TDDD43 Advanced Data Models and Databases

NoSQL Databases

Huanyu Li <u>huanyu.li@liu.se</u>

Based on slides by Olaf Hartig



NoSQL in general

- "NoSQL" is interpreted differently (without precise definition)
 - "no to SQL"
 - "not only SQL"
 - "not relational"
- Non-relational databases has been around since the late 1960s
- 1998: first used for a RDBMS without SQL interface
- 2009: picked up again to name the conference "NOSQL 2009" about "open-source, distributed, non-relational databases"
- Since then, "NoSQL database" loosely specifies class of non-relational DBMSs



Focuses of this lecture

- What are key characteristics of NoSQL systems?
- How do DBs supported by NoSQL systems look like?
- What can you do with these DBs?
 - (in comparison to the DBs supported by RDBMSs)



Outline

- Why NoSQL comes to the stage
- NoSQL data models
- The performance and scability of NoSQL
- NoSQL consistency models and basic techniques



Recap of Relational Database Management Systems

- With well-defined formal foundations
 - Schema level (Entity-Relationship)
 - Relational Model (relation/table, attribute/column, tuple/row)



Recap of Relational Database Management Systems





Recap of Relational Database Management Systems

- With well-defined formal foundations
- SQL structured query language
 - query, data manipulation, database definition
- Support of transactions with ACID properties
 - Atomicity, Consistency, Isolation, Durability
- Established technology
 - Many vendors
 - Highly mature systems
 - Experienced users and administrators



But, the business world has changed...

- More organizations and companies have shifted to the digital economy powered by the Internet
- New IT applications that allow companies to run their business and to interact with costumers, are required and prioritized
 - Web and Mobile applications
 - Connected devices ("Internet of Things")
- As a result, new challenges come...



Therefore, the scalability of a system is important

- Data scalability
 - Handle growing amounts of data, without losing performance
- Read scalability
 - Handle increasing numbers of read operations, without losing performance
- Write scalability
 - Handle increasing numbers of write operations, without losing performance



Vertical Scalability vs. Horizontal Scalability

- Vertical scalability (scale up)
 - Add resources to a server (e.g., more CPUs, more memory, more or bigger disks)



- Horizontal scalability (scale out)
 - Add nodes (more computers) to a distributed system





To achieve much higher performance and scalability

- NoSQL supports (some inconsistency may be acceptable):
 - Basically Available
 - System available whenever accessed, even if parts of it unavailable
 - Soft state
 - the distributed data does not need to be in a consistent state at all times
 - Eventually consistent
 - state will become consistent after a certain period of time

We will get back to transactional access of NoSQL systems later again!



Typical Characteristics of NoSQL systems

- Ability to scale horizontally over many commodity servers with high performance, availability and fault tolerance
 - achieved by guaranteeing basically available, soft state, eventually consistent
 - and by partitioning and replication of data
- Non-relational data model, no requirements for schemas
- "Typical" means there is a broad variety of such systems, but not all of them have these characteristics to the same degree



Outline

- ✓ Why NoSQL comes to the stage
- NoSQL data models
- BASE, ACID, and CAP
- NoSQL consistency models and basic techniques



Data Models for NoSQL

- Key-value model
- Document model
- Wide-column models
- Graph database models



NoSQL Data Models – Key value stores

- Simplest form of NoSQL databases
- Schema-free, a dictionary of key/value pairs
 - Keys are unique
 - Values are of arbitrary types
- Efficient in storying distributed data
- Not suitable for
 - Representing structures and relations
 - Accessing multiple items, since the access is by key





Example - Key value stores

Assuming a relational database consisting of a table:

| User | <u>login</u> | name | website | twitter |
|------|--------------|---------|--------------------|---------|
| | alice12 | Alice | http://alice.name/ | NULL |
| | bob_in_se | Bob | NULL | @TheBob |
| | charlie | Charlie | NULL | NULL |

- How to represent such data using the key-value model?
 - alice12 Alice, http://alice.name/
 - bob_in_se Bob, , @TheBob
 - charlie Charlie



