

An Overview of a Scalable Distributed Database System SD-SQL Server

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Abstract. We present a scalable distributed database system called SD-SQL Server. Its original feature is dynamic and transparent repartitioning of growing tables, avoiding the cumbersome manual repartitioning that characterize current technology. SD-SQL Server re-partitions a table when an insert overflows existing segments. With the comfort of a single node SQL Server user, the SD-SQL Server user has larger tables or gets a faster response time through the dynamic parallelism. We present the architecture of our system, its implementation and the performance analysis. We show that the overhead of our scalable table management should be typically negligible.

1. Introduction

Databases (DBs) are now often huge and grow fast. Large tables are typically hash or range partitioned into segments stored at different storage sites. Current Data Base Management Systems (DBMSs) such as SQL Server, Oracle or DB2, provide only static partitioning [1,5,11]. Growing tables have to overflow their storage space after some time. The database administrator (DBA) has then to manually redistribute the database. This operation is cumbersome, users need a more automatic solution, [1].

This situation is similar to that for file users forty years ago in the centralized environment. Efficient management of distributed data presents specific needs. Scalable Distributed Data Structures (SDDSs) address these needs for files, [6,7]. An SDDS scales transparently for an application through distributed splits of its buckets, whether hash, range or k-d based. In [7], we derived the concept of a Scalable Distributed DBS (SD-DBS) for databases. The SD-DBS architecture supports *scalable (distributed relational) tables*. As an SDDS, a scalable table accommodates its growth through the splits of its overflowing segments, located at SD-DBS *storage* nodes. Also

like in an SDDS, we can use hashing, range partitioning, or k-d-trees. The storage nodes can be P2P or grid DBMS nodes. The users or the application, manipulate the scalable tables from a *client* node that is not a storage node, or from a *peer* node that is both, again as in an SDDS. The client accesses a scalable table only through its specific view, called the (*client*) *image*. It is a particular updateable distributed partitioned union view stored at a client. The application manipulates scalable tables using images directly, or their *scalable* views. These views involve scalable tables through the references to the images.

Every image, one per client, hides the partitioning of the scalable table and dynamically adjusts to its evolution. The images of the same scalable table may differ among the clients and from the actual partitioning. The image adjustment is lazy. It occurs only when a query to the scalable table finds an outdated image. To prove the feasibility of an SD-DBS, we have built a prototype called SD-SQL Server. The system generalizes the basic SQL Server capabilities to the scalable tables. It runs on a collection of SQL Server linked nodes. For every standard SQL command under SQL Server, there is an SD-SQL Server command for a similar action on scalable tables or views. There are also commands specific to SD-SQL Server client image or node management.

Below we present the architecture and the implementation of our prototype as it stands in its 2005 version. Related papers [14, 15] discuss the user interface. Scalable table processing creates an overhead and our design challenge was to minimize it. The performance analysis proved this overhead negligible for practical purpose. The present capabilities of SQL Server allow a scalable table to reach 250 segments at least. This should suffice for scalable tables reaching very many terabytes. SD-SQL Server is the first system with the discussed capabilities, to the best of our knowledge. Our results pave the way towards the use of the scalable tables as the basic DBMS technology.

Below, Section 2 presents the SD-SQL Server architecture. Section 3 recalls the basics of the user interface. Section 4 discusses our implementation. Section 5 shows experimental performance analysis. Section 6 discusses the related work. Section 7 concludes the presentation.

1. 2. SD-SQL Server Architecture

Fig 1 Fig 1

Fig 1 shows the current SD-SQL Server architecture, adapted from the reference architecture for an SD-DBS in [8]. The system is a collection of SD-SQL Server nodes. An *SD-SQL Server node* is a linked SQL Server node that in addition is declared as an SD-SQL Server node. This declaration is made as an SD-SQL Server command or is part of a dedicated SQL Server script run on the first node of the collection. We call the first node the *primary node*. The primary node registers all other current SD-SQL nodes. We can add or remove these dynamically, using specific SD-SQL Server commands. The primary node registers the nodes on itself, in a specific SD-SQL Server database called the *meta-database* (MDB). An *SD-SQL Server database* is an SQL

Server database that contains an instance of SD-SQL Server specific *manager* component. A node may carry several SD-SQL Server databases.

We call an SD-SQL Server database in short a *node database* (NDB). NDBs at different nodes may share a (proper) database name. Such nodes form an SD-SQL Server *scalable (distributed) database* (SDB). The common name is the *SDB name*. One of NDBs in an SDB is *primary*. It carries the meta-data registering the current NDBs, their nodes at least. SD-SQL Server provides the commands for scaling up or down an SDB, by adding or dropping NDBs. For an SDB, a node without its NDB is (an SD-SQL Server) *spare* (node). A spare for an SDB may already carry an NDB of another SDB. Fig 1

Fig 1 shows an SDB, but does not show spares.

Each manager takes care of the SD-SQL Server specific operations, the user/application command interface especially. The procedures constituting the manager of an NDB are themselves kept in the NDB. They apply internally various SQL Server commands. The SQL Servers at each node entirely handle the inter-node communication and the distributed execution of SQL queries. In this sense, each SD-SQL Server runs at the top of its linked SQL Server, without any specific internal changes of the latter.

An SD-SQL Server NDB is a *client*, a *server*, or a *peer*. The client manages the SD-SQL Server node user/application interface only. This consists of the SD-SQL Server specific commands and from the SQL Server commands. As for the SQL Server, the SD-SQL specific commands address the schema management or let to issue the queries to scalable tables. Such a *scalable* query may invoke a scalable table through its image name, or indirectly through a scalable view of its image, involving also, perhaps, some *static* tables, i.e., SQL Server only.

Internally, each client stores the images, the local views and perhaps *static* tables. These are tables created using the SQL Server *CREATE TABLE* command (only). It also contains some SD-SQL Server meta-tables constituting the catalog **C** at Fig 1. The catalog registers the client images, i.e., the images created at the client.

When a scalable query comes in, the client checks whether it actually involves a scalable table. If so, the query must address the local image of the table. It can do it directly through the image name, or through a scalable view. The client searches therefore for the images that the query invokes. For every image, it checks whether it conforms to the actual partitioning of its table, i.e., unions all the existing segments. We recall that a client view may be outdated. The client uses **C**, as well as some server meta-tables pointed to by **C** that define the actual partitioning. The manager dynamically adjusts any outdated image. In particular, it changes internally the scheme of the underlying SQL Server partitioned and distributed view, representing the image to the SQL Server. The manager executes the query, when all the images it uses prove up to date.

