# **CPT-S 415**

**Big Data** 

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# CPT-S 415 Big Data

### **NewSQL** databases

✓ In-memory DBMS

## **Recall Computer Architecture**



300 ps

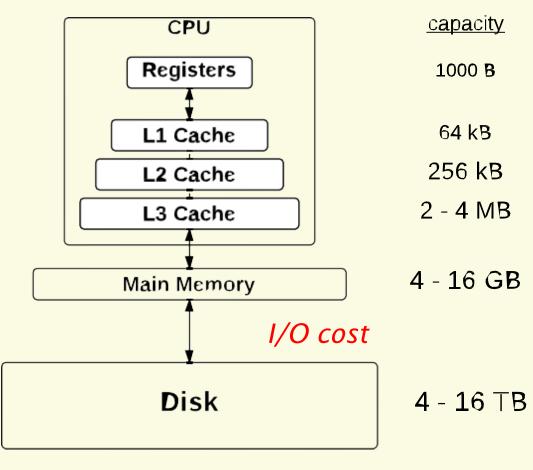
1 ns

3 - **1**0 ns

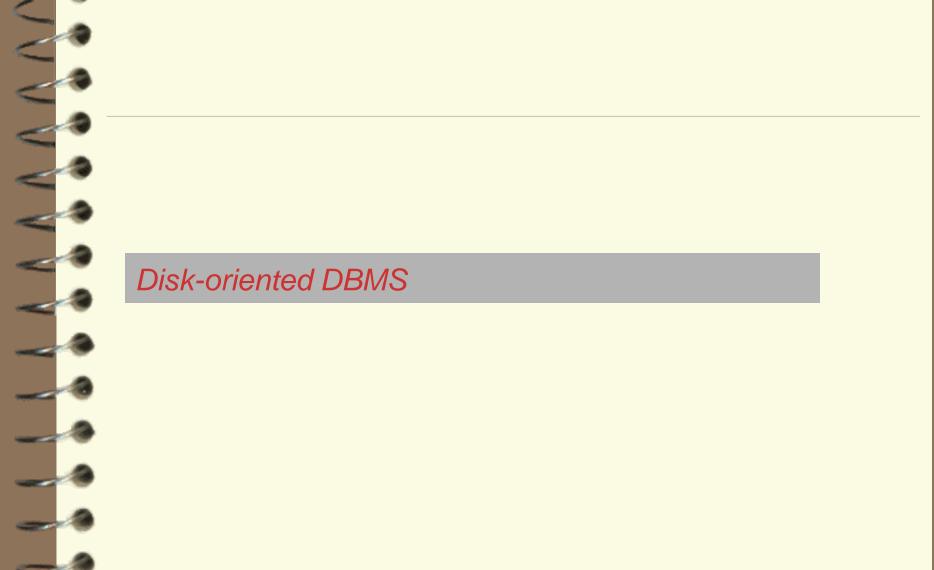
10 - 20 ns

50 - 100 ns

5.000.000 -10.000.000 ns



Data taken from [Hennessy and Patterson, 2012]



#### **Disk-Oriented DBMS**

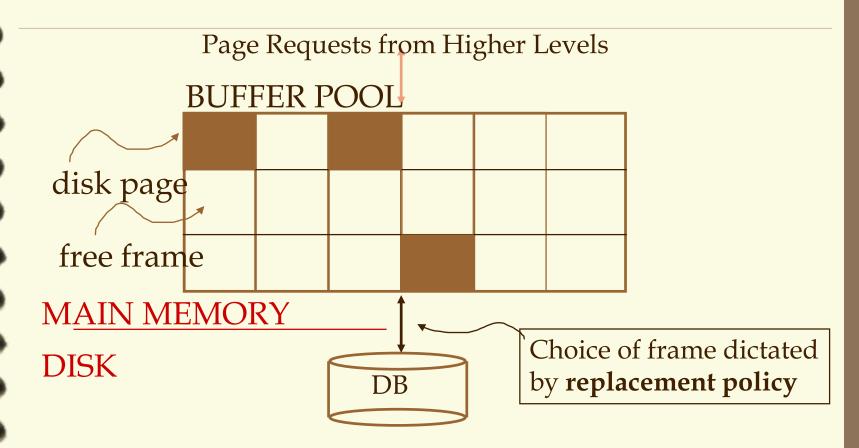
The primary storage location of the database is on non-volatile storage (e.g., HDD, SSD).

