1 j m, the key values in processor  $P^i$  are all less than the key values in  $P_i$ .



- Our discussion of parallel algorithms assumes:
  - ★ read-only queries
  - \* shared-nothing architecture
  - ★ n processors, P<sub>0</sub>, ..., P<sub>n-1</sub>, and n disks D<sub>0</sub>, ..., D<sub>n-1</sub>, where disk D<sub>i</sub> is associated with processor P<sub>i</sub>.
- If a processor has multiple disks they can simply simulate a single disk  $D_i$ .
- Shared-nothing architectures can be efficiently simulated on shared-memory and shared-disk systems.
  - Algorithms for shared-nothing systems can thus be run on shared-memory and shared-disk systems.
  - ★ However, some optimizations may be possible.

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## Parallel Sort (Cont.)

### **Parallel External Sort-Merge**

- Assume the relation has already been partitioned among disks  $D_0, ..., D_{n-1}$  (in whatever manner).
- **Each** processor  $P_i$  locally sorts the data on disk  $D_i$ .
- The sorted runs on each processor are then merged to get the final sorted output.
- Parallelize the merging of sorted runs as follows:
  - ★ The sorted partitions at each processor  $P_i$  are range-partitioned across the processors  $P_0, ..., P_{m-1}$ .
  - ★ Each processor P<sub>i</sub> performs a merge on the streams as they are received, to get a single sorted run.
  - ★ The sorted runs on processors P<sub>0</sub>,..., P<sub>m-1</sub> are concatenated to the final result.



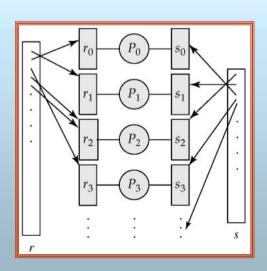


### **Parallel Join**

- The join operation requires pairs of tuples to be tested to see if they satisfy the join condition, and if they do, the pair is added to the join output.
- Parallel join algorithms attempt to split the pairs to be tested over several processors. Each processor then computes part of the join locally.
- In a final step, the results from each processor can be collected together to produce the final result.



## **Partitioned Join (Cont.)**



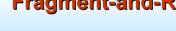




### **Partitioned Join**

- For equi-joins and natural joins, it is possible to *partition* the two input relations across the processors, and compute the join locally at each processor.
- Let r and s be the input relations, and we want to compute  $r \bowtie_{rA=s,B} s$ .
- $\blacksquare$  r and s each are partitioned into n partitions, denoted  $r_0, r_1, ..., r_{n-1}$  and  $S_0, S_1, ..., S_{n-1}$
- Can use either range partitioning or hash partitioning.
- r and s must be partitioned on their join attributes r.A and s.B), using the same range-partitioning vector or hash function.
- Partitions  $r_i$  and  $s_i$  are sent to processor  $P_i$
- Each processor  $P_i$  locally computes  $r_i \bowtie_{r_i A=s_i,B} s_i$ . Any of the standard join methods can be used.



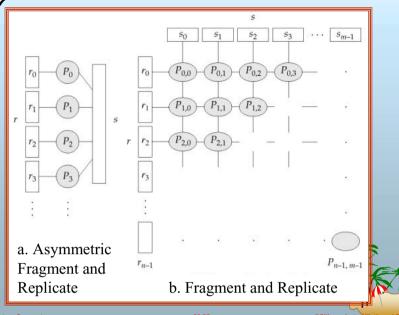


- Partitioning not possible for some join conditions
  - ★ e.g., non-equijoin conditions, such as r.A > s.B.
- For joins were partitioning is not applicable, parallelization can be accomplished by fragment and replicate technique
  - ★ Depicted on next slide
- Special case asymmetric fragment-and-replicate:
  - ★ One of the relations, say r, is partitioned; any partitioning technique can be used.
  - ★ The other relation, s, is replicated across all the processors.
  - $\star$  Processor  $P_i$  then locally computes the join of  $r_i$  with all of s using any join technique.



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### **Depiction of Fragment-and-Replicate Joins**





## Fragment-and-Replicate Join (Cont.)

- Both versions of fragment-and-replicate work with any join condition, since every tuple in *r* can be tested with every tuple in *s*.
- Usually has a higher cost than partitioning, since one of the relations (for asymmetric fragment-and-replicate) or both relations (for general fragment-and-replicate) have to be replicated.
- Sometimes asymmetric fragment-and-replicate is preferable even though partitioning could be used.
  - ★ E.g., say s is small and r is large, and already partitioned. It may be cheaper to replicate s across all processors, rather than repartition r and s on the join attributes.