A *server* NDB stores the segments of scalable tables. Every segment at a server belongs to a different table. At each server, a segment is internally an SQL Server table with specific properties. First, SD-SQL Server refers to in the specific catalogue in each server NDB, called **S** in the figure. The meta-data in **S** identify the scalable table each

segment belongs to. They indicate also the segment size. Next, they indicate the servers in the SDB that remain available for the segments created by the splits at the server NDB. Finally, for a *primary* segment, i.e., the first segment created for a scalable table, the meta-data at its server provide the actual partitioning of the table.

Next, each segment has an *AFTER* trigger attached, not shown in the figure. It verifies after each insert whether the segment overflows. If so, the server splits the segment, by range partitioning it with respect to the table (partition) key. It moves out enough upper tuples so that the remaining (lower) tuples fit the size of the splitting segment. For the migrating tuples, the server creates remotely one or more new segments that are each half-full (notice the difference to a B-tree split creating a single new segment). Furthermore, every segment in a multi-segment scalable table carries an SQL Server *check constraint*. Each constraint defines the partition (primary) key range of the segment. The ranges partition the key space of the table. These conditions let the SQL Server distributed partitioned view to be updateable, by the inserts and deletions in particular. This is a necessary and sufficient condition for a scalable table under SD-SQL Server to be updateable as well.

Finally a *peer* NDB is both a client and a server NDB. Its node DB carries all the SD-SQL Server meta-tables. It may carry both the client images and the segments. The meta-tables at a peer node form logically the catalog termed **P** at the figure. This one is operationally, the union of **C** and **S** catalogs.

Every SD-SQL Server node is *client*, *server* or *peer* node. The peer accepts every type of NDB. The client nodes only carry client NDBs & server nodes accept server NDBs only. Only a server or peer node can be the primary one or may carry a primary NDB. To illustrate the architecture, Fig 1 Fig 1

Fig 1 shows the NDBs of some SDB, on nodes $D1..Di+1$. The NDB at $D1$ is a client NDB that thus carries only the images and views, especially the scalable ones. This node could be the primary one, provided it is a peer. It interfaces the applications. The NDBs on all the other nodes until Di are server NDBs. They carry only the segments and do not interface (directly) any applications. The NDB at $D2$ could be here the primary NDB. Nodes $D2...Di$ could be peers or (only) servers. Finally, the NDB at $Di+1$ is a peer, providing all the capabilities. Its node has to be a peer node.

The NDBs carry a scalable table termed T . The table has a scalable index I . We suppose that $D1$ carries the *primary* image of T , named T at the figure. This image name is also as the SQL Server view name implementing the image in the NDB. SD-SQL Server creates the primary image at the node requesting the creation of a scalable table, while creating the table. Here, the primary segment of table T is supposed at $D2$. Initially, the primary image included only this segment. It has evolved since, following the expansion of the table at new nodes, and now is the distributed partitioned union-all view of T segments at servers $D2...Di$. We symbolize this image with the dotted line running from image T till the segment at Di . Peer $Di+1$ carries a *secondary* image of table T . Such an image interfaces the application using T on a node other than the table creation one. This image, named $D1_T$, for reasons we discuss below, differs from the primary image. It only includes the primary segment. We symbolize it with the dotted line towards $D2$ only. Both images are outdated. Indeed, server Di just split its segment and created a new segment of T on $Di+1$. The arrow at Di and that towards $Di+1$

represent this split. As the result of the split, server D_i updated the meta-data on the actual partitioning of T at server D_2 (the dotted arrow from D_i to D_2). The split has also created the new segment of the scalable index I . None of the two images refers as yet to the new segment. Each will be actualized only once it gets a scalable query to T . At the figure, they are getting such queries, issued using respectively the SD-SQL Server *sd_select* and *sd_insert* commands. We discuss the SD-SQL Server command interface in the next sections.

Notice finally that in the figure that the segments of T are all named $_DI_T$. This represents the couple (creator node, table name). It is the proper name of the segment as an SQL Server table in its NDB. Similarly for the secondary image name, except for the initial ‘ $_$ ’. The image name is the local SQL Server view name. We explain these naming rules in Section 4.14.1.

Fig 1 SD-SQL Server Architecture

3. Command Interface

3.1 Overview

The application manipulates SD-SQL Server objects essentially through new SD-SQL Server dedicated commands. Some commands address the node management, including the management of SDBs, NDBs. Other commands manipulate the scalable tables. These commands perform the usual SQL schema manipulations and queries that can however now involve scalable tables (through the images) or (scalable) views of the scalable tables. We call the SD-SQL Server commands scalable. A scalable command may include additional parameters specific to the scalable environment, with respect to its static (SQL Server) counterpart. Most of scalable commands apply also to static tables and views. The application using SD-SQL Server may alternatively directly invoke a static command. Such calls are transparent to SD-SQL Server managers.

Details of all the SD-SQL Server commands are in [14, 15]. The rule for an SD-SQL Server command performing an SQL operation is to use the SQL command name (verb) prefixed with ‘*sd_*’ and with all the blanks replaced with ‘ $_$ ’. Thus, e.g., SQL *SELECT* became SD-SQL *sd_select*, while SQL *CREATE TABLE* became *sd_create_table*. The standard SQL clauses, with perhaps additional parameters follow the verb, specified as usual for SQL. The whole specification is however within additional quotes ‘ $_$ ’. The rationale is that SD-SQL Server commands are implemented as SQL Server stored procedures. The clauses pass to SQL Server as the parameters of a stored procedure and the quotes around the parameter list are mandatory.

The operational capabilities of SD-SQL Server should suffice for many applications. The *SELECT* statement in a scalable query supports the SQL Server allowed selections, restrictions, joins, sub-queries, aggregations, aliases...etc. It also allows for the *INTO* clause that can create a scalable table. However, the queries to the scalable multi-database views are not possible at present. The reasons are the limitation of the SQL Server meta-tables that SD-SQL Server uses for the parsing. Moreover, the *sd_insert* command over a scalable table lets for any insert accepted by SQL Server for a distributed partitioned view. This can be a new tuple insert, as well as a multi-tuple insert through a *SELECT* expression, including the *INTO* clause. The *sd_update* and *sd_delete* commands offer similar capabilities. In contrast, some of SQL Server specific SQL clauses are not supported at present by the scalable commands; for instance, the *CASE OF* clause.

