

Course Title: Distributed Database Management Systems
Course Code: CS712
Instructor: Dr. Nayyer Masood (nayyerm@yahoo.com)
Lecture No: 23& 24

In previous lecture:

- Fragmentation

In this lecture:

- Reasons for Fragmentation
 - o Maximizes local access
 - o Reduces table size, etc.
- PHF using the SQL Server on same machine
- Implemented PHF in a Banking Environment

Fragmentation

- We know there are different types, we start with the simplest one and that is the PHF
- Supposedly, you have already gone through the design phase and have got the predicates to be used as basis for PHF, just as a reminder
- From the user queries, we first collect the simple predicates and then we form a complete and minimal set of minterm predicates, a minterm predicate is, you know that otherwise refer back to lecture 16, 17
- Lets say we go back to our Bank example, and lets say we have decided to place our servers at QTA and PESH so we have two servers where we are going to place our PHFs

- As before we register our servers and now at our Enterprise Manager we can see two instances of SS
- At each of the three sites we define one database named BANK and also one relation, normal base table, however, for the fragmentations to be disjoint (a correctness requirement) we place a check on each table at three sites, how....
- We name our fragments/local tables as custQTA, custPESH
- Each table is defined as

```
create table custPESH(custId char(6), custName varchar(25), custBal number(10,2), custArea char(5))
```

- In the same way we create 2 tables one at each of our two sites, meant for containing the local users
- Users that fall in that area and the value of the attribute custArea is going to be the area where a customer's branch is, so its domain is {pesh, qta}
- To ensure the disjointness and also to ensure the proper functioning of the system, we apply a check on the tables
- The check is
- Peshawar customers are allocated from the range C00001 to C50000, likewise
- QTA is C50001 to C99999
- So we apply the check on both tables/fragments accordingly, although they can be applied while creating the table, we can also apply them later, like
- Alter table custPesh add constraint chkPsh check ((custId between 'C00001' and 'C50000') and (custArea = 'Pesh'))
- Alter table custQTA add constraint chkQta check ((custId between 'C50001' and 'C99999') and (custArea = 'Qta'))
- Tables have been created on local sites and are ready to be populated, start running applications on them, and data enters the table, and the checks ensure the entry of proper data in each table. Now, the tables are being populated

Example Data in PESH

C0001	Gul Khan	4593.33	Pesh
C0002	Ali Khan	45322.1	Pesh
C0003	Gul Bibi	6544.54	Pesh
C0005	Jan Khan	9849.44	Pesh

Example Data at QTA

C50001	Suhail Gujjar	3593.33	Qta
C50002	Kauser Perveen	3322.1	Qta
C50003	Arif Jat	16544.5	Qta
C50004	Amjad Gul	8889.44	Qta

- Next thing is to create a global view for the global access/queries, for this we have to link the servers with each other, this is required
- You have already registered both the servers, now to link them
- You can link them using Enterprise Manager or alternatively through SQL, we do here using SQL

Connect Pesh using Query Analyzer

- Then execute the stored procedure sp_addlinkedserver
- The syntax is
-

```
sp_addlinkedserver
@server = 'QTA',
@srvproduct = "",
@provider = 'sqloledb', @datasrc = 'mssystem\QTA'
```

- You will get two messages, if successful, like '1 row added' and '1 row added'
- You have introduced QTA as a linked server with PESH.
- We have to perform this operation on the other server, that is, we have to add linked server PESH at QTA
- Setup is there, next thing is to create a partitioned view
- In SQL Server, a partitioned view joins horizontally partitioned data across multiple servers
- The statement to create the partitioned view is

Create view custG as select * from custPesh

Union All

select * from QTA.bank.dbo.custQTA

- Likewise, we have to apply same command at QTA
- Create view custG as

select * from custQta

Union All

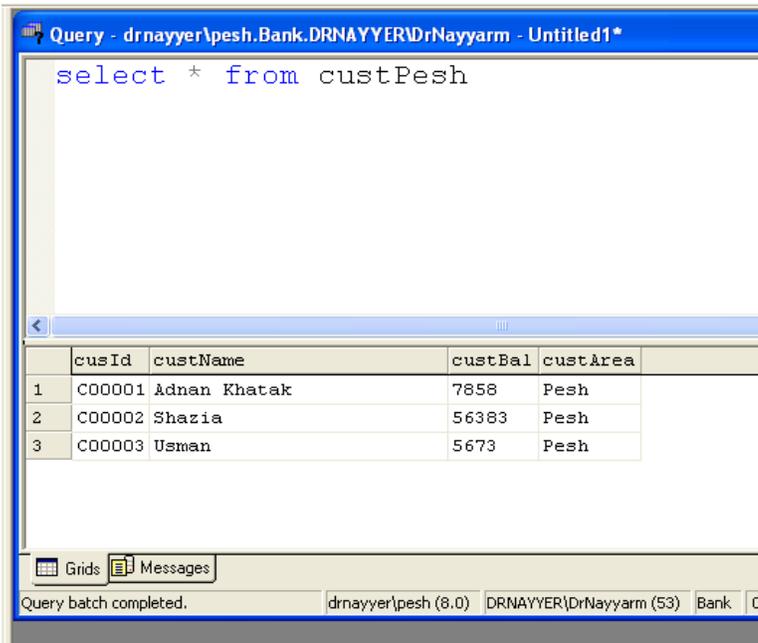
select * from PESH.bank.dbo.custPesh

- Once it is defined, now when you access data from custG, it gives you data from all four sites.
- It is also transparent

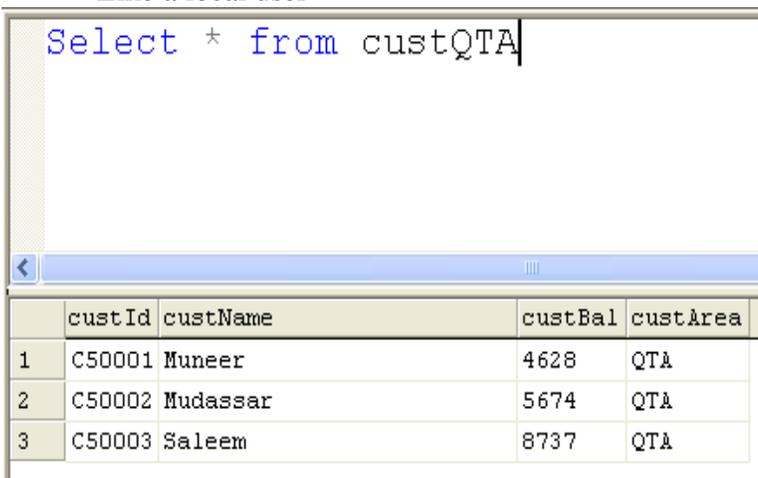
- Now lets say if you are connected with Pesh, and you give the command

Select * from custPesh

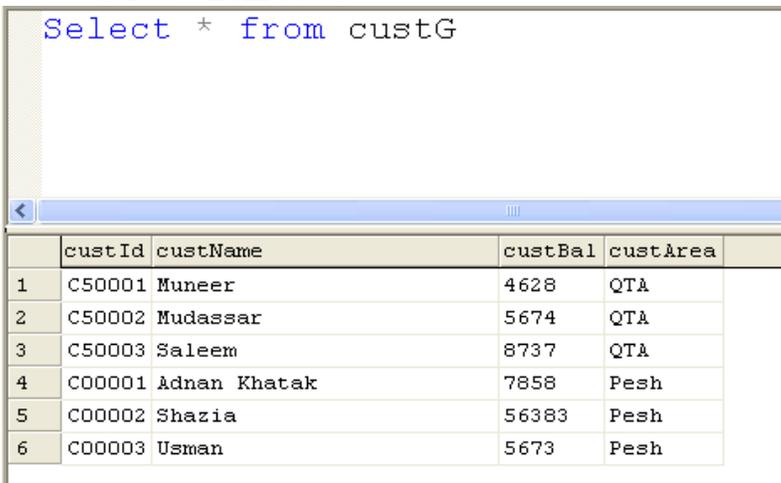
You get the output



- Same is the case with the users of the QTA server, they pose the query
- Select * from custQTA
- Like a local user



- The previous two examples represent access of a local user, now if the global users, like from Management, want to access data across all sites, they will pose the query against the global view, like
- Select * from custG



- All this is transparent from the user, that is, the distribution of data

- Global user gets the feeling, as if all the users' data is placed on a single place
- For the administrative purposes they can perform analytical types of queries on this global view, like

Summary:

We have discussed the fragmentation, maximize local access and reduce table size etc. and also discussed the PHF using the SQL Server on same machine.

Course Title: Distributed Database Management Systems
Course Code: CS712
Instructor: Dr. Nayyer Masood (nayyerm@yahoo.com)
Lecture No: 25

In previous lecture:

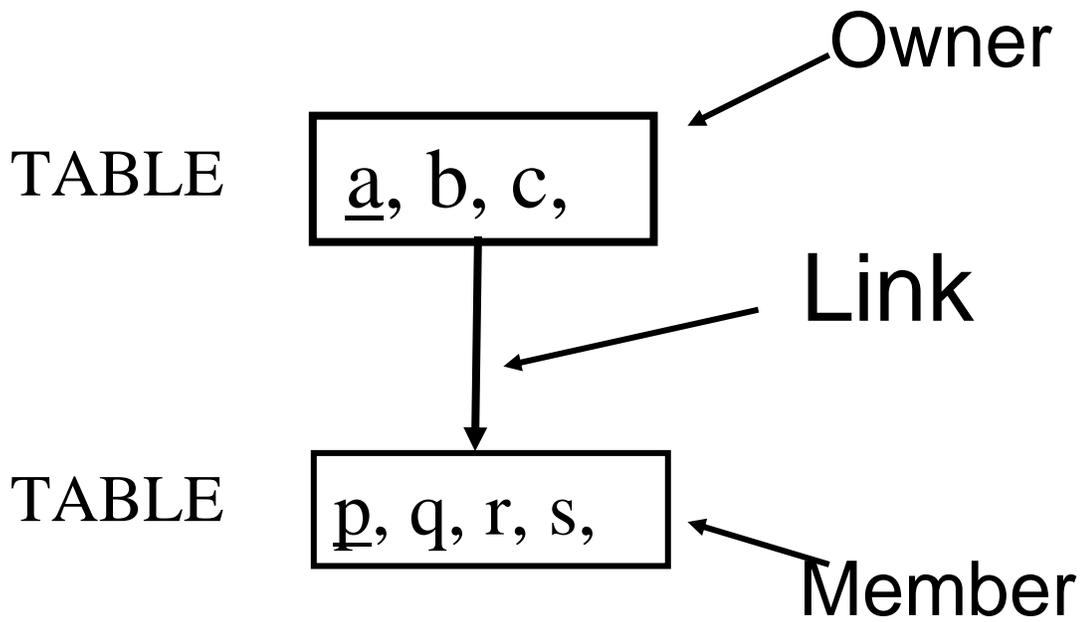
- Reasons for Fragmentation
 - o Maximizes local access
 - o Reduces table size, etc.
- PHF using the SQL Server on same machine
- Implemented PHF in a Banking Environment
- DDBS layer is superimposed on the client sites
- Actual Data resides with the local sites

In this lecture:

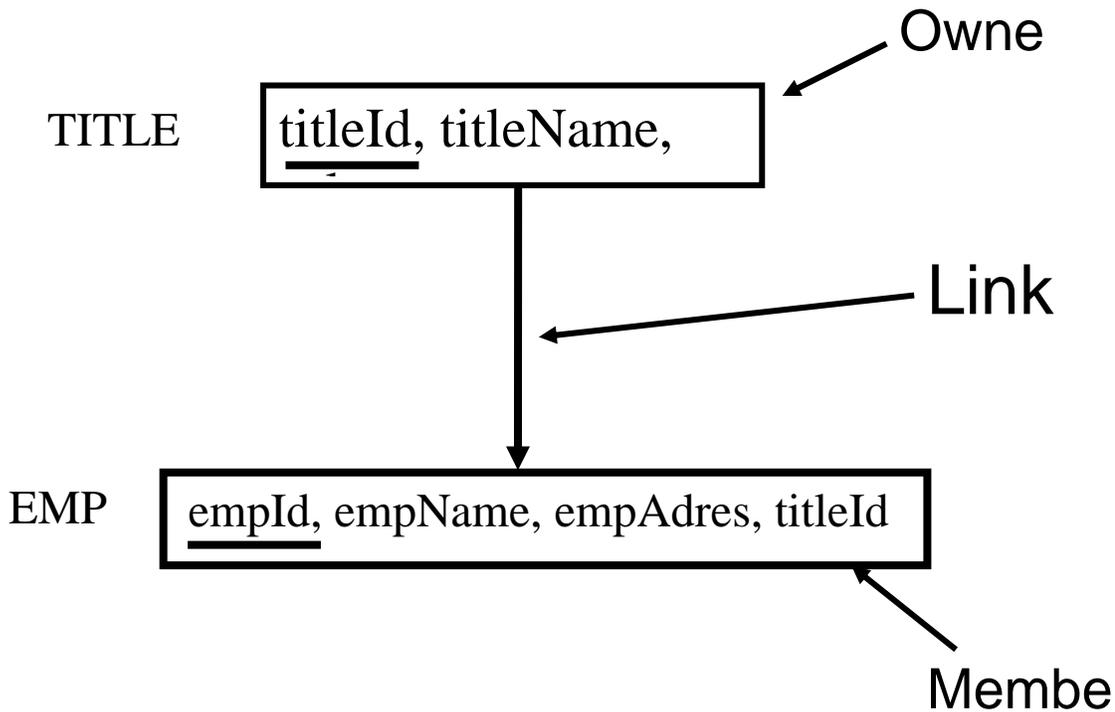
- Derived Horizontal Fragmentation

Derived Horizontal Fragmentation

- Fragmenting/ partitioning a table based on the constraints defined on another table.
- Both tables are linked with each other through Owner-Member relation



Scenario



Why DHF Here

- Employee and salary record is split in two tables due to Normalization
- Storing all data in EMP table introduces Transitive Dependency
- That causes Anomalies

PHF of TITLE table

- Predicates defined on the sal attribute of TITLE table
- $p1 = \text{sal} > 10000 \text{ and } \text{sal} \leq 20000$
- $p2 = \text{sal} > 20000 \text{ and } \text{sal} \leq 50000$
- $p3 = \text{sal} > 50000$

Conditions for the TITLE Table

- $\text{TITLE1} = \sigma (\text{sal} > 10000 \text{ and } \text{SAL} \leq 30000) (\text{SAL})$
- $\text{TITLE2} = \sigma (\text{sal} > 20000 \text{ and } \text{SAL} \leq 50000) (\text{SAL})$
- $\text{TITLE3} = \sigma (\text{sal} > 50000) (\text{SAL})$

Tables created with constraints

- create table TITLE1 (titleID char(3) primary key, titleName char (15), sal int check (SAL between 10000 and 20000))
- create table TITLE2 (titleID char(3) primary key, titleName char (15), sal int check (SAL between 20001 and 50000))
- create table TITLE3 (titleID char(3) primary key, titleName char (15), sal int check (SAL > 50000))

TITLE

titleID	titleName	Sal
T01	Elect. Eng	42000
T02	Sys Analyst	64000
T03	Mech. Eng	27000
T04	Programmer	19000

TITLE1

titleID	titleName	Sal
T04	Programmer	19000

TITLE3

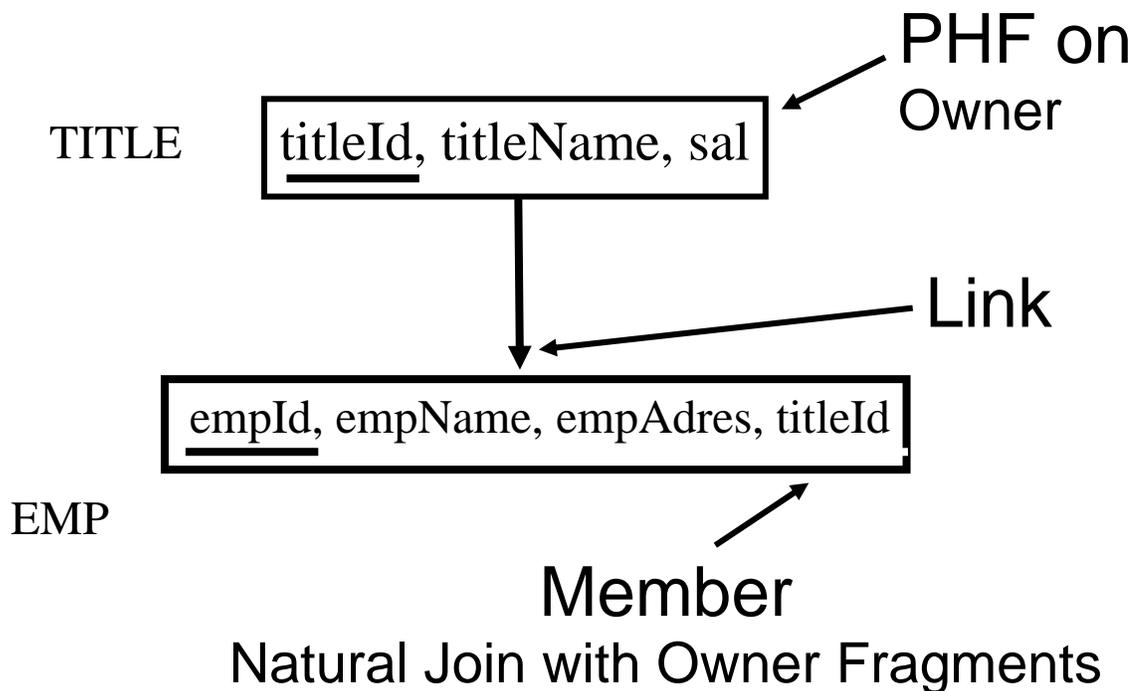
titleID	titleName	Sal
T02	Sys Analyst	64000

TITLE2

titleID	titleName	Sal
T01	Elect. Eng	42000
T03	Mech. Eng	27000

EMP table at local sites

create table EMP1 (empId char(5) primary key, empName char(25), empAdres char (30), titleId char(3) foreign key references TITLE1(titleID))



Referential Integrity Constraint

- Null value in the EMP1.titleId is allowed
- This violates the correctness requirement of the Fragmentation, i.e., it will violating the completeness criterion

Tighten Up the Constraint Around

- Further we need to impose the “NOT NULL” constraint on the EMP1.titleID
- Now the records in EMP1 will strictly adhere to the DHF

Revised EMP1 Definition

create table EMP1 (empId char(5) primary key, empName char(25), empAdres char (30), titleId char(3)
foreign key references TITLE1(titleID) not NULL)

Defining all three EMP

- create table EMP1 (empId char(5) primary key, empName char(25), empAdres char (30), titleId char(3)
foreign key references TITLE1(titleID) not NULL)
- create table EMP2 (empId char(5) primary key, empName char(25), empAdres char (30), titleId char(3)
foreign key references TITLE2(titleID) not NULL)
- create table EMP3 (empId char(5) primary key, empName char(25), empAdres char (30), titleId char(3)
foreign key references TITLE3(titleID) not NULL)

PHF of EMP at different sites

- create table EMP1 (empId char(5) primary key check (empId in ('Programmer')), empName char(25),
empAdres char (30), titleId char(3))

- create table EMP2 (empId char(5) primary key check (empId in ('Elect. Engr', 'Mech. Engr')), empName char(25), empAdres char (30), titleId char(3))
- create table EMP3 (empId char(5) primary key check (empId in (' Sys Analyst ')), empName char(25), empAdres char (30), titleId char(3))

Adding a new record in TITLE

titleID	titleName	Sal
T01	Elect. Eng	42000
T02	Sys Analyst	64000
T03	Mech. Eng	27000
T04	Programmer	19000
T05	Assist Supr	16000



All three predicates of PHF defined in the two slide a couple of slides ago

create table EMP1 (empId char(5) primary key check (empId in ('Programmer', 'Assist Supr')), empName char(25), empAdres char (30), titleId char(3))

Original EMP Table

empId	empName	empAdres	titleId
E1	T Khan	Multan	T01
E2	W Shah	Islamabad	T02
E3	R Dar	Islamabad	T03
E4	K Muhammad	Lahore	T04
E5	F Sahbai	Lahore	T02
E6	A Haq	Multan	T01
E7	S Farhana	Lahore	T03
E8	M Daud	Jhelum	T02

DHFs of EMP Table

EMP1

empId	empName	empAdres	titleId
E4	K Muhammad	Lahore	T04

EMP3

empId	empName	empAdres	titleId
E2	W Shah	Islamabad	T02
E5	F Sahbai	Lahore	T02
E8	M Daud	Jhelum	T02

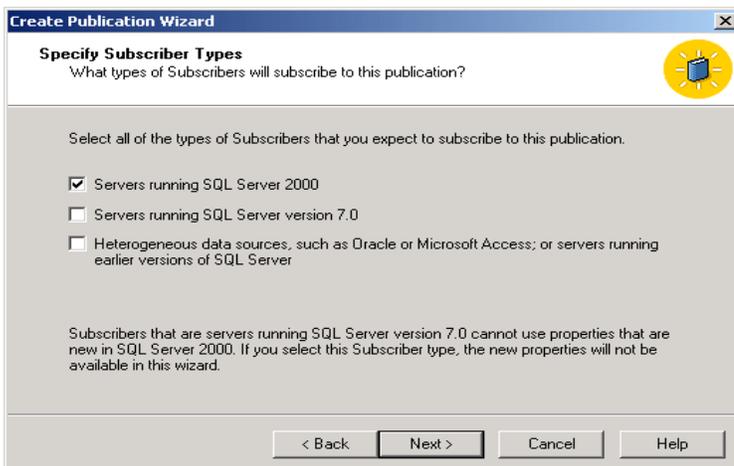
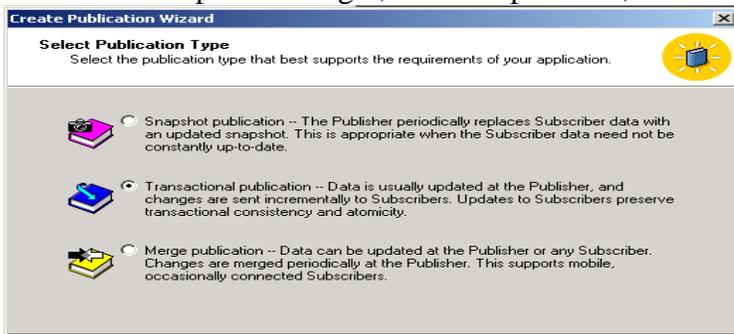
EMP2

empId	empName	empAdres	titleId
E1	T Khan	Multan	T01
E3	R Dar	Islamabad	T03
E6	A Haq	Multan	T01
E7	S Farhana	Lahore	T03

Transactional Replication

- Data replicated as the transaction executes
- Preferred in higher bandwidth and lower latency
- Transaction is replicated as it is executed
- Begins with a snapshot, changes sent at subscribers as they occur or at timed intervals
- A special Type allows changes at subscribers

From the Enterprise Manager, select Replication, after a couple of nexts, we get this screen



Create Publication Wizard

Specify Articles
Publish tables and other database objects as articles. You can filter the published data later in the wizard.

Only tables with primary keys can be published in a transactional publication.

Object Type	Show	Publish
Tables	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Stored Proced...	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Views	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Show unpublished objects

Article Defaults...

	Owner	Object
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	dbo	authors
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	dbo	discounts
<input type="checkbox"/>	dbo	employee
<input type="checkbox"/>	dbo	jobs
<input type="checkbox"/>	dbo	pub_info
<input type="checkbox"/>	dbo	publishers
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	dbo	roysched
<input type="checkbox"/>	dbo	sales
<input type="checkbox"/>	dbo	stores

< Back Next > Cancel Help

Create Publication Wizard

Select Publication Name and Description
Select a name and description for this publication.

Publication name:
pubs_tr_pb1

Publication description:
Transactional publication of pubs database from Publisher NAYYEROFFICE.

List this publication in the Active Directory

The publication name can contain any character except "[\ | / < > : " ? or %

Create Publication Wizard

Customize the Properties of the Publication
Define data filters or customize the remaining properties; otherwise, create the publication as specified.

Do you want to define data filters or customize the remaining properties of this publication?

Yes, I will define data filters, enable anonymous subscriptions, or customize other properties

No, create the publication as specified:

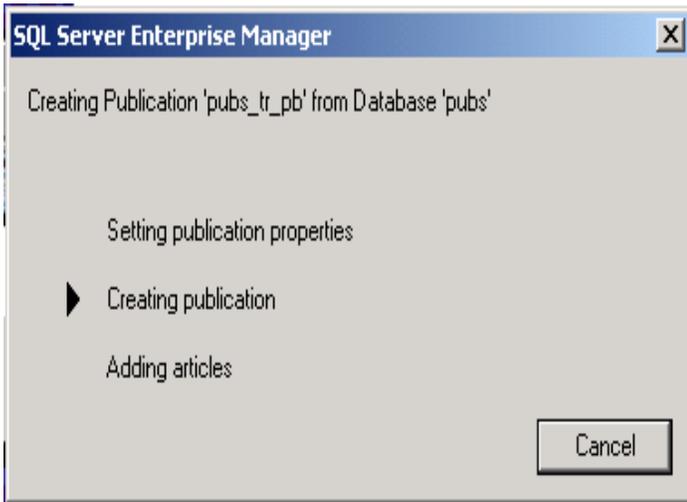
Create a transactional publication from database 'pubs'.

The following types of Subscribers may subscribe to this publication:
Servers running SQL Server 2000

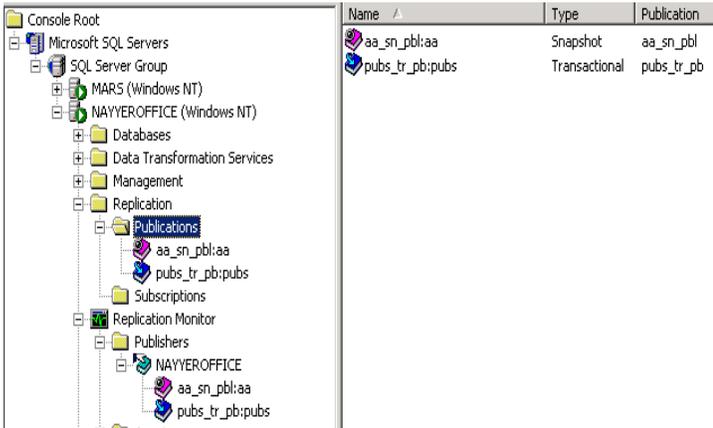
Publish the following tables as articles:
'authors' as 'authors'

The name of this publication is 'pubs_tr_pb1'. The description is 'Transactional'

< Back Next > Cancel Help



Publication has been created that can be viewed from Replication Monitor or from Replication, like this

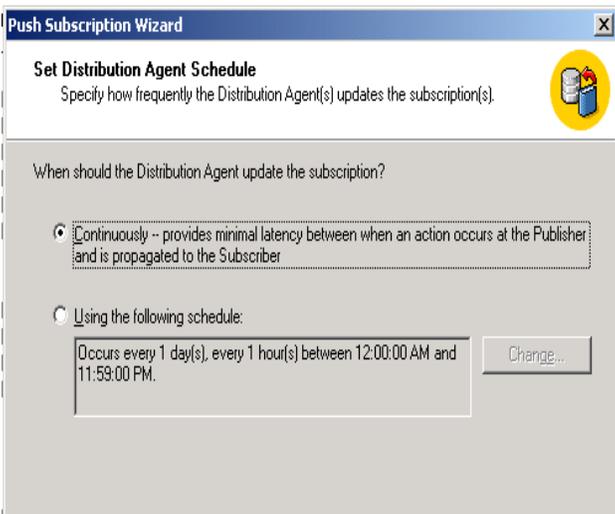
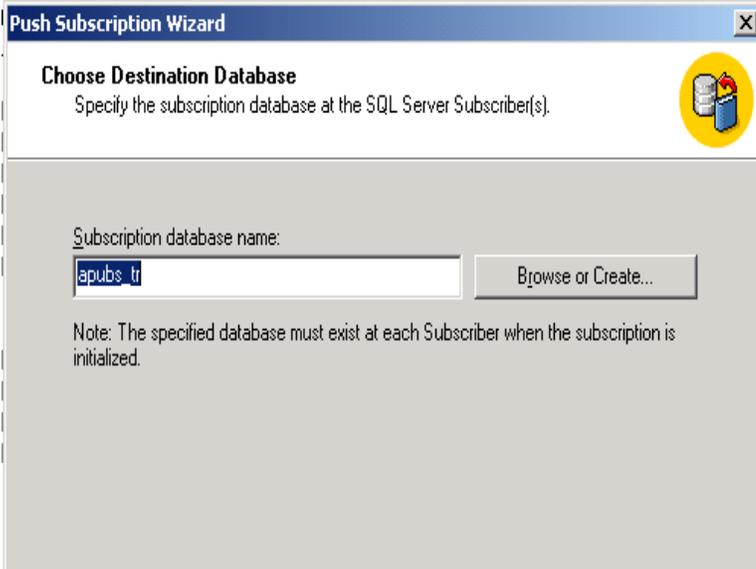


It has also created snapshot and log reader agents, which won't work until we create a subscription. For this, we select the publication from replication monitor, right click it, and then select Push new subscription.

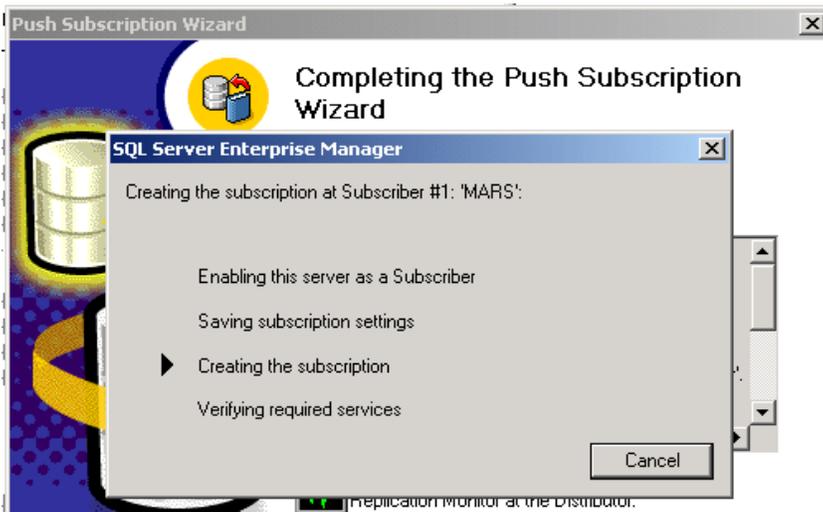




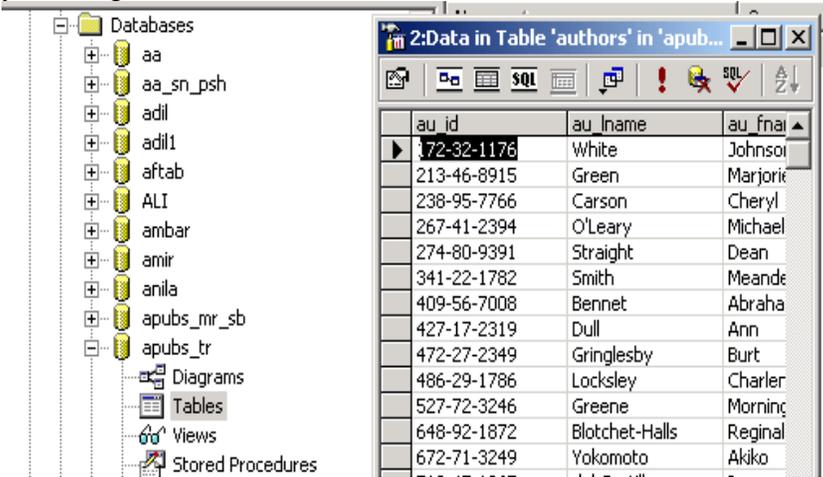
You select the particular database where you want to subscribe, we have created a new one.