## Fragment-and-Replicate Join (Cont.)

- General case: reduces the sizes of the relations at each processor.
  - \* r is partitioned into n partitions,  $r_0$ ,  $r_1$ , ...,  $r_{n-1}$ ; s is partitioned into m partitions,  $s_0$ ,  $s_1$ , ...,  $s_{m-1}$ .
  - \* Any partitioning technique may be used.
  - There must be at least m \* n processors.
  - Label the processors as
  - $\star P_{0,0}, P_{0,1}, ..., P_{0,m-1}, P_{1,0}, ..., P_{n-1m-1}.$
  - ★  $P_{i,j}$  computes the join of  $r_i$  with  $s_j$ . In order to do so,  $r_i$  is replicated to  $P_{i,0}$ ,  $P_{i,1}$ , ...,  $P_{i,m-1}$ , while  $s_i$  is replicated to  $P_{0,i}$ ,  $P_{1,i}$ , ...,  $P_{n-1,i}$
  - ★ Any join technique can be used at each processor P<sub>i,i</sub>.



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Parallelizing partitioned hash join:

- Assume *s* is smaller than *r* and therefore *s* is chosen as the build relation.
- A hash function  $h_1$  takes the join attribute value of each tuple in s and maps this tuple to one of the n processors.
- Each processor  $P_i$  reads the tuples of s that are on its disk  $D_i$ , and sends each tuple to the appropriate processor based on hash function  $h_1$ . Let  $s_i$  denote the tuples of relation s that are sent to processor  $P_i$ .
- As tuples of relation s are received at the destination processors, they are partitioned further using another hash function, h<sub>2</sub>, which is used to compute the hash-join locally. (Cont.)



- Once the tuples of s have been distributed, the larger relation r is redistributed across the m processors using the hash function  $h_1$ 
  - $\star$  Let r<sub>i</sub> denote the tuples of relation r that are sent to processor  $P_i$ .
- As the *r* tuples are received at the destination processors, they are repartitioned using the function  $h_2$ 
  - (just as the probe relation is partitioned in the sequential hash-join algorithm).
- Each processor  $P_i$  executes the build and probe phases of the hash-join algorithm on the local partitions  $r_i$  and s of r and s to produce a partition of the final result of the hash-join.
- Note: Hash-join optimizations can be applied to the parallel case
  - e.g., the hybrid hash-join algorithm can be used to cache some the incoming tuples in memory and avoid the cost of writing the and reading them back in.

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## **Other Relational Operations**

### Selection $\sigma_{\theta}(r)$

- If  $\theta$  is of the form  $a_i = v$ , where  $a_i$  is an attribute and v a value.
  - ★ If r is partitioned on a<sub>i</sub> the selection is performed at a single processor.
- If  $\theta$  is of the form I <=  $a_i$  <= u (i.e.,  $\theta$  is a range selection) and the relation has been range-partitioned on  $a_i$ 
  - ★ Selection is performed at each processor whose partition overlaps with the specified range of values.
- In all other cases: the selection is performed in parallel at all the processors.





### **Parallel Nested-Loop Join**

### Assume that

- ★ relation s is much smaller than relation r and that r is stored by partitioning.
- ★ there is an index on a join attribute of relation r at each of the partitions of relation r.
- Use asymmetric fragment-and-replicate, with relation *s* being replicated, and using the existing partitioning of relation *r*.
- Each processor  $P_j$  where a partition of relation s is stored reads the tuples of relation s stored in  $D_j$ , and replicates the tuples to every other processor  $P_i$ .
  - ★ At the end of this phase, relation s is replicated at all sites that store tuples of relation r.
- Each processor  $P_i$  performs an indexed nested-loop join of relation s with the i<sup>th</sup> partition of relation r.

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## **Other Relational Operations (Cont.)**

### Duplicate elimination

- ★ Perform by using either of the parallel sort techniques
  - > eliminate duplicates as soon as they are found during sorting.
- ★ Can also partition the tuples (using either range- or hashpartitioning) and perform duplicate elimination locally at each processor.

### Projection

- ★ Projection without duplicate elimination can be performed as tuples are read in from disk in parallel.
- ★ If duplicate elimination is required, any of the above duplicate elimination techniques can be used.





## **Grouping/Aggregation**

- Partition the relation on the grouping attributes and then compute the aggregate values locally at each processor.
- Can reduce cost of transferring tuples during partitioning by partly computing aggregate values before partitioning.
- Consider the **sum** aggregation operation:
  - ★ Perform aggregation operation at each processor P<sub>i</sub> on those tuples stored on disk D<sub>i</sub>
    - > results in tuples with partial sums at each processor.
  - ★ Result of the local aggregation is partitioned on the grouping attributes, and the aggregation performed again at each processor P<sub>i</sub> to get the final result.
- Fewer tuples need to be sent to other processors during partitioning.



