KV-Store Benchmark

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- <u>Motivation</u> Different key-value stores have wildly different internal designs (B+ trees vs. LSM trees vs. in-memory hash maps)
- <u>Aim</u> put a bunch of popular KV engines through the same stress tests so we can see, side-by-side, how they behave under different workloads.
- Question How do hash-table, B⁺-tree, and LSM-tree designs shape key-value-store latency, throughput, and multi-core scaling under contrasting workloads—and how can these findings guide engineers in choosing and tuning the right engine for a given application?

- Database Benchmarked (expected)
 - B+ Tree Engines







LSM Tree Engines





HashMap Engine



- Database Benchmarked (actually)
 - B+ Tree Engines





LSM Tree Engines



HashMap Engine





• <u>High level Workflow</u>

- Install all databases + YCSB
- O Run each YCSB workload (some manually implemented) against each engine
- Collect JSON output
- Feed results into a simple Flask server and create visualized dashboard

• Testing Workloads

- O Read Heavy Workload (90% reads, 10% updates)
- O Write Heavy Workload (10% reads, 90% updates)
- O Balanced Workload (50% reads, 50% updates)
- Range Query Workload (95% scans, 5% inserts)

- Throughput (operations per second, ops/sec)
 - *Higher is better*: shows how much work the engine can finish in a fixed time window.
- Average Latency (mean response time)
 - Represents the "typical" user experience for a single request.
- 95th-Percentile Latency
 - Time within which 95 % of operations finish—captures near-worst-case delays for most users.
- 99th-Percentile Latency
 - Tightens the lens to the slowest 1 % of requests; crucial for tail-latency–sensitive applications such as real-time analytics or interactive dashboards.
- Multi-Core Scalability
 - Efficiency of speed-up as threads (or CPU cores) increase indicating near-linear scaling or revealing bottlenecks (locks,
 I/O contention, compaction, etc.).



- **Data structure**: on-disk B⁺-tree with prefix/value compression; one buffer-cache layer in RAM.
- Read path: root \rightarrow internal \rightarrow leaf traversal ($\approx 3-4$ hops); if a node is cached, lookup stays in memory.
- Write path: update the leaf page, split if full, then mark dirty for later flush.
- Concurrency model: document-level intent locks let many readers and writers operate in parallel



- **Data structure**: WAL + mutable memtable in RAM; immutable memtables flush to sorted SST files on disk.
- Read path: consult Bloom/Ribbon filters for each level; at most one SST per level is touched, often from block cache.
- Write path: append to WAL, insert into memtable; background flush and compaction rewrite SSTs to keep read-amp low.
- Concurrency model: foreground inserts are lock-free; multiple flushers and compaction threads run in the background.



- **Data structure**: keys map to in-RAM objects (strings, hashes, lists, sets, etc.) with space-saving encodings chosen on the fly.
- Execution model: single main event loop processes all commands
- **Read/Write cost**: both are O (1) hash look-ups



- **Data structure**: global hash table protected by per-bucket mutexes; values stored in fixed-size slab pages to curb fragmentation.
- **Process model**: one listener thread hands connections to multiple worker threads
- **Read/Write cost**: O (1) hash probe plus brief mutex hold; no persistence layer, so no fsync penalties.

* For SCAN! - Redis treats itself like a tiny in-memory database, so it offers a non-blocking SCAN command that steps through the keyspace (all stored keys) in small batches using a "cursor" without pausing traffic; Memcached is a pure cache where items can vanish anytime (TTL or eviction), and a full scan would need heavy locks on its hash-table/slab memory, stall performance, and reveal sensitive key names, so the feature is intentionally left out.