A couple of more nexts and then



After this we run the snapshot agent, that creates a snapshot, you can verify this from snapshot agent history, or you can go to subscriber database and have a look, like this



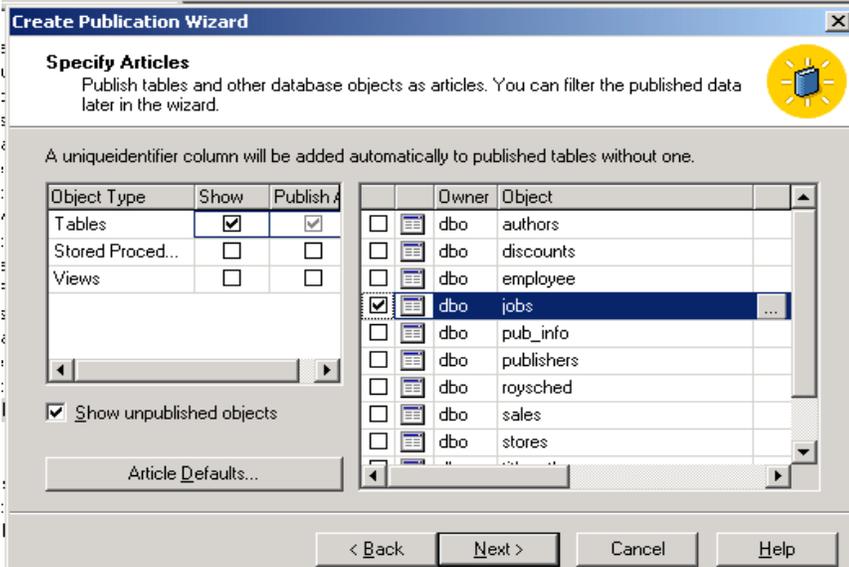
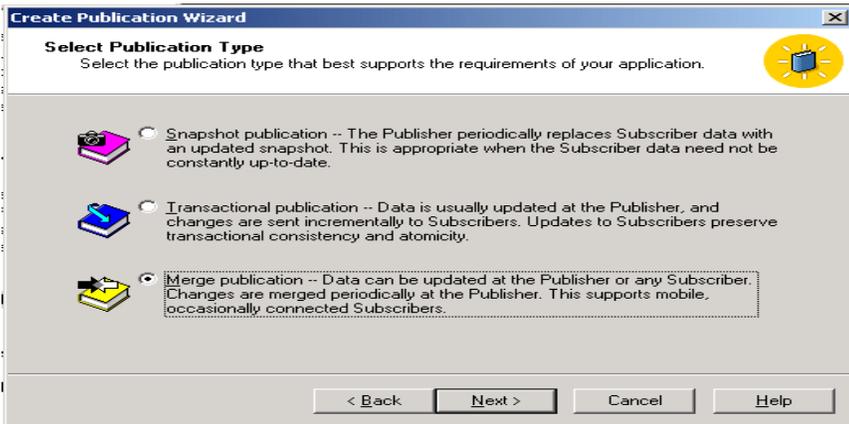
We delete a record from our publication and we see that it is expressed in



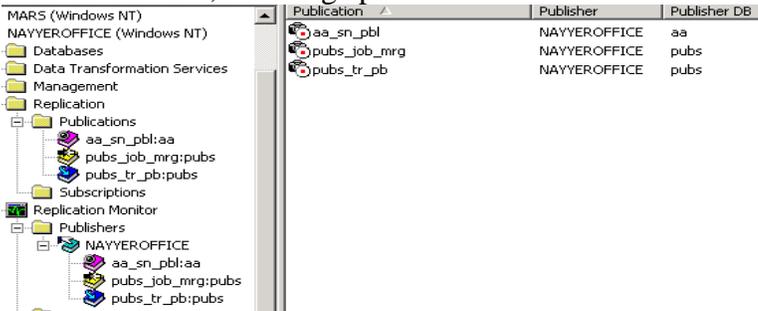
This will be automatically being transferred to Subscription. If this activity could not be performed on subscriber, then the replication monitor will generate an error. You have to trap it and tune your application.

Merge Replication

From replication, start a new publication, a few next, and once again our old familiar screen.



After a few next, the merge publication will be created.



Now you execute the snapshot agent of this replication. It will create the snapshot, and then you subscribe a database. We find the original data in the subscriber

After this if we make any change on either side, it will be reflected on the other side. In case of merge replication, we have to be careful about the constraints, like Primary Key, or other constraints.

Summary

We have discussed the Derived Horizontal Fragmentation.

Course Title: Distributed Database Management Systems
Course Code: CS712
Instructor: Dr. Nayyer Masood (nayyerm@yahoo.com)
Lecture No: 26

In this lecture:

- Transaction Management
 - o Basics
 - o Properties of Transaction

Database and Transaction Consistency

The concept of transaction is used within the database domain as a logical unit of work. A database is in a consistent state if it obeys all of the consistency (integrity) constraints defined over it state changes occur due to modifications, insertions and deletions (together called updates). The database can be temporarily inconsistent during the execution of a transaction. The important point is that the database should be consistent when the transaction terminates as shown in figure 1

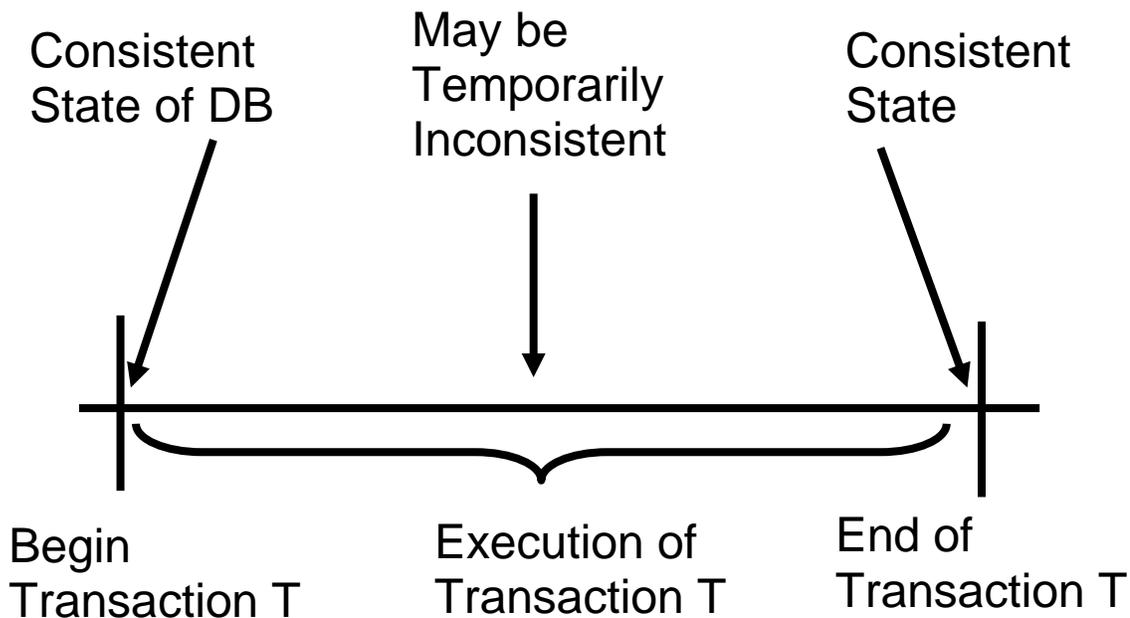


Figure 1: A Transaction Model

Transaction consistency refers to the actions of concurrent transactions. Transaction Management is difficult in case of the concurrent access to the database by multiple users. Multiple read-only transactions cause no problem at all, however, if one or more of concurrent transactions try to update data that may cause problem. A transaction is considered to be a sequence of read or/and write operations; it may even consist of a single statement.

Transaction Example T-SQL

```
Transaction BUDGET_UPDATE
begin
    EXEC SQL UPDATE J
    SET BUDGET = BUDGET * 1.1
    WHERE JNAME = "CAD/CAM"
end
```

The Begin_transaction and end statements delimit a transaction. The use of delimiters is not enforced in every DBMS.

Example Database

- Airline Reservation System
- FLIGHT(fNo, fDate, fSrc, fDest, stSold, fCap)
 - CUST(cName, cAddr, cBal)
 - FC(fNo, fDate, cName, cSpecial)

Let us consider a simplified version of a typical reservation application, where a travel agent enters the flight number, the date, and a customer name and asks for a reservation. The transaction to perform this function can be implemented as follows, where database accesses are specified in embedded SQL notation:

```
Begin_transaction Reservation
input(flight_no, dt, c_name);
EXEC SQL Select stSold, cap into temp1, temp2
where fNo = flight_no and date = dt
```

```

if temp1 = temp2 then
    output("no free seats");  Abort
else
    EXEC SQL update flight
        set stSold = stSold + 1 where
            fNo = flight_no and date = dt;
    EXEC SQL insert into FC values (flight_no,
        dt, c_Name, null);  Commit;
    output("reservation completed")
end

```

The transaction on

Line 1: is to input the flight number, the date and the customer name.

Line 2: updates the number of sold seats on the requested flight by one.

Line 3: inserts a tuple into the FC relation here we assume that customer is old one so its not necessary to have an insertion into the CUST relation.

Line 4: reports the result of the transaction to the agent's terminal.

Termination conditions of Transaction

If transaction can complete its task successfully, we say that the transaction commits. If a transaction stops without completing its tasks, we say that it aborts when a transaction is aborted its execution is stopped and all of its already executed actions are undone by returning the database to the state before their execution. This is also known as rollback.

Characterization of Transaction

Read and Write are major operations of database concern in a transaction.

Read set (RS): The set of data items that are read by a transaction.

Write set (WS): The set of data items whose values are changed by this transaction

The read set and write set of a transaction need not be mutually exclusive. Finally, the unions of the read set and write set of a transaction constitutes its base set

$$(BS = RS \cup WS)$$

Formalization of the Transaction Concept

Let $O_{ij}(x)$ be some operation O_j of transaction T_i operating on data item x , where $O_j \in \{\text{read, write}\}$ and O_j is atomic. Let OS_i denote the set of all operations in Transaction T_i , $OS_i = \cup_j O_{ij}$. We denote by N_i the termination condition for T_i , where $N_i \in \{\text{abort, commit}\}$.

Transaction T_i is a partial order $T_i = \{\sum_i, <_i\}$ where

1- $\sum_i = OS_i \cup \{N_i\}$

2- For any two operations $O_{ij}, O_{ik} \in OS_i$, if $O_{ij} = R(x)$ and $O_{ik} = W(x)$ for any data item x , then either $O_{ij} \in O_{ik}$ or $O_{ik} <_i O_{ij}$.

3- $\forall O_{ij} \in OS_i, O_{ij} <_i N_i$

The first condition specify the domain as the set of read and write operation that make up the transaction, plus the termination condition, which may be commit or abort. The second condition specifies the ordering relation between the conflicting read and write operations of the transaction, while the final condition indicates that the termination condition always follows all other operations.

There are two points about this definition

First the ordering relation $<$ is given and the definition does not attempt to construct it.

Second, condition two indices that the ordering between conflicting operations has to exist within $<$.

Conflicting Operations

Two operations $O_i(x)$ and $O_j(x)$ are said to be in conflict, $O_i = \text{write}$ or $O_j = \text{write}$ (at least one of them is write and they access the same data item).

Example

Consider a transaction T that consists following steps:

Read(x)

Read(y)

$x = x + y$

Write(x)

Commit

ACID Properties of a Transaction

The consistency and reliability aspects of transactions are due to our properties:

1- Atomicity: also known as “all or none” property

- refers to the atomicity of entire Tr rather than an individual operation
- It requires from system to define some action in case of any interruption in execution of Tr.
- Two types of failures requiring procedures from Transaction Recovery or Crash Recovery

2- Consistency: refers simply to the correctness of a transaction

- A Tr should transform the DB from one consistent state to another consistent state.
- Concern of Semantic Integrity Control and Concurrency Control
- Classification of consistency for Trs uses the term “Dirty Data”; data that has been updated by a Tr before its commitment.

Degree 3: Transaction T sees degree 3 Consistency if:

- 1- T does not overwrite dirty data of other transactions
- 2- T does not commit any writes until it completes all its writes (i.e., until end of transaction)
- 3- T does not read dirty data from other transactions
- 4- Other transactions do not dirty any data read by T before T completes

Degree 2: Transaction T sees degree 2 Consistency if:

- 1- T does not overwrite dirty data of other transactions
- 2- T does not commit any writes until it completes all its writes (i.e., until end of transaction)
- 3- T does not read dirty data from other transactions

Degree 1: Transaction T sees degree 1 Consistency if:

- 1- T does not overwrite dirty data of other transactions
- 2- T does not commit any writes until it completes all its writes (i.e., until end of transaction)

Degree 0: Transaction T sees degree 0 Consistency if:

- 1- T does not overwrite dirty data of other transactions

3- Isolation

- A transaction cannot reveal its results to other transactions before commitment
- Required in particular when one of the transactions is updating a common data item

Example

Consider two concurrent transactions T1 and T2 both access data item x. assume that the value of x before they start executing is 50.

- T1:	Read(X)	T2:	Read(x)
	x = x+1		x = x+1
	Write(x)		Write(x)
	Commit		Commit

Two possible serial executions are T1, T2 or T2, T1. First transaction gets 50 and makes it 51, other makes it 52. In any case it will be 52 at the end of both transactions. An interleaved execution may result “Lost Update”.

Like

(T1:Read(x), T1:x =x+1,
T2:Read(x), T1:Write(x),
T2:x=x+1, T2:write(x),
T1:commit, T2:commit)

Summary

We have discussed the transaction management, its basics and the properties of transaction (ACID).

Course Title: Distributed Database Management Systems
Course Code: CS712
Instructor: Dr. Nayyer Masood (nayyerm@yahoo.com)
Lecture No: 27

In previous lecture:

- Defined Transaction Formally
- ACID Properties of a Transaction

In this lecture:

- ACID Properties
- Types of Transaction
- Transaction in DDBS

ACID Properties

3- Isolation

Isolation and consistency are interrelated, one supports other. Degree 3 provides full isolation. SQL-92 identified isolation levels based on following phenomena.

Dirty Read: A transaction reads the written value of another transaction before its commitment, like,
--, W1(x), ----, R2(x), --- ,C1(or A1)-----, C2(or A2).

Non-repeatable or Fuzzy Read: Two reads of same data item by same transaction and a write by another transaction on the same data item

--, R1(x), ----, W2(x), --- ,C2-----, R1(x)----

Phantom: T1 performs a read on a predicate, T2 inserts tuples that satisfy the predicate

--, R1(P), ----, W2(yinP), --- ,C2(orA2)-----, C1(orA1)---

Isolation levels

- Read Uncommitted: all three phenomena possible
- Read Committed: fuzzy read, phantoms possible; DR not possible
- Repeatable Read: Only phantoms possible
- Anomaly Serializable: None of the phenomena possible

4- Durability:

Durability refers to that property of transaction which ensures that once a transaction commits, its results are permanent and can not be erased from the database.

Types of Transactions

Transactions have been classified according to a number of criteria one criterion is the duration of transaction. Transaction may be classified as

- on-line (short-life)
- batch (long-life)

Online transactions are characterized by very short execution/response times and by access to a relatively small portion of the database. Examples are banking and airline reservation transactions.

Batch transactions are CAD/CAM databases, statistical applications, report generation, complex queries and image processing.

Another classification is with respect to the organization of the read write actions if the transactions are restricted so that all the read actions are performed before any write action, the transaction is called a two-step transaction.

If transaction is restricted so that a data item has to be read before it can be updated (written), the corresponding class is called restricted (or read-before-write).

If a transaction is both two-step and restricted, it is called a restricted two-step transaction.

Transactions can be classified according to their structure. Four broad categories

- flat (or simple) transactions
- closed nested transactions
- open nested transactions
- workflow models

1) Flat transaction

- Consists of a sequence of primitive operations embraced between a begin and end markers.
- Begin_transaction Reservation
- ...
- end.

2) Nested transaction

- The operations of a transaction may themselves be transactions.
- Begin_transaction Reservation

```
...
Begin_transaction Airline
...
end {Airline}
end {Reservation}
```

- Have the same properties as their parents; may themselves have other nested transactions.
- Introduces concurrency control and recovery concepts within the transaction.

Closed nesting

- Sub transactions begin *after* their parents and finish *before* them
- Commitment of a sub transaction is conditional upon the commitment of the parent (commitment through the root)

Open nesting

- Sub transactions can execute and commit independently.
- Compensation may be necessary.

3) Workflows

- Flat transaction model suits relatively small and simple environments
- Certain environments need combination of open and nested models.
- A candidate definition “ a collection of tasks organized to accomplish some business activity”
- Different types of workflows.
- Workflows generally involve long transactions, like a reservation transaction that may include Airline, Hotel, Auto reservations and bill generation.
- Workflows exhibit open nesting semantics
- So permits access to the results of sub-activity before the commitment of the major activity.
- Some components are declared as vital, main activity aborts if a vital component aborts, otherwise it may commit even if a non-vital component aborts, like
 - Compensating Transactions
 - Contingency Transactions.

That concludes our basic discussion on Transactions.

Distributed Concurrency Control

Concurrency control concerns synchronizing concurrent transactions maintaining consistency of the database and maximizing degree of concurrency.

Schedule or History

An order in which the operations of a set of transactions are executed. A schedule (history) can be defined as a partial order over the operations of a set of transactions.

T1:	T2:	T3:
Read(x)	Write(x)	Read(x)
Write(x)	Write(y)	Read(y)
Commit	Read(z)	Read(z)
	Commit	Commit

Complete Schedule

A complete schedule S over a set of transactions $T = \{T_1, \dots, T_n\}$ is a partial order

- $SCT(\Sigma T, <T)$ where
 - $\Sigma T = \cup_i \Sigma_i$, for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$
 - $<T \supseteq U <_i$, for $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$
- For any two conflicting operations $O_{ij}, O_{kl} \in \Sigma T$, either $O_{ij} <_T O_{kl}$ or $O_{kl} <_T O_{ij}$

T1:	T2:	T3:
Read(x)	Write(x)	Read(x)
Write(x)	Write(y)	Read(y)
Commit	Read(z)	Read(z)
	Commit	Commit

$$\Sigma_1 = \{R_1(x), W_1(x), C_1\}$$

$$\Sigma_2 = \{W_2(x), W_2(y), R_2(z), C_2\}$$

$$\Sigma_3 = \{R_3(x), R_3(y), R_3(z), C_3\}$$

$$\Sigma = \Sigma_1 \cup \Sigma_2 \cup \Sigma_3$$

$$= \{R_1(x), W_1(x), C_1, W_2(x), W_2(y), R_2(z), C_2, R_3(x), R_3(y), R_3(z), C_3\}$$

A schedule is a prefix of a complete schedule such that only some of the operations and only some of the ordering relationships are included.

Serial Schedule

If all the transactions included in it execute one after another. A serial schedule always leaves the database in a consistent state. They may end up with a different final state of DB each one of them being consistent. If we have three transactions, T_1, T_2, T_3 then one serial schedule may be: $T_1 <_S T_3 <_S T_2$ or $T_1 \quad T_3 \quad T_2$

Interleaved Schedule

A schedule is in which operations from different transactions are mixed with each other in execution.

Like

$$SI = \{W_2(x), R_1(x), R_3(x), W_1(x), C_1, W_2(y), R_3(y), R_2(z), C_2, R_3(z), C_3\}$$

is an interleaved schedule.

Summary

We have discussed the ACID properties and the types of transaction. The types are flat transaction, nested transaction and workflow. Also we have discussed the transaction in DDBS.

Course Title: Distributed Database Management Systems
Course Code: CS712
Instructor: Dr. Nayyer Masood (nayyerm@yahoo.com)
Lecture No: 28

In previous lecture:

- Types of Transaction
- Transaction in DDBS
- Serial Transactions
- Conflicting Transactions

In this lecture:

- Serializability Theory
- Serializability Theory in DDBS

Equivalent Schedules

Two schedules S_1, S_2 defined over same T are equivalent if they have same effect on the database, that is, leave database in same final state. Formally, if for each pair of conflicting operations

O_{ij} and O_{kl} ($i \neq k$) if $O_{ij} <_1 O_{kl}$ then $O_{ij} <_2 O_{kl}$

The phenomenon is also called conflict equivalence.

Serializable Schedule

If it is conflict equivalent to a serial schedule, i.e., the final state in which it leaves the database is equivalent to a serial schedule-

- $S_s = \{W2(x), W2(y), R2(z), C2, R1(x), W1(x), C1, R3(x), R3(y), R3(z), C3\}$
- $S_I = \{W2(x), R1(x), R3(x), W1(x), C1, W2(y), R3(y), R2(z), C2, R3(z), C3\}$
- $S_s = \{W2(x), W2(y), R2(z), C2, R1(x), W1(x), C1, R3(x), R3(y), R3(z), C3\}$
- $S_2 = \{W2(x), R1(x), W1(x), C1, R3(x), W2(y), R3(y), R2(z), C2, R3(z), C3\}$

The function of the concurrency controller is to generate serializable schedule.

Fragmented Databases

The serializability is straight forward. Local transaction is independent of each other; each concerns local data. In case of global transactions local sub transactions will be treated as different transactions.

Replicated Databases

T1:	T2:
Read(x)	Read(x)
$x = x + 5$	$x = x * 10$
Write(x)	Write(x)
Commit	Commit

$LS1 = \{R1(x), W1(x), C1, R2(x), W2(x), C2\}$
 $LS2 = \{R2(x), W2(x), C2, R1(x), W1(x), C1\}$

All values of replicated data should be same

1. Local Schedule same
2. Conflicting Ops in same relative order on all sites.
3. Logical and physical data items
4. User issues Ops on logical data items
5. Replica control maps to physical ones-
6. ROWA Protocol
7. Reduces availability in case of failure
8. Different algorithms, different replications.

Concurrency Control Algorithms

- Different categorizations possible
- Like, mode of distribution, network topology-
- Synchronization primitive is the most common
- Locking and Ordering
- **Pessimistic & Optimistic.**
- Pessimistic approach synchronizes transactions early
- Optimistic do this late in execution life cycle of transactions

- **Pessimistic**
 - Locking-based
 - Centralized Locking
 - Primary Copy Locking

- Distributed Locking-
 - Timestamp Ordering (TO)
 - Basic TO
 - Multiversion TO
 - Conservative TO
 - Hybrid
- **Optimistic**
 - Locking-based
 - Timestamp ordering-based.

Locking based Concurrency Control

- Basic idea is that data items accessed by conflicting operations are accessed by one operation at a time
- Data Items locked by Lock Manager
- Two major types of locks,
 - read lock
 - write lock
- Transaction need to apply lock first.
- For improved accessibility, compatibility of locks to be established

	rli(x)	wli(x)
rlj(x)	Yes	No
wlj(x)	No	No

- Locking is job of DDBMS, not the user
- Scheduler is the Lock Manager
- TM and LM interact.

Summary

We have discussed the basics of serializability theory and serializability theory in distributed database.

Course Title: Distributed Database Management Systems
Course Code: CS712
Instructor: Dr. Nayyer Masood (nayyerm@yahoo.com)
Lecture No: 29

In previous lecture:

- Serializability Theory
- Serializability Theory in DDBS.

In this lecture:

- Locking based CC
- Timestamp ordering based CC.

Locking based Concurrency Control Algorithm

The locking algorithm will not unfortunately properly synchronize transaction executions. This is because to generate serializable schedules, the locking and releasing operations of transactions also need to be coordinated.

Example

Consider the following two transactions:

T1: Read(x)	T2: Read(x)
x = x+1	x = x*2
Write(x)	Write(x)
Commit	Commit
Read(y)	Read(y)
y = y-1	y = y*2
Write(y)	Write(y)
Commit	Commit

The following is the valid schedule that a lock manager employing the algorithm may generate:

$S = \{wl1(x), R1(x), W1(x), lr1(x), wl2(x), R2(x), W2(x), lr2(x), wl2(y), R2(y), W2(y), lr2(y), C2, wl1(y), R1(y), W1(y), lr1(y), C1)$

Here $lri(z)$ indicate the release of the lock on z that transaction Ti holds. S is not a serializable schedule. The problem with the schedule S in example is the following:

The locking algorithm releases the locks that are held by a transaction as soon as the associated database command (read or write) is executed, and that lock unit no longer needs to be accessed. Even though this may be advantageous from the viewpoint of increased concurrency, it permits transaction to interface with one another, resulting in the loss of total isolation and atomicity. Hence the argument for two-phase locking (2PL).

Two-Phase Locking

A transaction must not attain a lock once it releases a lock or, it should not release any lock until it is sure it won't need any lock. 2PL algorithm executes transactions in two phases:

- Growing phase
- Shrinking phase

Each transaction has a growing phase where it obtains locks and accesses data items, and shrinking phase, during which it releases lock as shown in figure 1. The lock point determines end of growing phase and start of shrinking phase. Any transaction that follows 2-PL is serializable.

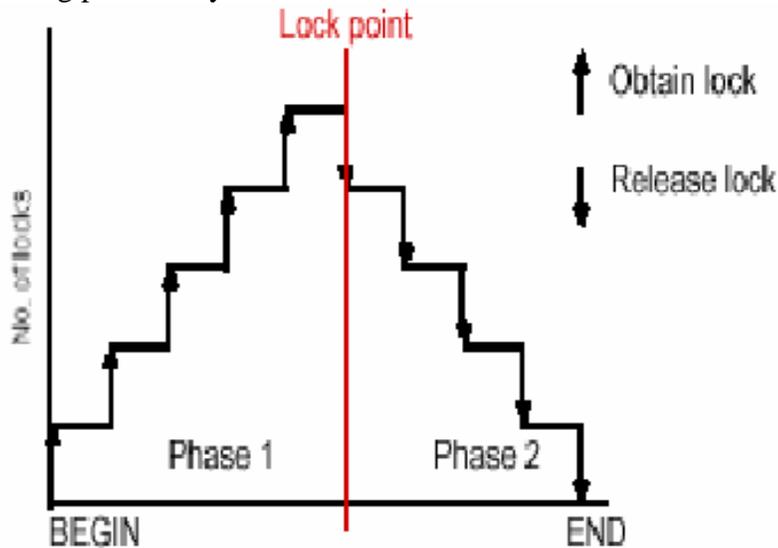


Figure 1: 2PL Lock Graph

This 2-PL is difficult to implement because

- Lock manager has to know that a transaction has attained all locks
- Its not going to need a released item again

So we have strict 2-PL which releases all the locks together when the transaction terminates (commits or aborts). Thus the lock graph is as shown in figure 2.

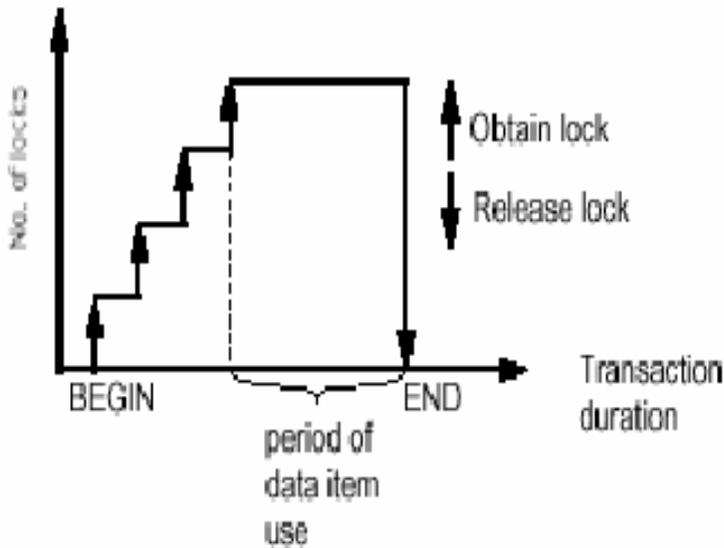


Figure 2: Strict 2PL Lock Graph

Centralized 2PL

The locking job is designated to a single site so only one site has the Lock Manager. The communication between the cooperating sites in executing a transaction according to a centralized 2PL (C2PL) algorithm is depicted in figure 3.

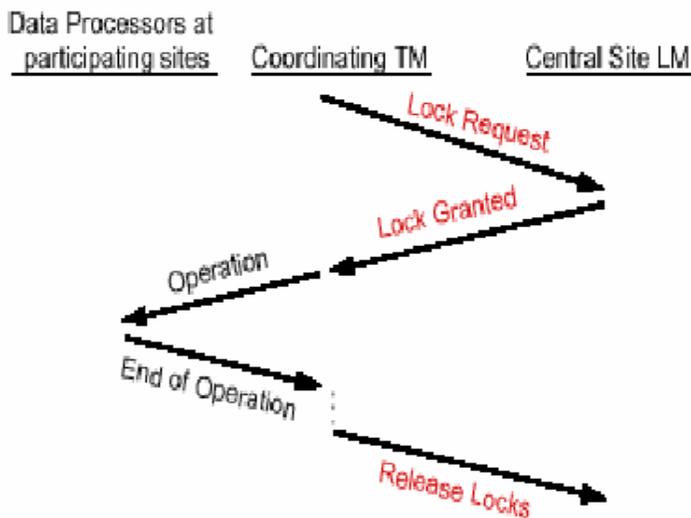


Figure 3: Communication Structure of Centralized 2PL

This communication is between the transaction manager at the site where the transaction is initiated (called the coordinating TM), the lock manager at the central site, and the data processing (DP) at the other participating sites. Central site may become a bottleneck in case of too many accesses. Primary Copy 2-PL is one solution.

Primary Copy 2-PL

It is a straightforward extension of centralized 2PL in an attempt to counter the latter's potential performance problems. It implements lock managers at a number of sites and makes each lock manager responsible for managing the locks for a given set of lock units. The TM then sends their lock and unlock requests to the lock managers that are responsible for that specific lock unit.

Distributed 2-PL

Distributed 2PL (D2PL) expects the availability of lock managers at each site. If the database is not replicated, distributed 2PL degenerates into primary copy 2PL algorithm. If data is replicated the transaction implements the ROWA replica control protocol.

The communication between cooperating sites that execute a transaction according to the distributed 2PL protocol is depicted in figure 4.

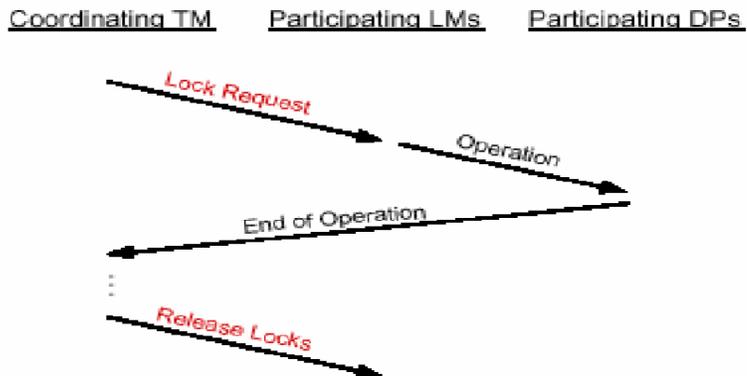


Figure 4: Communication Structure of Distributed 2PL

Timestamp based concurrency control

Unlike the locking based algorithms, timestamp based concurrency control algorithms do not attempt to maintain serializability by mutual exclusion. They select a serialization order and execute transactions accordingly to establish this ordering, the transaction manager assigns each transaction T_i a unique timestamp, $ts(T_i)$, at its initiation.

A timestamp is a simple identifier that serves to identify each transaction uniquely and to permit ordering

Properties of timestamp

- Uniqueness
- Monotonically

There are number of ways that timestamps can be assigned. One method is to use global (system wide) monotonically increasing counter.

It is simple to order the execution of the transactions operations according to their timestamps. The timestamp ordering (TO) rule can be specified as follows:

Timestamp Ordering (TO) Rule

Given two conflicting operations O_{ij} , O_{kl} of T_i and T_k , O_{ij} is executed first iff $ts(T_i) < ts(T_k)$. In this case T_i is said to be the older transaction and T_k is said to be the younger one. A scheduler that enforces the TO rule checks each new operation against conflicting operations that have already been scheduled. If a new operation is younger ones then the operation is accepted otherwise it is rejected. A TO scheduler is guaranteed to generate serial order. However, needs to know all operations in advance. If operations come to the scheduler one at a time, it is necessary to be able to detect if an operation has arrived out of sequence. Each data item x is assigned two timestamps: a Read timestamp $rts(x)$ and a write timestamp $wts(x)$.

For a **write** request, if an older transaction has read or written the data item, then operation is rejected.

For a **read** request, if an older transaction has written the data item, then operation is rejected.

TO does not generate deadlocks

Conservative TO

- Basic TO generates too many restarts
- Like, if a site is relatively calm, then its transactions will be restarted again and again
- Synchronizing timestamps may be very costly
- System clocks can used if they are at comparable speeds

- In con-TO, operations are not executed immediately, but they are buffered
- Scheduler maintains queue for each TM.
- Operations from a TM are placed in relevant queue, ordered and executed later
- Reduces but does not eliminate restarts

Multiversion TO

- Another attempt to reduce the restarts
- Multiple versions of data items with largest r/w stamps are maintained.
- Read operation is performed from appropriate version
- Write is rejected if any older has read or written a data item

That was all about Pessimistic CC algorithms, now we move to Optimistic approaches.

Optimistic concurrency control

The execution of any operation of a transaction follows the sequence of phases:

- Validation (V)
- Read (R)
- Computation (C)
- Write (W)

The phases are shown in figure 5.

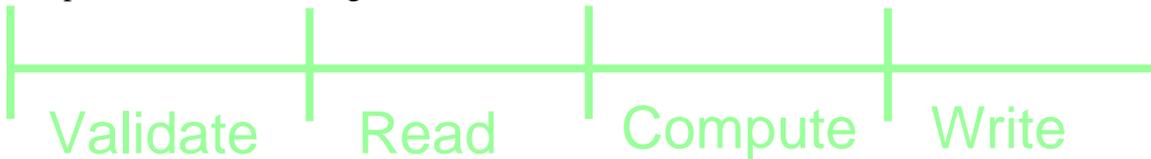


Figure 5: Phases of Pessimistic Transaction Execution

Optimistic assumes less chances of conflict, so validation is done at the last stage as shown in figure 6.



Figure 6: Phases of Optimistic Transaction Execution

Each transaction T_i is divided into sub-transactions that execute independently. Let us denote T_{ij} a sub-transaction of T_i that executes at site j . until the validation phase each local execution follows the sequence depicted in figure 6. at that point a timestamp is assigned to the transaction which is copied to all its subtransactions. The local validation of T_j is performed according to the following rules, which are mutually exclusive.

