Optimization of Data Warehouse Design by Materialized Views

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Abstract- Do you ever blame your database for not delivering the BI capabilities you expect or for failing to handle increased volumes gracefully? Perhaps it is not inherently the database’s fault. Could it be an infrastructure problem? There may be a better way to match the database and your BI workloads.

Database physical designs vary widely. Designs are always implemented within a set of requirements or constraints such as performance, budgets, or enterprise hardware standards. Over time, physical designs may be optimized for specific applications, but they can stretch only so far. One physical design might perform well in an OLTP environment but fall short of the full potential of a business intelligence implementation. A data warehouse will operate most efficiently when the BI workload and logical data models are matched with the optimal physical database architecture.

For the BI practitioner, this article will expose physical database design for BI workloads such as operational BI, management BI, and analytics. For the DBA, it will describe techniques to optimize a database for their own workloads and deliver a best-fit data.

Key Words- Databases, Data warehouse, OLTP, DBA, Logical Data Model.

I. INTRODUCTION

Data warehouse experts are keenly aware of the role they play in bridging the abstract (business requirements for information) and the concrete (the technological resources at hand). Data warehousing projects often reflect this environment, as business analysts and data architects meet with business users to understand objectives. The same analysts and architects convene to translate the results of these conversations into a logical model. Eventually they develop technical specifications that their colleagues in the data center can parse.

This hand off between business database specialists can work smoothly, but more often than not, something is lost in translation. Designing the right technical specifications for a successful project depends on understanding how (and under what circumstances) the physical database environment bolsters or weakens the data warehouse’s performance.

For data warehouse architects, there are four main models to consider:

Symmetric Multi-Processing (SMP),
Cluster,
Massively Parallel Processing (MPP), and
Grid.

These different approaches all address the same goal: processing large amounts of data. The challenge is to provide enough disk space, processing power, and network bandwidth.

SMP systems have multiple CPUs to provide scalable processing capability and have external storage servers, typically connected over the network.

Clusters are multiple servers attached to storage, where all components operate as a single virtual server.

MPP systems have multiple CPUs directly attached to storage that operate as coordinated yet independent components.

Grids are collections of heterogeneous computers whose resources are invoked to work in parallel on a complex problem or massively distributed data set.

The following section examines three types of BI-related work and how they pose different challenges to the CPU power, disk space, and connectivity balance. Understanding these challenges is the key to selecting the best physical architecture model for your particular data warehousing project.

Business Requirements Expressed as BI Workload

Databases have their own architectural challenges, especially when the dimensions of time and data volume are considered. The data warehouse must serve more users who are performing a greater variety of tasks. Meanwhile, the
transaction database is under pressure to deliver operational reporting in near real time.

We will look at three types of workloads for data warehouses in terms of the physical design challenges they present: operational BI, enterprise BI, and historical BI. Most of the work involving the data warehouse (or variations such as operational data stores and data marts) falls into one of these three categories.

These categories do not include the high-transaction, operational database, nor OLTP-only systems, although in practice, these systems are asked to handle some BI tasks.

When BI workloads are viewed from the perspective of the demands placed on the physical architecture, these characteristics stand out:

- Data volume
- Number of users
- Types of queries
- Frequency and timing of access

Latency requirements

While there are many categories of BI activities, these five workload characteristics most clearly expose how a database’s physical architecture affects the data warehouse. Table 1: Maps out types of work that data warehouses may perform and the architecture models that best match their requirements.

The “Physical Architecture Models” section later in this article provides details on how the architecture models process data and how this affects data warehouse capabilities.

Operational BI

TDWI defines operational BI this way: “Operational BI delivers information and insights to a broad range of users within hours or minutes for the purpose of managing or optimizing operational or time-sensitive business processes.”

Although operational BI is an evolving term, some of the ways in which it will impact the data warehouse are clear. Data warehouses will be called upon to serve more users, keep data more current, handle different types of inquiries, and tie into operational data applications. One characteristic of operational BI—driving information out to the edges of an organization into areas previously considered tactical—will impact the physical architecture. Users once satisfied by static Monday-morning reports are being challenged to make information-based decisions in real time.