We recall the SD-SQL Server command interface by the motivating example, modelled upon our benchmark application that is SkyServer DB, [2].

3.2 Motivating Example

A script file creates the first ever (primary) SD-SQL Server (scalable) node at a collection of linked SQL Server nodes. We can create the primary node as a peer or a server, but not as a client. After that, we can create additional nodes using the *sd_create_node* command. Here, the script has created the primary SD-SQL Server node at SQL Server linked node at our *Dell1* machine. We could set up this node as server or peer, we made the latter choice. The following commands issued at *Dell1* create then further nodes, alter *Dell3* type to peer, and finally create our *SkyServer* SDB at *Dell1*:

```
sd_create_node 'Dell2'          /* Server by default */ ;

sd_create_node 'Dell3, 'client' ;

sd_create_node 'Ceria1','peer'

sd_alter_node 'Dell3', 'ADD server' ;

sd_create_scalable_database 'SkyServer, 'Dell1'
```

Our SDB has now one NDB termed *SkyServer*. This NDB is the primary one of the SDB and is a server NDB. To query , *SkyServer* one needs at least one client or peer NDB. We therefore append a client NDB at *Dell3* client node:

```
sd_create_node_database 'SkyServer', 'Dell3', 'client'
```

From now on, *Dell3* user opens *Skyserver* SDB through the usual SQL Server USE *Skyserver* command (which actually opens *Dell3.Skyserver* NDB). The *Skyserver* users are now furthermore able to create scalable tables. The *Dell3* user starts with a *PhotoObj* table modelled on the static table with the same name, [2]. The user wishes the segment capacity of 10000 tuples. S/he chooses this parameter for the efficient distributed query processing. S/he also wishes the *objid* key attribute to be the partition

key. In SD-SQL Server, a partition key of a scalable table has to be a single key attribute. The requirement comes from SQL Server, where it has to be the case of a table, or tables, behind a distributed partitioned updatable view. The key attribute of *PhotoObj* is its *objid* attribute. The user issues the command:

```
sd_create_table 'PhotoObj (objid BIGINT PRIMARY KEY...)', 10000
```

We did not provide the complete syntax, using ‘...’ to denote the rest of the scheme beyond the key attribute. The *objid* attribute is the partition key implicitly, since it is here the only key attribute. The user creates furthermore a scalable table *Neighbors*, modelled upon the similar one in the static *Skyserver*. That table has three key attributes. The *objid* is one of them and is the foreign key of *PhotoObj*. For this reason, the user wishes it to be the partition key. The segment capacity should now be 500 tuples. Accordingly, the user issues the command:

```
sd_create_table 'Neighbors (htmid BIGINT, objid BIGINT, Neighborobjid  
BIGINT) ON PRIMARY KEY...)', 500, 'objid'
```

The user indicated the partition key. The implicit choice would go indeed to *htmid*, as the first one in the list of key attributes. The *Dell3* user decides furthermore to add attribute *t* to *PhotoObj* and prefer a smaller segment size:

```
sd_alter_table 'PhotoObj ADD t INT, 1000
```

Next the user decides to create a scalable index on *run* attribute:

```
sd_create_index 'run_index ON Photoobj (run)'
```

Splits of *PhotoObj* will propagate *run_index* to any new segment.

The *PhotoObj* creation command created the primary image at *Dell3*. The *Dell3* user creates now the secondary image of *PhotoObj* at *Cerial* node for the *SkyServer* user there::

```
sd_create_image 'Cerial?', 'PhotoObj'
```

The image internal name is *SD.Dell3_Photoobj*, as we discuss in Section 4.14.1 and [15]. The *Cerial* user who wishes a different local name such as *PhotoObj* uses the SQL Server *CREATE VIEW* command. Once the *Cerial* user does not need its image anymore, s/he may remove it through the command:

```
sd_drop_image 'SD.Dell3_Photoobj'
```

Assuming that the image was not dropped however yet, our *Dell3* user may open *Skyserver* SDB and query *PhotoObj*:

```
USE Skyserver /* SQL Server command */
```

```
sd_insert 'INTO PhotoObj SELECT * FROM Cerial5.Skyserver-S.PhotoObj
```

```
sd_select '* FROM PhotoObj';
```

```
sd_select 'TOP 500 * INTO PhotoObj1 FROM PhotoObj', 500
```

The first query loads into our *PhotoObj* scalable table tuples from some other

PhotoObj table or view created in some *Skyserver* DB at node *Ceria5*. This DB could be a static, i.e., SQL Server only, DB. It could alternatively be an NDB of “our” *Skyserver* DB. The second query creates scalable table *PhotoObj1* with segment size of 500 and copies there 5000 tuples from *PhotoObj*, having the smallest values of *objid*. See [15] for examples of other scalable commands.

4. Command Processing

We now present the basics of SD_SQL Server command processing. We start with the naming rules and the meta-tables. Next, we discuss the scalable table evolution. We follow up with the image processing. For more on the command processing see [14].

4.1 Naming rules

SD-SQL Server has its own system objects for the scalable table management. These are the node DBs, the meta-tables, the stored procedures, the table and index segments and the images. All the system objects are implemented as SQL Server objects. To avoid the name conflicts, especially between the SQL Server names created by an SD-SQL Server application, there are the following naming rules, partly illustrated

at

Fig 1

Fig 1

Fig 1. .

Each NDB has a dedicated user account ‘SD’ for SD-SQL Server itself.

The application name of a table, of a database, of a view or of a stored procedure, created at an SD-SQL Server node as public (*dbo*) objects, should not be the name of an SD-SQL Server command. These are SD-SQL server keywords, reserved for its commands (in addition to the same rule already enforced by SQL Server for its own SQL commands). The technical rationale is that SD-SQL Server commands are public stored procedures under the same names. An SQL Server may call them from any user account.

A scalable table *T* at a NDB is a public object, i.e., its SQL Server name is *dbo.T*. It is thus unique regardless of the user that has created it. In other words, two different SQL Server users of a NDB cannot create each a scalable table with the proper name *T*. They can still do it for the static tables of course. Besides, two SD-SQL Server users at different nodes may each create a scalable table with the proper name *T*.