- **Rule1:** If all transactions T_k , where $ts(T_k) < ts(T_{ij})$ have completed their write phase before T_{ij} started its read, validation succeeds as shown in figure 7(a)

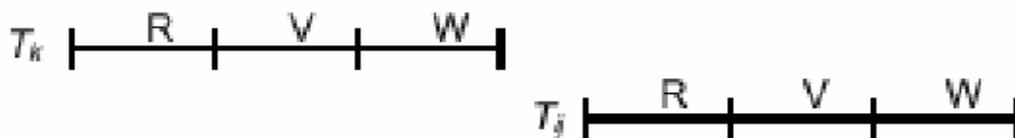


Figure 7: (a)

- **Rule2:** If there is any T_k , where $ts(T_k) < ts(T_{ij})$ which completes its write while T_{ij} is in its read phase then validation succeeds if $WS(T_k) \cap RS(T_{ij}) = \emptyset$ as shown in figure 7(b)

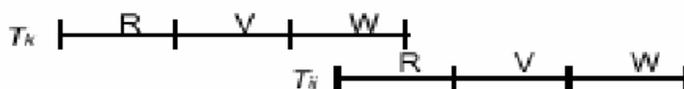


Figure 7: (b)

- **Rule3:** If T_k completes its read phase before T_{ij} completes its read phase, then validation succeeds if
 $WS(T_k) \cap RS(T_{ij}) = \emptyset$ and
 $WS(T_k) \cap WS(T_{ij}) = \emptyset$
Need more storage for the validation tests
- Repeated failure for longer transactions.

Deadlock Management

- Locking based concurrency control generates deadlock
- T_1 waits for data item being held by T_2 , and other way round as shown in figure 8.
- A tool in analyzing deadlocks is a Wait-for Graph (WFG).
- A WFG represents the relationship between transactions waiting for each other to release data items.

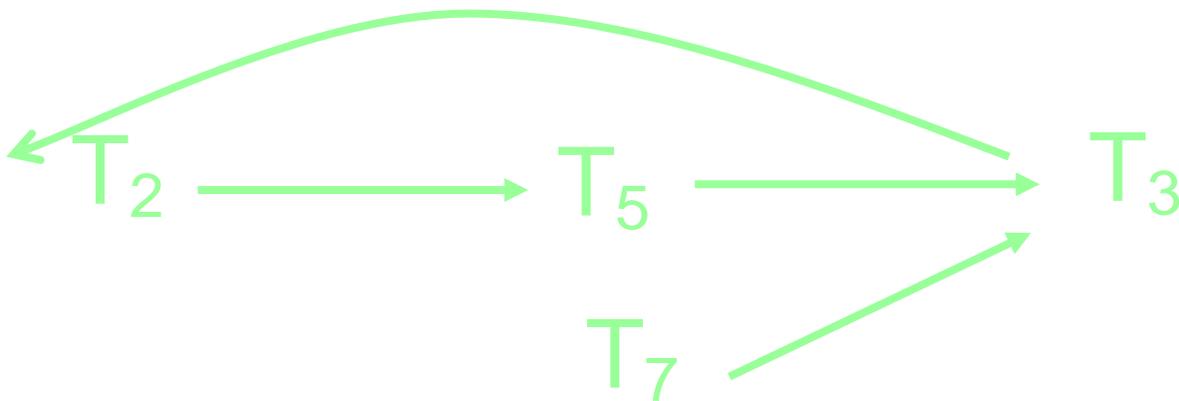


Figure 8: Deadlock

There are three methods for handling deadlocks:

- Prevention
- Avoidance
- Detection and resolution

Summary

We have discussed the locking based concurrency control and the timestamp ordering based on concurrency control.

Instructor: Dr. Nayyer Masood (nayyerm@yahoo.com)

Lecture No: 30

In previous lecture:

- Locking based CC
- Timestamp ordering based CC
- Concluded TM

In this lecture:

- Basic Concepts of Query Optimization
- QP in centralized and Distributed DBs

Introduction

Distributed database design is of major importance for query processing since the definition of fragments is based on the objective of increasing reference locality and sometimes parallel execution for the most important queries. The role of distributed query processor is to map a high level query on a distributed database into a sequence of database operations on relation fragments.

Query processing problem

The main function of a relational query processor is to transform a high level query into an equivalent lower level query. The low level query actually implements the execution strategy for the query. The transformation must achieve both correctness and efficiency. It is correct if the low level query has the same semantics as the original query, i.e. if both queries produce the same result.

Example

Consider the following relations

- EMP(eNo, eName, title)
- ASG(eNo, pNo, resp, dur)
- PROJ(pNo, pName, budget, loc)

Query: Get the names of employees who are managing a project

```

SELECT eName
FROM EMP, ASG
WHERE EMP.eNo = ASG.eNo
AND resp = 'Manager'

```

Two equivalent relational algebra queries that are correct transformation of the query above are

- $\pi_{eName}(\sigma_{resp='Manager' \wedge EMP.eNo = ASG.eNo} (EMP \times ASG))$

And

- $\pi_{eName}(EMP \bowtie (\sigma_{resp='Manager'} (ASG)))$

It is obvious that the second query, which avoids the Cartesian product of EMP and ASG consumes much less computing resource than the first and thus should be retained.

Centralized QP

In a centralized query execution strategies can be well expressed in an extension of relational algebra. The main role of a centralized query processor is to choose, for a given query, the best relational algebra query among all equivalent ones.

Distributed QP

In distributed system relational algebra is not enough to express execution strategies. It must be supplemented with operations for exchanging data between sites.

The distributed QP must also select the best sites to process data, and possibly the way data should be transformed. This increases the solution space from which to choose the distributed execution strategy, making distributed query processing significantly more difficult.

Example

Consider the same query in of previous example

Suppose EMP and ASG are Horizontally Fragmented as

- $EMP1 = \sigma_{eNo \leq 'E3'} (EMP)$
- $EMP2 = \sigma_{eNo > 'E3'} (EMP)$
- $ASG1 = \sigma_{eNo \leq 'E3'} (ASG)$
- $ASG2 = \sigma_{eNo > 'E3'} (ASG)$

Further suppose these fragments are stored at site 1, 2, 3 and 4 and result at site 5

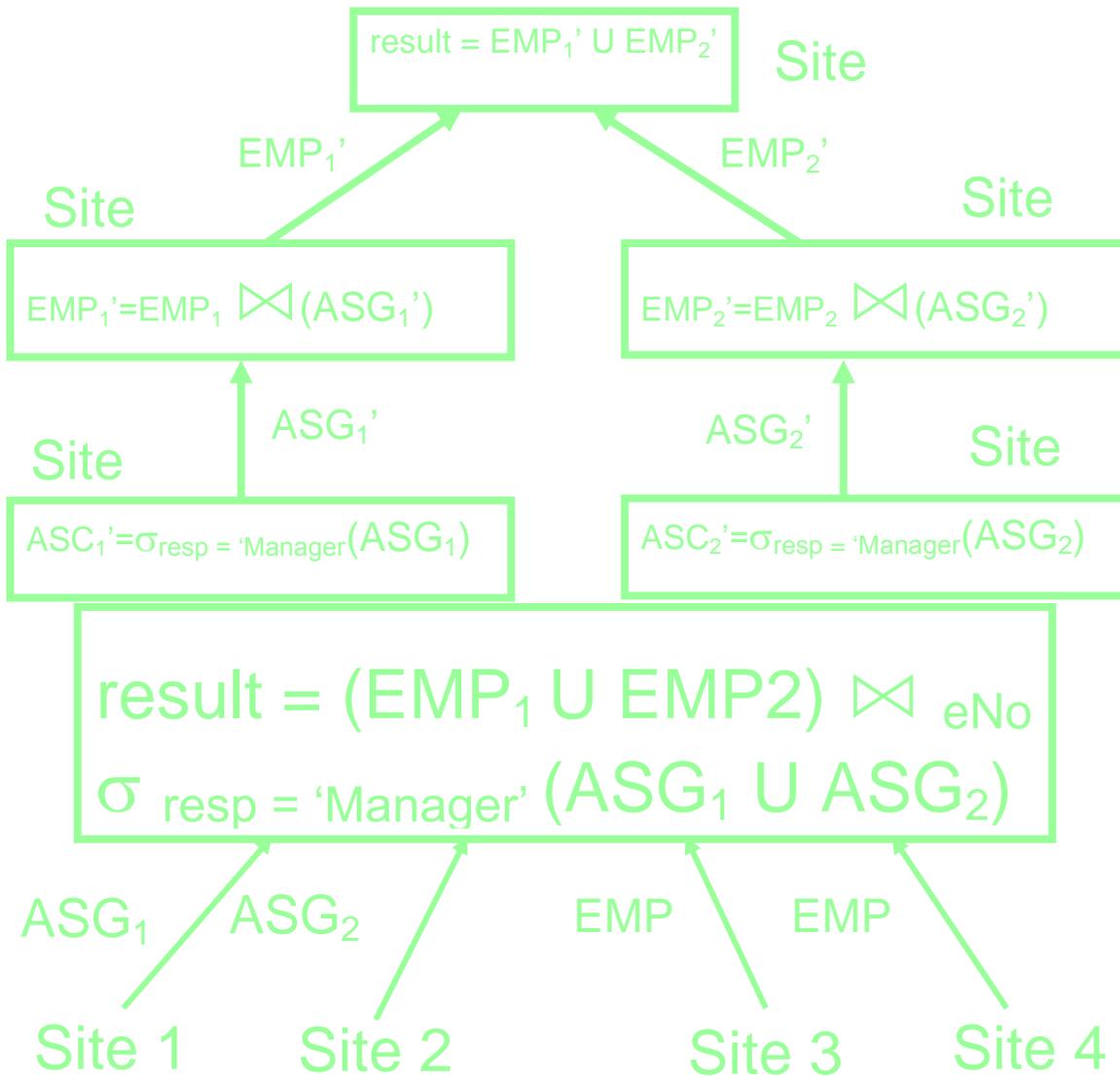


Figure 1: Equivalent Distributed Execution Strategies

Two equivalent distributed execution strategies for the query are shown in figure 1. an arrow from site I to site j labeled with R indicates that relation R is transferred from site I to site j.

Strategy A exploits the fact that relations EMP and ASG are fragmented the same way in order to perform the select and join operation in parallel.

Strategy B centralizes all the operand data at the result site before processing the query as shown in figure 1. To evaluate the resource consumption of these two strategies we use a cost model. Let's Assume

- $size(EMP)$ 400
- $size(ASG)$ 1000
- tuple access cost 1 unit
- tuple transfer cost 10 units
- There are 20 Managers
- Data distributed evenly at all sites

Strategy 1

The cost of strategy A can be derived as follows:

• produce ASG': $20 * 1$	20
• transfer ASG' to the sites of E: $20 * 10$	200
• produce EMP': $(10+10) * 1 * 2$	40
• transfer EMP' to result site: $20 * 10$	200
Total	460

Strategy 2

The cost of strategy B can be derived as follows:

• Transfer EMP to site 5: $400 * 10$	4000
• Transfer ASG to the site 5 $1000 * 10$	10000
• Produce ASG' by selecting ASG	1000
• Join EMP and ASG'	8000
Total	23000

In strategy B we assumed that the access methods to relations EMP and ASG based on attributes RESP and ENO are lost because of data transfer. This is a reasonable assumption.

Strategy A is better by a factor of 50, which is quite significant. It provides better distribution of work among sites. The difference would be higher if we assumed slower communication and/or high degree of fragmentation.

Objective of Query Processing

The objective of query processing in a distributed context is to transform a high level query on a distributed database. An important part of query processing is query optimization.

Query Optimization

Many execution strategies are correct transformations of the same high level query; the one that optimizes (minimizes) resource consumption should be retained.

A good measure of resource consumption is the total cost that will be incurred in processing the query. Total cost is the sum of all times incurred in processing the operations of the query at various sites.

In a distributed database system, the total cost to be minimized includes CPU, I/O and communication costs. The first two components (I/O and CPU costs) are the only factors considered by centralized DBMSs.

Communication Cost will dominate in WAN but not that dominant in LANs. Query optimization can also maximize throughput.

Operators' Complexity

Relational algebra is the output of query processing. The complexity of relational algebra operations, which directly affects their execution time, dictates some principles useful to a query processor. Figure 2 shows the complexity of unary and binary operations.

• Select, Project (without duplicate elimination)	$O(n)$
• Project (with duplicate elimination), Group	$O(n \log n)$
• Join, Semi-Join, Division, Set Operators	$O(n \log n)$

- Cartesian Product

O(n²)

Figure 2: Complexity of Unary and Binary Operations

Characterization of Query Processors

There are some characteristics of query processors that can be used as a basis for comparison.

- **Types of Optimization**
 - Exhaustive search for the cost of each strategy to find the most optimal one
 - May be very costly in case of multiple options and more fragments
 - Heuristics
- **Optimization Timing**
 - **Static: during compilation**
 - Size of intermediate tables not known always
 - Cost justified with repeated execution
 - **Dynamic: during execution**
 - Intermediate tables' size known
 - Re-optimization may be required
- **Statistics**
 - Relation/Fragment: Cardinality, size of a tuple, fraction of tuples participating in a join with another relation
 - Attribute: cardinality of domain, actual number of distinct values
- **Decision Sites**
 - Centralized: simple, need knowledge about the entire distributed database
 - Distributed: cooperation among sites to determine the schedule, need only local information
 - Hybrid: one site determines the global schedule, each site optimizes the local sub queries

Summary

We have discussed the basic concepts of query processing and the query optimization in centralized and distributed databases.

Course Title: Distributed Database Management Systems
Course Code: CS712
Instructor: Dr. Nayyer Masood (nayyerm@yahoo.com)
Lecture No: 31

In previous lecture:

- Basic concepts of query optimization
- Query processing in centralized and distributed DBs

In this lecture:

- Query decomposition
- Its different phases

Query Decomposition:

Query decomposition transforms an SQL (relational calculus) query into relational algebra query on global relations. The information needed for this transformation is found in the global conceptual schema.

Steps in query decomposition:

It consists of four phases:

1) Normalization:

Input query can be complex depending on the facilities provided by the language. The goal of normalization is to transform the query to a normalized form to facilitate further processing. This process includes the lexical and analytical analysis and the treatment of WHERE clause. There are two possible normal forms.

Conjunctive NF:

This is a conjunction (\wedge predicate) of disjunctions (\vee predicates) as follows:
 $(p11 \vee p12 \vee \dots \vee p1n) \wedge \dots \wedge (pm1 \vee pm2 \dots \vee pmn)$

Disjunctive NF:

This is disjunction (\vee predicate) of conjunctions (\wedge predicates) as follows:
 $(p11 \wedge p12 \wedge \dots \wedge p1n) \vee \dots \vee (pm1 \wedge pm2 \wedge \dots \wedge pmn)$

The transformation of the quantifier-free predicate is using equivalence rules.

Equivalence rules: Some of equivalence rules are:

1. $p1 \wedge p2 \Leftrightarrow p2 \wedge p1$
2. $p1 \vee p2 \Leftrightarrow p2 \vee p1$
3. $p1 \wedge (p2 \wedge p3) \Leftrightarrow (p1 \wedge p2) \wedge p3$
4. $p1 \vee (p2 \vee p3) \Leftrightarrow (p1 \vee p2) \vee p3$
5. $\neg(\neg p1) \Leftrightarrow p$

...

Example

The query expressed in SQL is

```
SELECT ENAME
FROM EMP,ASG
WHERE EMP.ENO=ASG.ENO
AND ASG.PNO='P1'
AND DUR=12
OR DUR=24
```

The qualification in conjunctive NF is

$EMP.ENO = ASG.ENO \wedge ASG.PNO='P1' \wedge (DUR=12 \vee DUR=24)$

The qualification in disjunctive NF is

$(EMP.ENO = ASG.ENO \wedge ASG.PNO='P1' \wedge DUR=12) \vee$
 $(EMP.ENO = ASG.ENO \wedge ASG.PNO='P1' \wedge DUR=24)$

2) Analysis:

Query analysis enables rejection of normalized queries for which further processing is either impossible or necessary. The main reasons for rejection are that the query is type incorrect or semantically incorrect.

Type incorrect

- If any of its attribute or relation names are not defined in the global schema
- If operations are applied to attributes of the wrong type

Semantically incorrect

- Components do not contribute in any way to the generation of the result
- Only a subset of relational calculus queries can be tested for correctness
- Those that do not contain disjunction and negation

- To detect through Connection graph (query graph) and Join graph

Query Graph

This graph is used for most queries involving select, project, and join operations. In a graph, one node represents the result relation and any other node represents an operand relation. An edge between two nodes that are not results represents a join, whereas an edge whose destination node is the result represents a project.

Example

Consider the following query in SQL;

```
SELECT ENAME, RESP
FROM EMP, ASG, PROJ
WHERE EMP.ENO = ASG.ENO
AND ASG.PNO = PROJ.PNO
AND PNAME = "CAD/CAM"
AND DUR >= 36
AND TITLE = "PROGRAMMER"
```

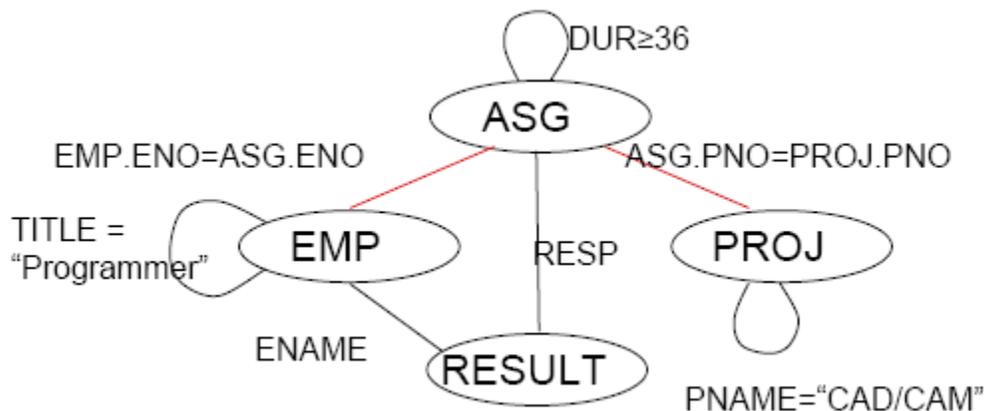


Figure1: Query graph

Join graph

This is the graph in which only joins are considered.

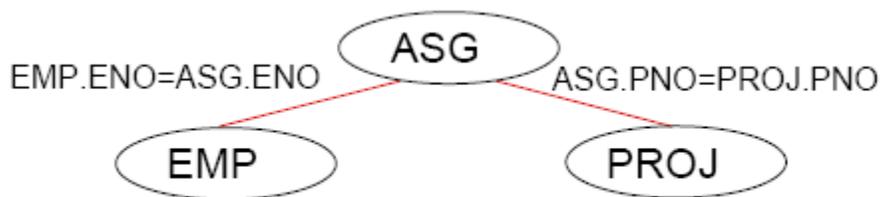


Figure2: Join graph

If the query graph is not connected, the query is wrong.

Example

```
Consider the SQL query;
SELECT ENAME, RESP
FROM EMP, ASG, PROJ
WHERE EMP.ENO = ASG.ENO
AND PNAME = "CAD/CAM"
```

AND DUR >= 36
 AND TITLE = "PROGRAMMER"

The query graph is shown in figure is disconnected; which tell us that the query is semantically incorrect.

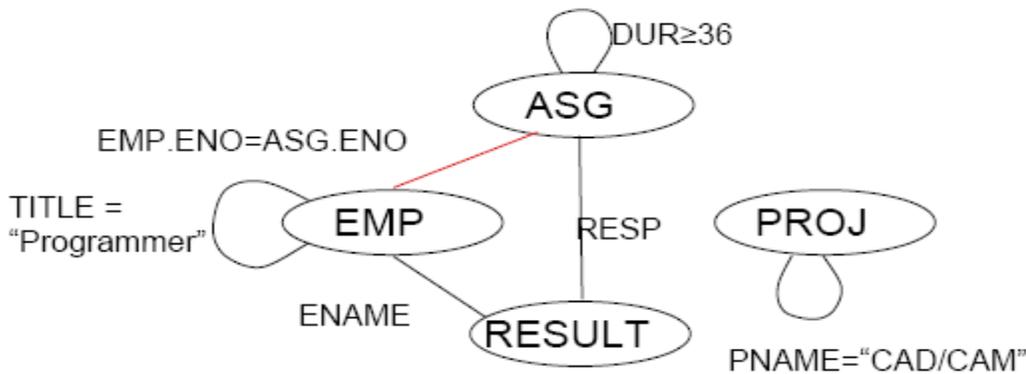


Figure 3: Disconnected query graph

3) Elimination of redundancy:

A user query expressed on a view may be enriched with several predicates to achieve view-relation correspondence and ensure semantic integrity and security. The enriched query qualification may then contain redundant predicates. Such redundancy may be eliminated by simplifying the qualification with the following well-known idempotency rules:

1. $p1 \wedge \neg(p1) \Leftrightarrow \text{false}$
2. $p1 \wedge (p1 \vee p2) \Leftrightarrow p1$
3. $p1 \vee \text{false} \Leftrightarrow p1$
- ...

Example

Consider SQL query:

```
SELECT TITLE
FROM EMP
WHERE EMP.ENAME = "J. Doe"
OR(NOT(EMP.TITLE = "Programmer")
AND(EMP.TITLE = "Programmer"
OR EMP.TITLE = "Elect. Eng.))
AND NOT(EMP.TITLE = "Elect. Eng.))
```

After simplification the query becomes

```
SELECT TITLE
FROM EMP
WHERE EMP.ENAME = "J. Doe"
```

4) Rewriting:

This process is divided into two steps:

- Straightforward transformation of query from relational calculus into relational algebra
- Restructuring of relational algebra to improve performance

Operator tree is used to represent the algebra query graphically.

Operator tree

It is a tree in which a leaf node is a relation and a nonleaf node is an intermediate relation produced by a relational algebra operator. The transformation of a tuple relational calculus query into an operator tree can easily be achieved as follows. First, a different leaf is created for each different tuple variable. In SQL, the

leaves are immediately available in the FROM clause. Second, the root node is created as a project operation and these are found in SELECT clause. Third, the SQL WHERE clause is translated into the sequence of relational operations (select, join, union, etc.).

Example

Consider the SQL query:

```
SELECT ENAME
FROM PROJ, ASG, EMP
WHERE ASG.ENO = EMP.ENO
AND ASG.PNO = PROJ.PNO
AND ENAME = "J.DOE"
AND PROJ.PNAME = "CAD/CAM"
AND (DUR = 12 OR DUR = 24)
```

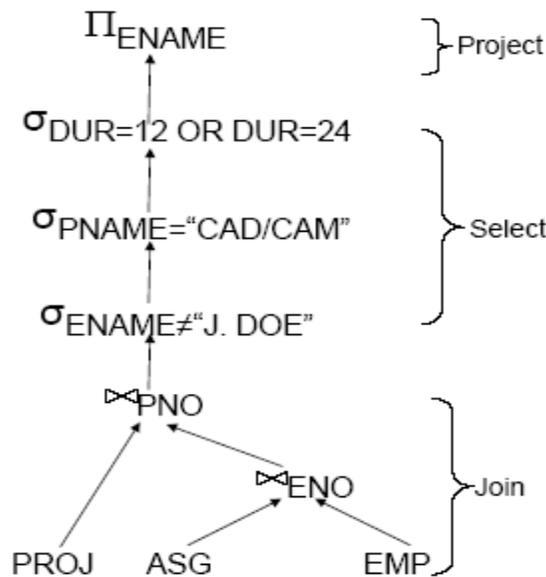


Figure 4: Example of operator tree

By applying transformation rules many different trees may be found.

Transformation Rules

- Commutativity of binary operations

$$R \times S \Leftrightarrow S \times R$$

$$R \bowtie S \Leftrightarrow S \bowtie R$$
- Associativity of binary operations

$$(R \times S) \times T \Leftrightarrow R \times (S \times T)$$

$$(R \bowtie S) \bowtie T \Leftrightarrow R \bowtie (S \bowtie T)$$

There are other rules that we will discuss in next lecture.

Summary:

Query processing has four different phases and the first phase is the Query Decomposition. The steps of query decomposition are normalization, analysis, simplification and rewriting. Our goal in every process is same to produce a correct and efficient query. We have studied an equivalence rules, idempotency rules and some of transformation rules.

Course Title: Distributed Database Management Systems
Course Code: CS712
Instructor: Dr. Nayyer Masood (nayyerm@yahoo.com)
Lecture No: 32

In previous lecture:

- Query decomposition
- Its different phases

In this lecture:

- Final phase of Query decomposition
- Next phase of query optimization: Data localization

Transformation Rules:

First two transformation rules have discussed in previous lecture and we are going to discuss other rules.

- Idempotence of unary operations
 - $\Pi A'(\Pi A''(R)) \Leftrightarrow \Pi A'(R)$
 - $\sigma p_1(A_1)(\sigma p_2(A_2)(R)) \Leftrightarrow \sigma p_1(A_1) \wedge p_2(A_2)(R)$
- Commuting selection with projection
 - $\pi A_1, \dots, A_n(\sigma p(A_p)(R)) \Leftrightarrow \pi A_1, \dots, A_n((\sigma p(A_p) \pi A_1, \dots, A_n, A_p(R)))$
- Commuting selection with binary operations
 - $\sigma p(A)(R \times S) \Leftrightarrow (\sigma p(A)(R)) \times S$
 - $\sigma p(A_i)(R(A_j, B_k)S) \Leftrightarrow (\sigma p(A_i)(R)) (A_j, B_k)S$
- Commuting projection with binary operations
 - $\Pi C(R \times S) \Leftrightarrow \Pi A'(R) \times \Pi B'(S)$
 - $\Pi C(R(A_j, B_k)S) \Leftrightarrow \Pi A'(R) (A_j, B_k) \Pi B'(S)$

These rules enables the generation of many equivalent trees. In optimization phase, one can imagine comparing all possible trees based on their predicted cost. The excessively large number of possible trees makes this approach unrealistic. The above rules can be used to restructure the tree in a systematic way so that the bad operator trees are eliminated. These rules can be used in four different ways:

- They allow the separation of unary operations, simplifying the query expression.
- Unary operations on the same relation may be grouped together
- Unary operations can be commuted with binary operations
- Binary operations can be ordered

Example

Consider the SQL query:

```
SELECT ENAME
FROM PROJ, ASG, EMP
WHERE ASG.ENO = EMP.ENO
AND ASG.PNO = PROJ.PNO
AND ENAME = "Saleem"
AND PROJ.PNAME = "CAD/CAM"
AND (DUR = 12 OR DUR = 24)
```

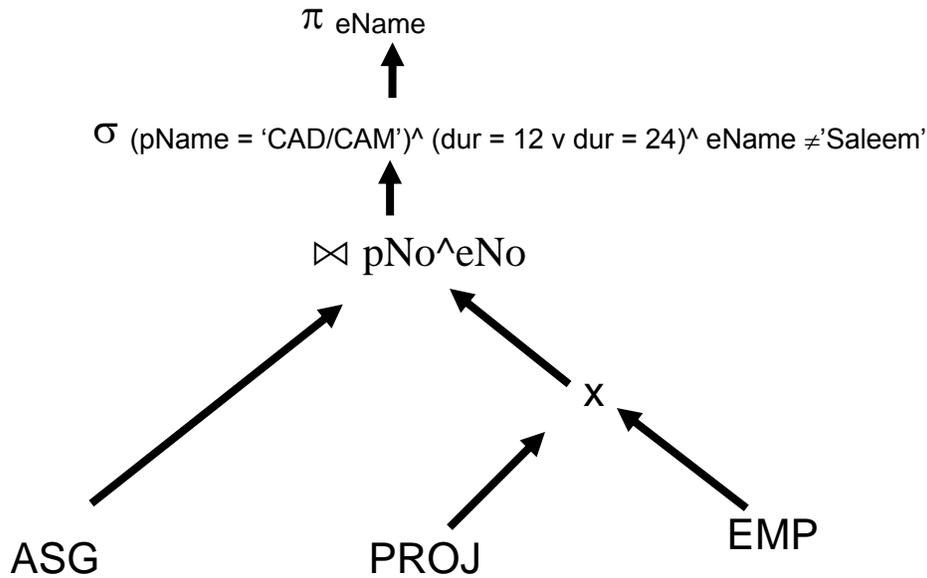


Figure1: Equivalent operator tree

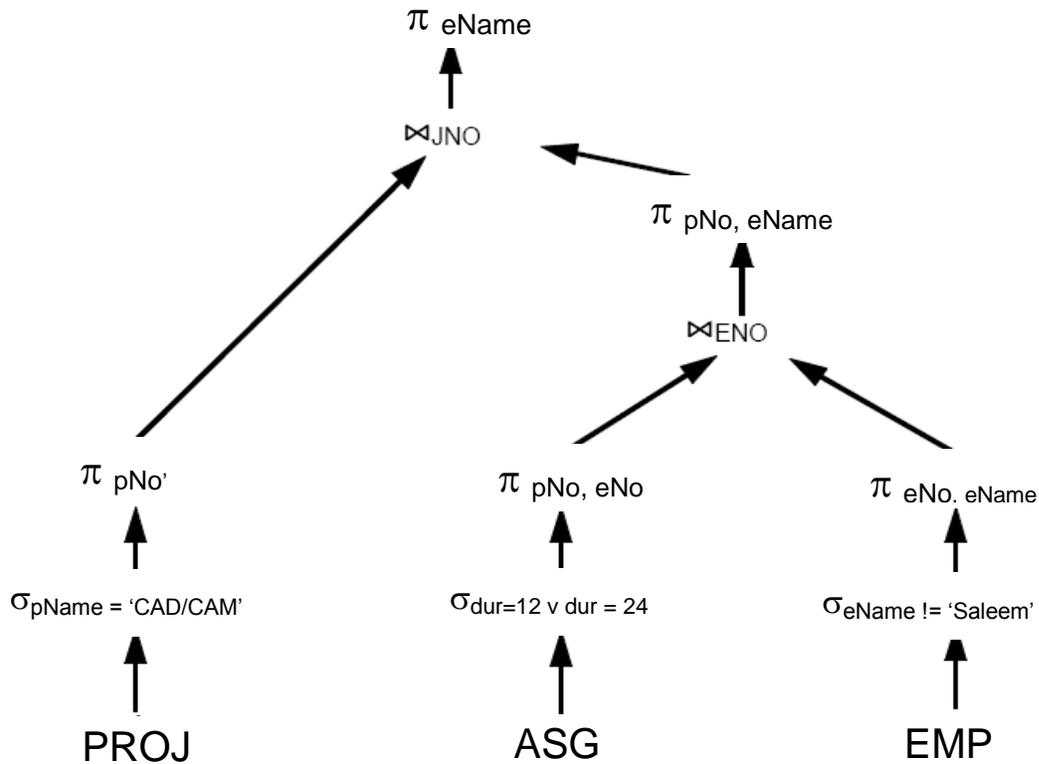


Figure 2: Rewritten operator tree

This concludes query decomposition and restructuring. Now we move towards the second phase of query optimization or query processing that is Data Localization.

Data Localization:

The localization layer translates an algebraic query on global relations into an algebraic query expressed on physical fragments. Localization uses information stored in the fragment schema. Fragmentation is defined

through fragmentation rules, which can be expressed as relational queries. A global relation can be reconstructed by applying the reconstruction rules and deriving a relational algebra program whose operands are the fragments, this process is called localization program.

A native way to localize a distributed query is to generate a query where each global relation is substituted by its localization program. This can be viewed as replacing the leaves of the operator tree of distributed query with sub trees corresponding to the localization programs. The query obtained in this way is called a generic query. Here we are going to present reduction techniques for each type of fragmentation.

Reduction for primary horizontal fragmentation:

The horizontal fragmentation function distributes a relation based on selection predicates. Consider an example:

Example:

Relation EMP(eNo, eName, title) can be split into three horizontal fragments.

- EMP1 = $\sigma_{eNo \leq 'E3'}(EMP)$
- EMP2 = $\sigma_{'E3' < eNo \leq 'E6'}(EMP)$
- EMP3 = $\sigma_{eNo > 'E6'}(EMP)$

The localization program for a horizontally fragmented relation is the union of fragments.e.g.

$$EMP = EMP1 \cup EMP2 \cup EMP3$$

Horizontal fragmentation can be exploited to simplify both selection and join operations.

Reduction with selection:

Selections on fragments that have a qualification contradicting the qualification of the fragmentation rule generate empty relations. The rule can be stated as:

Rule 1:

$$\sigma_{pi}(R_j) = \emptyset \text{ if } \forall x \text{ in } R: \neg(pi(x) \wedge pj(x))$$

where pi and pj are selection predicates, x denotes a tuple, and p(x) denotes “predicate p holds for x”.

Example:

Consider a query

```
SELECT *
FROM EMP
WHERE ENO = 'E7'
```

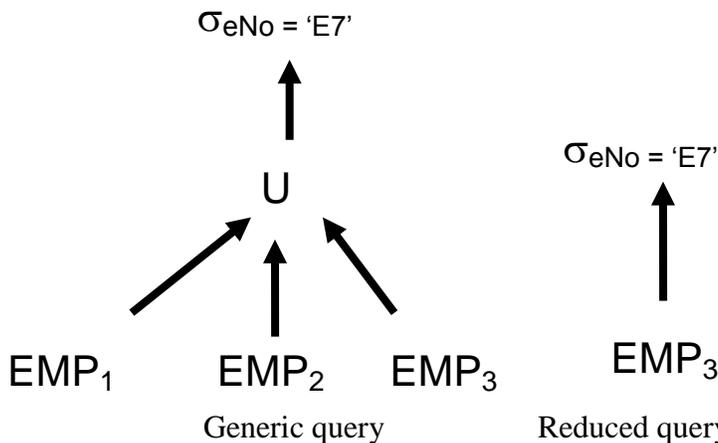


Figure 3: Reduction for horizontal fragmentation (with selection)

Reduction with join:

Joins on horizontally fragmented relations can be simplified when the joined relations are fragmented according to the join attribute. The simplification consists of distributing joins over unions and eliminating useless joins.

The distribution of join over union can be stated as:

$$(R1 \cup R2) \bowtie S = (R1 \bowtie S) \cup (R2 \bowtie S)$$

Where R_i are fragments of R and S is a relation.