Example - Key value stores

Let's add another table

| User | <u>login</u> | name | website | twitter | Fav | user | <u>favorite</u> |
|------|--------------|---------|--------------------|---------|-----|---------|-----------------|
| | alice12 | Alice | http://alice.name/ | NULL | | alice12 | bob_in_se |
| | bob_in_se | Bob | NULL | @TheBob | | alice12 | charlie |
| | charlie | Charlie | NULL | NULL | | | |

How to represent such data using the key-value model?

| alice12 | Alice, http://alice.name/, , [bob_in_se, charlie] |
|-----------|---|
| bob_in_se | Bob, , @TheBob |
| charlie | Charlie |



Key value stores: Querying

- Only CRUD operations in terms of keys
 - create, read, update, delete
 - put(key, value), get(key), delete(key)
- No support for value-related queries
 - Recall that values are opaque to the system (i.e., no secondary index over values)
- Accessing multiple items requires separate requests
- However, partition the data based on keys (horizontal partitioning or sharding) and distributed processing can be very efficient



Example - Key value stores

- Assume we try to find all users for whom Bob is a favorite
- It is possible, but very inefficient

| ser | <u>login</u> | name | website | twitter | Fav | Fav <u>user</u> |
|-----|--------------|---------|--------------------|---------|-----|-----------------|
| | alice12 | Alice | http://alice.name/ | NULL | | alice12 |
| | bob_in_se | Bob | NULL | @TheBob | | alice12 |
| | charlie | Charlie | NULL | NULL | | |

| alice12 | Alice, http://alice.name/, , [bob_in_se, charlie] |
|-----------|---|
| bob_in_se | Bob, , @TheBob |
| charlie | Charlie |



Example - Key value stores

- Assume we try to find all users for whom Bob is a favorite
- It is possible, but very inefficient
- What can we do to make it more efficient?
 - Add redundancy (downsides: more space needed, updating becomes less trivial and less efficient)

| alice12 | Alice, http://alice.name/, , [bob_in_se, charlie], [] |
|-----------|---|
| bob_in_se | Bob, , @TheBob, [], <mark>[alice12]</mark> |
| charlie | Charlie, , , [], <mark>[alice12]</mark> |



Examples of Key value stores

- Open-source examples
 - Redis
 - Memcached







Data Models for NoSQL

✓ Key-value model

- Document model
- Wide-column models
- Graph database models



- Store data as documents
- > A dictionary of key/value pairs
 - Keys are unique
 - Values are documents, semi-structured data
 - XML, JSON, BSON (binary), etc.
- Efficient in storying distributed data
- Not suitable for
 - Representing structures and relations
 - Accessing multiple items, since the access is by key







- Document Store based Database
 - A set of documents (or multiple such sets)
 - Each document additionally associated with a unique identifier
 - Schema free: different documents may have different fields





- Document Store based Database
 - A set of documents (or multiple such sets)
 - Each document additionally associated with a unique identifier
 - Schema free: different documents may have different fields
 - Grouping of documents into separate sets (called "domains" or "collections")





- Document Store based Database
 - A set of documents (or multiple such sets)
 - Each document additionally associated with a unique identifier
 - Schema free: different documents may have different fields
 - Grouping of documents into separate sets (called "domains" or "collections")
 - Partitioning based on collections and/or on document IDs
 - Secondary indexes over fields in the documents possible
 - Different indexes per domain/collection of documents





Document stores: Querying

- Querying in terms of conditions on document content
- Depending on specific systems, queries may be expressed:
 - program code using an API
 - in a system-specific query language



Document stores: Querying

- Querying in terms of conditions on document content
- > Depending on specific systems, queries may be expressed:
 - program code using an API
 - in a system-specific query language
- Examples (based on MongoDB's query language)
 - ➢ Find all docs in collection Users whose name field is "Alice"

db.Users.find({name: "Alice"})

- Find all docs in collection Users whose age is greater than 23 db.Users.find({age:{\$gt: 23}})
- Find all docs in collection Users whose favorite Bob db.Users.find({favorites: {\$in: ["bob_in_se"]}})

login: "alice12"

name: "Alice"

website: "http://alice.name/"

favorites: ["bob_in_se", "charlie"]