→ The database is organized as a set of fixed-length blocks called slotted pages.

The system uses an in-memory buffer pool to cache blocks fetched from disk.

→ Its job is to manage the movement of those blocks back and forth between disk and memory.

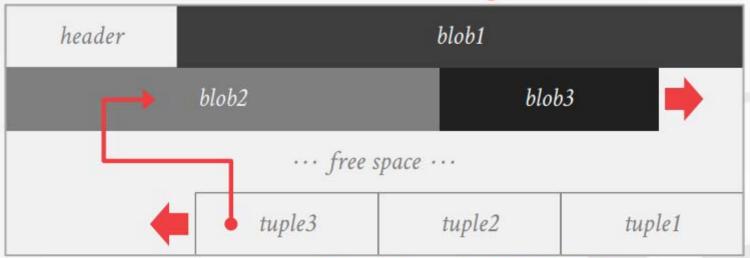
## Page request



- Data must be in RAM for DBMS to operate on it!
- √ Table of <frame#, pageId> pairs is maintained.

## A page

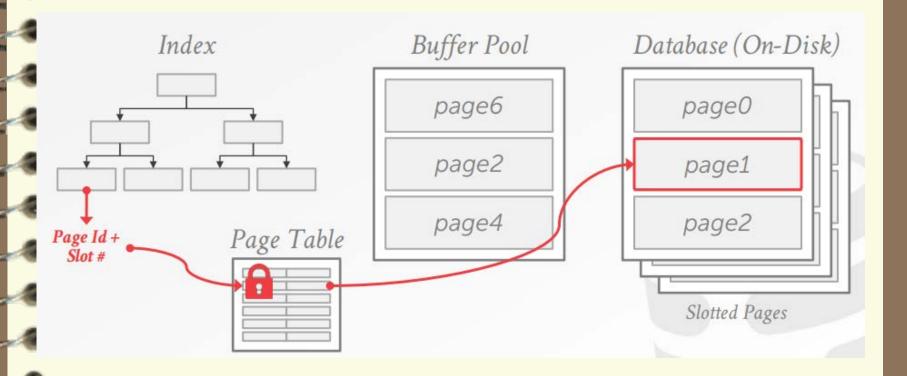
# Variable-length Data

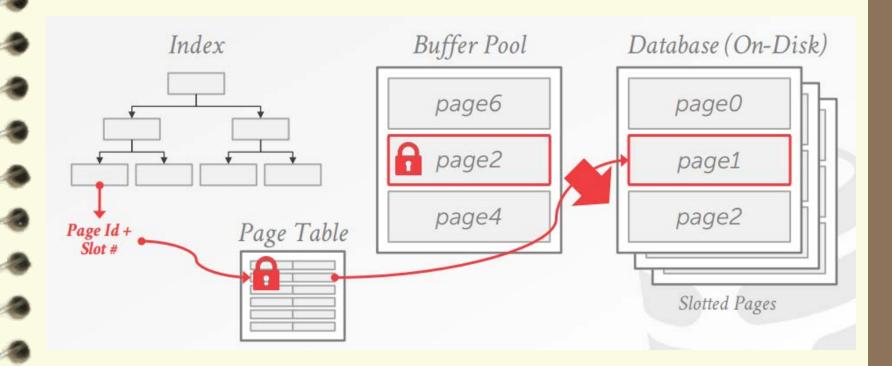


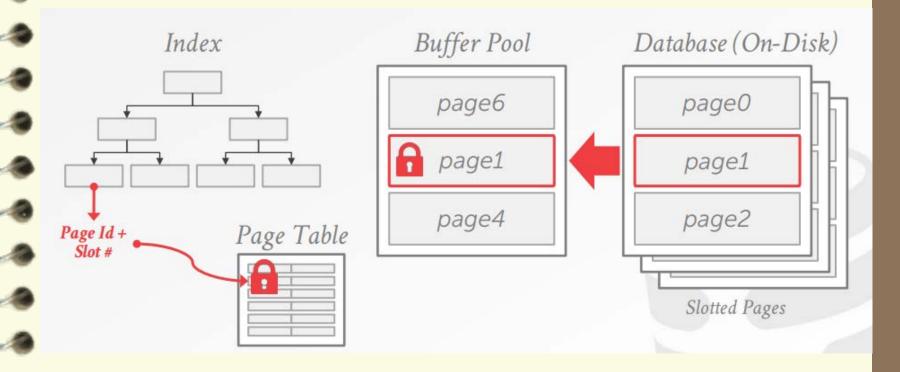
Fixed-length Data Slots

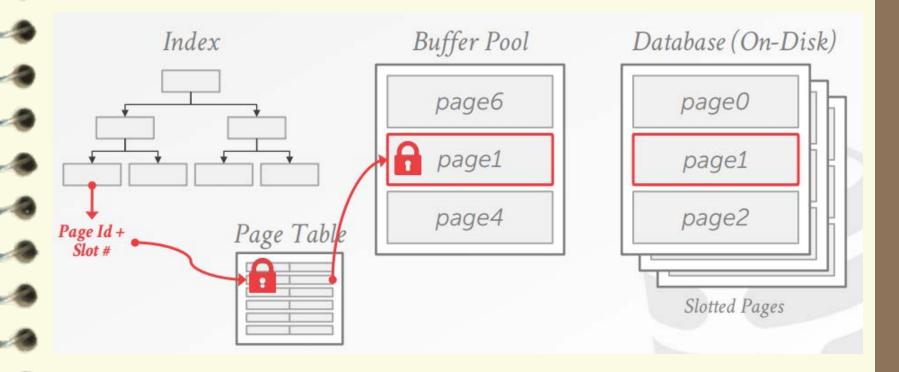
### **Buffer Pool Management**

- ✓ When Query access a page:
  - DBMS checks if page is in memory
    - No retrieve from disk and copy into frame of buffer pool
      - No free frames: find a page to evict
      - Dirty page evicted write back to disk
    - Yes translate on-disk addresses to in-memory addresses









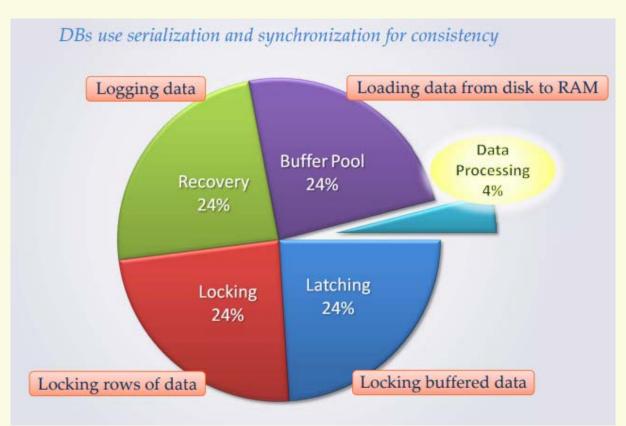
#### **Overhead**

- ✓ Buffer pool: Each tuple access needs to go through buffer pool management regardless of whether the data will always be in memory
  - Translate tuple record id to memory location
  - Pin pages to make sure they are not swapped to disk
- Concurrency control
  - ACID guarantee: set locks and latches
- ✓ Logging & recovery
  - "steal" + "no-force" buffer pool policy
  - Log contains before and after images of modified record.

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#### **Traditional DBMS overheads**



"Removing those overheads and running the database in main memory would yield orders of magnitude improvements in database performance"

### **NewSQL** design principles

- ✓ SQL + ACID + performance and scalability through modern innovative software architecture
- ✓ Principle 1: minimizing or stay away from locking
- ✓ Principle 2: rely on main memory
- ✓ Principle 3: try to avoid latching
- ✓ Principle 4: cheaper solutions for HA