The operational BI factors most likely to challenge data warehouse infrastructure include:

- Data volume: Large with rapid growth
- Number of users: Hundreds to thousands
- Types of queries: Simple, few joins, small set of fields
- Frequency and timing of access: Continuous with somewhat predictable spikes (that will follow the pattern of spikes in demand on operational systems)
- Latency requirements: Near-real-time for currency of data and report delivery

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only by a handful of the most innovative, technology-rich organizations. When grid computing is ready for mass adoption, it will change many of the assumptions underlying BI today.

Management BI
Management BI encompasses the information services required by strategic decision makers, such as dashboards and dynamic reports with drill-down and exploratory capabilities. These interfaces with their push-button views of information are creating expectations about the freshness of data. In addition, the flexibility to browse through different dimensions and drill into details could result in more ad hoc querying into various data sets.

Although management BI is the most mature type of BI workload, it is changing somewhat because the enterprise user is working with information in more varied and spontaneous ways, which poses its own challenges (especially in flexibility) to the data warehousing infrastructure. Physical architecture must support these requirements:
- Data volume: Slower, more controlled growth; one or two years of history
- Number of users: Lower hundreds
- Types of queries: Simple, few joins, ad hoc fetches of detail
- Frequency and timing of access: Varies widely, but can usually be scheduled
- Latency requirements: Monthly to daily

This is the most common usage scenario, and the supporting physical architecture models dominate the data warehousing infrastructure landscape.

Balanced Resources
The physical architecture that was designed for this usage context is SMP. For many organizations, it is still the best-suited architecture. For management BI, the more important problem is not which model to use but how to select the components within the architecture. Although IT has the most experience in designing architectures to support management BI, it’s still not an easy task and requires careful planning, especially around capacity planning. Forecasting growth and choosing an architecture that can accommodate just-in-time demands are important to avoid either overbuying capacity or being caught short.

Historical Analytics
Historical analytics refers to the practice of analyzing data that has been collected over a period of time. In some industries, this period may span a client’s lifetime or a century. Historical analytics is characterized by large volumes of atomic, granular data that is accessed by a limited set of highly skilled users who execute complex queries. Typically, the work is scheduled and prioritized, and business cases are required to justify.

Historical BI includes data mining, predictive analytics, and pattern detection, which presents several challenges to the physical architecture:
- Data volume: Very large and constantly increasing
- Number of users: 25 or fewer
- Types of queries: Very complex, computing intense
- Frequency and timing of access: Infrequent, usually planned
- Latency requirements: Low

More Power Needed
The physical architecture best suited to this level of analytics can be summed up in one word: more. The SMP and cluster models, which start with the principle of one system and scale out from there, have too many insurmountable constraints. A computer with enough storage attached still faces a shortage of computing power and network bandwidth.

Combining computing resources in a clustered approach theoretically bring enough computing power and disk capacity together, but the complexity (and additional computing resources) needed to orchestrate this work allocation makes it unfeasible. Only MPP and grid models have succeeded in supporting historical analytics to the extent that at least large enterprises can implement them.

Physical Architecture Models
The physical architecture of a database comprises the physical data model that is adapted for a particular database and its server and storage hardware, network components, and interconnectivity. The physical architecture facilitates optimal database operations, so it must be selected carefully and designed properly to avoid database performance problems. If the physical architecture is poorly designed and doesn’t match the database’s expected workload, it will hamper performance. For the management BI, the more important problem is not which model to use but how to select the components within the architecture.

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data model that is adapted for a particular database and its server and storage hardware, network components, and interconnectivity. The physical architecture facilitates optimal database operations, so it must be selected carefully and designed properly to avoid database performance problems. If the physical architecture is poorly designed and doesn’t match the database’s expected workload, it will hamper performance. One need only review the history of RDBMS to understand how a solid architecture might still be at the root of performance issues. The RDBMS was developed in the context of client/server computing. The client/server environment placed heavy emphasis on appropriately dividing the processing between the client and the server; indeed, it took several years to move from thin-client to fat-client and back to thin-client architectures. An enterprise client/server environment might include hundreds of clients, but commonly only one server. The approach to solving performance bottlenecks was to fine-tune the workload split (by vendors) and to acquire bigger and better servers (by users). One of the limitations inherent in this system is that the communications between server and clients at some point had a dedicated channel and had to flow in and out of a few I/O channels. These transaction-oriented databases were designed to accommodate more users by leveraging more CPUs and shared-memory SMP servers that move a large number of small, 8K data blocks from storage. That was 20 years ago, and since then, several physical topographies and computing models have been developed. DBases have kept pace taking advantage of them, mainly by including new internal mechanisms that allow a database to be adapted to or optimized for one of those environments.

