

# Lecture 11: Persistent Memory Databases

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# **Today's Agenda**

#### Persistent Memory Databases

- 1.1 Recap
- 1.2 Disk-oriented vs In-Memory DBMSs
- 1.3 Persistent Memory DBMSs
- 1.4 Storage Engine Architectures
- 1.5 Write-Behind Logging
- 1.6 Conclusion



# Recap

Recap

# Larger-than-Memory Databases

- Allow an in-memory DBMS to store/access data on disk <u>without</u> bringing back all the slow parts of a disk-oriented DBMS.
  - Minimize the changes that we make to the DBMS that are required to deal with disk-resident data.
  - ▶ It is better to have only the **buffer manager** deal with moving data around
  - Rest of the DBMS can assume that data is in DRAM.
- Need to be aware of hardware access methods
  - ▶ In-memory Access = **Tuple**-Oriented.
  - Disk Access = <u>Block</u>-Oriented.



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# Today's Agenda

- Disk-oriented vs In-Memory DBMSs
- Persistent Memory DBMSs
- Storage Engine Architectures
- Write-Behind Logging



# Disk-oriented vs In-Memory DBMSs

# Background

- Much of the development history of DBMSs is about dealing with the limitations of hardware.
- Hardware was much different when the original DBMSs were designed in 1970s:
  - Uniprocessor (single-core CPU)
  - DRAM capacity was very limited.
  - The database had to be stored on disk.
  - Disks were even slower than they are now.



# Background

- But now DRAM capacities are large enough that most databases can fit in memory.
  Structured data sets are smaller.
- We need to understand why we can't always use a "traditional" disk-oriented DBMS with a large cache to get the best performance.

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### **Disk-Oriented DBMS**

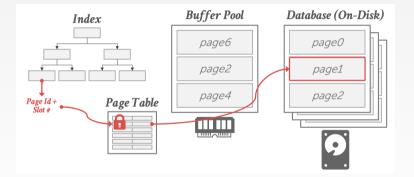
- The primary storage location of the database is on non-volatile storage (*e.g.*, HDD, SSD).
- The database is organized as a set of fixed-length **pages** (aka blocks).
- The system uses an in-memory **<u>buffer pool</u>** to cache pages fetched from disk.
  - Its job is to manage the movement of those pages back and forth between disk and memory.



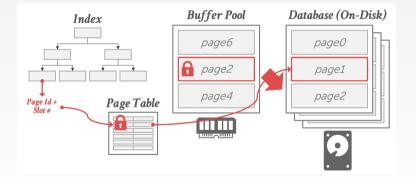
# **Buffer Pool**

- When a query accesses a page, the DBMS checks to see if that page is already in memory:
  - If it's not, then the DBMS must retrieve it from disk and copy it into a <u>frame</u> in its buffer pool.
  - ▶ If there are no free frames, then find a page to evict.
  - ▶ If the page being evicted is dirty, then the DBMS must write it back to disk.
- Once the page is in memory, the DBMS translates any <u>on-disk addresses</u> to their in-memory addresses.

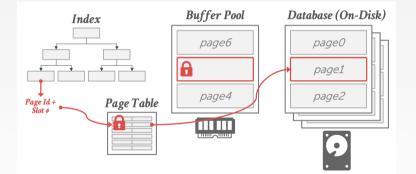




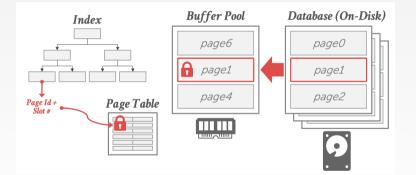




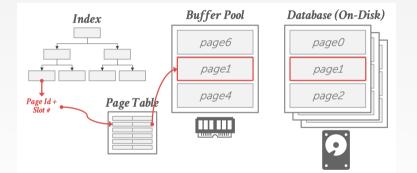












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# **Buffer Pool**

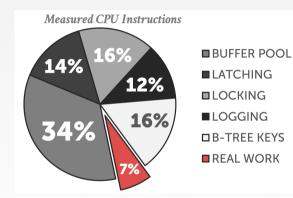
• Every tuple access goes through the buffer pool manager regardless of whether that data will always be in memory.