## **Recall Computer Architecture**

<u>latency</u>

300 ps

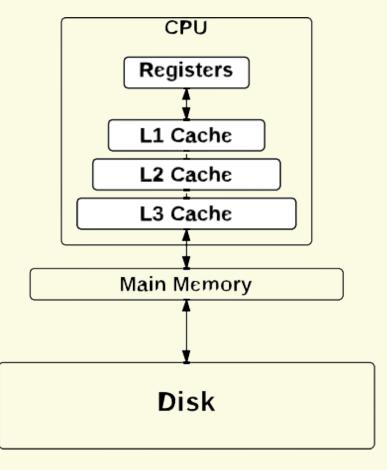
1 ns

3 - **1**0 ns

10 - 20 ns

50 - 100 ns

5.000.000 -10.000.000 ns



capacity

1000 B

64 kB In-memory store

Cache cost -

256 kB

2 - 4 MB

4 - 16 GB

4 - 16 TB

Data taken from [Hennessy and Patterson, 2012]

# Disk-based vs. Main-Memory DBMS

Dlsk-based DBMS

Maln-Memory DBMS

**CPU** 

CPU

Maln Memory

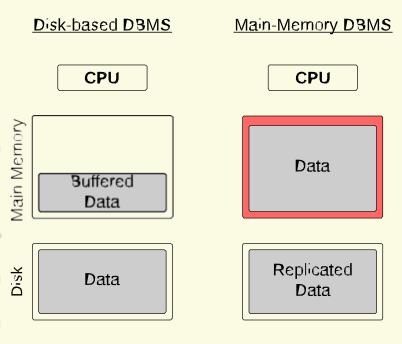
Buffered Data Data

DISK

Data

Replicated Data

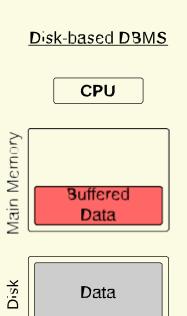
# Disk-based vs. Main-Memory DBMS (2)



**ATTENTION:** Main-memory storage!= No Durability

- → ACID properties have to be guaranteed
- → However, there are new ways of guaranteeing it, such as a second machine in hot standby

# Disk-based vs. Main-Memory DBMS (3)



#### Main-Memory DBMS

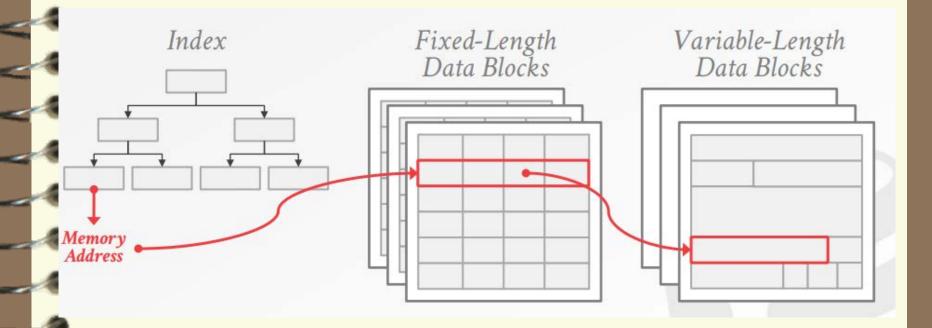
**CPU** 

Data

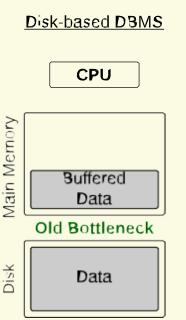
Replicated Data Having the database in main memory allows us to remove buffer manager and paging

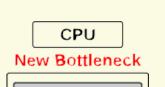
- → Remove level of indirection
- → Results in better performance

## In-memory data organization



# Disk-based vs. Main-Memory DBMS (4)





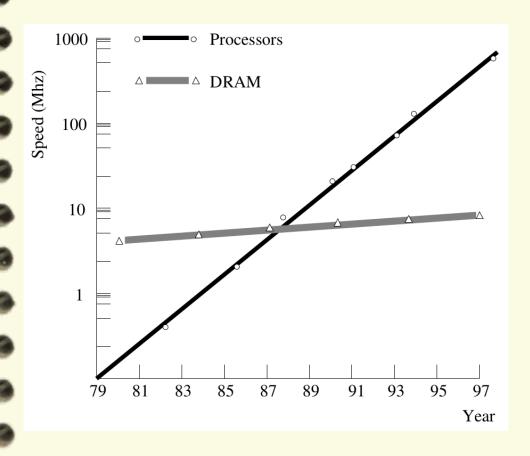
Main-Memory DBMS

Data

Replicated Data Disk bottleneck is removed as database is kept in main memory

→ Access to main memory becomes new bottleneck

# The New Bottleneck: Memory Access



Accessing main-memory is much more expensive than accessing CPU registers.