On one level, these new physical blueprints can be divided into the “shared-everything” and the “shared-nothing” models. In a shared-everything model, the components operate as though they comprise a single machine. Because they contend for the same resources, work is not truly done in parallel. In the shared-nothing model, the components work independently even if they are part of a single machine and can process in parallel. Both offer ways to fully leverage all the computing resources available within an architecture, but with very different implications. In the shared-everything camp are SMP and clusters. Shared-nothing models are MPP and grid.

The following sections will review each model, point out advantages and disadvantages, and most important, describe which workloads each best supports.

II. DESCRIPTION OF THE MODELS

2.1 SMP

Symmetric multi-processing (SMP) systems are comprised of two or more CPUs working in a shared-everything environment. They primarily address the additional computing cycles that are required to process an increasing number of transactions. To build out an SMP system to support a data warehouse, one typically adds storage (either NAS or SAN) to accommodate data volumes. The system architect must balance processing capacity and storage resources to ensure acceptable performance. In an environment of fast or unpredictable data growth, this is an extremely challenging and involves constant tuning. Unfortunately, hardware tuning is usually not enough to keep a data warehouse operating smoothly; the database usually requires careful design and some kind of optimization. While SMP scales on the computing side of the data warehouse infrastructure and SAN/NAS scales on the storage side, the system as a whole has significant scalability limits. Because the processing capabilities are separated from the actual data by a network, data is always being shuttled around the network.

Within an SMP architecture, all data blocks must be sent to the database shared memory can be enhanced to provide more bandwidth and speed, but only at great expense and within uneven performance. More important, even though a network can be built out to support data ware house traffic, other applications that rely on the network are affected to some extent when terabytes of data are moving through it.

2.1.2 Cluster Model

Clusters are groups of SMP servers that are unified into a single computing environment. Cluster are shared- everything environment that supports close coordination’s of processing, but just as in SMP, they do complete for resource and can step on each other.

At the risk of over simplifying the dynamics of innovation, the shortcomings of SMP in certain applications led to clusters. Clusters do provide the additional resources to keep pace with heavier processing loads. In an SMP environment, one can scale storage easily, and network throughout can be increased to a certain extent. Clustering allowed scaling of the database server by making available more CPUs, memory, and I/O cycles. Allocating more resources to a task does not necessarily speeds its completion.
2.1.3 MPP
SMP and cluster architecture use a shared – everything model, which shields applications from some of the inherent complexity. At the same time, shared everything can result in significant resource contention that can’t be resolved by installing more hardware. The nature of data warehousing involves working with massive amounts of data, which can strain any resource pool. Massively parallel processing (MPP) architecture was developed to address this need to combine resources while simultaneously dividing the work as efficiently as possible. Data warehouse appliance vendors have all gravitated to this architecture as the most efficient Model for Supporting large databases.

Many of the hardware components found in MPP architecture-balanced CPU and disk capacity as well as system interconnect mechanism. The significant difference is that the work is divided across these resources in a very different manner. The work is always delegated it to CPU associated with a particular data range. In a data warehouses appliance, where Cup’s are physically located next to the disk, the association is straightforward. Once the work is allocated, the CPU, memory, I/O resources work exclusively on its result. Only the results are then sent through the interconnect and combined with other results before being sent over the network to the client. The coordination of the independently functioning components occurs via the system interconnect and software modules sitting on each of the subsystems to provide even more sophisticated orchestration of work than cluster offer.