With this transformation, unions can be moved up in the operator tree so that all possible joins of fragments are exhibited. Useless joins of fragments can be determined when the qualifications of joined fragments are contradicting. Assuming the fragments R_i and R_j are defined, according to predicates p_i and p_j on the same attribute the simplification rule can be stated as follows:

Rule2:

$$R_i \bowtie R_j = \emptyset \text{ if for all } x \text{ in } R_i \text{ and for all } y \text{ in } R_j: \neg(p_i(x) \wedge p_j(y))$$

The determination of useless joins are thus be performed by looking only at the fragment predicates. The application of this rule permits the join of two relations to be implemented as parallel partial joins of fragments. It is not always the case that the reduced query is better than the generic query. The generic query is better when there are a large number of partial joins in the reduced query.

Example:

Assume relation ASG is fragmented as:

- $ASG_1 = \sigma_{eNo \leq 'E3'}(ASG)$
- $ASG_2 = \sigma_{eNo > 'E3'}(ASG)$.

Consider a query:

```
SELECT    eName
FROM      EMP, ASG
WHERE     EMP.eNo = ASG.eNo
```

The equivalent generic query is given in figure4. The query reduced by distributing joins over unions and applying rule 2 can be implemented as a union of three partial joins that can be done in parallel (figure5).

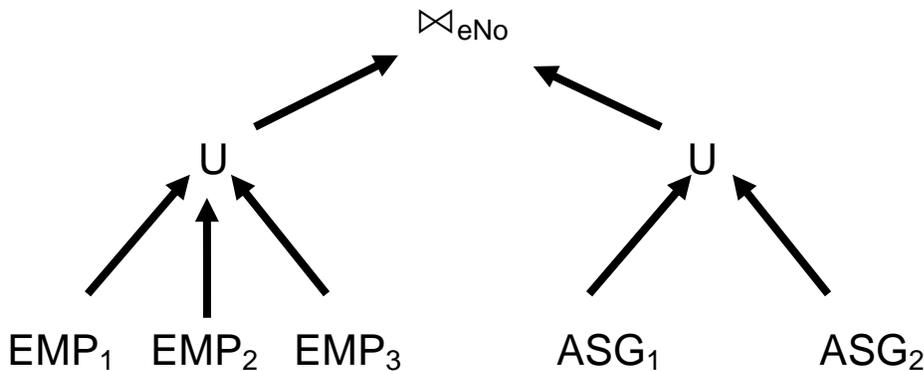


Figure 4: Generic query

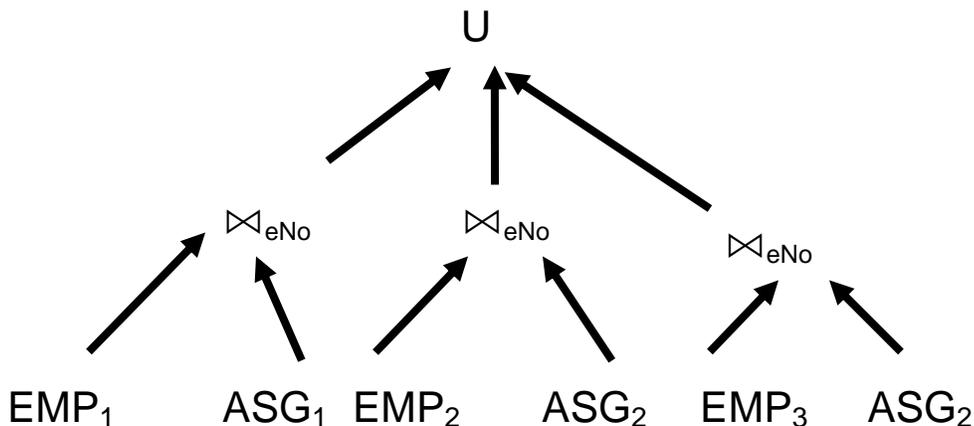


Figure 5: Reduced query

Reduction for vertical fragmentation:

The vertical fragmentation function distributes a relation based on projection attributes. Since the reconstruction operator for vertical fragmentation is the join, the localization program for a vertically fragmented relation consists of the join of the fragment on the common attribute.

Example:

Relation EMP can be divided into VFs where the key attribute ENO is duplicated.

- EMP1 = $\pi_{eNo, eName}$ (EMP)
- EMP2 = $\pi_{eNo, title}$ (EMP)

Relation R defined over attributes $A = \{A1, \dots, An\}$ vertically fragmented as $Ri = \pi_{A'}(R)$ where $A' \subseteq A$

Rule3:

$\pi_{D,K}(Ri)$ is useless if the set of projection attributes D is not in A' .

Example:

Consider a query: Select eName from EMP

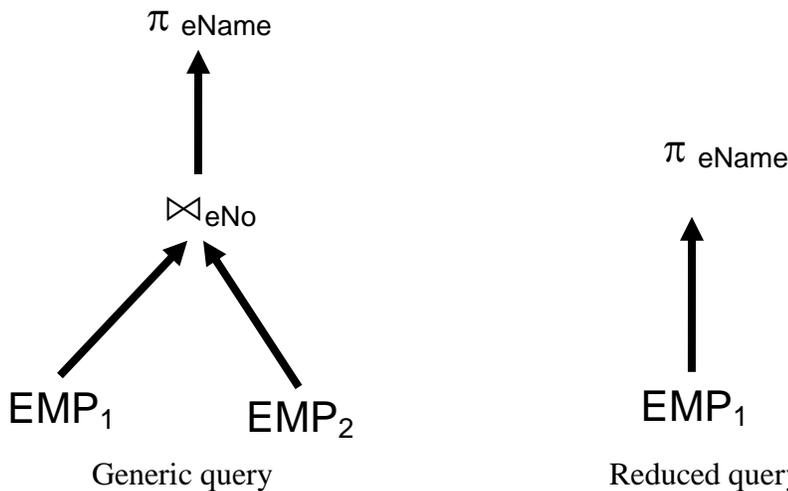


Figure 6: Reduction for vertical fragmentation

Reduction for derived fragmentation:

Relation R is fragmented based on the predicate on S. Derived fragmentation should be done for hierarchical relationship between R and S.

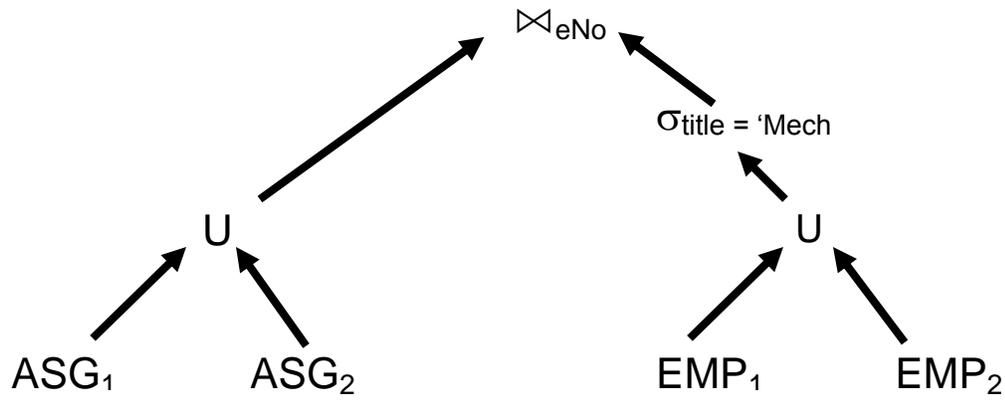
Example:

Assume ASG and EMP relations can be indirectly fragmented according to the following rules:

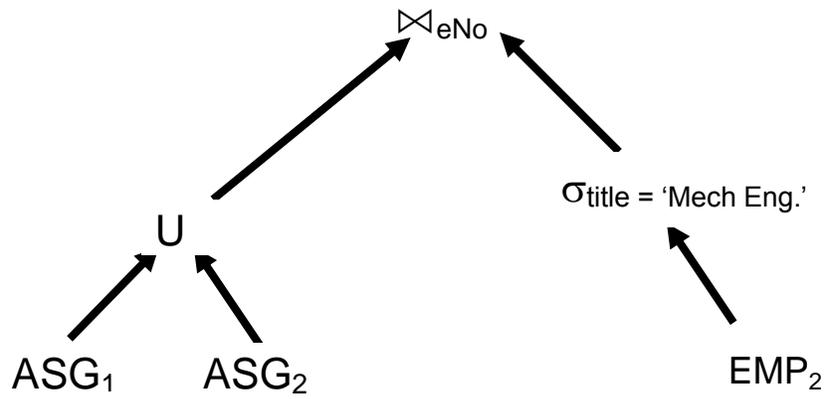
- ASG1: ASG \bowtie ENO EMP1
- ASG2: ASG \bowtie ENO EMP2
- EMP1: $\sigma_{title = 'Programmer'}$ (EMP)
- EMP2: $\sigma_{title \neq 'Programmer'}$ (EMP)

Consider a query:

SELECT * FROM EMP, ASG WHERE ASG.eNo = EMP.eNo AND EMP.title = "Mech. Eng."



Generic query



Query after pushing selection down

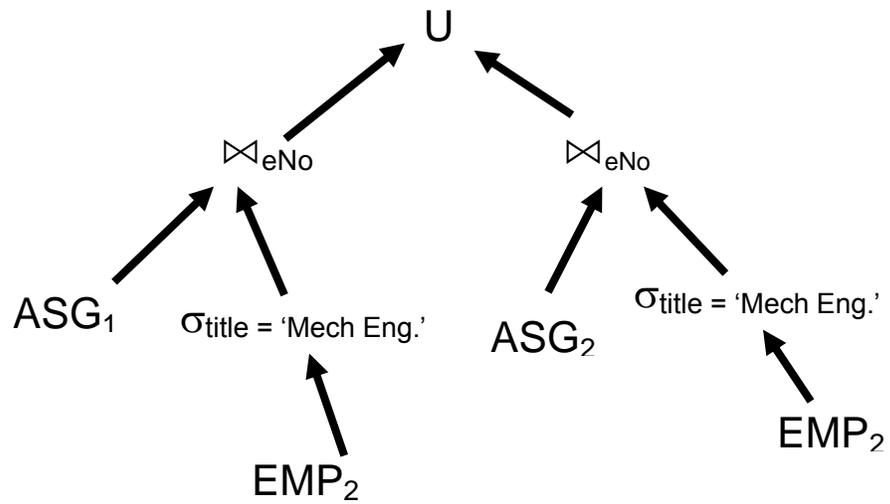


Figure 7: Query after moving unions up

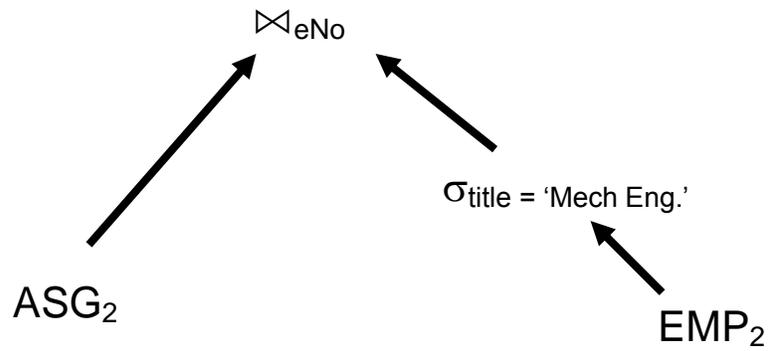


Figure 8: Reduced query after eliminating the left sub tree

Summary

We have discussed final phase of Query decomposition and next phase of query optimization i.e. Data localization.

Course Title: Distributed Database Management Systems
Course Code: CS712
Instructor: Dr. Nayyer Masood (nayyerm@yahoo.com)
Lecture No: 33

In previous lecture:

- Final phase of QD
- Data Localization: for HF, VF and DF

In this lecture:

- Data Localization for Hybrid Fragmentation
- Query Optimization

Reduction for hybrid fragmentation:

Hybrid fragmentation contains both types of Fragmentations. The goal of hybrid fragmentation is to support, efficiency, queries involving projection, selection and join.

Example:

Here is an example of hybrid fragmentation of relation EMP:

- $EMP_1 = \sigma_{eNo \leq E4} (\pi_{eNo, eName} (EMP))$
- $EMP_2 = \sigma_{eNo > E4} (\pi_{eNo, eName} (EMP))$
- $EMP_3 = \pi_{eNo, title} (EMP)$

Consider a SQL query

Select eName from EMP where eNo = "E5". Generic query is shown in figure 1. and reduced query is shown in figure 2.

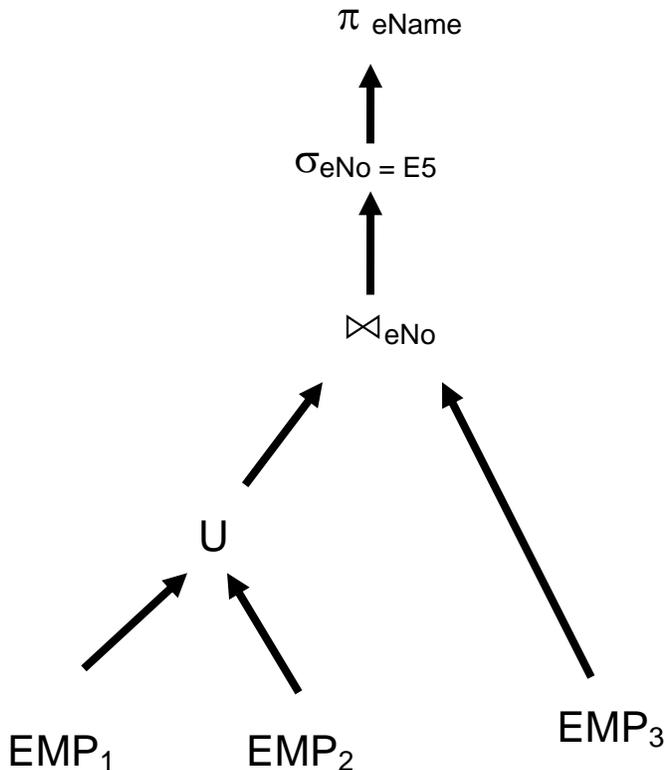


Figure 1: Generic query

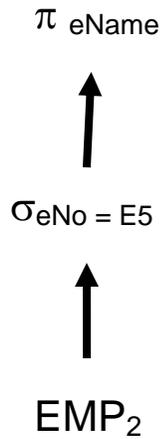


Figure 2: Reduced query

Summary of what we have done so far

- Query Decomposition: generates an efficient query in relational algebra
 - Normalization, Analysis, Simplification, Rewriting
- Data Localization: applies global query to fragments; increases optimization level
- So, next is the cost-based optimization

Query optimization:

Query optimization refers to the process of producing a query execution plan (QEP) which represents an execution strategy for the query. The selected plan minimizes an objective cost functions. A query optimizer, the software module that performs query optimization, is usually seen as three components:

1. Search space
2. Search strategy
3. Cost model

1) Search Space

The search space is the set of alternative execution plans to represent the input query. These plans are equivalent, in the sense that the same result but they differ on execution order of operations and the way these operations are implemented. Search space consists of equivalent query trees produced using transformation rules. Optimizer concentrates on join trees, since join cost is the most effective.

Example:

Select eName, resp

From EMP, ASG, PROJ where EMP.eNo = ASG. eNo and ASG.pNo = PROJ.pNo.

The Equivalent join trees are shown in figure 3.

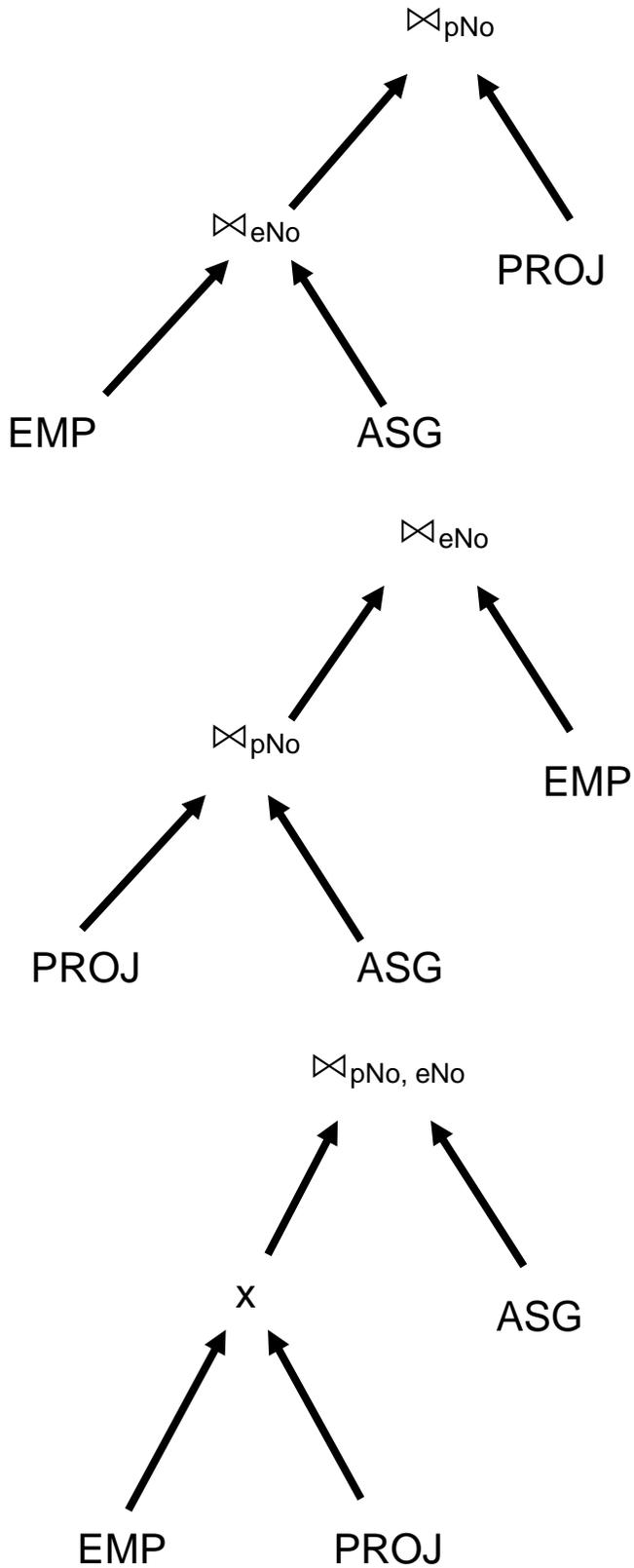


Figure 3: Equivalent join trees

For a complex query the number of equivalent operator trees can be very high. For instance, the number of alternative join trees that can be produced by applying the commutativity and associativity rules is $O(N!)$ for N relations. Query optimizers restrict the size of the search space they consider. Two restrictions are:

1- Heuristics

- Most common heuristic is to perform selection and projection on base relations
- Another is to avoid Cartesian product

2- Shape of join Tree

Two types of join trees are distinguished:

- Linear Tree: At least one node for each operand is a base relation
- Bushy tree: May have operators with no base relations as operands (both operands are intermediate relations)

2) Search Strategy

- Most popular search strategy is Dynamic Programming
- That starts with base relations and keeps on adding relations calculating cost
- DP is almost exhaustive so produces best plan
- Too expensive with more than 5 relations
- Other option is Randomized strategy
- Do not guarantee best

3) Cost Model:

An optimizer's cost model includes cost functions to predict the cost of operators, statistics, and base data and formulas to evaluate the sizes of intermediate results.

Cost function:

- The cost of distributed execution strategy can be expressed with respect to either the total time or the response time.
- Total time = CPU time + I/O time + tr time
- In WAN, major cost is tr time
- Initially ratios were 20:1 for tr and I/O, for LAN it is 1:1.6
- Response time = CPU time + I/O time + tr time
- TCPU = time for a CPU insts
- TI/O = a disk I/O
- TMSG = fixed time for initiating and recv a msgs
- TTR = transmit a data unit from one site to another

Example:

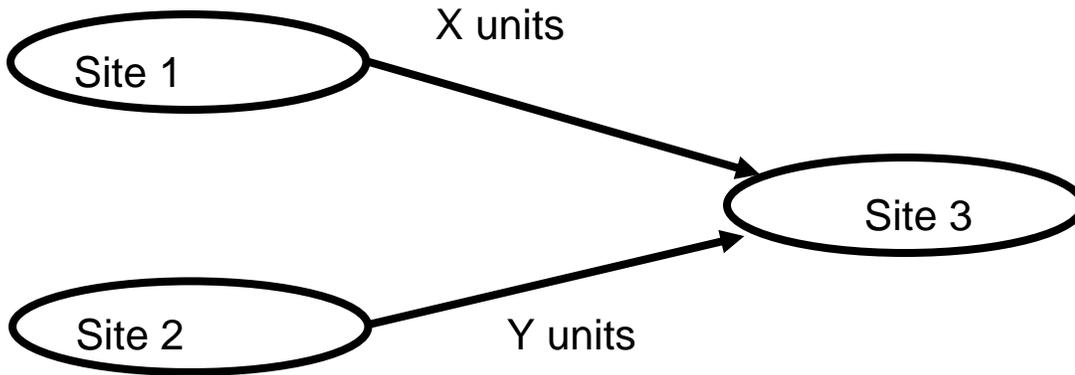


Figure 4

Assume that TMSG and TTR are expressed in time units. The total cost of transferring x data units from site 1 to site 3 as shown in figure 4 and y data units from site 2 to site 3 is

- Total Time = $2TMSG + TTR*(x+y)$
- Response Time = $\max\{TMSG + TTR*X, TMSG + TTR*Y\}$

Database Statistics

The main factor affecting the performance of an execution strategy is the size of the intermediate relations that are produced during the execution. When a subsequent operation is located at a different site, the intermediate relation must be transmitted over the network. There is a direct trade-off between the precision of the statistics and the cost of managing them, the more precise statistics being the more costly. For each relation $R[A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n]$ fragmented as R_1, \dots, R_r , the statistical data typically are the following:

1. Length of each attribute: $length(A_i)$
2. The number of distinct values for each attribute in each fragment: $card(\pi_{A_i}(R_j))$
3. Maximum and minimum values in the domain of each attribute: $min(A_i), max(A_i)$
4. The cardinalities of each domain: $card(dom[A_i])$ and the cardinalities of each fragment: $card(R_j)$
5. Join selectivity factor for some of the relations $SFJ(R, S) = card(R \bowtie S) / (card(R) * card(S))$

* $card(S)$

Cardinalities of Intermediate Results

Database statistics are useful in evaluating the cardinalities of the intermediate results of queries. Two simplifying assumptions are commonly made about the database. The distribution of attribute values in a relation is supposed to be uniform, and all attributes are independent, meaning that the value of an attribute does not affect the value of any other attribute. The following are the formulas for estimating the cardinalities of the result of the basic relational algebra operations.

Selection Operation:

- $Card(\sigma_F(R)) = SFS(F) * card(R)$
- $SFS(A = value) = 1/card(\pi_A(R))$
- $SFS(A > value) = (max(A) - value) / (max(A) - min(A))$
- $SFS(A < value) = (value - min(A)) / (max(A) - min(A))$
- $SFS(A < value) = (max(A) - value) / (max(A) - min(A))$
- $SFS(p(A_i) \wedge p(A_j)) = SFS(p(A_i)) * SFS(p(A_j))$
- $SFS(p(A_i) \vee p(A_j)) = SFS(p(A_i)) + SFS(p(A_j)) - (SFS(p(A_i)) * SFS(p(A_j)))$

Cardinality of Projection:

- Hard to determine precisely
- Two cases when it is trivial

- 1- When a single attribute A,
 $\text{card}(\pi_A(R)) = \text{card}(A)$
- 2- When PK is included
 $\text{card}(\pi_A(R)) = \text{card}(R)$

Cartesian Product:

- $\text{card}(R \times S) = \text{card}(R) * \text{card}(S)$

Cardinality of Join:

- No general way to test without additional information
- In case of PK/FK combination

$$\text{Card}(R \bowtie S) = \text{card}(S)$$

Semi Join:

- $\text{SFSJ}(R \bowtie AS) = \text{card}(\pi_A(S)) / \text{card}(\text{dom}[A])$
- $\text{card}(R \bowtie AS) = \text{SFSJ}(S.A) * \text{card}(R)$

Union:

- Hard to estimate
- Limits possible which are $\text{card}(R) + \text{card}(S)$ and $\max\{\text{card}(R), \text{card}(S)\}$

Difference:

- Like Union, $\text{card}(R)$ for $(R-S)$, and 0

Centralized Query Optimization

A distributed query is transformed into local ones, each of which is presented in centralized way. Distributed query optimization techniques are often extensions of the techniques for centralized systems. Centralized query optimization is simpler problem; the minimization of communication costs makes distributed query optimization more complex. Two popular query optimization techniques:

- INGRES
 - Dynamic optimization
 - Recursively breaks into smaller ones
- System R
 - Static optimization
 - Based on exhaustive search using statistics about the database

Maximum DBMs uses static approach s here our focus is on static approach that is adopted by system R.

Summary

We have discussed the final phase of data localization the concepts of query optimization and the components of query optimization: search space, cost model and search strategy. For cost calculation database information and statistics are required.

Course Title: Distributed Database Management Systems
Course Code: CS712
Instructor: Dr. Nayyer Masood (nayyerm@yahoo.com)
Lecture No: 34

In previous lecture:

- Concluded Data Localization
- Query Optimization
 - o Components: Search space, cost model, search strategy
 - o Search space consists of equivalent query trees
 - o Search strategy could be static, dynamic or randomized
 - o Cost model sees response and total times...
 - o Transmission cost is the most important
 - o Another major factor is size of intermediate tables
 - o Database statistics are used to evaluate size of intermediate tables
 - o Selectivity factor, card, size are some major figures

In this lecture:

- Query Optimization
- Centralized Query optimization
 - o Best access path
 - o Join Processing
- Query optimization in Distributed Environment

Centralized Query Optimization:

System R:

System R performs static query optimization based on the exhaustive search of the solution space. The input to the optimizer of system R is a relational algebra tree resulting from the decomposition of an SQL query. The output is an execution plan that implements the “optimal” relational algebra tree.

The optimizer assigns a cost to every candidate tree and retains the one with the smallest cost. The candidate trees are obtained by a permutation of the join orders of the n relations of the query using the commutativity and associativity rules. To limit the overhead of optimization, the number of alternative trees is reduced using dynamic programming. The set of alternative strategies is considered dynamically so that when two joins are equivalent by commutativity, only the cheapest one is kept.

Two major steps in Optimization Algorithm

- Best access path for individual relation with predicate
- The best join ordering is eliminated

An important decision with either join method is to determine the cheapest access path to internal relation.

There are two methods:

- 1) Nested loops
- 2) Merge join

1) Nested loops:

It composes the product of the two relations. For each tuple of the external relation, the tuples of the internal relation that satisfy the join predicate are retrieved one by one to form the resulting relation. An index on the join attribute is very efficient access path for internal relation. In the absence of an index, for relations of n1 and n2 pages resp. this algorithm has a cost proportional to $n1 * n2$ which may be prohibitive if n1 & n2 are high.

2) Merge join:

It consists of merging two sorted relations on the join attribute as shown in figure 1. Indices on the join attribute may be used as access paths. If the join criterion is equality the cost of joining two relations n1 and n2 pages, resp. is proportional to $n1+n2$. this method is always chosen when there is an equi join, and when the relations are previously sorted.

Example:

Select eName From EMP, ASG, PROJ Where
 EMP.eNo = ASG.eNo & PROJ.pNo = ASG.pNo & pName = 'CAD/CAM'

We assume the following indices:

- EMP has an index on eNo
- ASG has an index on pNo
- PROJ has an index on pNo and an index on pName



Figure 1: Join graph of query

We assume that the first loop of the algorithm selects the following best single relation access paths:

- EMP: sequential scan (no selection on EMP)
- ASG: sequential scan (no selection on ASG)
- PROJ: index on pName (there is a selection on PROJ based on pName)

The dynamic construction of tree of alternative strategies is shown in figure. The maximum number of join orders is 3!. The operations that are underlined are dynamically eliminated. The first level of the tree indicates the best single-relation access method. The second level indices for each of these, the best join method with any other relation as shown in figure 2.

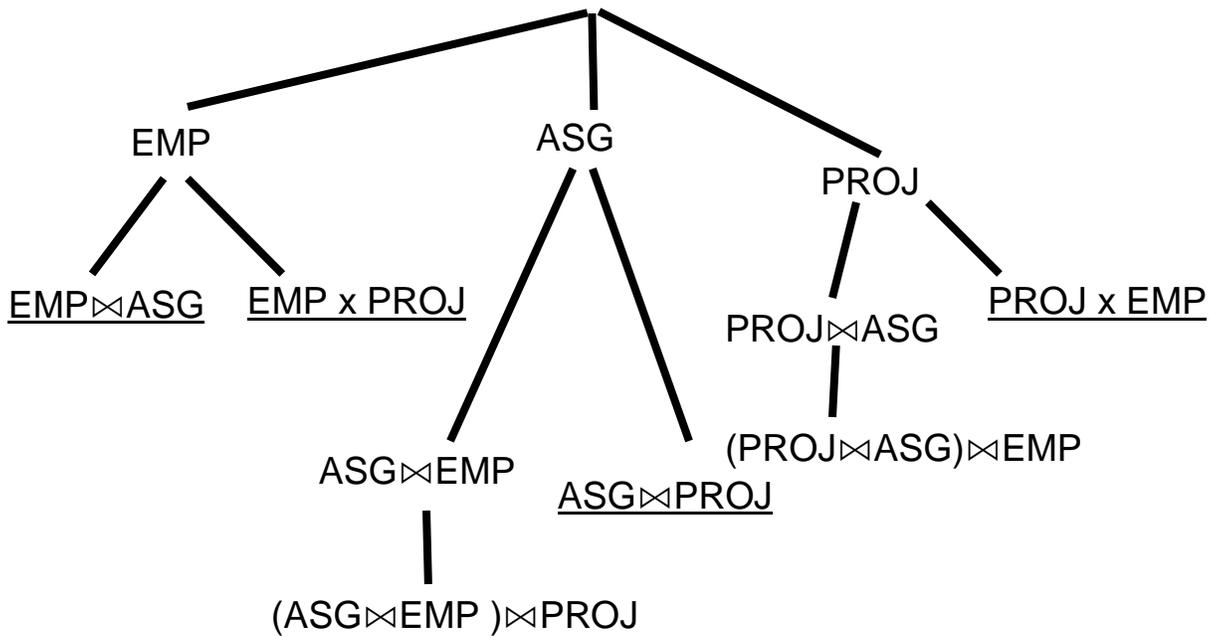


Figure 2: Alternative join orders

Join Ordering in Fragmented Queries:

Ordering joins is an important aspect of centralized query optimization. Join ordering in a distributed context is even more important since joins between fragments may increase the communication time. Two basic approaches exist to order joins in fragment queries.

- Optimize the ordering of joins
- Replaces joins by combination of semi-joins to minimize communication cost

Join Ordering:

Some algorithms optimize the ordering of joins directly without using semijoins. Distributed INGRES and R* algorithms are representative of algorithms that use joins rather than semijoins.

Example:

Let us consider a simpler problem of operand transfer in a single join. The query is $R \bowtie S$, where R and S are relation stored at different sites as shown in figure 3. The obvious choice of the relation to transfer is to send the smaller relation to the site of the larger one, which gives rise to two possibilities as shown in figure. To make this choice we need to evaluate the size of R and of S. we now consider the case where there are more than two relations to join. As in the case of single join, the objective of the join-ordering algorithm is to transmit smaller operands. Estimating the size of join results is mandatory, but also difficult. A solution is to estimate the communication cost of all alternative strategies and to choose the best one. The number of strategies grows rapidly with the number of relations.

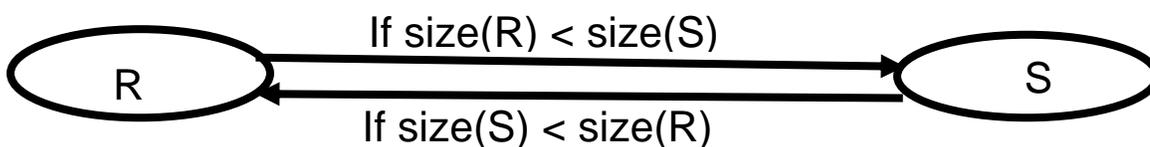


Figure 3: Transfer of operands in binary operation

Example:

Consider the following query expressed in relational algebra:

$$PROJ \bowtie pNO EMP \bowtie eNO ASG$$

Whose join graph is given in figure 4, we have made certain assumptions about the locations of three relations. This query can be executed in at least five different ways. We describe these strategies by the following programs, where $(R \rightarrow \text{site } j)$ stands for “relation R is transferred to site j”.