→ Is main-memory the new disk?

Picture taken from [Manegold et al., 2000]

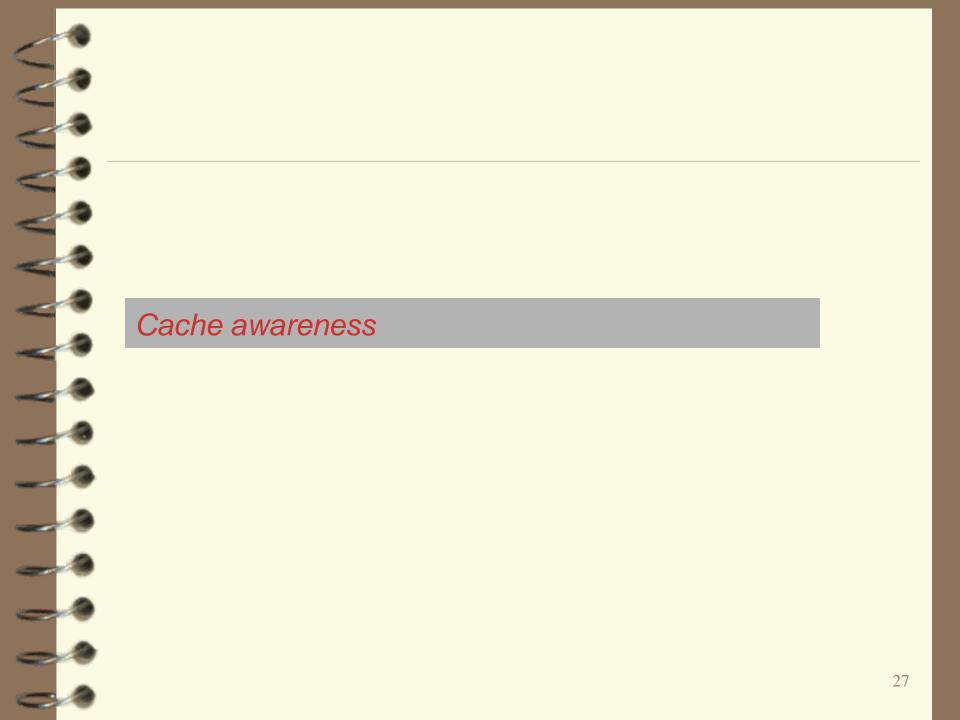
#### **New bottleneck**

- ✓ When I/O is no longer the bottleneck...
  - Locking/latching
  - Cache-line misses
  - Data movement

#### Rethink the Architecture of DBMSs

Even if the complete database fits in main memory, there are significant overheads of traditional DBMSs:

- Many function calls → stack manipulation overhead + instruction-cache misses
- Adverse memory access → data-cache misses
- → Be aware of the caches!



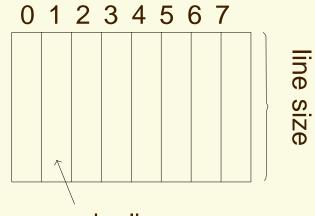
# **Principle of Locality**

- Caches take advantage of the principle of locality.
  - The hot set of data often fits into caches.
  - 90 % execution time spent in 10 % of the code.
- ✓ Spatial Locality:
  - Related data is often spatially close.
  - Code often contains loops.
- ✓ Temporal Locality:
  - Programs tend to re-use data frequently.
  - Code may call a function repeatedly, even if it is not spatially close.

### **CPU Cache Internals**

To guarantee speed, the overhead of caching must be kept reasonable.

- Organize cache in cache lines.
- Only load/evict full cache lines.
- Typical cache line size: 64 bytes.



cache line
The organization in
cache lines is
consistent with the
principle of (spatial)
locality.

# **Memory Access**

On every memory access, the CPU checks if the respective cache line is already cached.

#### **Cache Hit:**

- •Read data directly from the cache.
- •No need to access lower-level memory.

#### **Cache Miss:**

- •Read full cache line from lower-level memory.
- •Evict some cached block and replace it by the newly read cache line.
- •CPU stalls until data becomes available.