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- Always translate a tuple's record id to its memory location.
- Worker thread must <u>pin</u> pages that it needs to make sure that they are not swapped to disk.



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



#### Reference

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# **In-memory DBMS**

- Assume that the primary storage location of the database is **permanently** in memory.
- Early ideas proposed in the 1980s but it is now feasible because DRAM prices are low and capacities are high.

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- First commercial in-memory DBMSs were released in the 1990s.
  - **Examples:** TimesTen, DataBlitz, Altibase



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# **Storage Access Latencies**

	L3	DRAM	SSD	HDD
Read Latency	20 ns	60 ns	25,000 ns	10,000,000 ns
Write Latency	20 ns	60 ns	300,000 ns	10,000,000 ns

#### Reference

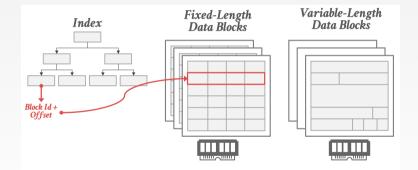


# **In-Memory DBMS: Data Organization**

- An in-memory DBMS does <u>not</u> need to store the database in slotted pages but it will still organize tuples in pages:
  - **Direct memory pointers** vs. record ids
  - Fixed-length vs. variable-length data **memory pools**
  - Use checksums to detect software errors from trashing the database.
- The OS organizes memory in pages too. We already covered this.

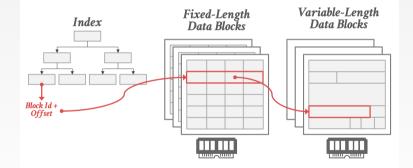


# **In-Memory DBMS: Data Organization**





# **In-Memory DBMS: Data Organization**





# Persistent Memory DBMSs

### **Importance of Hardware**

- People have been thinking about using hardware to accelerate DBMSs for decades.
- 1980s: Database Machines
- 2000s: FPGAs + Appliances
- 2010s: FPGAs + GPUs
- 2020s: PM + FPGAs + GPUs + CSAs + More! Reference



# **Persistent Memory**

• Emerging storage technology that provide low latency read/writes like DRAM, but with persistent writes and large capacities like SSDs.

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- a.k.a., Non-Volatile Memory, Storage-class Memory
- First-generation devices were block-addressable
- Second-generation devices are byte-addressable



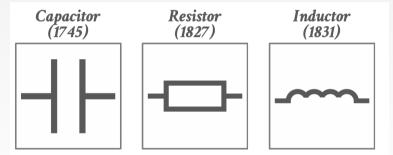
### **Persistent Memory**

- Block-addressable Optane SSD
  - NVM Express works with PCI Express to transfer data to and from Optane SSDs
  - NVMe enables rapid storage in SSDs and is an improvement over older HDD-related interfaces (*e.g.*, Serial Attached SCSI (<u>SAS</u>) and Serial ATA (<u>SATA</u>))

- Byte-addressable Optane DIMMs
  - New assembly instructions and hardware support



### **Fundamental Elements of Circuits**



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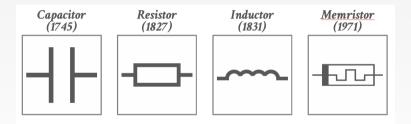
### **Fundamental Elements of Circuits**

- In 1971, Leon Chua at Berkeley predicted the existence of a fourth fundamental element.
- A two-terminal device whose resistance depends on the voltage applied to it, but when that voltage is turned off it **permanently remembers** its last resistive state.

• Reference



### **Fundamental Elements of Circuits**



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## Memristors

- A team at HP Labs led by Stanley Williams stumbled upon a nano-device that had weird properties that they could not understand.
- It wasn't until they found Chua's 1971 paper that they realized what they had invented.