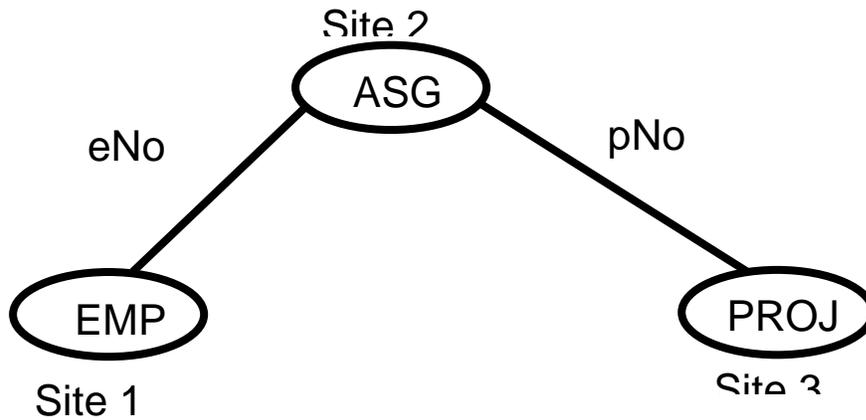


Figure 4: Join graph of distributed query

Strategy 1:

$EMP \rightarrow \text{site2}$, site2 computes $EMP' = EMP \bowtie ASG \rightarrow \text{site3}$ computes $EMP' \bowtie PROJ$

Strategy 2:

$ASG \rightarrow \text{site1}$, site1 computes $EMP' = EMP \bowtie ASG \rightarrow \text{site3}$ computes $EMP' \bowtie PROJ$

Strategy 3:

$ASG \rightarrow \text{site3}$, site3 computes $ASG' = PROJ \bowtie ASG \rightarrow \text{site1}$

Strategy 4:

$PROJ \rightarrow \text{site2}$, site2 computes $PROJ' = PROJ \bowtie ASG \rightarrow \text{site1}$ computes $EMP \bowtie PROJ'$

Strategy 5:

$EMP, PROJ \rightarrow \text{site2}$, site2 computes $PROJ \bowtie ASG \bowtie EMP$

To select one of these programs, the following sizes must be known or predicted : $size(EMP)$, $size(ASG)$, $size(PROJ)$, $size(EMP \bowtie ASG)$, and $size(ASG \bowtie PROJ)$. If it is the response time that is being considered, the optimization must take into account the fact that transfers can be done in parallel with strategy 5. an alternate to enumerating all the solutions is to use heuristics that consider only the sizes of the operand relations by assuming, e.g. that the cardinality of the resulting join is the product of cardinalities. In this case relations are ordered by increasing sizes and the order of execution is given by this ordering and the join graph. For instance, the order $(EMP, ASG, PROJ)$ could use strategy 1, while the order $(PROJ, ASG, EMP)$ could use strategy 4.

Summary

We have discussed the query optimization, join operations that are required in centralized and fragmented queries that are required in distributed environment. We will continue this discussion in next lecture.

Course Title: Distributed Database Management Systems
Course Code: CS712
Instructor: Dr. Nayyer Masood (nayyerm@yahoo.com)
Lecture No: 35

In previous lecture:

- Query Optimization
- Centralized Query Optimization
 - o Best access path
 - o Join Processing
- Query Optimization in Distributed Environment.

In this lecture:

- Query Optimization
 - o Fragmented Queries
 - o Joins replaced by Semijoins
 - o Three major Query Optimization algorithms

Semijoin based Algorithms:

The main shortcoming of the join approach is that entire operand relations must be transferred between sites. The semijoin acts as a size reducer for a relation much as a selection does. The join of two relations R and S over attribute A, stored at sites 1 and 2, resp. can be computed by replacing one or both operand relations by a semijoin with the other relation, using the following rules:

So $R \bowtie_A S$ can be replaced:

- $(R \bowtie_A S) \bowtie_A S$
- $R \bowtie_A (S \bowtie_A R)$
- $(R \bowtie_A S) \bowtie_A (S \bowtie_A R)$

The choice between one of the three semijoin strategies requires estimating their respective costs. The use of the semijoin is beneficial if the cost to produce and send it to the other site is less than the cost of sending the whole

operand relation and of doing the actual join. To illustrate the potential benefit of the semijoin, let us compare the costs of the two alternatives $R \bowtie A S$ versus $(R \bowtie A S) \bowtie A S$, assuming that $\text{size}(R) < \text{size}(S)$. The following program, using the semijoin operation:

- 1) $\pi_A(S) \rightarrow \text{site 1}$
- 2) Site1 computes $R' = R \bowtie A S'$
- 3) $R' \rightarrow \text{site 2}$
- 4) Site2 computes $R' \bowtie A S$

For the sake of simplicity let us ignore the constant TMSG in the communication time assuming that the term $TTR * \text{size}(R)$ is much larger. We can then compare the two alternatives in terms of the amount of transmitted data. The cost of the join-based algorithm is that of transferring relation R to site2. The cost of the semi-join based algorithm is the cost of steps1 and 3 above. Therefore the semijoin approach is better if

$$\text{Size}(\pi_A(S)) + \text{size}(R \bowtie A S) < \text{size}(R)$$

The semijoin approach is better if the semijoin acts as a sufficient reducer, if a few tuples of R participate in the join. The join approach is better if almost all tuples of R participate in the join, because the semijoin approach requires an additional transfer of a projection on the join attribute. The cost of projection step can be minimized by encoding the result of the projection in bit arrays thereby reducing the cost of transferring the joined attribute values. It is important to note that neither approach is systematically the best; they should be considered as complementary.

The semijoin can be useful in reducing the size of the operand relations involved in multiple join queries. Query optimization becomes more complex in these cases. Semijoin approach can be applied to each individual join, consider an example:

Example:

Consider an example of a program to compute $EMP \bowtie ASG \bowtie PROJ$ is

$$EMP' \bowtie ASG' \bowtie PROJ$$

$$\text{where } EMP' = EMP \bowtie ASG \text{ and } ASG' = ASG \bowtie PROJ$$

We may further reduce the size of an operand relation by using more than one semioin. For example, EMP' can be replaced in the preceding program by EMP'' derived as

$$EMP'' = EMP \bowtie (ASG \bowtie PROJ)$$

Since if $\text{size}(ASG \bowtie PROJ) \leq \text{size}(ASG)$, we have $\text{size}(EMP'') \leq \text{size}(EMP')$. In this way EMP can be reduced by the sequence of semijoins: $EMP \bowtie ASG \bowtie PROJ$. Such a sequence of semijoins is called a semijoin program for EMP . Similarly, semijoin programs can be found for any relation in a query. For example, $PROJ$ could be reduced by the semijoin program $PROJ \bowtie (ASG \bowtie EMP)$. Not all of the relations involved in a query need to be reduced; we can ignore those relations that are not involved in the final joins.

For a given relation, there exist several potential semijoin programs. The number of possibilities is in fact exponential in the number of relations. But there is one optimal semijoin program called full reducer, which for each relation R reduces R more than the others. The problem is to find the full reducer. A simple method is to evaluate the size of all possible semijoin programs and to select the best one. The problems with the enumerative method are twofold:

There is a class of queries, called cyclic queries that have cycles in their join graph and for which full reducers can not be found

For other queries, called tree queries, full reduces exist, but the number of candidate semijoin programs is exponential in the number of relations, which makes the enumerative approach NP-hard.

Example:

Consider a SQL query:

```
Select eName From EMP, ASG, PROJ Where
EMP.eNo = ASG.eNo and
```

ASG.eNo = PROJ.eNo and
EMP.city = PROJ.city

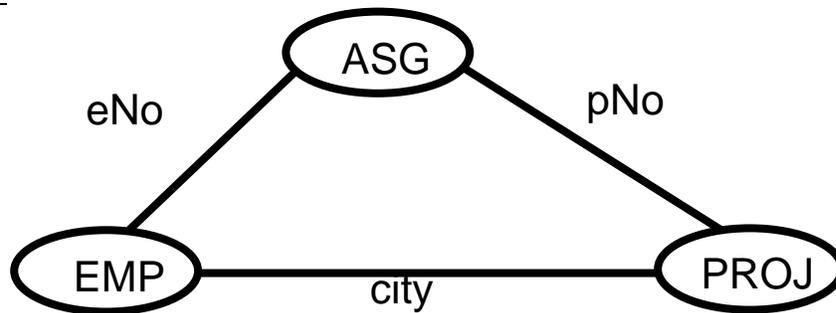


Figure 1: Cyclic Query

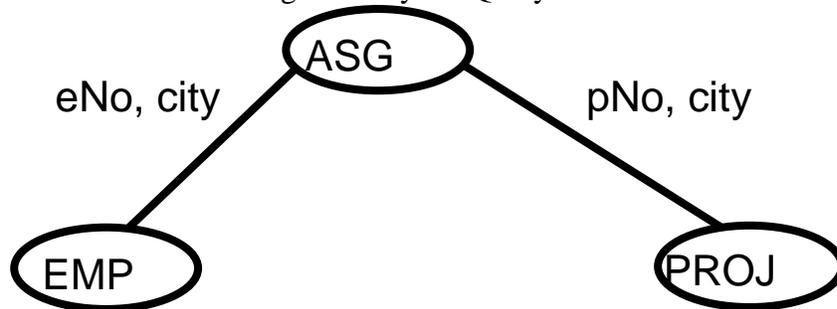


Figure 2: Tree Query

It is possible to derive semijoin programs for reducing it, but the number of operations is multiplied by the number of tuples in each relation, making this approach inefficient. One solution consists of transforming the cyclic graph into a tree by removing one arc of the graph and by adding appropriate predicates to the other arcs such that the removed predicate is preserved by transitivity as shown in figure 1 and 2.

Distributed Query Processing Algorithms:

Three main representative algorithms are

- Distributed INGRES Algorithm
- R* Algorithm
- SDD-1 Algorithm

R* Algorithm:

R* uses a compilation approach where an exhaustive search of all alternative strategies is performed in order to choose the one with the least cost. Predicting and enumerating these strategies is costly, the overhead of exhaustive search is rapidly amortized if the query is executed frequently. The R* query processing algorithm deals only with relations as basic units. Query compilation is distributed task in R* coordinated by a master site, where the query is initiated. The optimizer of the master site makes all intersite decisions, such as the selection of the execution sites and the fragments as well as the method for transferring data.

As in the centralized case, the optimizer must select the join ordering, the join algorithm (nested loop or merge loop), and the access path for each fragment (e.g clustered index, sequential scan e.t.c). these decisions are based on statistics and formulas used to estimate the size of intermediate results and access path information.

The optimizer must select the sites of join results and the method of transferring data between sites. To join two relations, there are three candidate sites: the site of a first relation, the site of second relation or a third site. In R*, two methods are supported for intersite data transfers.

- 1) Ship-whole
 - Entire relation transferred
 - Stored in a temporary relation
 - In case of merge-join approach, tuples can be processed as they arrive
- 2) Fetch-as-needed
 - External relation is sequentially scanned

- Join attribute value is sent to other relation
- Relevant tuples scanned at other site and sent to first site

Inter-site transfers: comparison

- Ship-whole
 - larger data transfer
 - smaller number of messages
 - better if relations are small
- Fetch-as-needed
 - number of messages = $O(\text{cardinality of external relation})$
 - data transfer per message is minimal
 - better if relations are large and the join selectivity is good.

Example:

Given the join of an external relation R with an internal relation S on attribute A there are four join strategies.

Strategy 1:

Move outer relation tuples to the site of the inner relation the external tuples can be joined with S as they arrive.

$$\text{Total Cost} = \text{LT}(\text{retrieve card}(R) \text{ tuples from } R) + \text{CT}(\text{size}(R)) + \text{LT}(\text{retrieve } s \text{ tuples from } S) * \text{card}(R)$$

Strategy 2:

Move inner relation to the site of outer relation. The internal tuples can not be joined as they arrive; they need to be stored

$$\text{Total Cost} = \text{LT}(\text{retrieve card}(S) \text{ tuples from } S) + \text{CT}(\text{size}(S)) + \text{LT}(\text{store card}(S) \text{ tuples as } T) + \text{LT}(\text{retrieve card}(R) \text{ tuples from } R) + \text{LT}(\text{retrieve } s \text{ tuples from } T) * \text{card}(R)$$

Strategy 3:

Fetch inner tuples as needed for each tuple in R, send join attribute value to site of S. Retrieve matching inner tuples at site S. Send the matching S tuples to site of R. Join as they arrive:

$$\text{Total Cost} = \text{LT}(\text{retrieve card}(R) \text{ tuples from } R) + \text{CT}(\text{length}(A) * \text{card}(R)) + \text{LT}(\text{retrieve } s \text{ tuples from } S) * \text{card}(R) + \text{CT}(s * \text{length}(S)) * \text{card}(R)$$

Strategy 4:

Move both inner and outer relations to another site

Example:

A query consisting join of PROJ (ext) and ASG (int) on pNo

Four strategies

- 1- Ship PROJ to site of ASG
- 2- Ship ASG to site of PROJ
- 3- Fetch ASG tuples as needed for each tuple of PROJ
- 4- Move both to a third site

Optimization involves costing for each possibility. That is it regarding R* algorithm for distributed query optimization.

SDD-1 Algorithm

The query optimization algorithm of SDD-1 is derived from an earlier method called the “hill-climbing” algorithm which has the distinction of being the first distribution query processing algorithm. In this algorithm, refinements of an initial feasible solution are recursively computed until no more cost improvements can be made. The algorithm does not use semijoins, nor does it assume data replication and fragmentation. It is devised for wide area point-to-point networks. The cost of transferring the result to the final site is ignored. This

algorithm is quite general in that it can minimize an arbitrary objective function, including the total time and response time.

The hill climbing algorithm proceeds as follows.

- 1- The input to the algorithm includes the query graph, location of relations, and relation statistics.
- 2- Do the initial local processing
- 3- Select the initial best plan (ES0)
 - Calculate cost of moving all relations to a single site
 - Plan with the least cost is ES0
- 4- Split ES0 into ES1 and ES2
 - ES1: Sending one of the relation to other site, relations joined there
 - ES2: Sending the result back to site in ES0.
- 5- Replace ES0 with ES1 and ES2 when we should have $\text{cost}(\text{ES1}) + \text{cost}(\text{local join}) + \text{cost}(\text{ES2}) < \text{cost}(\text{ES0})$
- 6- Recursively apply step 3 and 4 on ES1 and ES2, until no improvement

Example

Find the salaries of engineers working on CAD/CAM project

- Involves EMP, PAY, PROJ and ASG

$\Pi_{\text{sal}}(\text{PAY} \bowtie \text{title}(\text{EMP} \bowtie \text{eNo}(\text{ASG} \bowtie \text{pNo}(\sigma_{\text{pName} = \text{'CAD/CAM'}}(\text{PROJ}))))))$

Assume that $T_{\text{msg}} = 0$ and $T_{\text{TR}} = 1$. we ignore the local processing following which the database is

Relation	Size	Site
EMP	8	1
PAY	4	2
PROJ	1	3
ASG	10	4

Assume Length of a tuple is 1

So $\text{size}(\text{R}) = \text{card}(\text{R})$

Considering only transfers costs Site 1

- $\text{PAY} \rightarrow \text{site 1} = 4$
- $\text{PROJ} \rightarrow \text{site 1} = 1$
- $\text{ASG} \rightarrow \text{site 1} = 10$
- Total = 15

Cost for site 2 = 19

Cost for site 3 = 22

Cost for site 4 = 13

So site 4 is our ES0

Move all relations to site 4.

Summary

We have discussed Query Optimization, Fragmented Queries, Joins replaced by Semijoins. Three major Query Optimization algorithms.

Course Title: Distributed Database Management Systems
Course Code: CS712
Instructor: Dr. Nayyer Masood (nayyerm@yahoo.com)
Lecture No: 36

In previous lecture:

- Query Optimization
 - o Fragmented Queries
 - o Joins replaced by Semijoins
 - o Three major Query Optimization algorithms
 - Discussed R* Algorithm
 - Discussing SDD-1.

In this lecture:

- Query Optimization
 - o SDD-1 Algorithm continued
 - o Improvements in SDD-1 ALgo
 - o Overview of Query Processing

SDD-1 Algorithm continued:

From Previous Lecture

Example

Find the salaries of engineers working on CAD/CAM project

- Involves EMP, PAY, PROJ and ASG

$\Pi_{sal}(PAY \bowtie title(EMP \bowtie eNo(ASG \bowtie pNo(\sigma_{pName = 'CAD/CAM'}(PROJ))))))$

Assume that Tmsg = 0 and TTR = 1. We ignore the local processing following which the database is shown in figure 1.

Relation	Size	Site
----------	------	------

EMP	8	1
PAY	4	2
PROJ	1	3
ASG	10	4

Figure 1

Assume Length of a tuple is 1

So $\text{size}(R) = \text{card}(R)$

Considering only data transfers the initial feasible solution is to choose site 4 as the result site, producing the schedule.

Site 4

—PAY \rightarrow site 4 = 4

—PROJ \rightarrow site 4 = 1

—EMP \rightarrow site 4 = 8

Total = 13

The minimum cost option, so ES_0

One possible way of splitting this schedule (call it ES') is the following:

—ES1: EMP \rightarrow site 2

—ES2: (EMP \bowtie PAY) \rightarrow site 4

—ES3: PROJ \rightarrow site 4

—Cost = 8 + 8 + 1 = 17

Other possibilities suggest that ES_0 should not be split

Problems:

- The hill-climbing algorithm is in the class of greedy algorithms, which start with an initial feasible solution and iteratively improve it. The main problem is that strategies with higher cost, which could nevertheless produce better overall benefits, are ignored. If the optimal schedule has a high initial cost, it won't find it, An optimum solution with multiple sites is ignored, for example.

A better schedule is

PROJ \rightarrow Site 4

ASG' = (PROJ \bowtie ASG) \rightarrow Site 1

(ASG' \bowtie EMP) \rightarrow Site 2

Total cost = 1 + 2 + 2 = 5

The hill climbing algorithm has been substantially improved in SDD-1 in a number of ways. The improved version makes extensive use of semijoins. The objective function is expressed in terms of total communication time. Finally, the algorithm uses statistics on the database, called database profiles, where a profile is associated with a relation. The improved version also selects an initial feasible solution that is iteratively refined.

Furthermore, a postoptimization step is added to improve the total time of the solution selected. The main step of the algorithm consists of determining and ordering beneficial semijoins, that is semijoins whose cost is less than their benefit. The cost of semijoin is that of transferring the semijoin attributes A.

$$\text{Cost}(R \bowtie_A S) = T_{\text{MSG}} + T_{\text{TR}} * \text{size}(\Pi_A(S))$$

While its benefit is the cost of transferring irrelevant tuples of R (which is avoided by the semijoin):

$$\text{Benefit}(R \bowtie_A S) = (1 - \text{SF}_{\text{SJ}}(S.A)) * \text{size}(R) * T_{\text{TR}}$$

Phases of SDD-1:

There are four phases:

1. Initialization
2. Selection of beneficial semijoins
3. Assembly site selection
4. Postoptimization

The initialization phase generates a set of beneficial smijoins: $BS = \{SJ_1, SJ_2, \dots, SJ_k\}$ and an execution strategy that includes only local processing. The next phase selects the beneficial semijoins from BS by iteratively choosing the most beneficial semijoin, SJ_i and modeling the database statistics and BS accordingly. The next phase computes the assembly site by evaluating, for each candidate site, the cost of transferring to it all the required data and taking the one with the least cost. A postoptimization phase permits the removal from the execution strategy of those semijoins that affect only relations stored at assembly site.

Example:

Let us consider the following query as shown in figure 2:

```
SELECT * FROM
EMP, ASG, PROJ WHERE
EMP.eNo = ASG.eNo AND
ASG.pNo = PROJ.pNo
```

Relation	Card	Tuple size	Rel. size
EMP	30	50	1500
ASG	100	30	3000
PROJ	50	40	2000

Attribute	SFSJ	Size(Π_{attrib})
EMP.eNo	0.3	120
ASG.eNo	1.0	400
ASG.pNo	1.0	400
PROJ.pNo	0.4	200

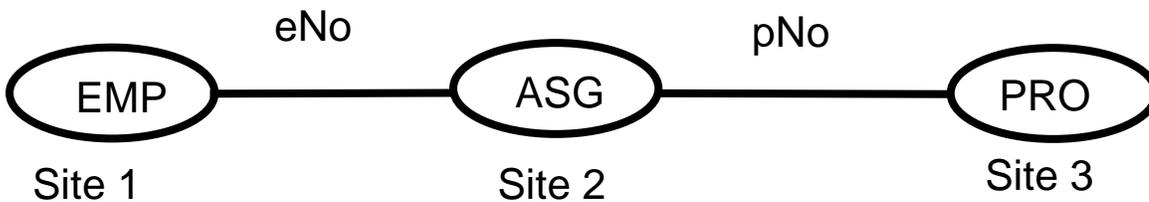


Figure 2: Example Query and Statistics

EMP \bowtie ASG \bowtie PROJ

—EMP \bowtie ASG

—ASG \bowtie EMP

—ASG \bowtie PROJ

—PROJ \times ASG

The initial set of beneficial semijoins will contain the following two:

$SJ_1 = \text{ASG} \times \text{EMP}$

- Cost = $1 * 120 = 120$

- Ben = $(1-.3)*3000 = 2100$

$SJ_2 = \text{ASG} \times \text{PROJ}$

-Cost = $1 * 200 = 200$

-Ben = $(1-.4)*3000 = 1800$

There are two nonbeneficial semijoins:

$SJ_3 = \text{EMP} \times \text{ASG}$

-Cost = $1 * 400$

-Ben = $(1-1)*1500 = 0$

$SJ_4 = \text{PROJ} \times \text{ASG}$

-Cost = $1 * 400 = 400$

-Ben = $(1-1)*3000 = 0$

Now we perform Iterations:

Iteration 1

Move SJ_1 from BS to ES

Update statistics of ASG

$\text{size}(\text{ASG}) = 900 = 3000 * 0.3$

$SF_{\times (\text{ASG.ENO})} = \sim 1.0 * 0.3 = 0.3.$

Iteration 2:

Two beneficial semijoins:

$SJ_2 = \text{ASG}' \times \text{PROJ}$

—Benefit = $(1-0.4) * 900 = 540$

—cost = 200

$SJ_3 = \text{EMP} \times \text{ASG}'$

—Benefit = $(1-0.3) * 1500 = 1050$

—cost is 400

Add SJ_3 to ES

Update statistics of EMP

$\text{Size}(\text{EMP}) = 1500 * 0.3 = 450$

$SF_{\times (\text{E.ENO})} = \sim 0.3 * 0.3 = 0.09$

Iteration 3:

No new beneficial semijoins.

Move remaining beneficial semijoin SJ_2 from BS to ES

Update statistics of ASG

$$\text{Size(ASG)} = 900 * 0.4 = 360$$

Assembly Site Selection: The site where the largest amount of data resides

Example:

Amount of data stored at:

- Site 1: 450
- Site 2: 360
- Site 3: 2000 (Assembly Site)

For each R_i at the assembly site, find the semijoins of the type $R_i \bowtie R_j$ where the total cost of ES without this semijoin is smaller than the cost with it and remove the semijoin from *ES*. No semijoins are removed in our example

Permute the order of semijoins if doing so would improve the total cost of ES

Final ES = $\{(ASG \bowtie EMP), (ASG' \bowtie PROJ), (EMP \bowtie ASG')\}$, Execution site = 3

Final Strategy: Send $(ASG \bowtie EMP) \bowtie PROJ$ and $EMP \bowtie ASG'$ to Site 3

Summary of QP

QP involves

- Accepting User Query (SQL)
- Establishing exec strategy
- Query optimization

QP objective is to reduce the cost function: involves I/O time, CPU time and communication time

Layers of QP

1. Query Decomposition
2. Data Localization
3. Global Query Optimization
4. Local Query Optimization.

1- Query Decomposition

Transforms an SQL query to Relational Algebra one on the global relations

Four phases:

- 1.1 Normalization: Rewrites in a proper format
- 1.2 Analysis: checks type and semantically incorrect ones
- 1.3 Elimination of Redundancy
- 1.4 Rewriting: in relational algebra-

2- Data Localization

Input is a query tree

Localizes the query data using the data distribution information from global schema: two steps.

- 2.1 Simplification: replaces the relation names with the fragments names
- 2.2 Fragment query is simplified and restructured to produce a good one-

3- Global Query Optimization:

Finding the best ordering of operations in fragmented query including comm. cost

Extension of Centralized QO

Concepts of concern

- Search space
- Cost model
- Search strategy

Database Statistics

- Some stored in schema
- They are used to compute the size of intermediate tables, figures like
 - Cardinality
 - Size
 - Selectivity factor.

Centralized QO Determines

- Best access path for relations
- Join processing
 - Nested loops
 - Merge Join

Fragmented QO

- Join ordering
- Semijoin based algorithms

Join Ordering

- For two relations is simple
- For more relations
 - move all to one site
 - select the smallest one
 - difficult to compute for all
 - Use heuristic.

Semijoin based Algorithms

- SJ approach is better if...
 - For more than two relations is complex, need to compute costs, most of the time restricted to two relations
- Two representative algos

—R* Algorithm

—SDD-1 Algorithm

R* Algorithm

- Static, exhaustive
- Master, apprentice, execution sites

- Ship-whole, fetch-as-needed
 - Adopts four strategies, computes cost for each and adopts the best one.
- SDD-1 Algorithm**
- Input: Query Graph, DB Statistics, location of relations
 - Select an initial plan ES_0 , one that gives minimum transfer cost
 - Improve ES_0 iteratively, unless no further improvement.
 - See the beneficial SJs, where benefit is more than the cost, move them to BS
 - Move best SJ from BS to ES
 - Adjust the statistics based on the selected SJ
 - Iteratively move all beneficial SJ to ES.
 - Pass through postoptimization phase
 - Select the execution site, one that contains maximum data, move the selected SJs to that site.

Course Title: Distributed Database Management Systems
Course Code: CS712
Instructor: Dr. Nayyer Masood (nayyerm@yahoo.com)
Lecture No: 37

In today's lecture:

- Parallel Database Systems
 - o Basics of Parallel Processing
 - o Parallel Database Systems

References for the topic

Crichlow, J. M., "An Introduction to Distributed and Parallel Computing" second ed., PHI
Mahapatra, T., Mishra, S., "Oracle Parallel Processing", O'Reilly Online Catalogue

Parallel Processing:

Introduction:

Computer programs generally execute sequentially, reasons are:

- Single CPU
- Programming language support
- Programmer familiarity
- Logic of program is sequential

Uni-processor multi-programming systems allow concurrent processing through context switching. However, CPU runs one instruction at a time. Parallel processing involves taking a large task, dividing it into several smaller tasks, and then working on each of those smaller tasks simultaneously. This divide-n-conquer strategy performs larger task in less time.

Requirements for parallel processing:

- Computer Hardware
- An operating system capable of managing multiple processors
- Application software

Why parallel processing:

Some Applications need computing power of parallel system

- image processing
- large-scale simulation
- Weather forecasting etc.

Advantages:

Parallel processing has following advantages:

- More fault tolerance
- Increases throughput
- Better price/performance

Costs involved:

- Synchronization cost has to be kept minimum
- Administering is difficult

Many computer programs can be broken into distinct parallel procedures, like

for $i = 1$ to n

$c(i) = a(i) * a(i) + \text{sqrt}(a(i))$

Where c and a are array

Square and square root can be done in parallel in parallel processing. So the execution speed increases. Systems allow moving away from strict serial execution to parallel processing. There are different architectures in parallel processing:

- Pipeline machines
- Multicomputers
- Multiprocessors
- Massively parallel architecture

Pipeline and Vector Processors

Pipeline processors permit overlapping of instructions. This is also called producer-consumer. An instruction divided into a number of distinct stages, each allocated to distinct processor. Like, steps may be

1. Fetch instruction
2. Decode it
3. Calculate effective address of operands
4. Get operands
5. Execute operations
6. Store result

For example, there are six processors. First processor gives the output to second and starts the next instruction first step. So in this way six instructions run in pipeline manner.

Determination of operation involved here. If operation is same on large amount of data, so the step fetch and decode will skip and just perform other four steps so execution will be fast. This process is called vector processing.

Multicomputer Systems

Multiple computers linked through a network in a small area. They are loosely coupled systems and they are also called MIMD (multiple instructions multiple data) machines. Different instructions execute on different machines. They are physical connected via bus or channel and allows parallel stream transmission of data. In multicomputer systems data transmission speed will be fast, low transmission errors because of less distance and skew is immaterial. Skew means sub tasks perform in parallel so there is a time variation exists.

Multicomputer can be used to distribute processing by type e.g. if there is a task then this involve number of activities and each computer assign a one activity e.g. one is used for input/output and one for report and so on. These computers must interact with each other. One possibility for load balancing establishes a setup of Master/Slave. Second setup is of Multiple Master/Slave. Third is Peer to peer, anyone initiates a job, interested processors bid.

Summary

We have discussed the basics of parallel processing and parallel database systems. Parallel database system is the combination of parallel processing and database concepts.

Course Title: Distributed Database Management Systems
Course Code: CS712
Instructor: Dr. Nayyer Masood (nayyerm@yahoo.com)
Lecture No: 38

In the previous lecture:

- Sequential Execution
- Parallel Execution
- Non-Sequential setups
 - o Pipeline and Vector Processor
 - o Multicomputer Systems

In today's lecture:

- Parallel Processing basics
 - o Multiprocessor Systems
 - o Associative Processors
 - o Array Processors
- Entry to Parallel Database Systems

Multiprocessor Systems

Multiprocessing is the use of two or more central processing units (CPUs) within a single computer system as shown in figure 1. One computer with a global RAM shared by many processors. All processors are tightly coupled. In multiprocessor, thousands of processor is controlled by single operating system. Each processor accessing the same job queue. Synchronization between them is required. Contention for resources may be occurring. Interprocessor communication is also required. Processors may be allocated buffer areas in memory for interProcessor information transfer.

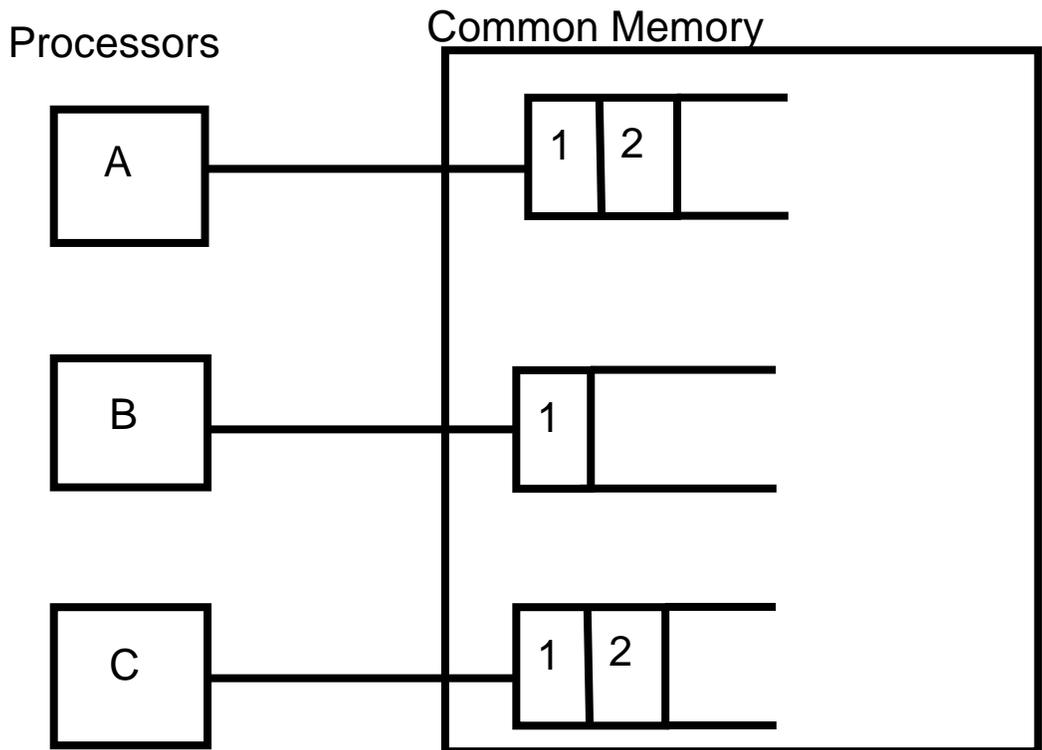


Figure 1

Certain processors may become idle and they should announce their availability, or wait for a signal for help from other systems. Interconnection systems are

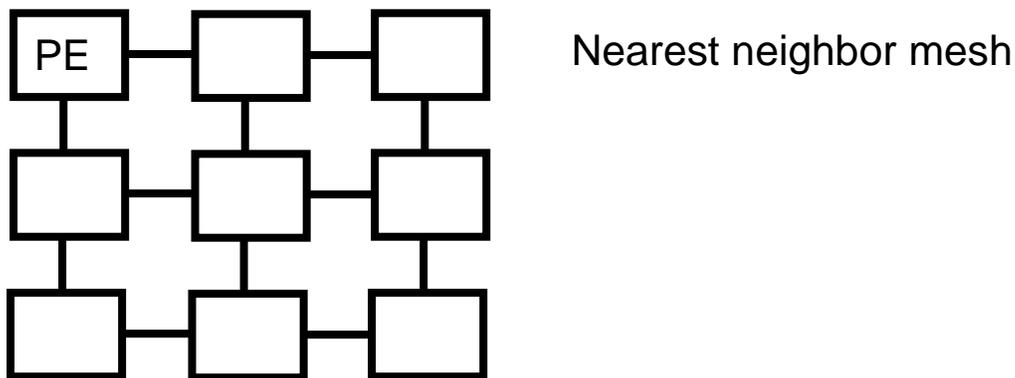
- Time shared or common bus
- Crossbar switches
- Multiport-memory systems
- Multistage networks

Associative Processors

They are designed to speed up search for data items in memory. Parallel examination of all memory block to search matching ones.

Array Processors (SIMD)

Set of identical Processors synchronized to perform same instruction simultaneously on different data. They are also called SIMD. That is it about Parallel Computing basics. Let's move to now parallel databases.