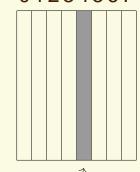
Modern CPUs support out-of-order execution and several in-flight cache misses.

# **Block Placement: Direct-Mapped Cache**

In a direct-mapped cache, a block has only one place it can appear in the cache.

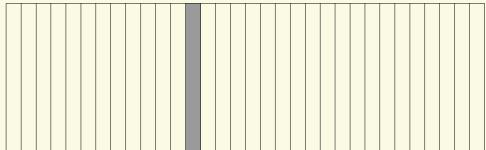
01234567

- Much simpler to implement.
- Easier to make fast.
- Increases the chance of conflicts.



place block 12 in cache line 4 (4 = 12 mod 8)

 $\begin{matrix} 11\dot{1}11111112222222222233\\01234567890123456789012345678901\end{matrix}$ 

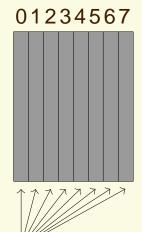


# **Block Placement: Fully Associative Cache**

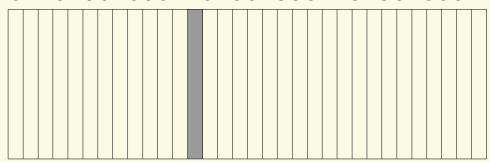
In a fully associative cache, a block can be loaded into any cache line

- Provide freedom to block replacement strategy.
- Does not scale to large caches
- → 4 MB cache,

line size: 64 B: 65,536 cache lines.



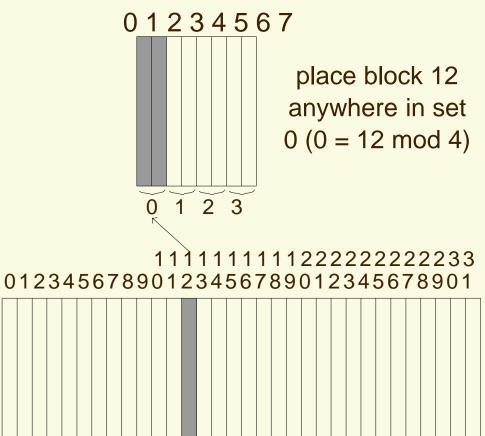
111111111222222222233 0123456789012345678901



#### **Block Placement: Set-Associative Cache**

A compromise are set-associative caches.

- Group cache lines into sets.
- Each memory block maps to one set.
- Block can be placed anywhere within a set.
- Most processor caches today are set-associative.



# **Block Replacement**

When bringing in new cache lines, an existing entry has to be evicted:

#### **Least Recently Used (LRU)**

- •Evict cache line whose last access is longest ago.
- → Least likely to be needed any time soon.

#### First In First Out (FIFO)

- Behaves often similar like LRU.
- •But easier to implement.

#### Random

- Pick a random cache line to evict.
- •Very simple to implement in hardware.

Replacement has to be decided in hardware and fast.

# What Happens on a Write?

To implement memory writes, CPU makers have two options: Write Through

- Data is directly written to lower-level memory (and to the cache).
- → Writes will stall the CPU.
- → Greatly simplifies data coherency.

Write Back

- Data is only written into the cache.
- A dirty flag marks modified cache lines (Remember the status field.)
- → May reduce traffic to lower-level memory.
- → Need to write on eviction of dirty cache lines.

Modern processors usually implement write back.

# Putting it all Together

To compensate for slow memory, systems use caches.

- Typically multiple levels of caching (memory hierarchy).
- Caches are organized into cache lines.
- Set associativity: A memory block can only go into a small number of cache lines (most caches are set-associative).

In-memory DBMS will benefit from locality of data and code.