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## **Interoperator Parallelism**

### ■ Pipelined parallelism

- Consider a join of four relations
  - $ightharpoonup r_1 \bowtie r_2 \bowtie r_3 \bowtie r_4$
- ★ Set up a pipeline that computes the three joins in parallel
  - ➤ Let P1 be assigned the computation of temp1 =  $r_1 \bowtie r_2$
  - $\triangleright$  And P2 be assigned the computation of temp2 = temp1  $\bowtie$  r<sub>3</sub>
  - ightharpoonup And P3 be assigned the computation of temp2  $\bowtie$  r<sub>4</sub>
- ★ Each of these operations can execute in parallel, sending result tuples it computes to the next operation even as it is computing further results
  - Provided a pipelineable join evaluation algorithm (e.g. index nested loops join) is used

# Cost of Parallel Evaluation of Operations

- If there is no skew in the partitioning, and there is no overhead due to the parallel evaluation, expected speed-up will be 1/n
- If skew and overheads are also to be taken into account, the time taken by a parallel operation can be estimated as

$$T_{part} + T_{asm} + max (T_0, T_1, ..., T_{n-1})$$

- ★ T<sub>part</sub> is the time for partitioning the relations
- ★ T<sub>asm</sub> is the time for assembling the results
- ★ T<sub>i</sub> is the time taken for the operation at processor P<sub>i</sub>
  - > this needs to be estimated taking into account the skew, and the time wasted in contentions.



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# Factors Limiting Utility of Pipeline Parallelism

- Pipeline parallelism is useful since it avoids writing intermediate results to disk
- Useful with small number of processors, but does not scale up well with more processors. One reason is that pipeline chains do not attain sufficient length.
- Cannot pipeline operators which do not produce output until all inputs have been accessed (e.g. aggregate and sort)
- Little speedup is obtained for the frequent cases of skew in which one operator's execution cost is much higher than the others.





### **Independent Parallelism**

### ■ Independent parallelism

★ Consider a join of four relations

$$r_1 \bowtie r_2 \bowtie r_3 \bowtie r_4$$

- Let P1 be assigned the computation of temp1 = r₁ ⋈ r₂
- ▶ And P2 be assigned the computation of temp2 =  $r_3 \bowtie r_4$
- ➤ And P3 be assigned the computation of temp1 temp2
- > P1 and P2 can work independently in parallel
- > P3 has to wait for input from P1 and P2
  - Can pipeline output of P1 and P2 to P3, combining independent parallelism and pipelined parallelism
- ★ Does not provide a high degree of parallelism
  - > useful with a lower degree of parallelism.
  - > less useful in a highly parallel system,



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## Query Optimization (Cont.)

- The number of parallel evaluation plans from which to choose from is much larger than the number of sequential evaluation plans.
  - ★ Therefore heuristics are needed while optimization
- Two alternative heuristics for choosing parallel plans:
  - ★ No pipelining and inter-operation pipelining; just parallelize every operation across all processors.
    - > Finding best plan is now much easier --- use standard optimization technique, but with new cost model
    - > Volcano parallel database popularize the exchange-operator model
      - exchange operator is introduced into query plans to partition and distribute tuples
      - each operation works independently on local data on each processor, in parallel with other copies of the operation
  - ★ First choose most efficient sequential plan and then choose how best to parallelize the operations in that plan.
    - > Can explore pipelined parallelism as an option
- Choosing a good physical organization (partitioning technique) is important to speed up queries.



### **Query Optimization**

- Query optimization in parallel databases is significantly more complex than query optimization in sequential databases.
- Cost models are more complicated, since we must take into account partitioning costs and issues such as skew and resource contention.
- When **scheduling** execution tree in parallel system, must decide:
  - ★ How to parallelize each operation and how many processors to use for it.
  - What operations to pipeline, what operations to execute independently in parallel, and what operations to execute sequentially, one after the other.
- Determining the amount of resources to allocate for each operation is a problem.
  - E.g., allocating more processors than optimal can result in high communication overhead.
- Long pipelines should be avoided as the final operation may wait a for inputs, while holding precious resources



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## **Design of Parallel Systems**

Some issues in the design of parallel systems:

- Parallel loading of data from external sources is needed in order to handle large volumes of incoming data.
- Resilience to failure of some processors or disks.
  - ★ Probability of some disk or processor failing is higher in a parallel system.
  - ★ Operation (perhaps with degraded performance) should be possible in spite of failure.
  - Redundancy achieved by storing extra copy of every data item at another processor.



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## **Design of Parallel Systems (Cont.)**

- On-line reorganization of data and schema changes must be supported.
  - ★ For example, index construction on terabyte databases can take hours or days even on a parallel system.
    - > Need to allow other processing (insertions/deletions/updates) to be performed on relation even as index is being constructed.
  - ★ Basic idea: index construction tracks changes and ``catches up" on changes at the end.
- Also need support for on-line repartitioning and schema changes (executed concurrently with other processing).



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## **End of Chapter**