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- Reference
- Video



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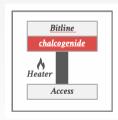
# **NVM Technologies**

- Phase-Change Memory (PRAM)
- Resistive RAM (ReRAM)
- Magnetoresistive RAM (MRAM)



# **Phase-Change Memory**

- Storage cell is comprised of two metal electrodes separated by a resistive heater and the phase change material (**chalcogenide**).
- The value of the cell is changed based on how the material is heated.
  - ► A short pulse changes the cell to a '0'.
  - A long, gradual pulse changes the cell to a '1'.
- Reference



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# **Resistive RAM**

- Two metal layers with two TiO2 layers in between.
- Running a current one direction moves electrons from the top TiO2 layer to the bottom, thereby changing the resistance.
- Potential programmable storage fabric...
  - Bertrand Russell's Material Implication Logic
- Reference

Platinum
TiO <sub>2-x</sub> Layer
TiO <sub>2</sub> Layer
Platinum

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# Magnetoresistive RAM

- Stores data using magnetic storage elements instead of electric charge or current flows.
- Spin-Transfer Torque (STT-MRAM) is the leading technology for this type of PM.
  - Supposedly able to scale to very smallsizes (10nm) and have <u>SRAM</u>-like latencies. What is SRAM used for?

Fiz	xed FM Layer–
	Oxide Layer
Fr	ee FM Layer 🔏

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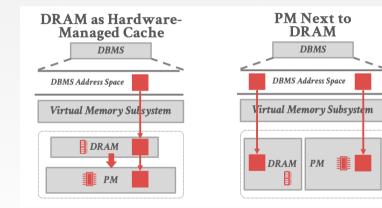
# Why This is for Real

- Industry has agreed to standard technologies and form factors (JDEC).
- Linux and Microsoft added support for PM in their kernels (DAX).
- Intel added new instructions for flushing cache lines to PM (CLFLUSH, CLWB).





# **PM Configurations**





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#### PM for Database Systems

- Block-addressable PM is not that interesting.
- Byte-addressable PM will be a game changer but will require some work to use correctly.

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- ▶ In-memory DBMSs will be better positioned to use byte-addressable PM.
- Disk-oriented DBMSs will initially treat PM as just a faster SSD.



### Storage & Recovery Methods

• Understand how a DBMS will behave on a system that only has byte-addressable PM.

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- Develop PM-optimized implementations of standard DBMS architectures.
- Based on the N-Store prototype DBMS.
- Reference



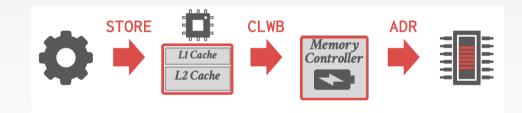
# Synchronization

Existing programming models assume that any write to memory is non-volatile.
 CPU decides when to move data from caches to DRAM.

• The DBMS needs a way to ensure that data is flushed from caches to PM.



# Synchronization



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# Synchronization

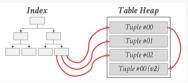
- Cache-line Flush (CLFLUSH)
  - ▶ This instruction allows the DBMS to flush a cache-line out to memory.
  - If that cache line contains modified data at any level of the cache hierarchy, that data is written back to memory.
- Cache-line Write Back (CLWB)
  - Writes back the cache line (if modified) to memory
  - > The cache line may be retained in the cache hierarchy in non-modified state
  - Improves performance by reducing cache misses
  - CLWB instruction is ordered only by store-fencing (SFENCE) operation.
- Asynchronous DRAM Refresh (ADR)
  - In case of a power loss, there is sufficient reserve power to flush the stores pending in the memory controller back to Optane DIMM.
  - Stores are posted to the Write Pending Queue (WPQ) in the memory controller

#### Reference

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# Naming

• If the DBMS process restarts, we need to make sure that all the pointers for in-memory data point to the same data.



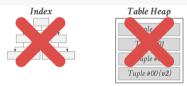
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# Naming

• If the DBMS process restarts, we need to make sure that all the pointers for in-memory data point to the same data.



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#### **PM-Aware Memory Allocator**

#### Feature 1: Synchronization

- ▶ The allocator writes back CPU cache lines to PM using the CLFLUSH instruction.
- It then issues a SFENCE instruction to wait for the data to become durable on PM.