Document stores: Querying

- Querying in terms of conditions on document content
- > Depending on specific systems, queries may be expressed:
 - program code using an API
 - in a system-specific query language
- Examples (based on MongoDB's query language)
 - Find all docs in collection Users whose name field is "Alice" db.Users.find({name: "Alice"})
 - Find all docs in collection Users whose age is greater than 23 db.Users.find({age:{\$qt: 23}})
 - Find all docs in collection Users whose favorite Bob db.Users.find({favorites: {\$in: ["bob_in_se"]}})
- However, no cross-document queries (e.g., joins)
 - have to be implemented in the application logic



- Examples
 - MongoDB





Data Models for NoSQL

- ✓ Key-value model
- ✓ Document model
- Wide-column models
- Graph database models



- > Also called column-family or extensible-record
- Store data in rows, each row has a unique key and column families
- Schema-free
 - Keys are unique
 - Values are varying column families
 - Columns consist of key value pairs



- Like a single, very wide relation (SQL table) but extensible, schema-free and potentially sparse
- Like the document model without nesting









- Columns may be grouped into "column families"
 - Therefore, values are addressed by row key, column family, and column key





- Columns may be grouped into "column families"
 - Therefore, values are addressed by row key, column family, and column key
- Data may be partitioned ...

based on row keys (horizontal partitioning), but also based on column families (vertical partitioning), or even on both

• Secondary indexes can be created over arbitrary columns



Wide column stores: Querying

- > Querying in terms of keys or conditions on column values
- Conceptually similar to queries in document stores
 - program code using an API
 - in a system-specific query language
 - Again, no joins, have to be implemented in the application logic
- Better than key value stores for querying and indexing
- Not suitable for
 - Representing structures and relations



- Examples
 - Google BigTable
 - Apache HBase
 - Apache Cassandra







Data Models for NoSQL

- ✓ Key-value model
- ✓ Document model
- ✓ Wide-column models
- Graph database models
 - Next lecture tomorrow



Data Models for NoSQL

- ✓ Key-value model
- ✓ Document model
- ✓ Wide-column models
- Graph database models

- There are NoSQL systems that are based on multi models
 - OrientDB (key-value, documents, graph)
 - ArangoDB (key-value, documents, graph) ArangoDB
 - Cosmos DB (key-value, documents, wide-column, graph)





Outline

- ✓ Why NoSQL comes to the stage
- ✓ NoSQL data models
- NoSQL consistency models and basic techniques
 - ➢ ACID, BASE and CAP
 - Consistent Hashing
 - Vector Lock



Typical Characteristics of NoSQL systems

- Ability to scale horizontally over many commodity servers with high performance, availability and fault tolerance
 - achieved by guaranteeing basically available, soft state, eventually consistent
 - in another word, by giving up ACID guarantees
 - and by partitioning and replication od data
- Non-relational data model, no requirements for schemas
- "Typical" means there is a broad variety of such systems, but not all of them have these characteristics to the same degree



ACID

Atomicity

- The entire transaction takes place at once or doesn't happen at all
- Consistency
 - The database must be consistent before and after the transaction
- Isolation
 - Multiple transactions occur independently without interference
- Durability
 - The changes of a successful transaction occurs even if the system failure occurs



NoSQL, BASE rather than ACID

- Giving up ACID guarantees, to achieve much higher performance and scalability
- **B**asically **A**vailable
 - System available whenever accessed, even if parts of it unavailable
- **S**oft state
 - the distributed data does not need to be in a consistent state at all times
- **Eventually consistent**
 - state will become consistent after a certain period of time



CAP Theorem for distributed data store

- **C**onsistency
 - After an update, all readers in a distributed system see the same data
 - All nodes are supposed to contain the same data at all times
- Availability
 - All requests will be answered, regardless of crashes or downtimes
- *P*artition Tolerance
 - System continues to operate, even if two sets of servers get isolated

Only 2 of 3 properties can be guaranteed at the same time in a distributed system with data replication





Outline

- ✓ Why NoSQL comes to the stage
- ✓ NoSQL data models
- NoSQL consistency models and basic techniques



Consistency models

- Strong consistency
 - After the update completes. Any subsequent access will return the updated value
- Weak consistency
 - The system does not guarantee that subsequent accesses to the system will return the updated value
 - Inconsistency window: the period until all replicas have been updated in a lazy manner
 - Eventual consistency: if no new updates are made, eventually all accesses will return the last updated value
 - Employed by many NoSQL databases