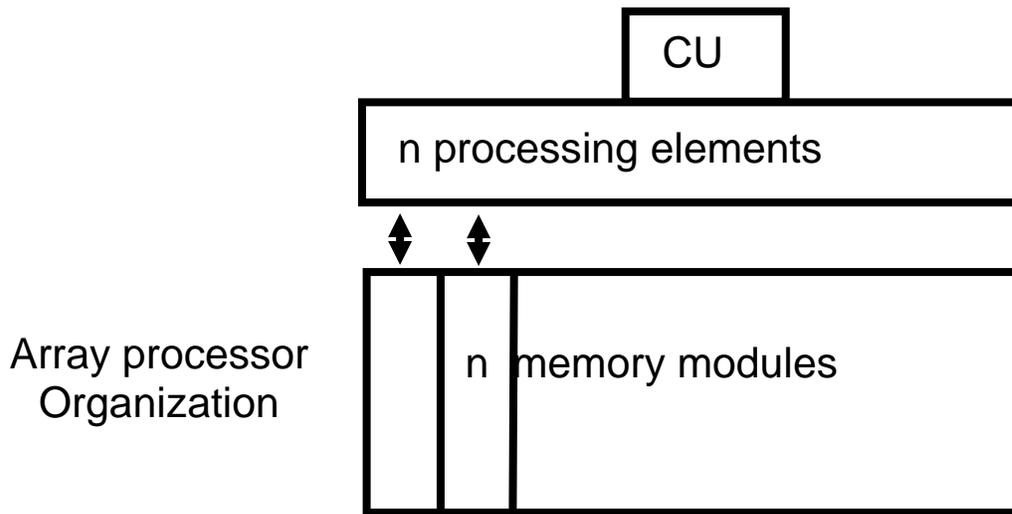


Figure 2

Parallel database:

Parallel database systems combine database management and parallel processing to increase performance and availability. The major problems for DBSs have been I/O bottleneck. Initially database machines (DBMs) designers tackled this problem through special purpose hardware. They failed because of a poor price/performance when compared to the software solution which can easily benefit from hardware progress in silicon technology. One solution is increasing I/O bandwidth through parallelism. For instance, if we store a database of size D with throughput T or we store on n disks, size will be D/n and throughput T' , we get an ideal throughput of $n * T'$ which can be better consumed by multiple processor.

The objectives of parallel database systems can be achieved by extending distributed database technology, e.g, by partitioning the database across multiple (small) disks so that much inter- and intra- query parallelism can be obtained. Inter-query parallelism is the ability to use multiple processors to execute several independent queries simultaneously as shown in figure 3.

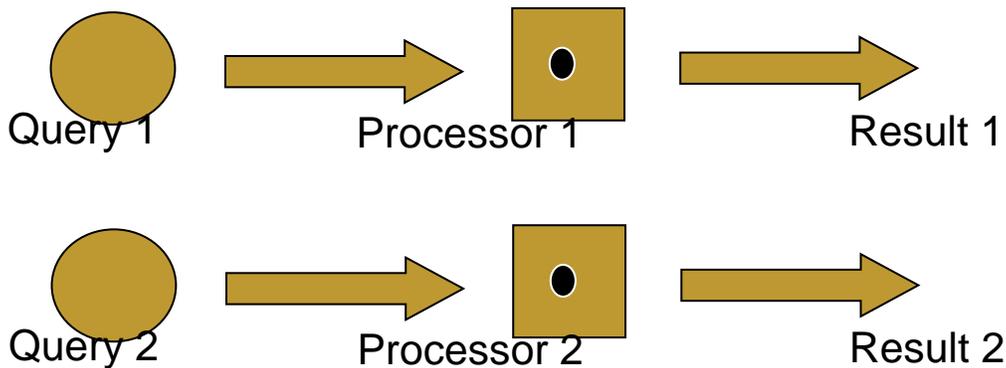


Figure 3

Intra-query parallelism is the ability to break a single query into subtasks and to execute those subtasks in parallel using a different processor for each as shown in figure 4.

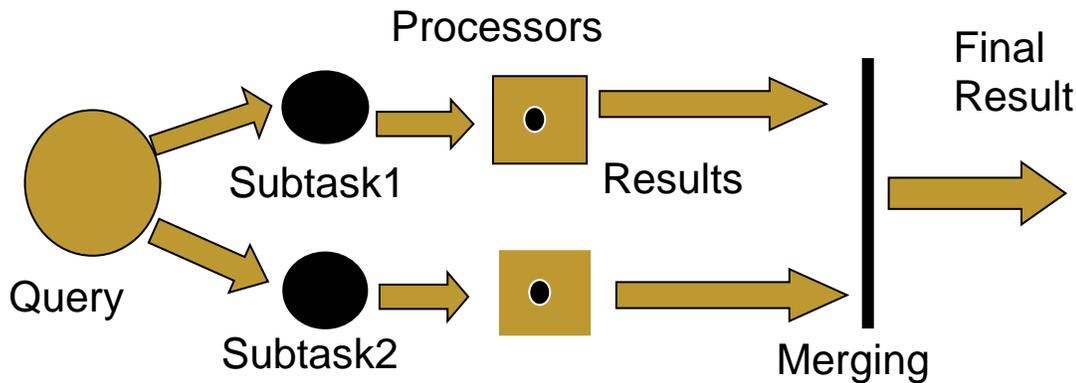


Figure 4

A parallel database system can be loosely defined as a DBMS implemented on a tightly coupled multiprocessor. A Parallel database system acts as a DB server to multiple application servers in now client-server organization in computer networks. It supports

- DB functions
- C/S interface
- Also general purpose computing

Advantages

A parallel database system should provide the following advantages:

1) High Performance:

This can be obtained through several complementary solutions: DB-Oriented Operating System support, parallelism, optimization, and load balancing. Having the operating system constrained and aware of the specific database requirements (e.g. buffer management) simplifies the implementation of low-level database functions and therefore decreases their cost. Parallelism can increase throughput, using inter-query parallelism and decrease transaction response times, using intra query parallelism. Load balancing is the ability of system to divide a given workload equally among all processors.

2) High availability

Because a parallel database system consists of many similar components, it can exploit data replication to increase database availability. In a high parallel system with many small disks, the probability of a disk failure at any time can be higher. Its is essential that a disk failure does not imbalance the load, e.g. by doubling the load on the available copy. Solutions to this problem require partitioning copies in such a way that they can also be accessed in parallel.

3) Extensibility

In a parallel environment, accommodating increasing database sizes or increasing performance demands should be easier. Extensibility is the ability of smooth expansion of system by adding processing and storage power to the system. The parallel database system should demonstrate two advantages

- Linear scaleup
- Linear speedup

Extending the system should require minimum reorganization of existing database.

Architecture of a parallel database system

Assuming client server architecture, the functions supported by a parallel database system can be divided into three subsystems much like in a typical RDBMS. Depending on the architecture, processor can support all (or a subset) of these subsystems. Figure 5 shows the architecture:

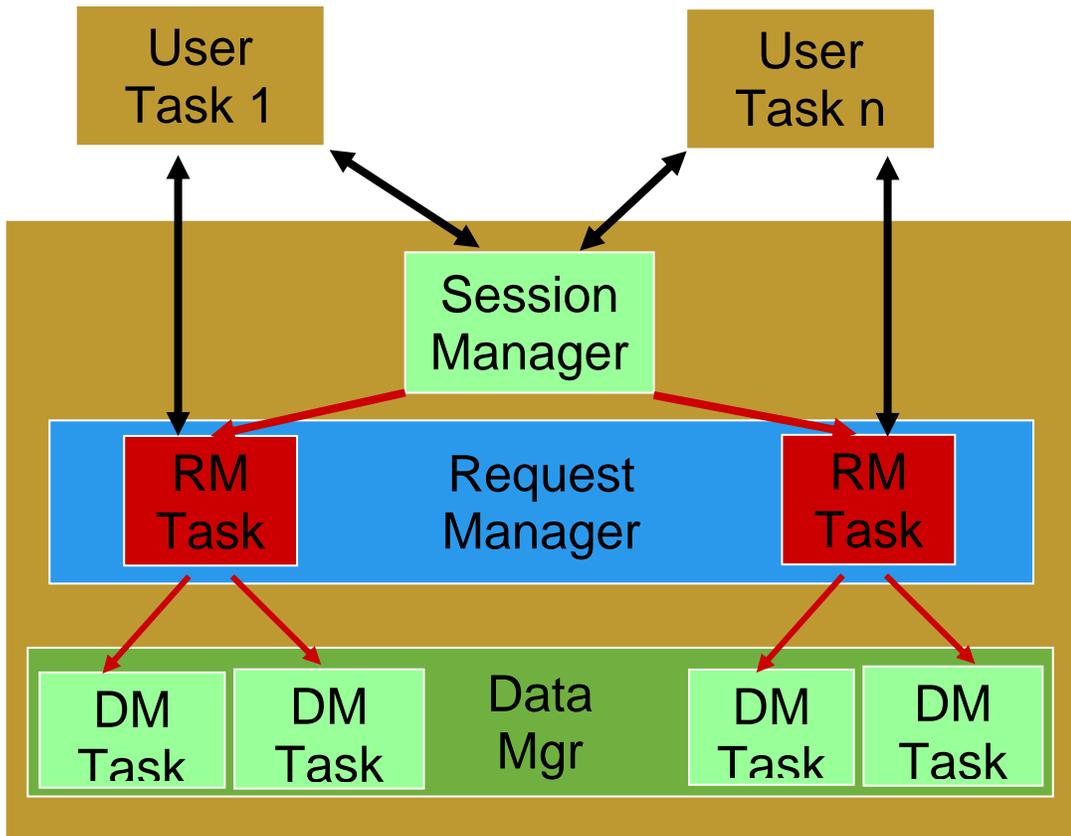


Figure 5: General architecture of a parallel database system

1) Session manager

It plays the role of transaction monitor providing support for client interactions with the server. It performs the connections and disconnections between the client processes and the two other subsystems. It initiates and closes user sessions. In the case of OLTP sessions, the session manager is able to trigger the execution of pre-loaded transaction code with data manager modules.

2) Request manager

It receives client requests to query compilation and execution. It can access the database directly which holds all meta-information about data and programs. The directory itself should be managed as a database in the server. Depending on the request, it activates the various compilation phases, triggers query execution and returns the results as well as error codes to the client application.

3) Data manager

It provides all the low level functions needed to run compiled queries in parallel, i.e.

- Execution of DB operations
- Transaction management support
- Cache management

Parallel System Architectures

A parallel system represents a compromise in design choices in order to provide the better cost/performance.

Parallel system architectures are:

- Shared Memory
- Shared Nothing
- Shared Disk
- Hierarchical/NUMA.

Shared-Memory

Any processor has access to any memory module or disk unit through a fast interconnect as shown in figure 6. Examples of shared memory parallel database systems include XPRS, DBS3 and Volcano.

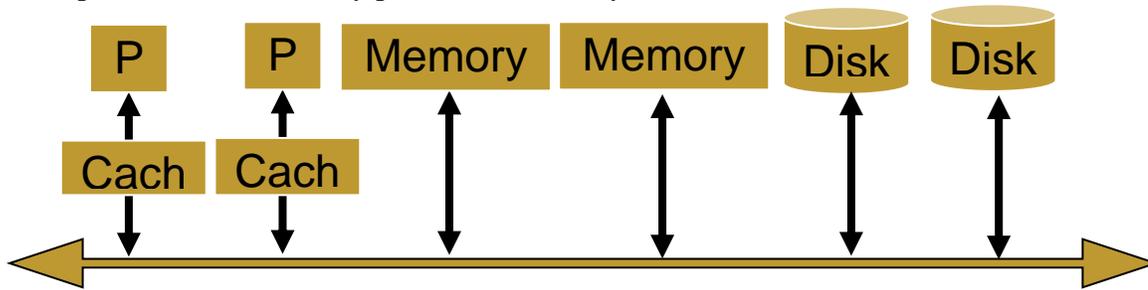


Figure 6

Advantages:

The two main advantages are:

- Simplicity
- Load balancing is excellent since can be dynamic

Drawbacks:

The three main disadvantages are:

- Cost of high interconnect
- Low extensibility
- Low availability

Summary

We have discussed the parallel processing architecture like multiprocessor system architecture after that we have discussed the parallel database. Parallel database is a combination of parallel processing and database functionality.

Course Title: Distributed Database Management Systems
Course Code: CS712
Instructor: Dr. Nayyer Masood (nayyerm@yahoo.com)
Lecture No: 39

In previous lecture:

- Parallel Processing basics
 - o Multiprocessor Systems
 - o Associative Processors
 - o Array Processors
- Entry to Parallel Database Systems

In today's lecture:

- Parallel Systems' Architectures
- PDBS Issues.

Shared-Disk:

In the shared-disk approach any processor has access to any disk unit through the interconnect but exclusive (non-shared) access to its main memory as shown in figure 1. Then, each processor can access database pages on the shared disk and copy them into its own cache. To avoid conflicting accesses to the same pages, global locking and protocols for the maintenance of cache coherency are needed.

Example:

Examples of shared-disk parallel database systems include IBM's IMS/VS data sharing product and DEC's VAX DBMS and Rdb products.

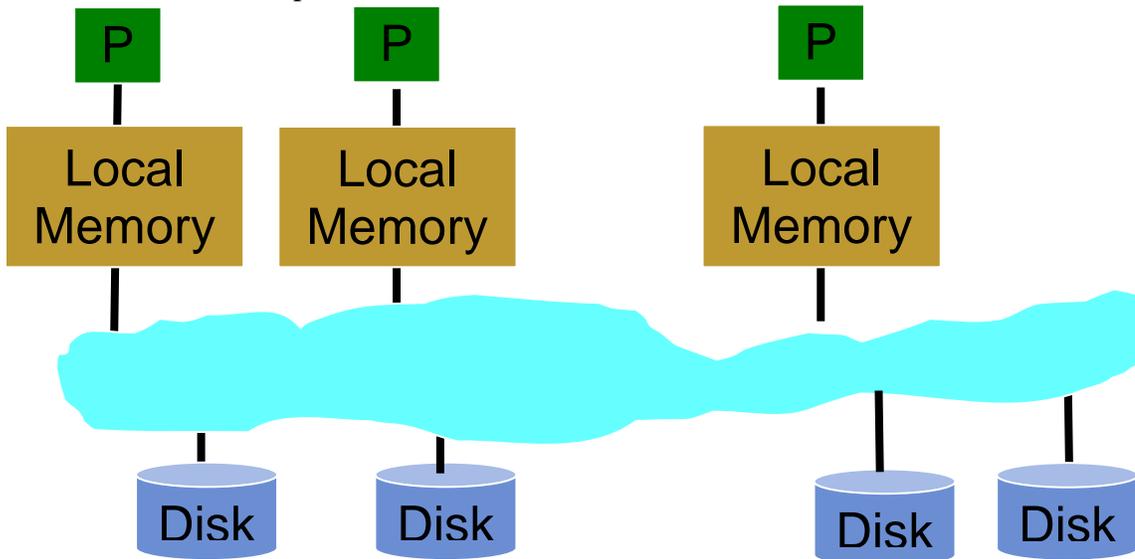


Figure 1: Shared-disk architecture

Advantages:

Shared disk has number of advantages:

- Cost, Extensibility

- Easy migration from Uniprocessor systems
- Load balancing

Demerits:

Shared disk suffers from:

- Higher complexity
- Potential performance problems

Shared-Nothing:

In shared-nothing approach each processor has exclusive access to its main memory and disk unit(s) as shown in figure 2. Then each node can be viewed as a local site (with its own database and software) in a distributed database system. Therefore, most solutions designed for distributed database such as database fragmentation, distributed transaction management and distributed query processing may be reused.

Examples:

Examples of shared-nothing parallel database systems include the Teradata's DBC and Tandem's NonStopSQL products as well as number of prototypes such as BUBBA, EDS, GAMMA and so on.

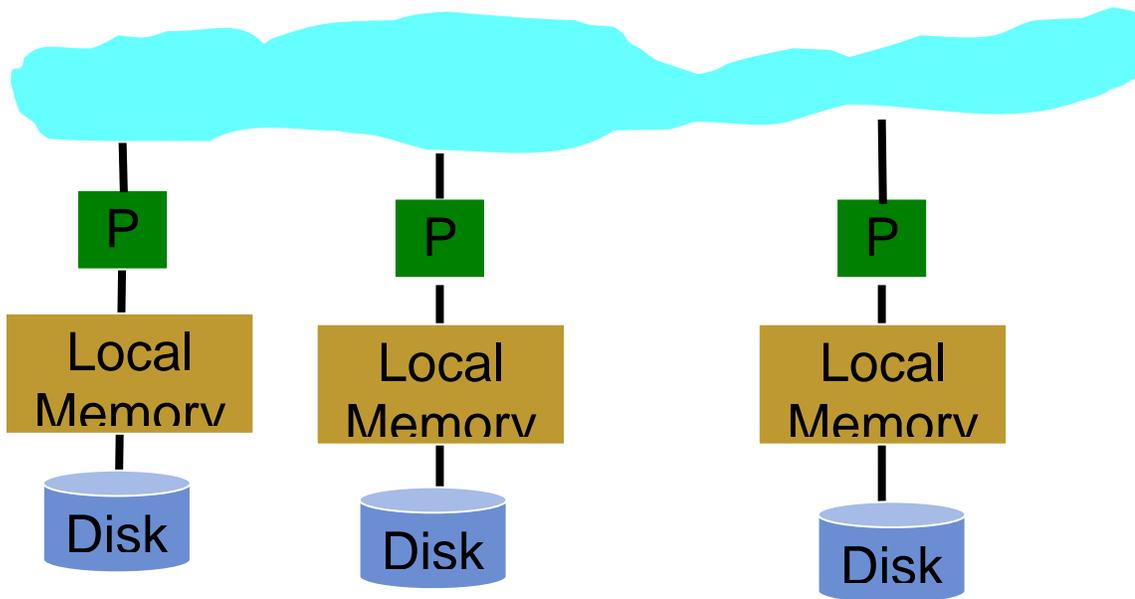


Figure 2: Shared-nothing architecture

Advantages:

Shared-nothing has following advantages:

- Cost
- Availability and extensibility

Drawbacks:

Shared-nothing has following disadvantages:

- More complex than shared memory
- Difficult load balancing

Hierarchical Architecture

Hierarchical architecture (also called cluster architecture), is a combination of shared-nothing and shared-memory. The idea is to build a shared-nothing machine whose nodes are shared-memory.

Advantage:

The advantage of hierarchical architecture is:

- Combines the benefits of both shared memory and shared-nothing

NUMA Architectures

- Non-uniform memory access
- To provide benefits of shared-memory model in a scalable parallel architecture

Two classes of NUMA

- Cache coherent-NUMA: divides memory statically among all nodes
- Cache only Memory Architecture: converts per-node memory into a large cache of shared address space as shown in figure 3.

Because shared-memory and cache coherency are supported by hardware, remote memory access is very efficient, only several times (typically 4 times) the cost of local access as shown in figure.

The strong argument for NUMA is that it does not require any rewriting of application software.

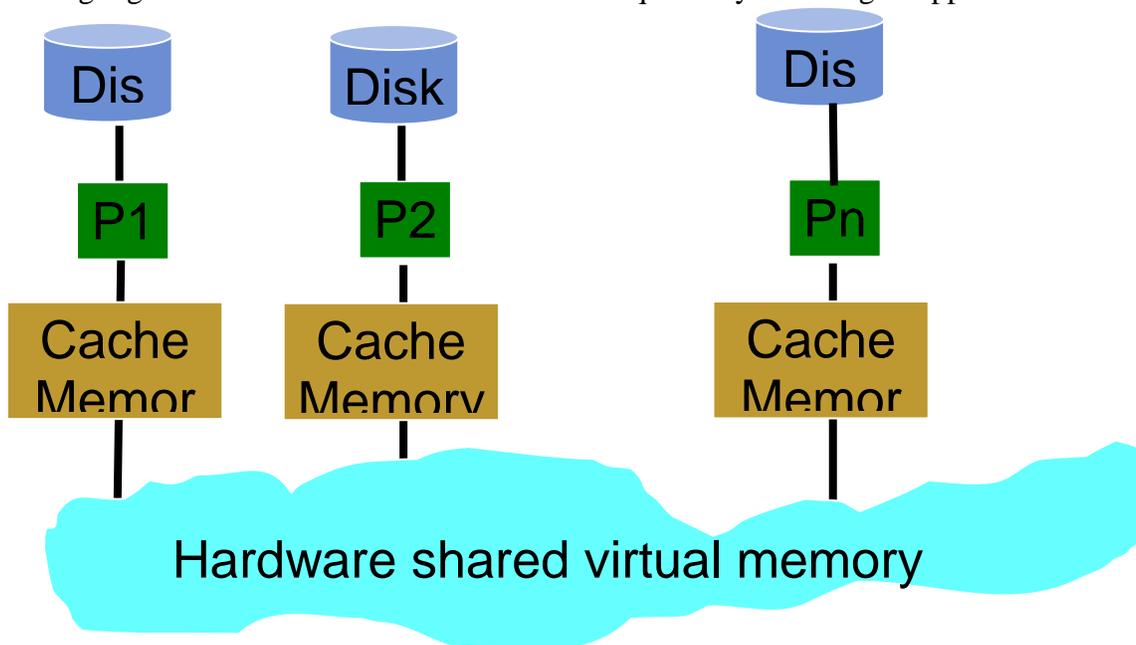


Figure 3: Cache only memory architecture COMA

Comparison

- For small configurations, shared-memory can perform the best due to better load balancing
- NUMA for mid-range and hierarchical for large scale systems

Parallel Database Techniques

Implementation of PDBS relies on DDBS techniques. The transaction management solutions can be reused. The critical issues for such architectures are:

- Data placement
- Query parallelism
- Parallel data processing
- Parallel query optimization

1-Data Placement

Data placement in a parallel database system exhibits similarities with data fragmentation in distributed databases. An obvious similarity is that fragmentation can be used to increase parallelism. We use the terms partitioning and partition instead of horizontal fragmentation and horizontal fragment resp. Data placement must be done to maximize system performance, which can be measured by combining the total amount of work done by the system and the response time of individual queries. Maximizing response time (through intra-query parallelism) results in increased total work due to communication overhead. For the same reason, inter-query parallelism results in increased total work. On the other hand, clustering all the data necessary to a program minimizes communication and thus the total work done by the system in executing that program. In terms of data placement, we have the following trade-off: maximizing response time or inter-query parallelism leads to partitioning, whereas minimizing the total amount of work leads to clustering.

An alternate solution to data placement is full partitioning, whereby each relation is horizontally fragmented across all the nodes in the system. Full partitioning is used in the DBC/1012, GAMMA and NonStop SQL.

There are three basic strategies for data partitioning:

- 1.1 Round Robin
- 1.2 Hash partitioning
- 1.3 Range Partitioning

1.1) Round Robin:

With n partitions, the i th tuple is placed in partition $(i \bmod n)$. This strategy enables sequential access to a relation to be done in parallel. The direct access to individual tuples, based on predicate, requires accessing the entire relation as shown in figure 4.

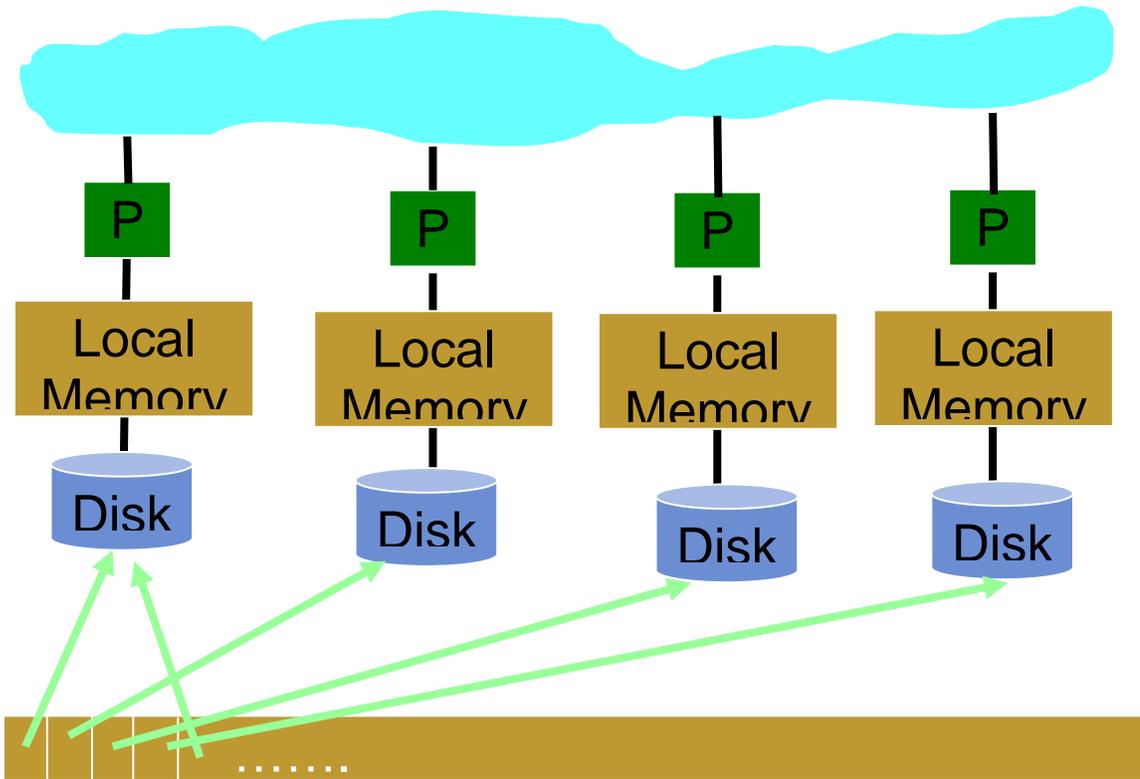


Figure 4: Round-robin partitioning

1.2) Hash partitioning:

It applies a hash function to some attribute which yields the partition number as shown in figure 5. This strategy allows exact-match queries on the selection attribute to be processed by exactly one node and all other queries to be processed by all the nodes in parallel.

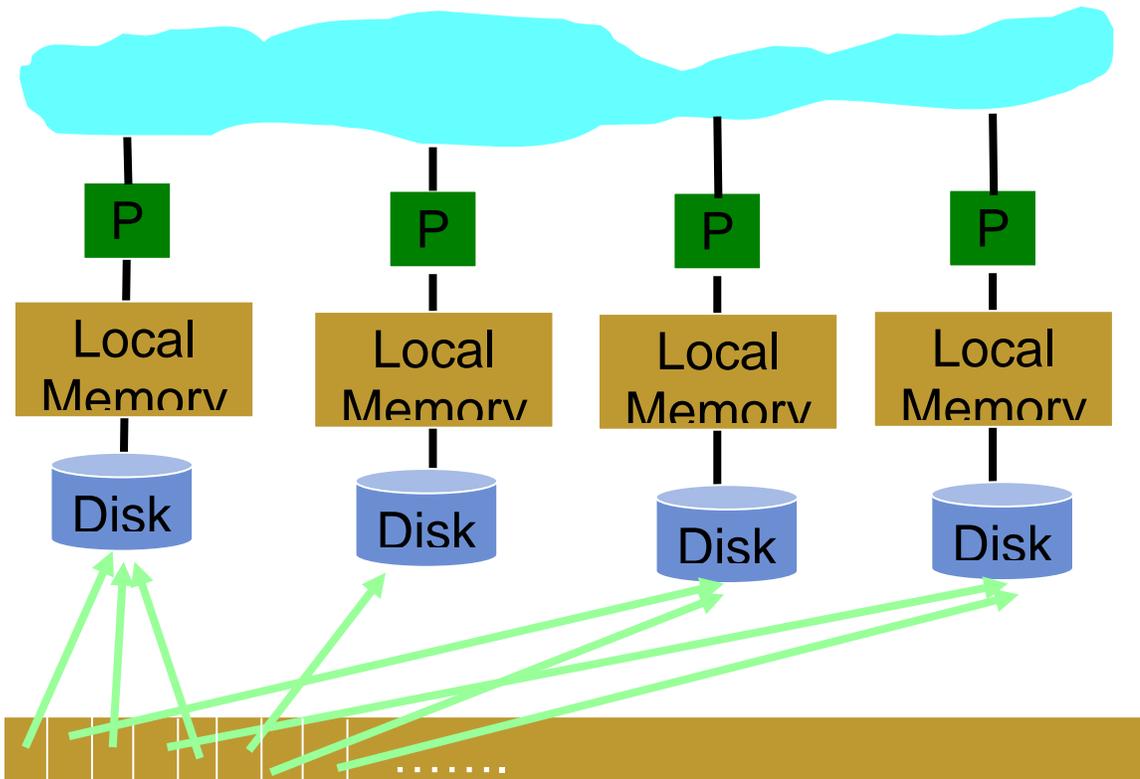


Figure 5: Hash partitioning

1.3) Range Partitioning:

It distributes tuples based on value intervals of some attribute as shown in figure 6. It is suitable for exact match and range queries. Range partition can result in high variation in partition size.

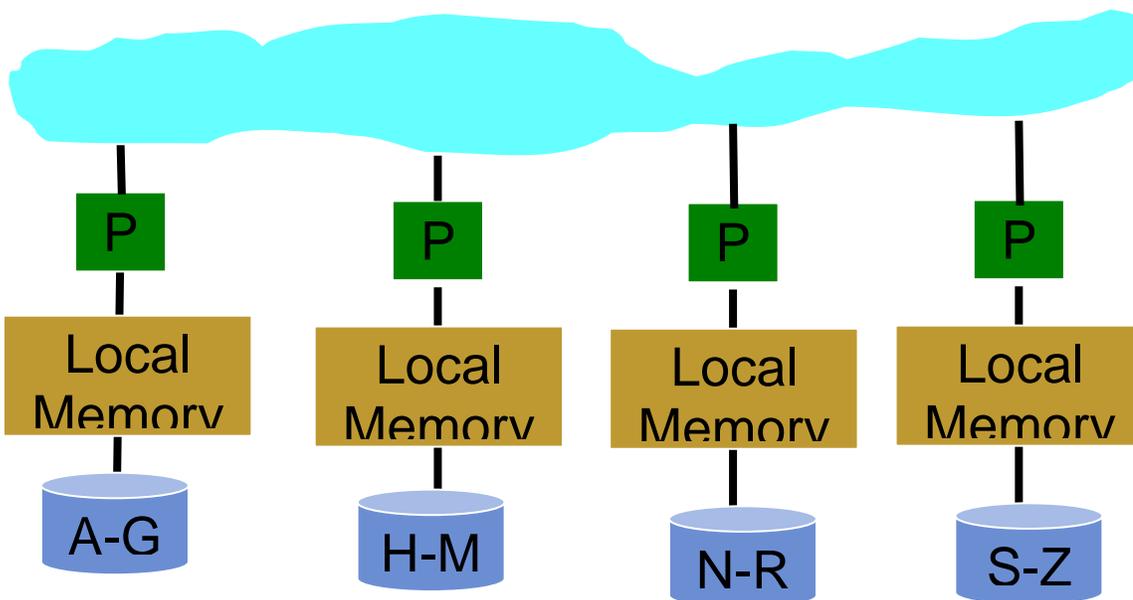


Figure 6: Range partitioning

The performance of full partitioning is compared to that of clustering the relations on single disk. The results indicate that for a wide variety of multi-user workloads, partitioning is consistently better. Clustering may dominate in processing complex queries (e.g. joins). A solution to data placement by variable partitioning is

proposed. It is based on the relation size and number of nodes. In variable partitioning, periodic reorganization for load balancing are essential. Programs need to be aware of reorganizations, they should not be recompiled. Needs associative access support at run time. We can also replicate the global index on each node. Two level index: first level on relation name, second on any attribute. The global index supports variable partitioning.

Data Replication in PDBS

The simple solution is to maintain two replicas, primary and backup copies on two separate nodes. This is the mirrored disks architecture. In case of node failure, the load of node having the copy may be double, hurting load balancing. A solution is interleaved partitioning which partitions the backup copy on a number of nodes as shown in figure 7

Node	1	2	3	4
Primary Copy	R1	R2	R3	R4
Backup Copy	r4.1 r3.2	r1.1 r4.2	r1.2 r2.1	r1.3 r2.2 r3.1

Figure 7: Example of Interleaved Partitioning

In case of failure, the load of primary copy gets balanced among the backup copy nodes. But if two nodes fail, then the relation can not be accessed thereby hurting availability. In normal mode, maintaining copy consistency may be costly.

A better solution is chained partitioning which stores the primary and backup copy on two adjacent nodes. The assumption that two consecutive nodes are less likely to fail as shown in figure 8.

Node	1	2	3	4
Primary Copy	R1	R2	R3	R4
Backup Copy	r4	r1	r2	r3

Figure 8: Example of Chained Partitioning

In case of failure, the load is balanced among remaining nodes. Maintaining copy consistency is cheaper.

2-Query Parallelism

Inter-query parallelism:

It enables queries running in parallel and increases transactional throughput.

Intra-query parallelism

With in a query **Intra-query parallelism two operations are used to decrease the response time.**

2.1 Inter-Operation

2.2 Intra-Operation

2.1 Intra-Operator Parallelism

It is based on the decomposition of one operator in a set of independent sub-operators called operator instances. This decomposition is done using static/dynamic partitioning of relations. Each operator instance will then process one relation partition also called bucket. An example of intra-operator parallelism is shown in figure 9.