MPP ensures equilibrium between disk capacity and processing power, just as cluster do. However, MPP also eliminates the last bottleneck- network bandwidth. First, because the MPP architecture creates a virtual subsystem, none of its internal subsystem, none of its internal communications consumes bandwidth on the remainder of the LAN or Wan. Second, MPP does not involve shifting massive volumes of data in order to process it. It does not fetch multi terabytes of data from a storage farm.

2.1.4 GRID
There are many ways to define a grid. The ambiguity and confusion around what a grid is and how it’s supposed to functions are probably signs of how early grids are in their development.

A generally accepted definition of a grid is a large, heterogeneous collection of geographically dispersed computers whose resources are shared over a network to create a supercomputer. Of one computer in the grid fails, the grid software simply reassigns its job to another computer in the grid. Failed computers in a grid are repaired or replaced whenever it is convenient, as no single computer has a significant impact on the grid. Computations-intensive applications that draw on otherwise unused processing capacity. Using this definition, examples of grid are Google, IBM blue Gene, and Livermore Lab’s infrastructure. The power of grid computing is evident- blue Gene topped the list of the world’s fastest computes for a third year in January 208 by performing 478.2 trillion calculations per second. Here the figure takes components that support other applications and shows how they would translate into a data warehouse infrastructure grid. Here the system inter connect is the outstanding difference from the previous model diagrams. In a grid, the system interconnect is a general-purpose WAN/ INTERNET connection to which the participants have no specialized connection mechanism. In other words, the connection that combine the member components into a single system are not physical. They a re virtual- that is, invoked through software. Another difference in the diagram is that the members are constructed on different architectures, use incompatible hardware, and run different operating system.

Adjusting DB internals to manage BI workloads:
Even if there were a perfect physical architecture for data warehousing, chances are it would still not be perfectly suited to how your organization uses its data warehouse. There will always be a gap between the capabilities of the physical architecture and the requirement of the data warehouse. Typically we find architecture and optimizations pairings:
Partitioning with SMP( and clusters)
Data distribution with MPP

2.2 Partitioning and Data Distribution
Partitioning: Partitioning was developed in response to data
Grid Diagram

Node 1: Boston/Linux
- CPU
- Network interface card
- Memory
- Disk controller
- Disk

Node 2: Boston/2 CPU Linux server
- CPU
- Network interface card
- Memory
- Disk controller
- Disk

Node 3: Seattle/Windows server
- CPU
- Network interface card
- Memory
- Disk controller
- Disk

Node 4: Denver/8 CPU SMP Unix
- CPU
- Network interface card
- Memory
- Disk controller
- Disk

sets that were too large for DBMS to manage. One technique for handling large amounts of data is to split it up into a collection of manageable parts. Partitioning first allows you to isolate data to a subset to avoid scanning large amounts of irreverent data. Then the database parallelism can out perform standard indexing.

Another benefit of partitioning is the ability to manage data subsets by time. The most common partition key specified in a data warehouse is data range. A database partition, and its locally managed index, can be loaded into data warehouse without interfering with other partitions. The result is parallel operations, with the associated performance and flexibility benefits.

Data distribution: Data distribution is at the foundation of MPP.SMP strives to isolate data with portioning to gain performance; the MPP environment strives to spread the data evenly across all processing nodes to optimize parallel database operations, including data loads.

To ensure that an MPP architecture support the type of work your data warehouse performs, you must consider whether you are served better by distributing data evenly across disks or distributing data according to access patterns or table sizes, especially as the data warehouse transitions from one type of primary workload to another. Trade offs are part of the decision-making process. Will you select a distribution key that offers the best performance for a percentage of your BI workload or you select a distribution method that offers the highest overall average for a mixed BI work load.

III. CONCLUSION

There is much physical architecture available today's data warehouses evolved to address problems arising from limited CPU or disk resources. Their emphasis on different aspects of the architecture can have a significant impact on how a data warehouse performs. Under a set of conditions change, the data warehouse performs well. When conditions change, the data warehouse performs well. When conditions change, the data warehouses may not perform the same level.

The key building the best infrastructure for your data warehouse is to match your organization's access needs with the most suitable physical architecture. It sounds simple. The challenge is that your data warehouse problem needs to execute most, if not all, BI workloads pace with business dynamics, more sophisticated users, and technology innovation.

IV. REFERENCES

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