NoSQL Techniques

- Basic techniques (widely applied in NoSQL systems)
 - Distributed data storage, replication (Consistent hashing)
 - Recognize order of distributed events and potential conflicts (Vector clock)
 - Distributed query strategy (MapReduce)



NoSQL Consistent hashing

- A virtual ring structure (hash ring)
- Use the same hashing function to hash both the node (server) identifiers (IP addresses) and data keys
- The ring is traversed in the clockwise direction
- Each node is responsible for the region of the ring between the node and its predecessor on the ring





Consistent hashing – Node Removal

- If a node is dropped out or gets lost
 - Its responsible data will be redistributed to an adjacent node





Consistent hashing – Node Addition

- If a node is added
 - Its hash value is added to the hash table
 - the hash realm is repartitioned, and hash data will be transferred to new neighbor
 - No need to update remaining nodes



Vector clock

- MVCC (Multi-version concurrency control)
- Commonly used in DBMS
- Vector clock is an extension of MVCC
 - A vector clock is an array/vector of N logical clocks (N is the number of processes)
 - Each process has a vector clock
 - When processes communicate to each other, vector timestamps are piggybacked
- How are vector clocks maintained?



- Let VC_i denote the vector clock for process $i(p_i)$:
- Initialize all clocks for all processes as zero
 - $VC_i[j] = 0$; for i, j = 1, 2, ... N
- Just before a process (p_i) timestamps an internal event (e.g., sending messages), its own logical clock in its vector will be incremented by one
 - $VC_i[i] = VC_i[i] + 1$
- The new vector of \boldsymbol{p}_i is piggybacked when \boldsymbol{p}_i send messages to other processes
- When a process (p_j) receives a message from another process (p_i) , it first increments its own logical clock by one, then compare its vector with the vector it receives and take all the maximum values for each logical clocks
 - $VC_{j}[i] = VC_{j}[i] + 1$
 - $VC_{j}[k] = max (VC_{j}[k], VC_{i}[k]); for k = 1,2, ... N$



- Let VC_i denote the vector clock for process i (p_i) :
- Initialize all clocks for all processes as zero
 - $VC_i[j] = 0$; for i, j = 1, 2, ... N





- Just before a process (p_i) timestamps an internal event (e.g., sending messages), its own logical clock in its vector will be incremented by one
 - $VC_i[i] = VC_i[i] + 1$





- The new vector of \boldsymbol{p}_i is piggybacked when \boldsymbol{p}_i send messages to other processes
- When a process (p_j) receives a message from another process (p_j) , it first increments its own logical clock by one, then compare its vector with the vector it receives and take all the maximum values for each logical clocks

•
$$VC_{j}[i] = VC_{j}[i] + 1$$

•
$$VC_{j}[k] = max (VC_{j}[k], VC_{i}[k]); for k = 1,2, ... N$$





- Properties (comparing vector clocks for two events):
 - VC = VC' iff. VC[i] = VC'[i]; for i = 1, 2, ... N
 - VC \leq VC' iff. VC[i] \leq VC'[i]; for i = 1, 2, ... N
 - VC < VC' iff. VC[i] \leq VC'[i]; for i = 1, 2, ... N, meanwhile there exists a process p_i that, VC[j] < VC'[j]
- For two events e and e', $e \rightarrow e'$ iff. VC(e) < VC(e')
 - event e happens before event e'
- How to detect if two events are conflict to each other?
 - For two events e and e', if neither VC(e) ≤ VC(e') nor VC(e')
 ≤ VC(e) satisfies, then the two events are concurrent



- How to detect if two events are conflict to each other?
 - For two events e and e', if neither VC(e) ≤ VC(e') nor VC(e) ≥ VC(e') satisfies, then the two events are concurrent





- How to detect if two events are conflict to each other?
 - For two events e and e', if neither VC(e) ≤ VC(e') nor VC(e) ≥ VC(e') satisfies, then the two events are concurrent





Summary

NoSQL systems support non-relational data models

- Schema free
- Support for semi-structured and unstructured data
- Limited query capabilities (no joins!)
- NoSQL systems provide high (horizontal) scalability with high performance, availablility, and fault tolerance
 - Achieved by:
 - Data partitioning
 - Data replication
 - Giving up consistency requirements