#### • Feature 2: Naming

The allocator ensures that virtual memory addresses assigned to a memory-mapped region never change even after the OS or DBMS restarts.



# Storage Engine Architectures

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## **Storage Engine Architectures**

#### • Choice 1: In-place Updates

- Table heap with a write-ahead log + snapshots.
- Example: VoltDB

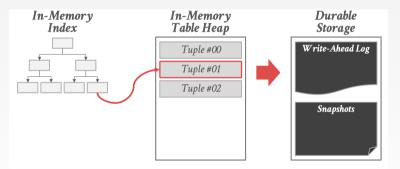
#### • Choice 2: Copy-on-Write

- Create a shadow copy of the table when updated.
- No write-ahead log.
- Example: LMDB

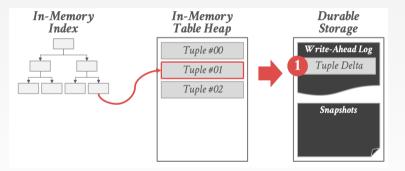
#### • Choice 3: Log-structured

- All writes are appended to log. No table heap.
- Example: RocksDB

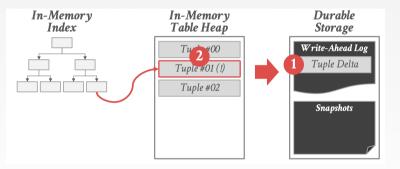




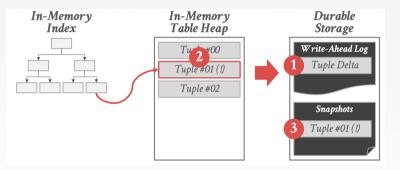












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- Limitations
  - Duplicate Data
  - Recovery Latency

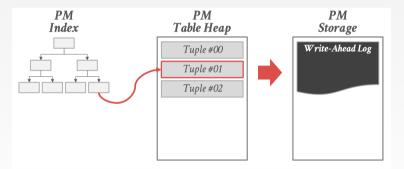


#### **PM-Aware Architectures**

- Leverage the allocator's **non-volatile pointers** to only record **<u>what</u>** changed rather than **<u>how</u>** it changed.
- The DBMS only must maintain a transient UNDO log for a txn until it commits.
  - Dirty cache lines from an uncommitted txn can be flushed by hardware to the memory controller.
  - ▶ No REDO log because we flush all the changes to PM at the time of commit.

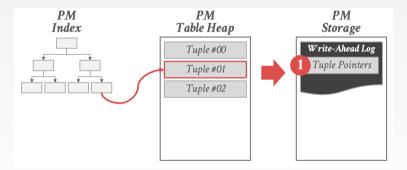


#### **PM-Aware In-place Updates Engine**





#### **PM-Aware In-place Updates Engine**

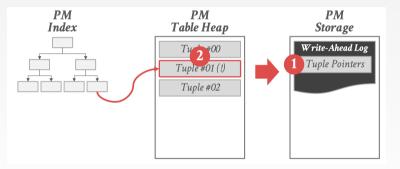


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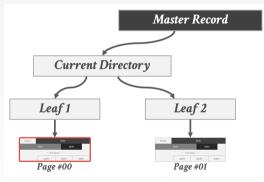
#### **PM-Aware In-place Updates Engine**



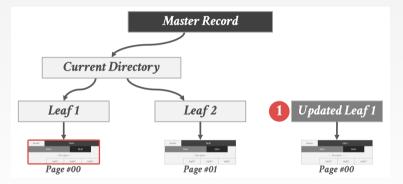
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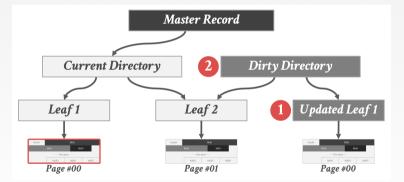