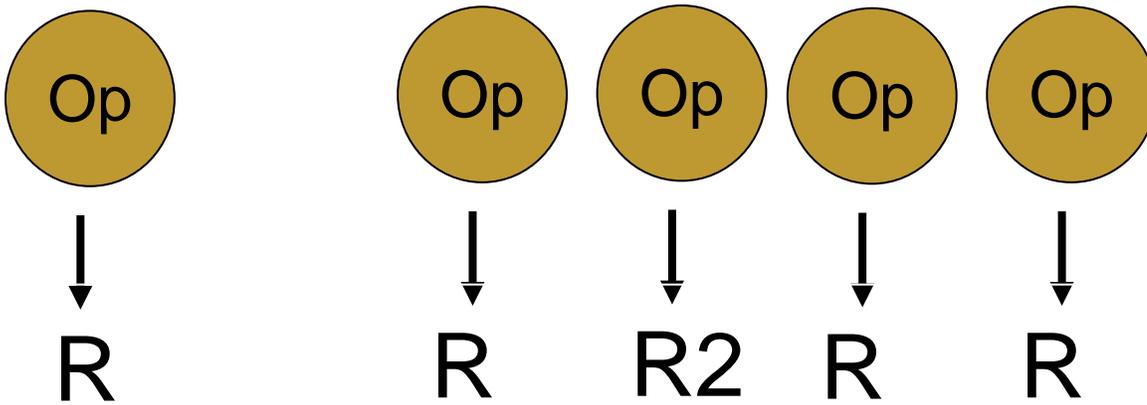


Figure 9: Intra-operator parallelism

Select query: can be decomposed directly. If the relation is partitioned on select predicate attribute, query may be executed on some partitions not all. For the Join operator, it is more complex to decompose the operator. One approach is to join each partition of R with S, but such a join will be inefficient. A more efficient way is to use partitioning properties.

2.2) Inter-Operator Parallelism

Two forms of Inter-operator parallelism can be exploited.

- Pipeline parallelism
- Independent parallelism

Pipeline parallelism: several operators with a producer-consumer link are executed in parallel.

Independent parallelism: is achieved when there is no dependency between the operators executed in parallel.

An example of inter-operator parallelism is shown in figure 10.

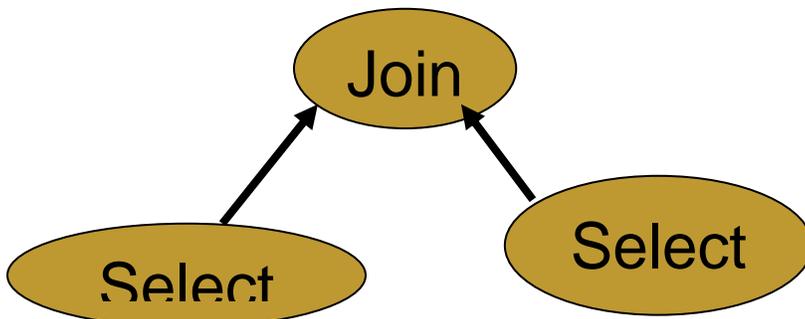


Figure 10: Inter-operator parallelism

Summary

We have discussed the query parallelism. In query parallelism there are two possibilities: intra-operator parallelism and inter-operator parallelism. In intra-operator parallelism one query has operators and they will work in parallel. In inter-operator parallelism work will be done through pipeline and independent parallelism.

Course Title: Distributed Database Management Systems
Course Code: CS712
Instructor: Dr. Nayyer Masood (nayyerm@yahoo.com)
Lecture No: 40

In previous lecture:

- Data Placement
- Parallel Query Processing

In today's lecture:

- Parallel Data Processing
- Parallel Query Optimization

3-Parallel Data Processing:

Partitioned data placement is the basis for the parallel execution of database queries. Given a partitioned data placement, an important issue is the design parallel algorithms for an efficient processing of database operators (i.e relational algebra operators) and database queries which combine multiple operators. The issue is difficult because a good trade-off between parallelism and communication cost must be reached. Parallel algorithms for relational algebra operators are the building blocks necessary for parallel query processing. Parallel data processing should exploit intra-operation parallelism. The distributed join algorithms designed for high speed networks. Three basic parallel join algorithms for partitioned databases:

- Parallel Nested Loop (PNL)
- Parallel Associative Join (PAJ)
- Parallel Hash Join (PHJ)

Assumptions

- R and S are partitioned over m and n nodes
- m and n nodes are distinct
- Nodes are called R-nodes and S-nodes

Parallel Nested Join (PNJ)

This is the simplest algorithm. It composes the Cartesian product of relations R and S in parallel as shown in figure 1. Arbitrary complex join predicates may be supported.

In the **first phase**, each fragment of R is replicated at each S-node. With broadcast capability it may take m messages time, otherwise m*n.

In the **second phase**, each S-node locally joins R with the fragment S_j. This phase is done in parallel by n nodes. The local join can be done as in centralized DBMS. Depending on the local join algorithm, join processing may or may not start as soon as data are received.

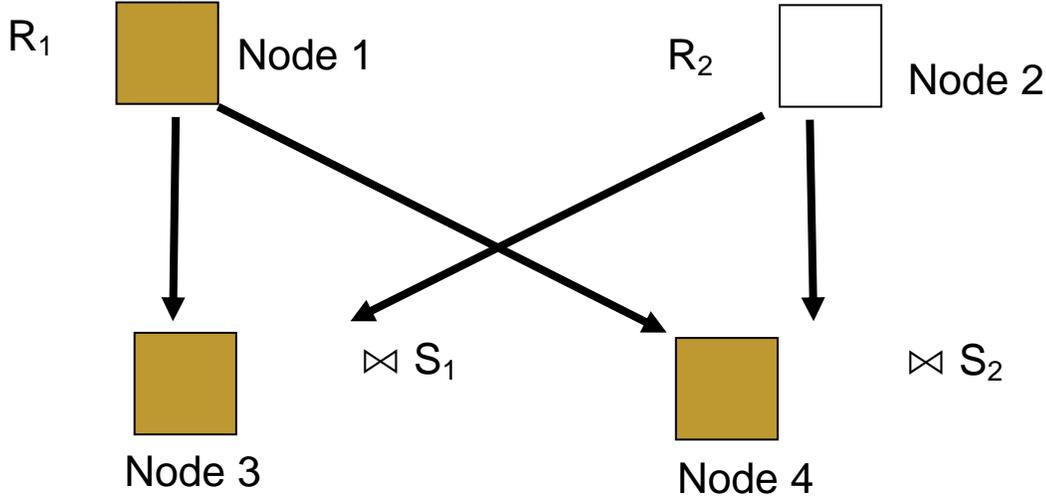


Figure 1: Parallel nested loop

To summarize, the parallel nested loop algorithm can be viewed as replacing the operator R ⋈ S by

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^n (R \times S_i)$$

Parallel Associative Join (PAJ)

Parallel associative join algorithm applies only for equi-join with one relation partitioned on join attribute as shown in figure 2. We assume that the equi-join predicate is on attribute A from R and B from S. relation S is partitioned according to the hash function h applied to join attribute B, meaning that all the tuples of S that have same value for h(B) are placed at the same node. No knowledge of how R is partitioned is assumed. The algorithm precedes two phases:

In the **first phase**: relation R is sent to S-nodes applying hash function on attribute A. this phase is done in parallel by m nodes where R_i's exist. The tuples of R get distributed but not replicated across the S nodes.

In the **second phase**, each S-node j receives in parallel the relevant subset of R(i.e, R_j) and joins it locally with the fragments S_j. Local join processing can be done in parallel. To summarize, the parallel associative join

algorithm replaces the operator R ⋈ S by

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^n (R_i \times S_i)$$

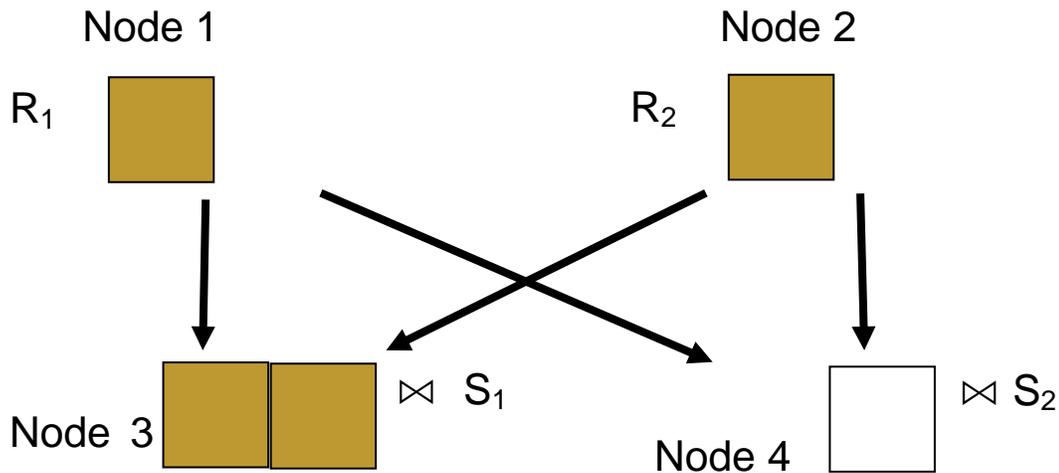


Figure 2: Parallel associative join

Example

- We have BOOK and STD tables
- BOOK with 100 K records to be partitioned on 5 sites
- PK for BOOK is bkId
- STD contains bkId as FK
- Hash function on BOOK is $(\text{rem}(\text{bkId}/5) + 1)$
- Fragmentation of STD is irrelevant here
- The query is “Get the detail of the students with the detail of the books they have currently borrowed”.
- For PAJ, we apply the same hash function on the STD table
- Places every STD tuple with v hash value on a site having v hash value in BOOK
- We apply equi-join on the value of bkId in parallel
- Obviously, tuples with same bkId value will be joined
- They will be returned back

Parallel Hash Join (PHJ)

Parallel hash join algorithm can be viewed as a generalization of parallel associative join algorithm as shown in figure 3. It also applies on equi-join but does not require any particular partitioning of operand relations. The basic idea is to partition relations R and S into same number p of mutually exclusive sets (*fragments) R_1, R_2, \dots, R_p and S_1, S_2, \dots, S_p , such that

$$(R \bowtie S) = \bigcup_{i=1}^p (R_i \bowtie S_i)$$

The partitioning of R and S can be based on same hash function applied to join attribute. Each individual join is done in parallel and the join result is produced at p nodes. These p nodes may actually be selected at run time based on load of the system. The main difference with the parallel associative join algorithm is that partitioning of S is necessary and the result is produced at p nodes rather than at n S-nodes.

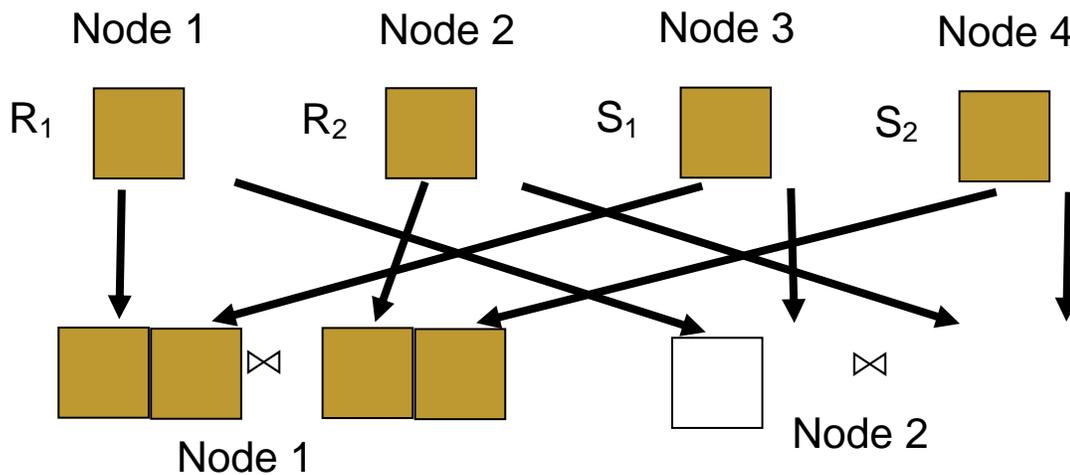


Figure 3: Parallel Hash Join (PHJ)

Example

- Sticking with the previous one, lets say BOOK and STD are fragmented on subj and depId resp, and we have the same query
- We apply the same hash function but this time on both BOOK and STD and send the fragments with the same hash value on the same site
- Once both have been transferred, we apply the join operation on the basis of value of bkId
- This being done in parallel
- Variations of PHJ for multiprocessor systems have been proposed, like
- Build and probe phases

Summary

We have discussed three different algorithms for conducting the operations in parallel. We will continue this discussion in next lecture.

Course Title: Distributed Database Management Systems
Course Code: CS712
Instructor: Dr. Nayyer Masood (nayyerm@yahoo.com)
Lecture No: 41

In previous lecture:

- Parallel Data Processing
 - o Parallel Nested Loop
 - o Parallel Associative Join
 - o Parallel Hash Join

In today's lecture:

- Analysis of Parallel Data Processing Approaches
- Parallel Query Optimization

Parallel Data Processing (continued..)

The parallel join algorithms apply and dominate under different conditions join processing is achieved with a degree of parallelism of either n or p . since each algorithm requires moving at least one of the operand relations, a good indicator of their performance is total cost. To compare these algorithms, we now give a simple analysis of cost, defined in terms of total communication cost, denoted by CCOM and processing cost, denoted by CPRO. The total cost of each algorithm is

$$\text{Cost} = \text{CCOM} + \text{CPRO}$$

for simplicity, CCOM does not include control messages, which are necessary to initiate and terminate local tasks. We denote $\text{msg}(\#\text{tup})$ the cost of transferring a message of $\#\text{tup}$ tuples from one node to another. Processing costs (total I/O and CPU cost) will be based on the function $\text{CLOC}(m,n)$ which computes the local processing cost for joining two relations of cardinalities m and n . we assume that the local join algorithm is the same for all three parallel join algorithms. Finally we assume that the amount of work done in parallel is uniformly distributes over all nodes allocated to the operator. Without broadcasting capability, the parallel nested loop algorithm incurs a cost of $m*n$ messages, where a message contains a fragment of R of size $\text{card}(R)/m$. Thus we have

$$\text{CCOM}(\text{PNL}) = m * n * \text{msg}(\text{card}(R)/m)$$

Each of S -nodes must join all of R with its S fragments thus we have

$$\text{CPRO}(\text{PNL}) = n * \text{CLOC}(\text{card}(R), \text{card}(S)/n)$$

The parallel associative join algorithm requires that each R -node partitions a fragment of R into n subsets of size $\text{card}(R)/(m*n)$ and sends them to n S -nodes. Thus we have

$$\text{CCOM}(\text{PAJ}) = m * n * \text{msg}(\text{card}(\text{R}) / (m * n))$$

and

$$\text{CPRO}(\text{PAJ}) = n * \text{CLOC}(\text{card}(\text{R}) / n, \text{card}(\text{S}) / n)$$

The parallel hash join algorithm requires that both relations R and S be partitioned across p nodes in a way similar to the parallel associative join algorithm. Thus we have

$$\text{CCOM}(\text{PHJ}) = m * p * \text{msg}(\text{card}(\text{R}) / (m * p)) + n * p * \text{msg}(\text{card}(\text{S}) / (n * p))$$

and

$$\text{CPRO}(\text{PHJ}) = p * \text{CLOC}(\text{card}(\text{R}) / p, \text{card}(\text{S}) / p)$$

Analysis

Let us assume that $p = n$. In this case the join processing cost for the PAJ and PHJ algorithms is identical. It is higher for the PNL algorithm because each S-node must perform the join with R entirely from the equations above, it is clear that the PAJ algorithm incurs the least communication cost. However, the least communication cost between the PNL and PHJ algorithms depends on the values of relation cardinality and degree of partitioning.

In conclusion, the PAJ algorithm is most likely to dominate and should be used when applicable. Otherwise, the choice between the PNL and PHJ algorithms requires estimation of their total cost with the optimal value for p.

4- Parallel Query Optimization

Parallel query optimization exhibits similarities with distributed query processing. It should take advantage of both intra-operator parallelism and inter-operator parallelism this second objective can be achieved using some of the techniques devised for distributed DBMSs.

Parallel query optimization refers to the process of producing an execution plan for a query that minimizes an objective cost function. The selected plan is the best one with a set of candidate plans examined by the optimizer, but not necessarily the optimal one among all possible plans. A query optimizer consists of three components:

- Search Space
- Cost Model
- Search Strategy

Search Space

Execution plans are abstracted, by means of operator trees, which define the order in which the operators are executed. Operator trees are enriched with annotations, which indicate additional execution aspects, such as the algorithm of each operator. An important execution aspect to be reflected by annotations is the fact that two subsequent operators can be executed in pipeline. In this case, the second operator can start before the first one is completed. In other words, the second operator starts consuming tuples as soon as the first one produces them. Pipelined executions do not require temporary relations to be materialized i.e. a tree node corresponding to an operator executed in pipeline is not stored.

Pipeline and store annotations constrain the scheduling of execution plans. They split an operator tree into non-overlapping sub-trees called phases.

Example

In the left part of figure 1, the temporary relations T1 must be completely produced and the hash table in B2 must be finished before P2 can start consuming R3. The same is true for T2, B3 and P3. Thus, this tree is executed in four consecutive phases: build R1's hash table, then probe it with R2 and build T1's hash table, then probe it with R3 and build T2's hash table, then probe it with R3 and produce the result. In the right hand part of figure 1, the pipeline annotations are indicated by arrows. This tree can be executed in two phases if enough

memory is available to build the hash tables: build the tables of R1 R3 and R4, then execute P1, P2 and P3 in pipeline.

The set of nodes where a relation is stored is called its home the home of an operator is the set of nodes where it is executed and it must be the home of its operands in order for the operator to access its operands

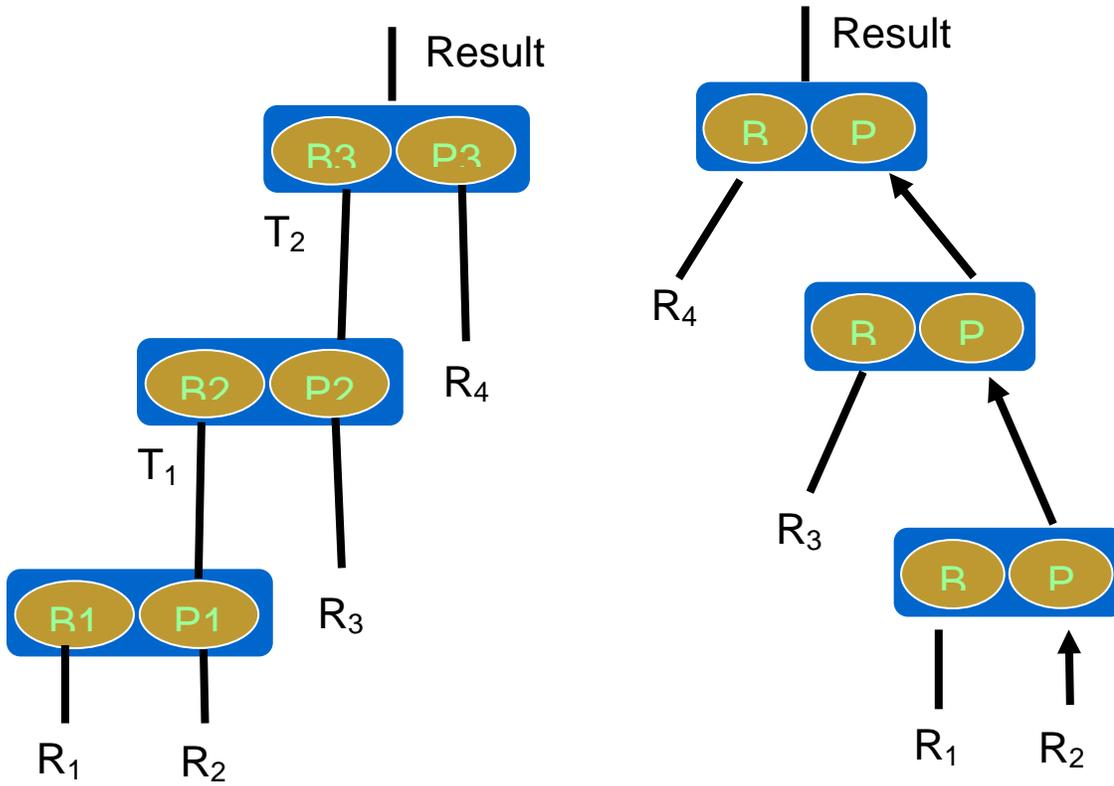


Figure 1: Two hash-join trees with a different scheduling

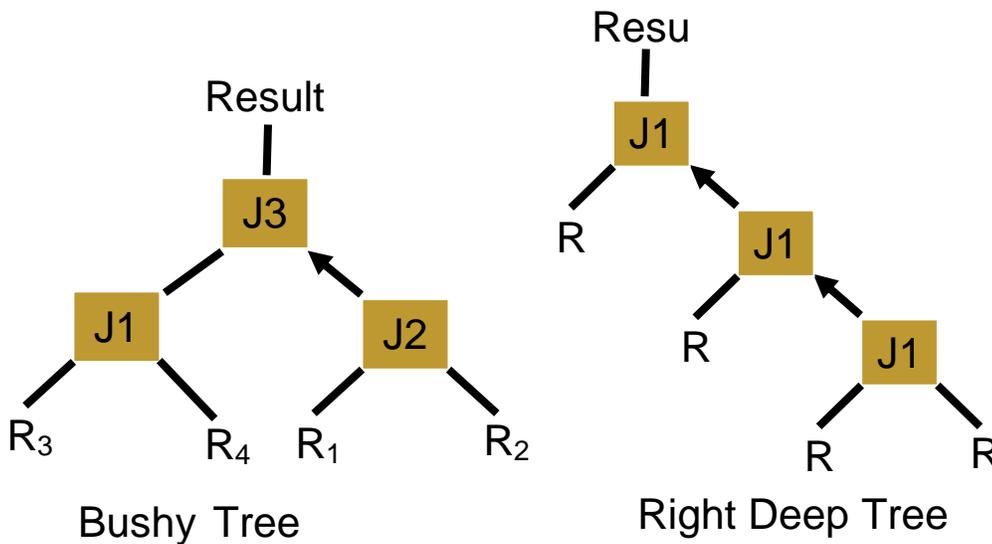


Figure 2: Execution plans as operator trees

Figure 2, shows operator trees that represent execution plans for a three-way join. An operator is a labeled binary tree where the leaf nodes are relations of the input query and each non-leaf node is an operator node (e.g. Join, union) whose result is an intermediate relation. A join node captures the join, between its operands execution annotations are not shown for simplicity. Directed arcs denote that the intermediate relation generated by a tree node is consumed in pipeline. Operator tree may be linear i.e. at least one operand of each join node is a base relation or bushy.

It is convenient to represent pipelined relations on as right-hand side input of an operator. Thus, right-deep trees express full pipelining while left-deep trees express full materialization of intermediate results.

Parallel tree formats other than left or right-deep are also interesting. For example, bushy trees in figure 2 are the only ones to allow independent parallelism. Independent parallelism is useful when the relations are partitioned on disjoint homes. Suppose that relations in figure 2 are partitioned two (R1 and R2) by two (R3 and R4) on disjoint homes (resp. h1 and h2). Then joins j10 and j11 could be independently executed in parallel by the set of nodes that constitutes h1 and h2

Cost Model

The optimizer cost model is responsible for estimating the cost of a given execution plan. It may consists of two parts

- Architecture independent
- Architecture dependent

The architecture independent part is constituted by the cost functions for operator algorithms e.g. nested loop for join and sequential access for select. If we ignore concurrency issues, only the cost functions for data repartitioning and memory consumption differ and constitute the architecture-dependent part. Indeed, repartitioning a relation's tuples in a shared nothing system implies transfers of data across the incorrect, whereas it reduces o hashing in shared memory systems. Memory consumption in the shared nothing case is complicated by inter-operator parallelism.

Cost model includes three components:

- Total Work (TW)
- Response Time (RT)
- Memory Consumption (MC)

TW and RT are expressed in seconds and MC in Kbytes. The first two components are used to express a trade-off between response time and throughput. The third component represents the size of memory needed to execute the plan. The cost function is a combination of the first two components and plans that need more memory than available are discarded.

Another approach consist of parameter, specified by the system administrator, by which the maximum throughput is degraded in order to decrease response time. Given a plan p, its cost is computed by a parameterized function defined as:

$$Cost_{(W_{rt}, W_{tw})}(p) = \begin{cases} W_{RT} * RT + W_{TW} * TW & \text{If MC} < \text{available} \\ \infty & \text{memory, otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Where W_{RT} and W_{TW} are weight factors between 0 and 1 such that $W_{RT} + W_{TW} = 1$

The total work can be computed by a formula that simply adds all

- CPU time
- I/O time
- Communication time

The response time of p, scheduled in phases (each denoted by ph) is computed as follows:

$$RT(p) = \Sigma(\max_{Op \in ph}(\text{respTime}(Op) + p_delay(Op)) + st_delay(ph))$$

To estimate the cost of an execution plan, the cost model uses database statistics and organization information, such as relation cardinalities and partitioning as with distributed query optimization.

Search strategy

The search strategy does not need to be different from either centralized or distributed query optimization. Thus, randomized search strategies generally outperform deterministic strategies in parallel query optimization.

Summary

Parallel query optimization exhibits similarities should take advantage of both intra-operator parallelism and inter-operator parallelism. Parallel query optimization refers to the process of producing an execution plan for a query that minimizes an objective cost function. A query optimizer consists of three components Search Space, Cost Model and Search Strategy.

Course Title: Distributed Database Management Systems
Course Code: CS712
Instructor: Dr. Nayyer Masood (nayyerm@yahoo.com)
Lecture No: 42

In previous lecture:

- Analysis of Parallel Data Processing Approaches

- Parallel Query Optimization

In today's lecture:

- Object-Oriented concepts
- Object Distribution Design
- Architectural Issues

Introduction:

Database technology is rapidly evolving toward the support of new applications. Relational databases have proven to be very successful in supporting business data processing applications. There is now an important class of applications, commonly referred to as “advanced database applications”, that exhibit pressing needs for database management. Examples include computer-aided design (CAD), office information system (OIS), multimedia information system and artificial intelligence (AI). For these applications, object database management systems (object DBMSs) are considered.

Fundamental object concepts and object models

An object DBMS is a system that uses an object as the fundamental modeling and access primitive. Contrary to relational model, there is no universally accepted and formally specified object model. There are a number of features that are common to most model specifications, but the exact semantics of these features are different in each model. Some standard object model specifications are emerging as part of language standards (e.g. Object Data Management Group's (ODMG) model or SQL-3 but these are not widely adopted.

Basic Object Concepts

An object represents a real entity in the system that is being modeled. It is represented as a pair (OID, state), in which OID is the object identity and the corresponding state is some representation of the current state of the object. In some models, OID equality is the only comparison primitive for other types of comparisons, the type definer is expected to specify the semantics of comparison. In other models, two objects are said to be identical if they have the same OID, and equal if they have the same state.

Many object models start to diverge at the definition of state. Some object models define state as either an atomic value or a constructed value (e.g. tuple or set). Let D be the union of the system-defined domains and of user-defined abstract data type (ADT) domains, let I be the domain of identifiers used to name objects and let A be the domain of attribute names. A value is defined as follows:

1. An element of D is a value called an atomic value.
2. $[a_1: v_1, \dots, a_n: v_n]$, in which a_i is an element of A and v_i is either a value or an element of I , is called a tuple value, $[]$ is known as the tuple constructor.
3. $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$, in which v_i is either a value or an element of I , is called a set value, $\{\}$ is known as set constructor.

Object examples

- $[i_1, 432]$
- $[i_2, \text{'DDBS'}]$
- $[i_3, \{3,9,13\}]$
- $[i_4, \{i_4, i_6\}]$
- $[i_9, [at_1: i_5, at_2: i_6, at_3: i_7]]$

Abstract Data Types

An abstract data type is a template for all objects of that type. An ADT describes the type of data by providing a domain of data with the same structure, as well as operations (also called methods) applicable to elements of that domain. The abstraction capability of ADTs, commonly referred to as encapsulation, hides the implementation details of the operations, which can be written in a general purpose programming language. Each ADT is identifiable to the outer world by the properties that it supports.

Example of ADT

The type definition of Car can be as follows:

```
type Car {
  attributes
    engine : Engine
    bumpers : {Bumper}
    tires: [LF : Tire, RF : Tire, LR : Tire, RR : Tire]
    make: Manufacturer
    model: String
    year : Date
    serial_no : String
    capacity: Integer
  methods
    age : Real}
```

The type definition specifies that Car has eight attributes and one method. Four of the attributes (model, year, serial_no, capacity) are value-based, while the others (engine, bumpers, tires and make) are object-based.

Advantage of ADT

1. The primitive types provided by the system can easily be extended with user-defined types.
2. ADT operations capture parts of the application programs which are more closely associated with data.

Composition (Aggregation)

Composition is one of the most powerful features of object models it allows sharing of objects, commonly referred to as referential sharing, since objects refer to each other by their OIDs as values of object-based attributes.

Example of Composition

Assume that c1 is one instance of Car type which is defined above. If the following is true:

```
(i2, [name: Tahir, mycar: c1])
(i3, [name: Umer, mycar: c1])
```

Then this indicates that Tahir and Umer own the same car.

A restriction on composite objects results in complex objects. The difference between a composite and a complex object is that the former allows referential sharing while the later does not. For example, Car type may have an attribute whose domain is type Tire. It is not natural for two instances of type Car, c1 and c2, to refer to the same set of instances of Tire, since one would not expect in real life for tires to be used on multiple vehicles at the same time.

Class vs type

A class represents both a template for all common objects (i.e. servers as a type) and the grouping of these common objects (i.e. the extent). The database schema consists of a set of class definitions with the relationships among them.

Conceptually, there is difference between a type and a class. A type is a template for all objects of that type whereas a class is a grouping of all object instances of a given type. A type corresponds to a relation schema in relational database, whereas a class corresponds to a populated relation instance.

Collection

A collection is a user defined grouping of objects. Most conventional systems provide either the class construct or the collection construct. Collections provide for a clear closure semantics of the query models and facilitate definition of user views.

In systems, where both classes and collections are supported, a collection is similar to a class in that it groups objects, but it differs in the following respects.

- Object creation may not occur through a collection, object creation occurs only through classes
- An object may exist in any number of collections, but is a member of only one class
- The management of classes is implicit, in that the system automatically maintains classes based on the type lattice, whereas the management of collections is explicit, meaning that the user is responsible for their extents.

Subtyping/Inheritance

Object systems provide extensibility by allowing user-defined types to be defined and managed by the system. This is accomplished in two ways: by the definition of types using type constructors or by the definition of types based on existing primitive types through the process of subtyping. Subtyping is based on the specialization relationship among types. A type A' is a specialization of another type B if its interface is a subset of B's interface. Thus, a specialized type is more defined than the type from which it is specialized. A type may be a specialization of number of types; it is explicitly specified as a subtype of a subset of them. Subtyping and specialization indicate an is-a relationship between types.

Declaring a type to be a subtype of another results in inheritance. Inheritance allows reuse. A subtype may inherit either the behavior of its subtype, or its implementation or both. There are two type of inheritance:

- Single Inheritance
- Multiple Inheritance

Object Distribution Design

Distribution design involves fragmentation and allocation. Distribution design in the object world brings new complexities. Conceptually, objects encapsulate methods together with state. In reality, methods are implemented on types and shared by all instance objects of that type. The location of objects with respect to their types becomes an issue.

Distribution design in the object world brings new complexities due to the encapsulation of methods together with object state. This causes problems because methods are implemented on types and shared by all instance objects of that type. One has to decide whether fragmentation is performed only on attributes duplicating the methods with each fragment, or whether one can fragment methods as well.

Horizontal Class Partitioning

There are analogies between horizontal fragmentation of object databases and their relational counterparts. It is possible to identify primary horizontal fragmentation in the object database case identically to the relational case. Derived fragmentation shows some differences. In object databases, derived horizontal fragmentation can occur in a number of ways:

1. Partitioning of a class arising from the fragmentation of its subclasses.
2. The fragmentation of a complex attribute may affect the fragmentation of its containing class.
3. Fragmentation of a class based on a method invocation sequence from one class to another may need to be reflected in the design.

Vertical Class Partitioning

Vertical fragmentation is considerably more complicated. Given a class C, fragmenting it vertically into C1, C2, ..., Cm produces a number of classes, each of which contains some of the attributes and some of the methods. Each of the fragments is less defined than the original class.

Path Partitioning

The composition graph presents a representation for composite objects. For many applications, it is necessary to access the composite object. Path partitioning is a concept describing the clustering of all the objects forming a composite object into a partition. A path partition consists of grouping the objects of all the domain classes that correspond to all the instance variables in the subtree rooted at the composite object.

Class Partitioning Algorithms

The algorithms for class partitioning are based on:

- Affinity-based Approach
- Cost-driven Approach

Allocation

The data allocation problem for object databases involves allocation of both methods and classes. The method allocation problem is tightly coupled to the class allocation problem because of encapsulation. Allocation of classes will imply allocation of methods to their corresponding home classes. But since applications on object-oriented databases invoke methods, the allocation of methods affects the performance of applications. Four alternatives can be identified.

1. **Local behavior- local object.** This is the most straightforward case and is included to form the baseline case. The behavior, the object to which it is to be applied, and the arguments are all co-located.
2. **Local behavior – remote object.** This is one of the cases in which the behavior and the object to which it is applied are located at different sites.
3. **Remote behavior – local object.** This case is reverse of case (2).
4. **Remote function – remote argument.** This is the reverse of case (1).

Architectural Issues

One way to develop a distributed system is the client/server approach. Most of the current object DBMS are client/server systems. The design issues related to these systems are somewhat more complicated due to the characteristics of object models. Some of concerns are listed below:

- Unit of communication
- Function provided by Client/Server
- Function shipping vs data shipping
- Pre-fetching option

Summary

We have studied the object-oriented concepts (object, ADT, composition, class vs type, collection and subtyping/inheritance), object distribution design (Horizontal Class Partitioning, Vertical Class Partitioning, Path Partitioning, Class Partitioning Algorithms, Allocation) and architectural issues.