A segment of scalable table created with proper name *T*, at SQL Server node *N*, bears for any SQL Server the table name *SD.N.T* within its SD-SQL Server node (its NDB more specifically, we recall). We recall that SD-SQL Server locates every segment of a scalable table at a different node.

A primary image of a scalable table *T* bears the proper name *T*. Its global name

within the node is *dbo.T*. This is also the proper name of the SQL Server distributed partitioned view implementing the primary view.

Any secondary image of scalable table created by the application with proper name *T*, within the table names at client or peer node *N*, bears the global name at its node *SD.N.T*. In Fig 1, e.g., the proper name of secondary image denoted *T* (2) would actually be *DI.T*.

We recall that since SD-SQL Server commands are public stored procedures, SQL Server automatically prefixes all the proper names of SD-SQL public objects with *dbo.* in every NDB, to prevent a name conflict with any other owner within NDB. The rules avoid name conflicts between the SD-SQL Server private application objects and SD-SQL system objects, as well as between SD-SQL Server system objects themselves. See [14] for more examples of the naming rules.

4.2 Meta-tables

These tables constitute internally SQL Server tables searched and updated using the stored procedures with SQL queries detailed in [8]. All the meta-tables are under the user name *SD*, i.e., are prefixed within their NDB with '*SD.*'.

The *S*-catalog exists at each server and contains the following tables.

- *SD.RP* (*SgmNd, CreatNd, Table*). This table at node *N* defines the scalable distributed partitioning of every table *Table* originating within its NDB, let it be *D*, at some server *CreatNd*, and having its primary segment located at *N*. Tuple (*SgmNd, CreatNd, Table*) enters *N.D.SD.RP* each time *Table* gets a new segment at some node *SgmNd*. For example, tuple (*Dell5, Dell1, PhotoObj*) in *Dell2.D.SD.RP* means that scalable table *PhotoObj* was created in *Dell1.D*, had its primary segment at *Dell2.D*, and later got a new segment *_Dell1_PhotoObj* in *Dell5.D*. We recall that a segment proper name starts with '*_*', being formed as in Fig 1

Fig 1.

- *SD.Size* (*CreatNd, Table, Size*). This table fixes for each segment in some NDB at SQL Server node *N* the maximal size (in tuples) allowed for the segment. For instance, tuple (*Dell1, PhotoObj, 1000*) in *Dell5.DB1.SD.Size* means that the maximal size of the *Dell5* segment of *PhotoObj* scalable table initially created in *Dell1.DB1* is 1000. We recall that at present all the segment of a scalable table have the same size have the same sizes.

- *SD.Primary* (*PrimNd, CreatNd, Table*). A tuple means here that the primary segment of table *T* created at client or peer *CreatNd* is at node *PrimNd*. The tuple points consequently to *SD.RP* with the actual partitioning of *T*. A tuple enters *N.SD.Primary* when a node performs a table creation or split and the new segment lands at *N*. For example, tuple (*Dell2, Dell1, PhotoObj*) in *SD.Primary* at node *Dell5* means that there is a segment *_Dell1_PhotoObj* resulting from the split of *PhotoObj* table, created at *Dell1* and with the primary segment at *Dell2*.

The *C*-catalog has two tables:

- Table *SD.Image* (*Name, Type, PrimNd, Size*) registers all the local images. Tuple (*I, T*,

P, S) means that, at the node, there is some image with the (proper) name I, primary if T = .true, of a table using P as the primary node that the client sees as having S segments. For example, tuple (*PhotoObj*, *true*, *Dell2*, 2) in *Dell1.SD.C-Image* means that there is a primary image *dbo.PhotoObj* at *Dell1* whose table seems to contain two segments. SD-SQL Server explores this table during the scalable query processing. Table *SD.Server (Node)* provides the server (peer) node(s) at the client disposal for the location of the primary segment of a table to create. The table contains basically only one tuple. It may contain more, e.g., for the fault tolerance or load balancing. Finally, the *P*-catalogue, at a peer, is simply the union of *C*-catalog and *S*-catalog. In addition, each NDB has two tables:

- *SD.SDBNode (Node)*. This table points towards the primary NDB of the SDB. It could indicate more nodes, replicating the SDB metadata for fault-tolerance or load balancing.

- *SD.MDBNode (Node)*. This table points towards the primary node. It could indicate more nodes, replicating the MDB for the fault-tolerance or load balancing.

There are also meta-tables for the SD-SQL Server node management and SDB management. These are the tables:

- *SD.Nodes (Node, Type)*. This table is in the MDB. Each tuple registers an SD-SQL Server node currently forming the SD-SQL configuration. We recall that every SD-SQL Server node is an SQL Server linked server declared SD-SQL Server node by the initial script or the *sd_create_node* command. The values of *Type* are '*peer*', '*server*' or '*client*'.

- *SD.SDB (SDB_Name, Node, NDBType)*. This table is also in the MDB. Each tuple registers an SDB. For instance, tuple (*DB1*, *Dell5*, *Peer*) means that there is an SDB named *DB1*, with the primary NDB at *Dell5*, created by the command *sd_create_scalable_database 'DB1', 'Dell5', 'peer'*.

- *SD.NDB (Node, NDBType)*. This meta-table is at each primary NDB. It registers all the NDBs currently composing the SDB. The *NDBType* indicates whether the NDB is a peer, server or client.

4.3 Scalable Table Evolution

A scalable table *T* grows by getting new segments, and shrinks by dropping some. The dynamic *splitting* of overflowing segments performs the former. The *merge* of under-loaded segments may perform the latter. There seems to be little practical interest for merges, just as implementations of B-tree merges are rare. We did not consider them for the current prototype. We only present the splitting now. The operation aims at several goals. We first enumerate them, then we discuss the processing:

1. The split aims at removing the overflow from the splitting segment by migrating some of its tuples into one or several new segment(s). The segment should possibly stay at least half full. The new segments should end up half full. The overall result is then at least the typical "good" load factor of 69 %.
2. Splitting should not delay the commit of the insert triggering it. The insert could timeout otherwise. Through the performance measures in Section 55, we expect the split to be often much longer than a insert.

3. The allocation of nodes to the new segments aims at the random node load balancing among the clients and /or peers. However, the splitting algorithm also allocates the same nodes to the successive segments of different scalable tables of the same client. The policy aims at faster query execution, as the queries tend to address the tables of the same client.