#### **Processing Models**

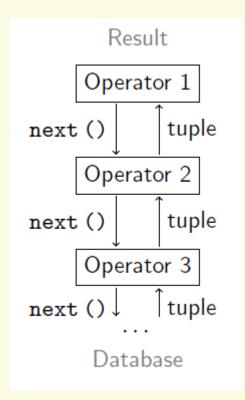
There are basically two alternative processing models that are used in modern DBMSs:

- Tuple-at-a-time volcano model [Graefe, 1990]
  - Operator requests next tuple, processes it, and passes it to the next operator
- Operator-at-a-time bulk processing [Manegold et al., 2009]
  - Operator consumes its input and materializes its output

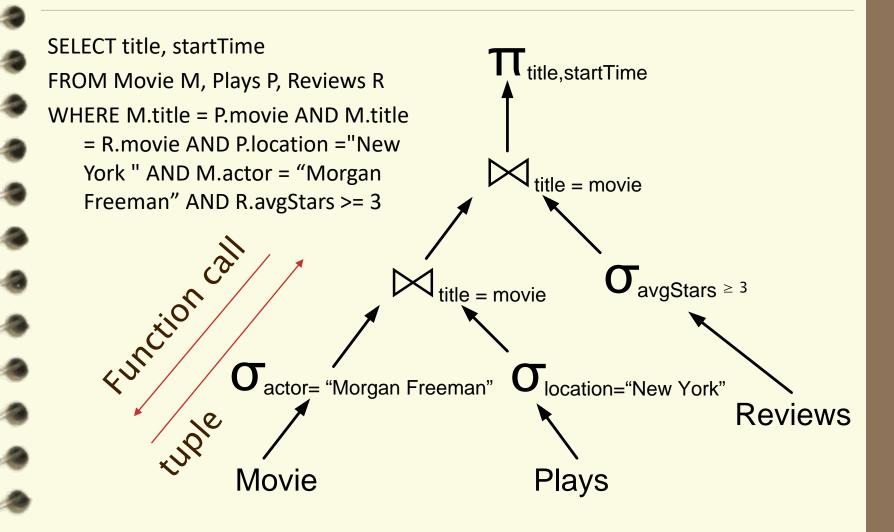
# **Tuple-At-A-Time Processing**

Most systems implement the Volcano iterator model:

- Operators request tuples from their input using next ().
- Data is processed tuple at a time.
- Each operator keeps its own state.



## **Example Logical Query Plan (revisit Lecture 7)**



# Tuple-At-A-Time Processing - Consequences

- Pipeline-parallelism
- → Data processing can start although data does not fully reside in main memory
- → Small intermediate results
- All operators in a plan run tightly interleaved.
- → Their **combined** instruction footprint may be large.
- → Instruction cache misses.
- Operators constantly call each other's functionality.
- → Large function call overhead.
- The combined state may be too large to fit into caches.
  - E.g., hash tables, cursors, partial aggregates.
- → Data cache misses.

Not a good option for in-memory DBMS (especially OLAP DBMS)

# **Operator-At-A-Time Processing**

- Operators consume and produce full tables.
- Each (sub-)result is fully materialized (in memory).
- No pipelining (rather a sequence of statements).
- Each operator runs exactly once.

Result

Operator 1

tuples

Operator 2

tuples

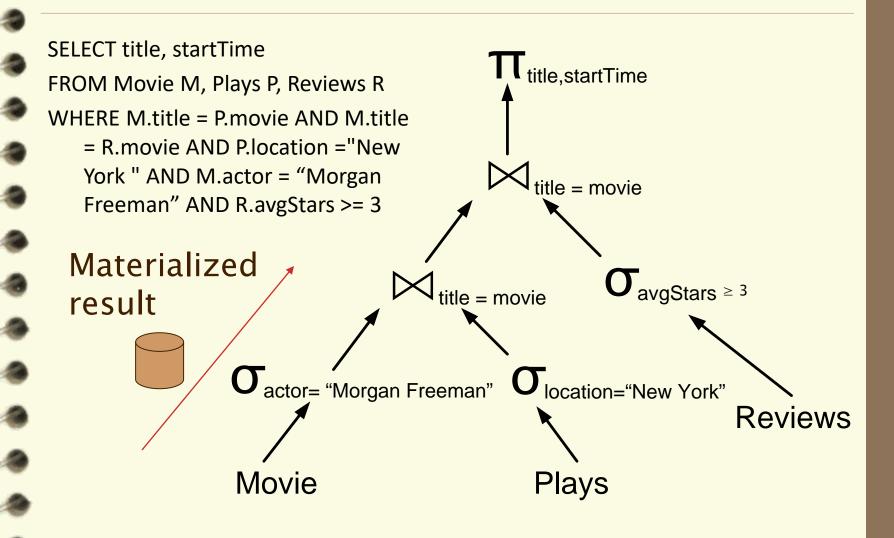
Operator 3

tuples

. . .