Course Title: Distributed Database Management Systems
Course Code: CS712
Instructor: Dr. Nayyer Masood (nayyerm@yahoo.com)
Lecture No: 43

In previous lecture:

- Basic OO Concepts
- Started the OODDBS architectures

In today's lecture:

- Two Alternatives
 - o Object Server Architecture
 - o Page Server Architecture

Alternative Client/Server Architectures

Two main types of client/server architectures have been proposed:

1. Object servers
2. Page servers

The distinction is partly based on the granularity of data that is shipped between the client and server and partly on the functionality provided to the clients and servers.

1) Object Server

Client request objects from the server, which retrieves them from the database and returns them to the requesting client. These systems are called object servers as shown in figure 1. In object servers, the server undertakes most of the DBMS services, with the client providing basically an execution environment for the application as well as some level of object management functionality. The object management layer is duplicated at both the client and the server in order to allow both to perform object functions. Object manager serves a number of functions.

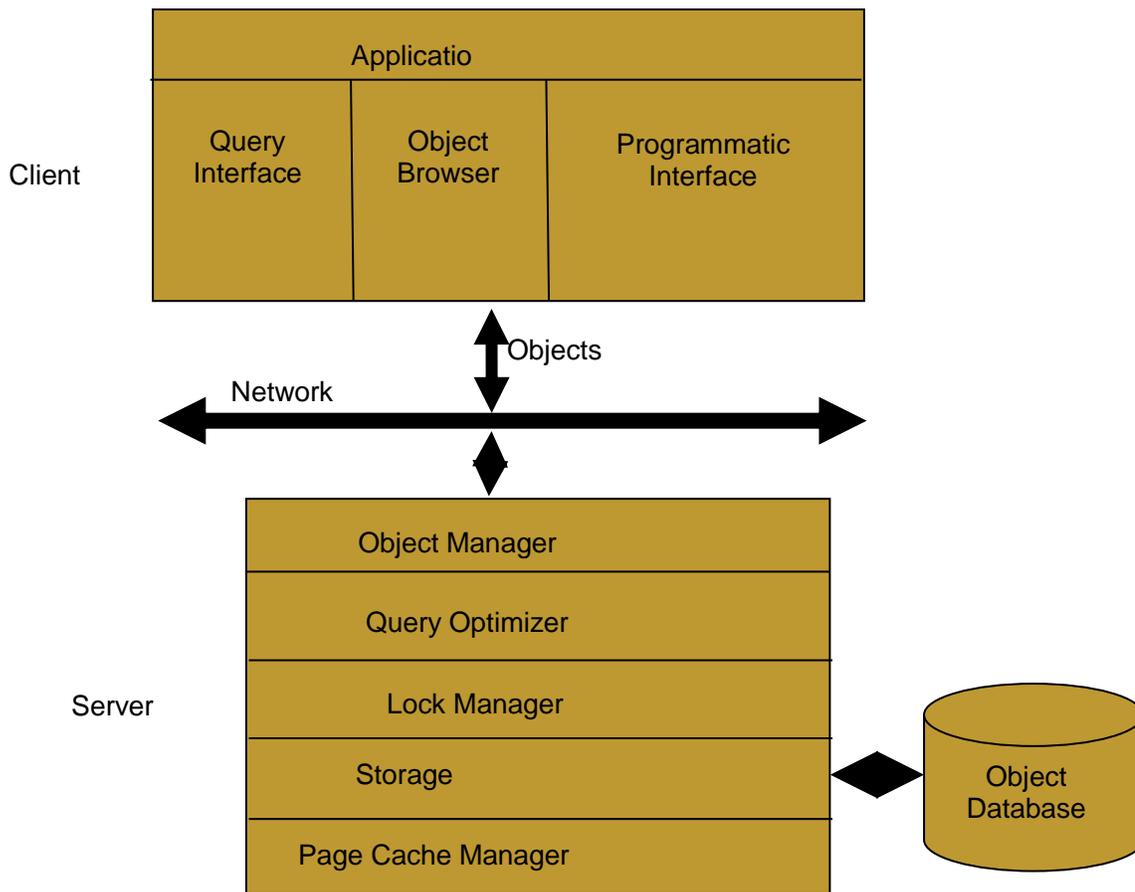


Figure 1: Object server architecture

Feature of the Object Server Architecture

- Objects move between clients and servers
- Object Manager helps to execute methods on both sides

Server Side Functions

Server side performs following functions

- OID implementation; it is tricky to manage OID in RAM and Disk
- Object Caching
- Object shipment between clients and servers can be optimized depending on type of clustering
- Lock management needed when same object being accessed (read, modified) at different places
- Persistent placement of objects

Page Server

The unit of transfer between the servers and the clients is a physical unit of data, such as a page or segment, rather than an object as shown in figure 2.

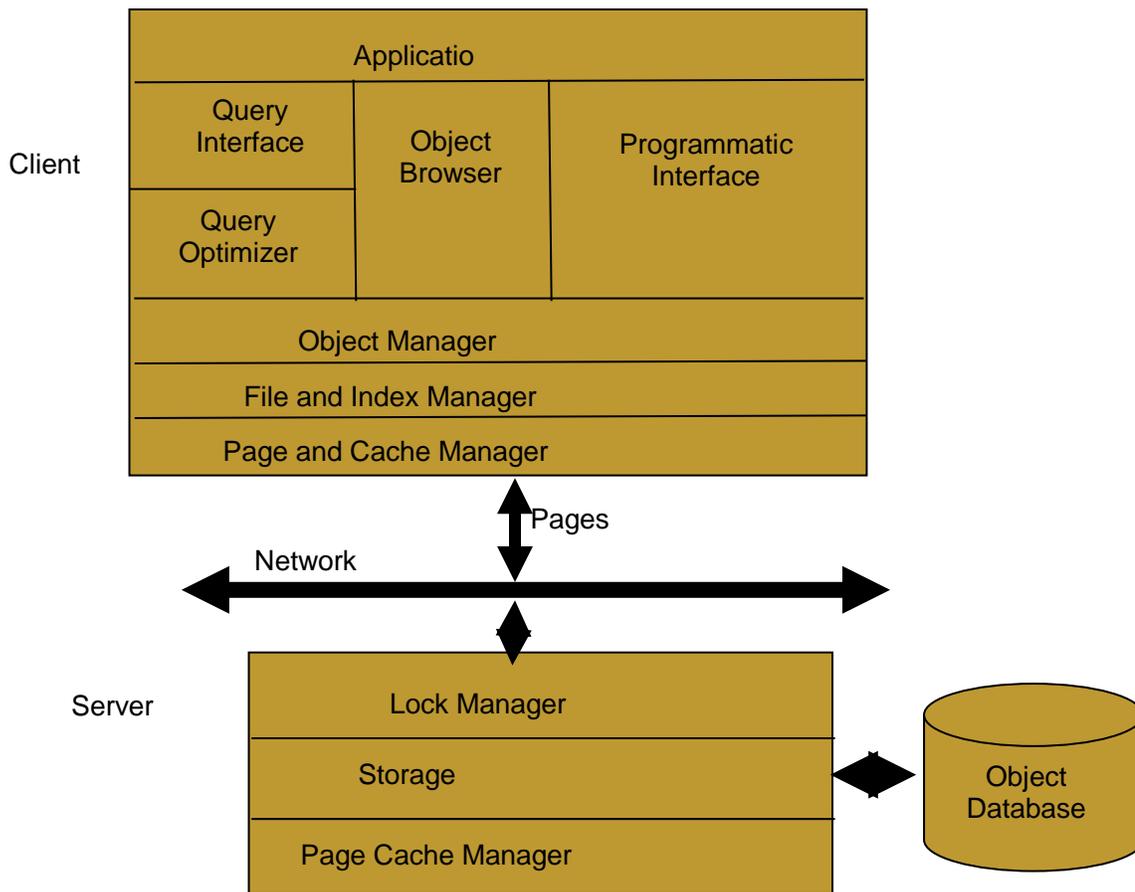


Figure 2: page server architecture

Feature of Page Server Architecture

- Data moves in the form of pages rather than objects
- Object management mainly performed at the client side
- Data management at the server side

Comparison

- One can't be declared better absolutely
- If object access pattern resembles storage pattern, then page server is better
- Object server provides better concurrency as object based locking lets multiple client access objects from the same page
- Object server ships only the required objects, so data transferred is reduced

Other Issues

1) Client Buffer Management

Client can manage either a

- Page buffer
- Object buffer
- Page/Object buffer

If client has a page buffer then entire pages are read or written from the server every time a page fault occurs or a page is flushed. Object buffers can read/write individual objects and allow the applications object-by-object access.

Object buffers manage access at a finer granularity and can achieve higher levels of concurrency. However, they may experience buffer fragmentation as the buffer may not be able to accommodate an integral multiple of objects, thereby leaving some unused space. A page buffer does not encounter this problem, but if the data clustering on the disk does not match the application data access pattern, then the pages contain a great deal of unaccessed objects that use up valuable client buffer space.

In a page/object buffer, the client loads pages into the page buffer. When the client flushes out a page, it retains the useful objects from the page by copying the objects into the object buffer. The client buffer manager tries to retain well-clustered pages and isolated objects from non-well clustered pages. The client buffer managers retain the pages and objects across the transaction boundaries.

2) Server Buffer Management

The server buffer management issues do not change in object client/server systems, since the servers usually manage a page buffer. The pages from the page buffer are sent to the clients to satisfy their data requests. A grouped object-server constructs its object groups by copying the necessary objects from the relevant server buffer pages, and sends the object group to the clients. Servers can also maintain the modified object buffer (MOB). A MOB stores objects that have been updated and returned by the clients.

Cache Consistency

Cache maintained at the server side. Data access from multiple clients becomes efficient but requires consistency maintained. The DMS cache consistency algorithms can be classified as

- 1) **Avoidance bases:** stale data (cached and updated) should not be given access
- 2) **Detection based:** stale data given to different clients, consistency checked before finally moving to disk

Both algorithms further can be classified as

- 1) **Synchronous:** the client sends a lock escalation message at the time it wants to perform a write operation and it blocks until the server responds.
- 2) **Asynchronous:** the client sends a lock escalation message at the time of its write operation but does not block waiting for a server response.
- 3) **Deferred:** the client optimistically defers informing the server about its write operation until commit time.

Object Management

Three issues of object management are discussed here

- 1) OID Management
- 2) Pointer Swizzling
- 3) Object Migration

1) Object Identifier Management

OID:

- OID's are system generated and used to uniquely identify every object in the system
- OID management applies to any OO-environment
- OID is important for both transient and persistent objects
- For persistent objects, OIDs can be physical or logical
- Physical OID helps management of objects on disk
- It is problematic when objects' location is required to be changed frequently

Logical OID:

- Logical OID/Surrogate: independent of physical position of object
- Could be initiated using many different schemes
- May require to maintain a lookup table

An Example Lookup Table

OID	Disk Location
1	A678BE8
2	A678B12
3	45368BA
4	C765984
5	657904
6	564098
7	34689AB

- Lookup table can be cached for efficiency
- However introduces an extra reference, that is, in lookup table
- Logical ID is efficient in case object movement is frequent, since it requires change in lookup table only
- OID management becomes more complicated in DDBS environment
- Requires uniqueness across multiple servers
- One possibility is to assign responsibility of generating OIDs to one server
- Any object created anywhere requests this server for OID
- Uniqueness is easy to maintain, but may become bottleneck
- Secondly, every server generates OIDs for its own objects
- Requires server ID to become the part of OID to ensure system-wide uniqueness

2) Pointer Swizzling

Objects when brought into RAM from disk, their OIDs have to be transformed to RAM address; this process is called pointer swizzling. Pointer swizzling can be lookup table based. Hardware based use the page fault mechanism for pointer swizzling.

3) Object Migration

One aspect of distributed systems is that objects move, from time to time, between sites. This raises a number of issues. First is the unit of migration. In systems where the state is separated from the methods, it is possible to consider moving the object's state without moving the methods. Another issue is that the movements of the objects must be tracked so that they can be found in their new locations. The migration of objects can be accomplished based on their current state.

Object states:

Objects can be in one of four states:

- 1) Ready
- 2) Active
- 3) Waiting
- 4) Suspended

Objects in active or waiting state are not allowed to migrate, since the activity they are currently involved in would be broken. The migration involves two steps:

- 1) Shipping the object from the source to the destination
- 2) Creating a proxy at the source, replacing the original object

Distributed Object Storage

Two issues related to the object storage are:

- 1) Object clustering
- 2) Distributed garbage collection

1) Object Clustering

Object clustering refers to the grouping of objects in physical containers (i.e. disk extents) according to common properties, such as the same value of an attribute or sub-objects of same object. Thus fast access to clustered objects can be obtained.

Object clustering is difficult for two reasons.

- 1) It is not orthogonal to object identity implementation
- 2) The clustering of complex objects along the composition relationship is more involved because of object sharing

Models of object clustering

There are three basic models for object clustering

- Decomposition of storage model (DSM)
- Normalized storage model (NSM)
- Direct storage model

2) Distributed Garbage Collection

This is the common issue in OS and Databases Objects that are not accessed by any access routine become garbage. We have to identify such objects and re-claim memory occupied them by destroying objects. The basic garbage collection algorithms can be categorized as

- Reference counting
- Tracing based

Reference counting

Each object has an associated count of the references to it.

Tracing based

Tracing based collectors are divided into

- Mark and sweep: periodically follows the hierarchy of the objects to detect that are not being accessed
- Copy based: copy the objects that are accessed and delete the remaining

Summary

- Architectures of OODDBS
- Different Issues
 - Storage Management
 - OID Handling
 - Cache Management
 - Pointer Swizzling
 - Object Migration
 - Garbage Collection

Course Title: Distributed Database Management Systems
Course Code: CS712
Instructor: Dr. Nayyer Masood (nayyerm@yahoo.com)
Lecture No: 44

In previous lecture:

- Two Alternatives
 - o Object Server Architecture
 - o Page Server Architecture

In today's lecture:

- Transaction management in distributed OODBMS
- Database interoperability

Transaction Management

Here we are discussing some issues that arise in extending the transaction concept to object DBMSs. Most object DBMSs maintain page level locks or concurrency control and support the traditional flat transaction model. It has been argued that the traditional flat model would not meet the requirements of the advanced application domains that object data management technology would serve. Some of the considerations are that transactions in these domains are longer in duration, requiring interactions with the user or the application program during their execution. In the case of object systems, transactions do not consist of simple read/write operations. In some application domains the fundamental transaction synchronization paradigm based on competition among transactions for access to resources must change to one of cooperation among transactions in accomplishing a common task.

Requirement for transaction management

The requirements for transaction management in object DBMSs are:

- 1) Conventional transaction managers synchronize simple read and write operations. Their counterparts for object DBMSs must be able to deal with abstract operations.
- 2) Conventional transactions access flat objects (e.g. pages, tuples) whereas transactions in object DBMS require synchronization of access to composite and complex objects.
- 3) Some applications supported by object DBMSs have different database access patterns than conventional database applications, where the access is competitive.

Correctness Criteria

Three alternatives

- Commutativity

- Invalidation
- Recoverability

1) Commutativity

It states that two operations conflict if the results serial execution of these operations are not equivalent. Consider the simple operations $R(x)$ and $W(x)$. if nothing is known about the abstract semantics of the Read and Write operations or the object x upon which they operate, it has to be accepted that a $R(x)$ following a $W(x)$ does not retrieve the same value as it would prior to the $W(x)$. a write operation always conflicts with other Read or Write operations.

Commutativity Types

There are two types

- Forward Commutativity
- Backward Commutativity

Forward Commutativity: two operations P and Q and a state s of object, then

“For every state s in which P and Q are both defined, $P(Q(s)) = Q(P(s))$ and $P(Q(s))$ is defined(i.e. it is not the null state)”

Backward Commutativity: “ For every state s in which we know $P(Q(S))$ is defined $P(Q(s)) = Q(P(a))$ ”

Example:

The forward and backward compatibility relations for the set ADT are given in figure 1 and figure 2 respectively.

An operation is defined as a pair of invocation and response to that invocation e.g. $x:[\text{Insert}(3),\text{ok}]$ is a valid invocation of an insert operation on set x that returns that the operation was performed correctly.

Compatibility Table for Forward Commutativity

	$[\text{Insert}(i), \text{ok}]$	$[\text{Delete}(i), \text{ok}]$	$[\text{Member}(i), \text{tr}]$	$[\text{Member}(i), \text{fl}]$
$[\text{Insert}(i), \text{ok}]$	+	-	+	-
$[\text{Delete}(i), \text{ok}]$	-	+	+	+
$[\text{Member}(i), \text{tr}]$	+	-	+	+
$[\text{Member}(i), \text{fl}]$	-	+	+	+

Figure 1: Compatibility Table for Forward Commutativity in Sets

Compatibility Table for Backward Commutativity

	$[\text{Insert}(i), \text{ok}]$	$[\text{Delete}(i), \text{ok}]$	$[\text{Member}(i), \text{tr}]$	$[\text{Member}(i), \text{fl}]$
$[\text{Insert}(i), \text{ok}]$	+	-	-	-

[Delete(i), ok]	-	+	-	+
[Member(i), tr]	-	-	+	+
[Member(i), fl]	-	+	+	+

Figure 2: Compatibility Table for Backward Commutativity

2) Invalidation

An operation P invalidates Q, if there are two histories H1, H2 such that $H1 * P * H2$ and $H1 * H2 * Q$ are defined but $H1 * P * H2 * Q$ isn't.

3) Recoverability

An operation P is said to be recoverable with respect to operation Q if the value returned by P is independent of whether Q executed before P or not.

Database Interoperability

Database integration: involves the process by which information from participating databases can be conceptually integrated to form a single cohesive definition of a multidatabase.

Generally meant in an multi-database (MDBS) environment; a complex database environment

- Databases are heterogeneous
- Architecture could be global schema architecture as shown in figure 3 or the federated database architecture
- Participating databases are autonomous

Heterogeneity could be

- Hardware
- Software
- Data Models
- Semantic

In all other DBS architectures, databases are owned by a single organization. So no semantic heterogeneity

Global Schema Architecture

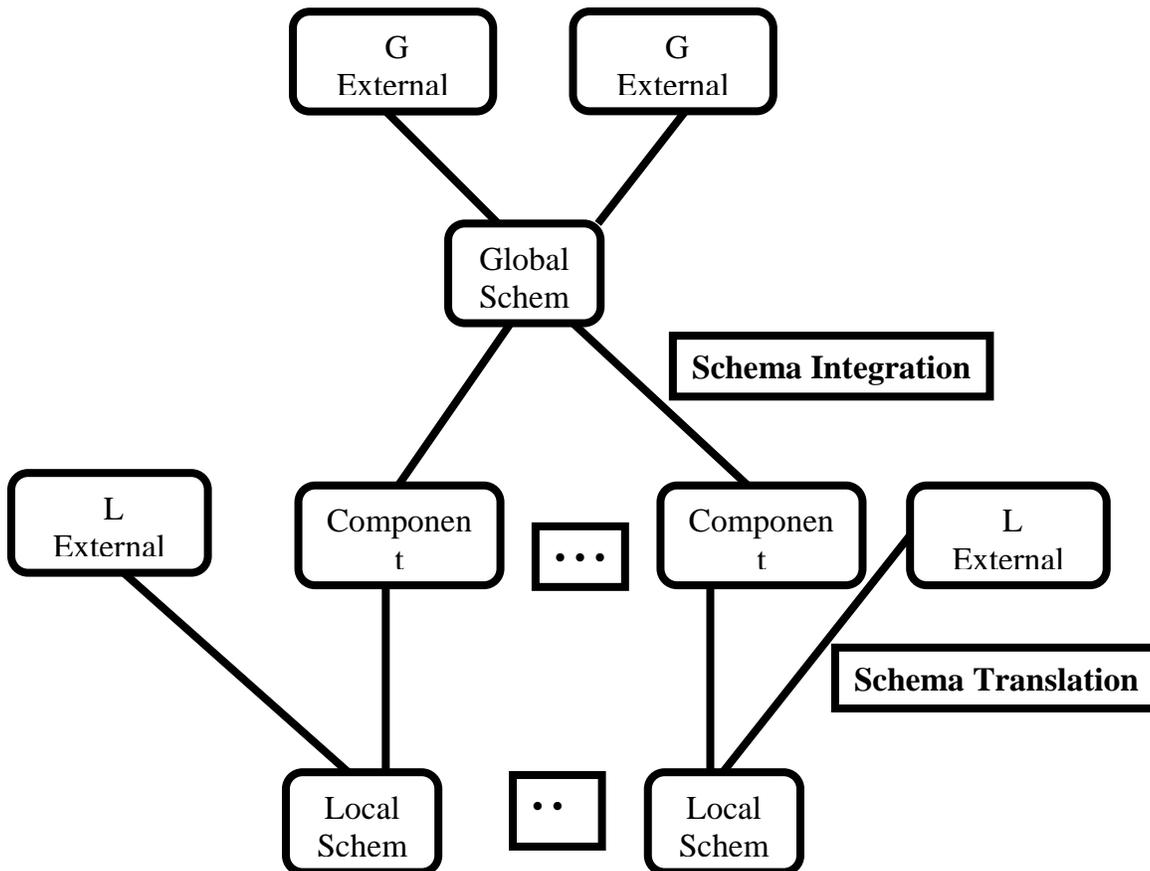


Figure 3: Global conceptual architecture

Interoperability needs database integration that involves two steps

- Schema Translation
- Schema Integration

Schema Translation: involves translating the component schemas into same data models. It helps to

- Compare schema elements
- Merge them

Choice of Common Data Model (CDM) is important in Schema Translation. We should prefer the semantic data models, like E-R or OO. After Schema Translation we perform Schema Integration (SI).

Schema Integration: involves merging component schemas into a common schema (the global schema). SI involves identifying corresponding schema elements from different component databases and merging. Hampered mainly by semantic heterogeneities.

Example:

Consider an example of database schema in relational data model

- EMP(ENO, ENAME, TITLE)
- PROJ(PNO, PNAME, BUDGET, LOC, CNAME)
- AG(ENO, PNO, RESP, DUR)
- PAY(TITLE, SAL)

Relational Schema Translated into Common Data Model (E-R)

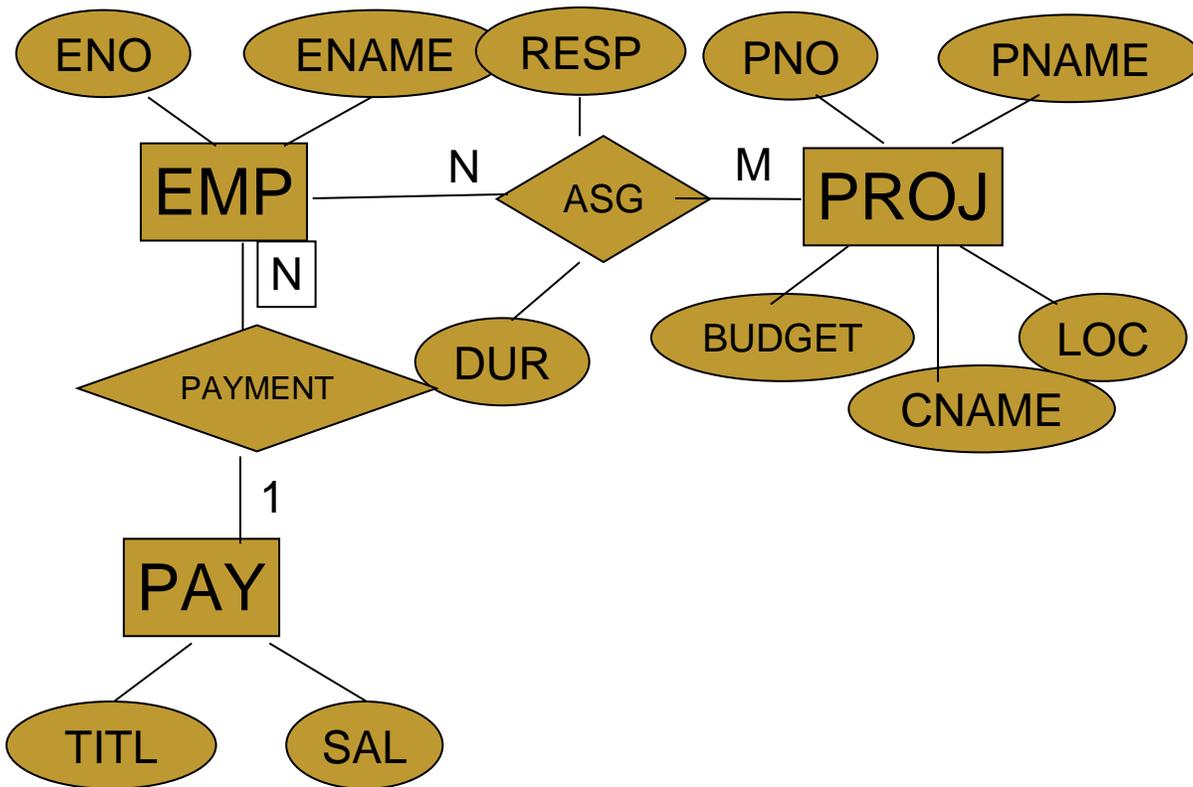


Figure 4: Entity-Relationship Database

Approaches to SI

- Binary: Two schemas merged first, then one at a time
- N-ary: All compared and merged together

Steps in SI

- Schema Analysis/Matching
- Schema Conforming
- Schema Merging

Heterogeneities

Two types of heterogeneity:

1) Semantic Heterogeneity: same concepts modeled differently in different schemas:

Example: naming, aggregation, generalization, attribute class, default value, database identifier, schema isomorphism, missing values

2) Structural Heterogeneity: differences in the representation of corresponding schema elements

Examples: Data scaling and precision, attribute integrity constraint, objects included, domain

Heterogeneities are resolved by applying the mapping on elements. We cannot ask/expect the component databases to change. Most common semantic is naming conflict that could be Synonyms and Homonyms.

Synonyms: different names modeling same thing, like in our example schema ENGINEER/ EMP and Salary/Sal.

Homonym: same name modeling different things, like title here.

Summary

We have discussed the transaction management (TM), requirements of TM and Correctness Criteria. Correctness criteria consist of Commutativity, Invalidation, and Recoverability. Database Interoperability also discussed.

Course Title: Distributed Database Management Systems
Course Code: CS712
Instructor: Dr. Nayyer Masood (nayyerm@yahoo.com)
Lecture No: 45

In previous lecture:

- Transaction management in distributed OODBMS
- Database interoperability

In today's lecture:

- Database interoperability (continued..)

Database Interoperability (continued..)

Architecture is global schema multidatabase system. Objective is to merge the schemas of the component databases and present as a single schema. Data is owned by different organization. User does not have any idea about it. Interoperability involves

- Schema translation
- Schema integration

Steps in SI

- Schema Analysis/Matching
- Schema Conforming
- Schema Merging

Schema integration is an older issue than the DDBSs. In initial days of database design it was being performed view integration View integration is simpler as compare to SI. Context is same, as database is being developed for the same organization

SI is more complex,

- autonomous schemas contain heterogeneities even if they belong to same domain
- Schemas contain data that also needs to be merged

Early SI approaches were mainly influenced by view integration.

Schema Analysis/Matching

Initially correspondence finding phase was called schema analysis; today it is called schema matching.

Schema Conforming: resolving differences among the elements modeling same/similar elements

Schema merging: combining those elements.

Most challenging task in SI is establishing correspondences among schema elements. Reason: the existence of semantic heterogeneities

Heterogeneities

Two types of heterogeneity:

Semantic heterogeneity: same concepts modeled differently in different schemas:

Example: naming, aggregation, generalization, attribute class, default value, database identifier, schema isomorphism, missing values

Structural heterogeneity: differences in the representation of corresponding schema elements

Example: Data scaling and precision, attribute integrity constraint, objects included, domain

Semantic heterogeneity:

Most common semantic is naming conflict that could be Synonyms and Homonyms

Synonyms: different names modeling same thing, like in our example schema ENGINEER/ EMP and Salary/Sal as shown in figure 1.

Homonym: same name modeling different things, like title here.

SI cannot be performed totally automatically. We need to know the semantics for establishing correspondences. Source for semantics is schema. Current data models do not capture the real-world semantics completely. So meaning is either in the mind of designer or it is in the application programs. So we cannot completely automate SI. Doing it manually is also not possible, as it is a huge process. So we should perform SI semi-automatically. There are different approaches to do the SI A very common approach is ontology based

Ontologies

An ontology is an application dependent collection of terms, their meaning and possibly relation between them. Naming conflicts are removed by adopting names from ontology in the global schema and mapping component

elements to them. One approach could be to map the schema elements to the concepts/terms in the ontology. We do this once for all schemas. After mapping all the schemas we compare the ontological terms rather than the elements. Comparison becomes sort of free of at least naming conflicts.

Most important is SA/SM. Takes two or more schemas as input and generates matching assertions. Different forms of assertions are there. Schema matching approaches is now described by the matcher they use. Initial classification was mainly the syntactic and semantic based. Today, matchers are established. Famous matchers are:

- Name based
- Description based
- Global namespaces
- Type based
- Key similarity
- Instance based
- Some even use Neural Networks

Then there is concept of combining matchers. We have hybrid and composite approaches of combining matchers Some Schema Matching approaches

- Autoplex, SKAT, Dike, COMA, TransScm etc.

Most of the matchers assign strength to assertions. Value ranges between 0 and 1. Matchers suggest the strong candidate assertions and user/ integrator finalizes them

Structural Heterogeneities

Entity versus attribute, like client. Attribute has to be transformed into entity in the global schema and mapping to be established. Dependency, relationship is one to many or many to many, have to adopt more general one

Synonym

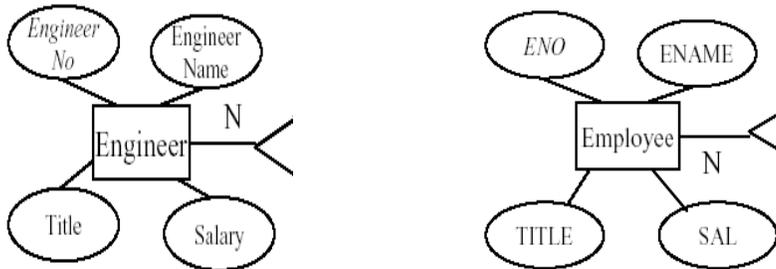


Figure 1: synonyms

Entity vs attribute

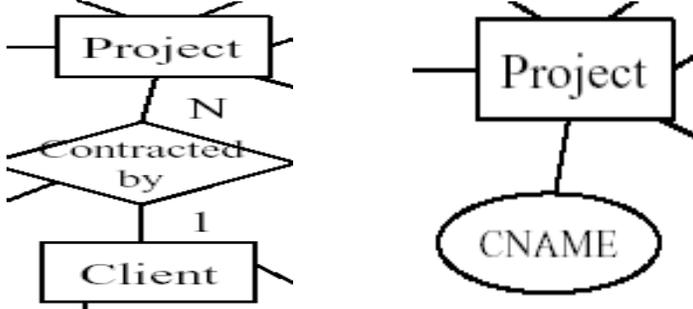


Figure 2

For example, cardinality difference

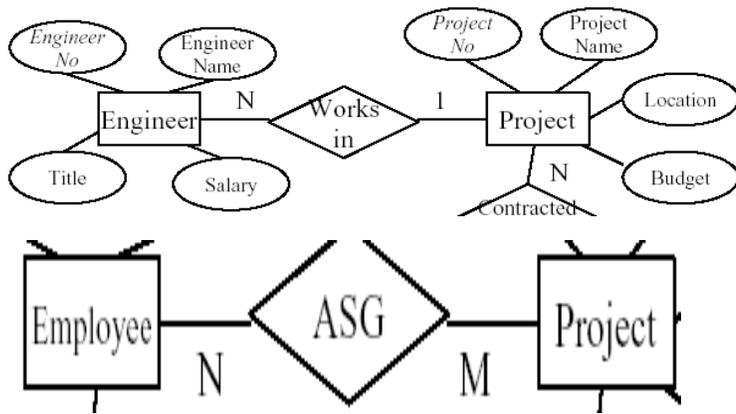


Figure 3

Schema conforming aligns them from merging, mainly structural conflicts, example.

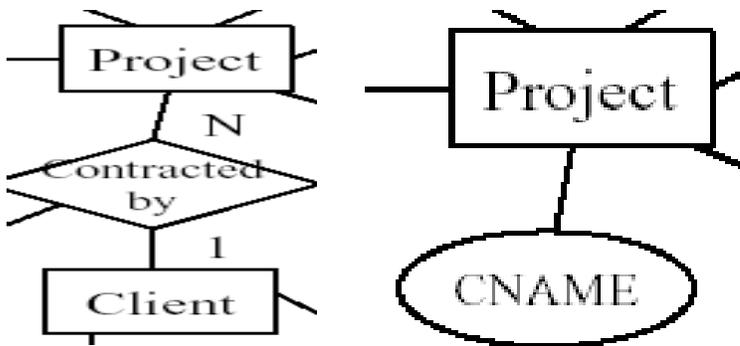


Figure 4

Overview of the course

- Introduction to distributed systems and their justification
- Basics of Databases, specially relational data model and networks
- Architectures in DDBSs
- Design issues, fragmentation, its types, PHF, DHF, VF, Hybrid
- Experiments/Particles of DDBS implementation
- Transaction Management basics and then in DDBS environment
- Then query processing
- Parallel databases
- Object Oriented Databases
- Database Interoperability

Thank you very much, hope you have enjoyed the course