4. The concurrent execution of the split and of the scalable queries should be serializable. A concurrent scalable query to the tuples in an overflowing segment, should either access them before any migrate, or only when the split is over.

We now show how SD-SQL Server achieves these goals. The creation of a new segment for a scalable table T occurs when an insert overflows the capacity of one of its segments, declared in local $SD.Size$ for T . At present, all the segments of a scalable table have the same capacity, denoted b below, and defined in the sd_create_table command. The overflow may consist of arbitrarily many tuples, brought by a single sd_insert command with the $SELECT$ expression (unlike in a record-at-the-time operations, e.g., as in a B-tree). A single sd_insert may further overflow several segments. More precisely, we may distinguish the cases of a (*single segment*) *tuple insert* split, of a *single segment bulk insert* split and of a *multi-segment (insert)* split. The bulk inserts correspond to the sd_insert with the $SELECT$ expression.

In every sd_insert case, the *AFTER* trigger at every segment getting tuples tests for overflow, [8]. The positive result leads to the split of the segment, according to the following *segment partitioning scheme*. We first discuss the basic case of the partition key attribute being the (single-attribute) primary key. We show next the case of the multi-attribute key, where the partition key may thus present duplicates. We recall that the partition key under SQL Server must be a (single) key attribute. In every case, the scheme adds $N - 1$ segments to the table, with N as follows.

Let P be the (overflowing) set of all the tuples in one of, or the only, overflowing segment of T , ordered in ascending order by the partition key. Each server aims at cutting its P , starting from the high-end, into successive portions $P_1 \dots P_N$ consisting each of $INT(b/2)$ tuples. Each portion goes to a different server to become a possibly half-full new segment of T . The number N is the minimal one leaving at most b tuples in the splitting segment. To fulfil goal (1) above, we thus always have $N = 1$ for a tuple insert, and the usual even partitioning (for the partition key without duplicates). A single segment bulk insert basically leads to $N - 1$ half-full new segments. The splitting one ends up between half-full and full. We have in both cases:

$$N = (\text{Card}(P) - b) / \text{INT}(b/2)$$

The same scheme applies to every splitting segment for a multiple bucket insert. If the partition key presents the duplicates, the result of the calculus may differ a little in practice, but arbitrarily in theory. The calculus of each P_i incorporates into it all the duplicates of the lowest key value, if there is any. The new segment may start more than half-full accordingly, even overflowing in an unlikely bad case. The presence of duplicates may in this way decrease N . It may theoretically even happen that all the partition key values amount to a single duplicate. We test this situation in which case no migration occurs. The split waits till different key values come in. The whole

duplicate management is potentially subject of future work optimizing the P_i calculus.

The *AFTER* trigger only tests for overflow, to respond to goal (2). If necessary, it launches the actual splitting process as an asynchronous job called *splitter* (for performance reasons, see above). The splitter gets the segment name as the input parameter. To create the new segment(s) with their respective portions, the splitter acts as follows. It starts as a distributed transaction at the repeatable read isolation level. SQL Server uses then the shared and exclusive tuple locks according to the basic 2PL protocol. The splitter first searches for *PrimNd* of the segment to split in *Primary* meta-table. If it finds the searched tuple, SQL Server puts it under a shared lock. The splitter requests then an exclusive lock on the tuple registering the splitting segment in *RP* of the splitting table that is in the NDB at *PrimNd* node. As we show later, it gets the lock if there are no (more) scalable queries or other commands in progress involving the segment. Otherwise it would encounter at least a shared lock at the tuple. SQL Server would then block the split until the end of the concurrent operation. In unlikely cases, a deadlock may result. The overall interaction suffices to provide the serializability of every command and of a split, [14]. If the splitter does not find the tuple in *Primary*, it terminates. As it will appear, it means that a delete of the table occurred in the meantime.

From now on, there cannot be a query in progress on the splitting segment; neither can another splitter lock it. It should first lock the tuple in *RP*. The splitter safely verifies the segment size. An insert or deletion could change it in the meantime. If the segment does not overflow anymore, the splitter terminates. Next, it determines N as above. It finds b in the local *SD.Size* meta-table. Next, it attempts to find N NDBs without any segment of T as yet. It searches for such nodes through the query to NDB meta-table, requesting every NDB in the SDB which is a server or peer and not yet in *RP* for T . Let M is the number of NDBs found. If $M = N$, then the splitter allocates each new segment to a node. If $M > N$, then it randomly selects the nodes for the new segments. To satisfy goal (3) above, the selection is nevertheless driven, at the base of the randomness generation, by T creation NDB name. Any two tables created by the same client node share the same primary NDB, have their 1st secondary segments at the same (another) server as well etc... One may expect this policy to be usually beneficial for the query processing speed. At the expense however, perhaps of the uniformity of the processing and storage load among the server NDBs.

If $M < N$, it means that the SDB has not enough of NDBs to carry out the split. The splitter attempts then to extend the SDB with new server or peer NDBs. It selects (exclusively) possibly enough nodes in the meta-database which are not yet in the SDB. We recall that the latter data are at the meta-table *Nodes* and *SDB* at primary SDB node. If it does not succeeds the splitting halts with a message to the administrator. Otherwise, it updates the *NDB* meta-table, asks SQL Server to create the new NDBs and allocates these to the remaining new segment(s).

Once done with the allocation phase, the splitter creates the new segments. Each new segment should have the schema of the splitting one, including the proper name, the key and the indexes, except for the values of the *check constraint* as we discuss below. Let S be here the splitting segment, let p be $p = \text{INT}(b/2)$, let c be the key, and

let S_i denote the new segment at node N_i , destined for portion P_i . The creation of the new segments loops for $i = 1 \dots N$ as follows:

It performs the SQL Server query in the form of :

```
SELECT TOP p (*) WITH TIES INTO Ni.Si FROM S ORDER BY c ASC
```

The option “with ties” takes care of the duplicates. The splitter finds the key of S using the SQL Server system tables and alters S_i scheme accordingly. It uses SQL Server system tables `information_schema.Tables` and `information_schema.TABLE_CONSTRAINTS`. The splitter will join these tables on the `TABLE_SCHEMA`, `CONSTRAINT_SCHEMA` and `CONSTRAINT_NAME` columns and then returns the primary key of S . The splitter also determines the indexes on S using the SQL Server stored procedure `sp_helpindex`. It creates the same indexes on S_i using the SQL Server `create index` statements. Finally, it creates the check constraint on S_i as we describe soon. Once all this done, it registers the new segment in the SD-SQL Server meta-tables. It inserts the tuples describing S_i into (i) *Primary* table at the new node, and (ii) *RP* table at the primary node of T . It also inserts the one with the S_i size into *Size* at the new node. As the last step, it deletes from S the copied tuples. It then moves to the processing of next P_i if any remains. Once the loop finishes, the splitter commits which makes SQL Server to release all the locks.