Database

## **Example Logical Query Plan (revisit Lecture 7)**



# **Operator-At-A-Time Consequences**

- Parallelism: Inter-operator and intra-operator
- Function call overhead is now replaced by extremely tight loops that
  - conveniently fit into instruction caches,
  - can be optimized effectively by modern compilers
- Function calls are now out of the critical code path.
- No per-tuple field extraction or type resolution.
  - Operator specialization, e.g., for every possible type.
  - Implemented using macro expansion.
  - Possible due to column-based storage.

Implemented in H-store and VoltDB

- Fine for OLTP.
- What about OLAP?

## **Vectorized Execution Model**

#### Idea:

•Use Volcano-style iteration,

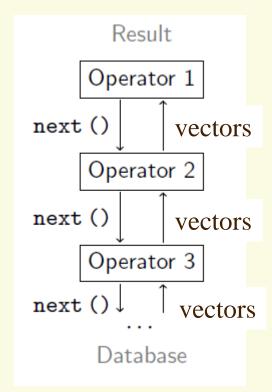
#### but:

•for each next () call return a large number of tuples

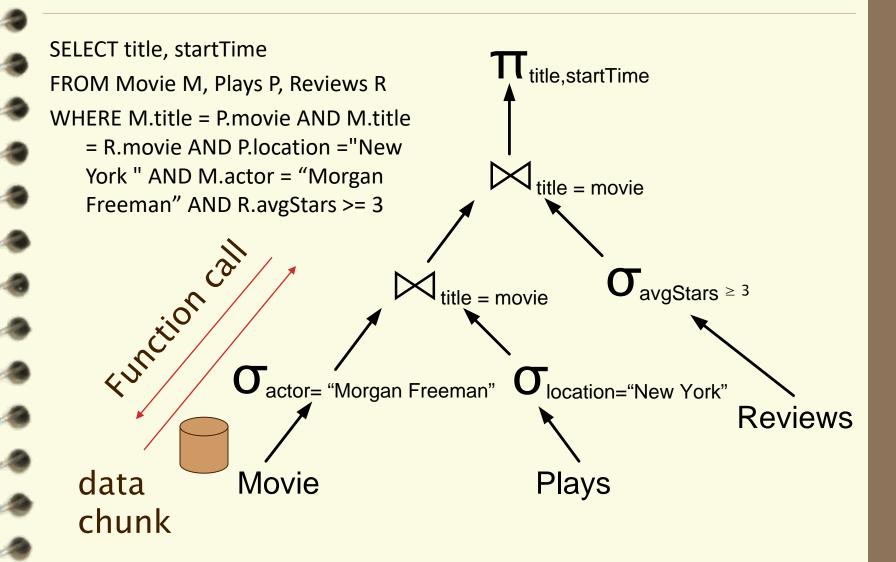
→ a so called "vector"

Choose vector size

- •large enough to compensate for iteration overhead (function calls, instruction cache misses, . . . ), but
- •small enough to not thrash data caches.



## **Example Logical Query Plan (revisit Lecture 7)**



# What if larger-than-memory?

- ✓ Hybrid workload:
  - OLAP + OLTP
  - Small, frequently updated: "Hot Data" -- OLTP
    - News, social activities, posts, fresh data, fast data
    - Main Memory
  - Large, infrequent updated but support analytical queries:
     "Cold Data" OLAP
    - SSD, Hard disk
  - A comparison with Disk-based systems. Hot vs. Cold.

#### A vision

- ✓ Non-volatile memory storage level memory
  - Same read/write speed as DRAM
  - Persistent guarantee of SSD
- High-speed DRAM networks & Systems-on-a-Chip
  - Game changer for parallel/distributed algorithm design
- ✓ In-memory Data Analytics Systems
  - Big Data in your laptop!

# Conclusion

- Overhead of Disk-based DBMS
  - Buffer pool
  - Concurrency control
  - Locking/latching
- In-memory DBMS
  - Data organization
  - Cache awareness
  - Query processing models
- What we haven't talked: Indexing? (T-trees: read:

http://www.vldb.org/conf/1986/P294.PDF)