The splitter computes each *check constraint* as follows. We recall that, if defined for segment S , this constraint $C(S)$ defines the low l and/or the high h bounds on any partition key value c that segment may contain. SQL Server needs for updates through a distributed partitioned view, a necessity for SD-SQL Server. Because of our duplicates management, we have: $C(S) = \{ c : l < c < h \}$. Let thus h_i be the highest key values in portion $P_{i > 1}$, perhaps, undefined for P_1 . Let also h_{N+1} be the highest key remaining in the splitting segment. Then the low and high bounds for new segment S_i getting P_i is $l = h_{i+1}$ and $h = h_i$. The splitting segment keeps its l , if it had any, while it gets as new h the value $h' = h_{N+1}$, where $h' < h$. The result makes T always range partitioned.

4.4 Image Processing

4.4.1 Checking & Checking & Adjustment

A scalable query invokes an image of some scalable table, let it be T . The image can be primary or secondary, invoked directly or through a (scalable) view. SD-SQL Server produces from the scalable query, let it be Q , an SQL Server query Q' that it passes for the actual execution. Q' actually addresses the distributed partitioned view defining the image that is `dbo.T`. It should not use an outdated view. Q' would not process the missing segments and Q could return an incorrect result.

Before passing Q' to SQL Server, the client manager first checks the image correctness with respect to the actual partitioning of T . RP table at T primary server let to determine the latter. The manager retrieves from $Image$ the presumed size of T , in the number of segments, let it be S_I . It is the *Size* of the (only) tuple in $Image$ with $Name = 'T'$. The client also retrieves the $PrimNd$ of the tuple. It is the node of the primary NDB of T , unless the command $sd_drop_node_database$ or sd_drop_node had for the effect to displace it elsewhere. In the last case, the client retrieves the $PrimNd$ in the $SD.SDB$ meta-table. We recall that this NDB always has locally the same name as the client NDB. They both share the SDB name, let it be D . Next, the manager issues the multi-database SQL Server query that counts the number of segments of T in $PrimNd.D.SD.RP$. Assuming that SQL Server finds the NDB, let S_A be this count. If $S_A = 0$, then the table was deleted in the meantime. The client terminates the query. Otherwise, it checks whether $S_I = S_A$. If so, the image is correct. Otherwise, the client adjusts the *Size* value to S_A . It also requests the node names of T segments in $PrimNd.D.SD.RP$. Using these names, it forms the segment names as already discussed. Finally, the client replaces the existing $dbo.T$ with the one involving all newly found segments.

The view $dbo.T$ should remain the correct image until the scalable query finishes exploring T . This implies that no split modifies partitioning of T since the client requested the segment node names in $PrimNd.D.SD.RP$, until Q finishes manipulating T . Giving our splitting scheme, this means in practice that no split starts in the meantime the deletion phase on any T segment. To ensure this, the manager requests from SQL Server to process every Q as a distributed transaction at the repeatable read isolation level. We recall that the splitter uses the same level. The counting in $PrimNd.D.SD.RP$ during Q processing generates then a shared lock at each selected tuple. Any split of T in progress has to request an exclusive lock on some such tuple, registering the splitting segment. According to its 2PL protocol, SQL Server would then block any T split until Q terminates. Vice versa, Q in progress would not finish, or perhaps even start the S_A count and the T segment names retrieval until any split in progress ends. Q will take then the newly added T segments into account as well. In both cases, the query and split executions remain serializable.

Finally, we use a *lazy schema validation* option for our linked SQL Servers, [1, 10]. When starting Q' , SQL Server drops then the preventive checking of the schema of any remote table referred to in a partitioned view. The run-time performance obviously must improve, especially for a view referring to many tables [9]. The potential drawback is a run-time error generated by a discrepancy between the compiled query based on the view, $dbo.T$ in our case, and some alterations of schema T by SD-SQL Server user since, requiring Q recompilation on the fly.

Example. Consider query Q to *SkyServer* peer NDB at the *Cerial*:

```
sd_select '* from PhotoObj'
```

Suppose that *PhotoObj* is here a scalable table created locally, and with the local primary segment, as typically for a scalable table created at a peer. Hence, Q' should

address *dbo.PhotoObj* view and is here:

```
SELECT * FROM dbo.PhotoObj
```

Consider that *Cerial* manager processing Q finds $Size = 1$ in the tuple with of $Name = 'PhotoObj'$ retrieved from its *Image* table. The client finds also *Cerial* in the *PrimeNd* of the tuple. Suppose further that *PhotoObj* has in fact also two secondary segments at *Dell1* and *Dell2*. The counting of the tuples with $Table = 'PhotoObj'$ and $CreatNd = 'Cerial'$ in *Cerial.SkyServer.SD.RP* reports then $S_A = 3$. Once SQL Server retrieves the count, it would put on hold any attempt to change T partitioning till Q ends. The image of *PhotoObj* in *dbo.PhotoObj* turns out thus not correct. The manager should update it. It thus retrieves from *Cerial.SkyServer.SD.RP* the *SgmNd* values in the previously counted tuples. It gets $\{Dell1, Dell2, Cerial\}$. It generates the actual segment names as $'_Dell1_PhotoObj'$ etc. It recreates *dbo.PhotoObj* view and updates $Size$ to 3 in the manipulated tuple in its *Image* table. It may now safely pass Q to SQL Server.

4.4.2 Binding

A *scalable* query consists of a query command to an SD-SQL Server client (peer) followed by a (scalable) *query expression*. We recall that these commands are *sd_select*, *sd_insert*, *sd_update* and *sd_delete*. Every scalable query, unlike a static one, starts with an *image binding* phase that determines every image on which a table or a view name in a query depends. The client verifies every image before it passes to SQL Server any query to the scalable table behind the image. We now present the processing of scalable queries under SD-SQL Server. We only discuss image binding and refer to more documentation for each command to [14].

The client (manager) parses every *FROM* clause in the query expression, including every sub-query, for the table or view names it contains. The table name can be that of a scalable one, but then is that of its primary image. It may also be that of a secondary image. Finally, it can be that of a static (base) table. A view name may be that of a scalable view or of a static view. Every reference has to be resolved. Every image found has to be verified and perhaps adjusted before SD-SQL Server lets SQL Server to use it, as already discussed.

The client searches the table and view names in *FROM* clauses, using the SQL Server *xp_sscanf* function, and some related processing. This function reads data from the string into the argument locations given by each format argument. We use it to return all the objects in the *FROM* clause. The list of objects is returned as it appears in the clause *FROM*, i.e. with the ',' character. Next, SD-SQL Server parses the list of the objects and takes every object name alone by separating it from its *FROM* clause list. For every name found, let it be X , assumed a proper name, the client manager proceeds as follows:

It searches for X within *Name* attribute of its *Image* table. If it finds the tuple with X , then it puts X aside into *check_image* list, unless it is already there.

Otherwise, the manager explores with T the *sysobjects* and *sysdepends* tables of SQL Server. Table *sysobjects* provides for each object name its type ($V = \text{view}$, $T = \text{base table} \dots$) and internal *Id*, among other data. Table *sysdepends* provides for each view,

given its *Id*, its local (direct) dependants. These can be tables or views themselves. A multi-database base view does not have direct remote dependants in *sysobjects*. That is why we at present do not allow scalable multi-database views. The client searches, recursively if necessary, for any dependants of *X* that is a view that has a table as dependant in *sysobjects* or has no dependant listed there. The former may be an image with a local segment. The latter may be an image with remote segments only. It then searches *Image* again for *X*. If it finds it, then it attempts to add it to *check_image*.

Once all the images have been determined, i.e., there is no *FROM* clause in the query remaining for the analysis, the client verifies each of them, as usual. The verification follows the order on the image names. The rationale is to avoid the (rare) deadlock, when two outdated images could be concurrently processed in opposite order by two queries to the same manager. The adjustment generates indeed an exclusive lock on the tuple in *Image*. After the end of the image binding phase, the client continues with the specific processing of each command that we present later.

With respect to the concurrent command processing, the image binding phase results for SQL Server in a repeatable read level distributed transaction with shared locks or exclusive locks on the tuples of the bound images in *Image* tables and with the shared locks on all the related tuples in various *RP* tables. The image binding for one query may thus block another binding the same image that happened to be outdated. A shared lock on *RP* tuple may block a concurrent split as already discussed. We'll show progressively that all this behaviour contributed to the serializability of the whole scalable command processing under SD-SQL Server.

5. Performance Analysis

To validate the SD-SQL Server architecture, we evaluated its scalability and efficiency over some Skyserver DB data [2]. Our hardware consisted of 1.8 GHz P4 PCs with either 785 MB or 1 GB of RAM, linked by a 1 Gbs Ethernet. We used the SQL Profiler to take measurements. We measured split times and query response times under various conditions. The split time was from about 2.5 s for a 2-split of 1000-tuple *PhotoObj* segment, up to 150 seconds for a 5-split of a 160 000 tuple segment. Presence of indexes naturally increased this time, up to almost 200 s for the 5-split of a 160 000 tuple segment with three indexes.

The query measures included the overhead of the image checking alone, of image adjustment and of image binding for various queries, [14]. We detailed these measures in [14] and show the overhead negligible for the image checking in practice. A few ms sufficed for checking and about 400 ms for the adjustment. Here, we only discuss the measures of two queries:

```
(Q1) sd_select 'COUNT (*) FROM PhotoObj'
```

```
(Q2) sd_select 'top 10000 x.objid from photoobj x, photoobj y where x.obj=y.obj  
and x.objid>y.objid'
```

The measures of (Q1) show its response time with (i) the image checking (IC) only

and (ii) with the image adjustment (IA). We compared these times at Fig 2 to (iii) that of the (Q1) within the SQL Server, i.e., that of the generated SELECT query. The user of SQL Server would formulate that one. The difference between (i) and (iii) appeared always negligible. Both case (i) and (iii) execute in about 300 msec for our largest tuple set. We have done these measurements by executing (Q1) on a peer and client node respectively. In both cases, the execution with the image adjustment and the one on SQL Server are close. However, the difference appears for the image adjustment. The figure shows that the image adjustment on a client node only is about 1.5 sec. This time is a little bigger than the one on a peer node (0.8sec). This difference is due to the time to access the *RP* meta-table in the case of a client node. On a peer node, the *RP* table is on the same node of the command execution. Thus, the time to access *RP* is negligible.

Fig 2 Query (Q1) execution on a Peer/Client SD-SQL Server performance

Query (Q1) represents the rather fast queries, query (Q2) the complex ones, because of its double join and larger result set. The measures of (Q1), , concern the execution time under and under various conditions, Fig 2. The table had two segments of various sizes. We measured (Q1) at SD-SQL Server peer, where the *Image* and *RP* tables are at the same node, and at a client where they are at different nodes. We executed (Q1) with image checking (IC) only, and with the image adjustment (IA). We finally compared these times to those of executing (Q1) as an SQL Server, i.e., without even IC. As the curves show, IC overhead appeared always negligible. (Q1) always executed then under 300 msec. In contrast the IA overhead is relatively costly. On a peer node it is about 0.5s, leading to the response time of 0.8sec. On a client node, it increases to about 1s, leading to (Q1) response time of 1.5s. The difference is obviously due to the remote accesses to *RP* table. Notice that IA time is constant, as one could expect. We used the LSV option, but the results were about the same without it.

The measures of (Q2) representing basically longer to process typical queries than (Q1), involved *PhotoObj* with almost 160 K tuples spreading over two, three or four segments. The query execution time with IC only (or even without, directly by SQL Server) is now between 10 – 12 s. The IA overhead is about or little over 1 s. It grows a little since SQL Server ALTER VIEW operation has more remote segments to access for the check constraint update (even if it remains in fact the same, which indicates a clear path for some optimizing of this operation under SQL Server). IA overhead becomes relatively negligible, about 10 % of the query cost. We recall that IA should be in any case a rare operation.

Finally, we have also measured query again (Q1) on our *PhotoObj* scalable table as it grows under inserts. It had successively 2, 3, 4 and 5 segments, generated each by a 2-split. The query counted at every segment. The segment capacity was 30K tuples. We aimed at the comparison of the response time for an SD-SQL Server user and for the one of SQL Server. We supposed that the latter (i) does not enter the manual repartitioning hassle, or, alternatively, (ii) enters it by 2-splitting manually any time the table gets new 30K tuples, i.e., at the same time when SD-SQL Server would trigger its

split. Case (i) corresponds to the same comfort as that of an SD-SQL Server user. The obvious price to pay for an SQL Server user is the scalability, i.e., the worst deterioration of the response time for a growing table. In both cases (i) and (ii) we studied the SQL Server query corresponding to (Q1) for a static table. For SD-SQL Server, we measured (Q1) with and without the LSV option.

Fig 2 Query (Q1) execution performance

Fig 3 Query (Q2) with image checking only (IC) and with image adjustment (IA)

Finally, we have measured again (Q1) on our *PhotoObj* scalable table as it grows under inserts. It had successively 2, 3, 4 and 5 segments, generated each by a 2-split. The query counted at every segment. The segment capacity was 30K tuples. We aimed at the comparison of the response time for an SD-SQL Server user and for the one of SQL Server. We supposed that the latter (i) does not enter the manual repartitioning hassle, or, alternatively, (ii) enters it by 2-splitting manually any time the table gets new 30K tuples, i.e., at the same time when SD-SQL Server would trigger its split. Case (i) corresponds to the same comfort as that of an SD-SQL Server user. The obvious price to pay for an SQL Server user is the scalability, i.e., the worst deterioration of the response time for a growing table. In both cases (i) and (ii) we studied the SQL Server query corresponding to (Q1) for a static table. For SD-SQL Server, we measured (Q1) with and without the LSV option.

The figure displays the result. The curve named “SQL Server Centr.” shows the case (i), i.e., of the centralized *PhotoObj*. The curve “SQL Server Distr.” reflects the manual reorganizing (ii). The curve shows the minimum that SD-SQL Server could reach, i.e., if it had zero overhead. The two other curves correspond to SD-SQL Server.

We can see that SD-SQL Server processing time is always quite close to that of (ii) by SQL Server. Our query-processing overhead appears only about 5%. We can also see that for the same comfort of use, i.e., with respect to case (i), SD-SQL Server without LZV speeds up the execution by almost 30 %, e.g., about 100 msec for the largest table measured. With LZV the time decreases there to 220 msec. It improves thus by almost 50 %. This factor characterizes most of the other sizes as well. All these results prove the immediate utility of our system.

Notice further that in theory SD-SQL Server execution time could remain constant and close to that of a query to a single segment of about 30 K tuples. This is 93 ms in our case. The timing observed practice grows in contrast, already for the SQL Server. The result seems to indicate that the parallel processing of the aggregate functions by SQL Server has still room for improvement. This would further increase the superiority of SD-SQL Server for the same user’s comfort.

**Fig 4 Query (Q1) execution on SQL Server and SD-SQL Server (Client/Peer) Fig 3
Query (Q1) execution on SQL Server and SD-SQL Server (Client/Peer)**

Here, we study the execution time variation for a complex query. Let (Q2) be this query:

**(Q2) sd_select 'top 10000 x.objid from photoobj x, photoobj y where x.obj=y.obj
and x.objid>y.objid**

**Fig 4 Query (Q2) with image checking only (IC)
and with image adjustment (IA)**

6. Related Works

Parallel and distributed database partitioning has been studied for many years, [13]. It naturally triggered the work on the reorganizing of the partitioning, with notable results as early as in 1996, [12]. The common goal was global reorganization, unlike for our system.

The editors of [12] contributed themselves with two on-line reorganization methods, called respectively *new-space* and *in-place* reorganization. The former method created a new disk structure, and switches the processing to it. The latter approach balanced the data among existing disk pages as long as there was room for the data. Among the other contributors to [12], one concerned a command named '*Move Partition Boundary*' for Tandem Non Stop SQL/MP. The command aimed on on-line changes to the adjacent database partitions. The new boundary should decrease the load of any nearly full partition, by assigning some tuples into a less loaded one. The command was intended as a manual operation. We could not ascertain whether it was ever implemented.

A more recent proposal of efficient global reorganizing strategy is in [11]. One proposes there an automatic advisor, balancing the overall database load through the periodic reorganizing. The advisor is intended as a DB2 offline utility. Another attempt, in [4], the most recent one to our knowledge, describes yet another sophisticated reorganizing technique, based on database clustering. Called AutoClust, the technique mines for closed sets, then groups the records according to the resulting attribute

clusters. AutoClust processing should start when the average query response time drops below a user defined threshold. We do not know whether AutoClust was put into practice.

With respect to the partitioning algorithms used in other major DBMSs, parallel DB2 uses (static) hash partitioning. Oracle offers both hash and range partitioning, but over the shared disk multiprocessor architecture only. Only SQL Server offers the updatable distributed partitioned views. This was the major rationale for our choice, since scalable tables have to be updatable. How the scalable tables may be created at other systems remains thus an open research problem.

7. Conclusion

The proposed syntax and semantics of SD-SQL Server commands make the use of scalable tables about as simple as that of the static ones. It lets the user/application to easily take advantage of the new capabilities of our system. Through the scalable distributed partitioning, they should allow for much larger tables or for a faster response time of complex queries, or for both.

The current design of our interface is geared towards a “proof of concept” prototype. It is naturally simpler than a full-scale system. Further work should expand it. Among the challenges at the processing level, notice that there is no user account management for the scalable tables at present. Concurrent query processing could be perhaps made faster during splitting. We tried to limit the use of exclusive locks to as little as necessary for correctness, but there is perhaps still a better way. Our performance analysis should be expanded, uncovering perhaps further directions for our current processing optimization. Next, while SD-SQL Server acts at present as an application of SQL Server, the scalable table management could alternatively enter the SQL Server core code. Obviously we could not do it, but the owner of this DBS can. Our design could apply almost as is to other DBSs, once they offer the updatable distributed partitioned (union-all) views. Next, we did not address the issue of the reliability of the scalable tables. More generally, there is a security issue for the scalable tables, as the tuples migrate to places unknown to their owners.

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