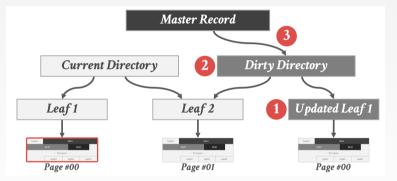








# **Copy-On-Write Engine**



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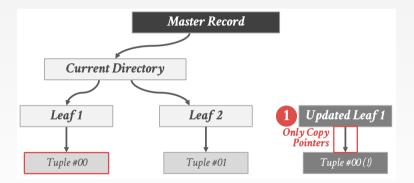


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- Limitations
  - Expensive Copies

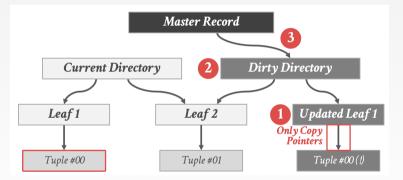


### **PM-Aware Copy-On-Write Engine**



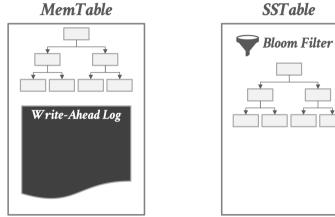


### **PM-Aware Copy-On-Write Engine**





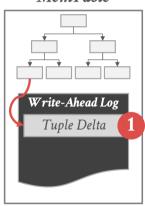
### **Log-Structured Engine**



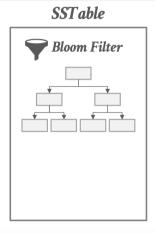
#### **MemTable**



### **Log-Structured Engine**



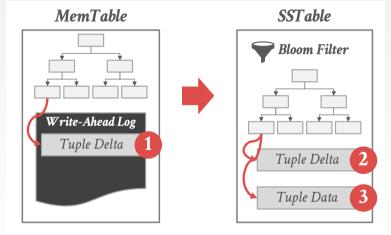
#### **MemTable**



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#### **Log-Structured Engine**



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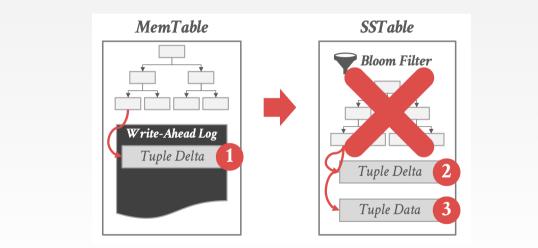
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# **Log-Structured Engine**

- Limitations
  - Duplicate Data
  - Compactions



# **PM-Aware Log-Structured Engine**

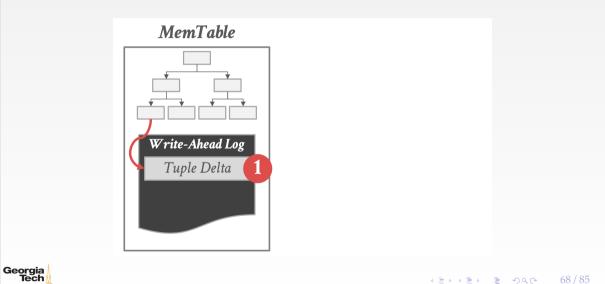


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### **PM-Aware Log-Structured Engine**



# Write-Behind Logging

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# Observation

- WAL serves two purposes
  - Transform random writes into sequential log writes.
  - Support transaction rollback.
  - Design makes sense for disks with slow random writes.
- But PM supports fast random writes
  - Directly write data to the multi-versioned database.
  - Only record <u>meta-data</u> about committed txns in log.



# Write-Behind Logging

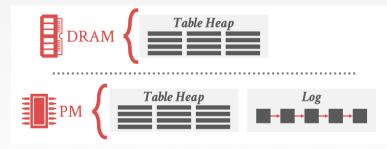
• PM-centric logging protocol that provides instant recovery and minimal duplication overhead.

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- Directly propagate changes to the database.
- Only record meta-data in log.
- Reference
- Recover the database almost instantaneously.
  - Need to record meta-data about in-flight transactions.
  - In case of failure, ignore their effects.

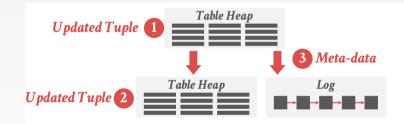


### Write-Behind Logging



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- DBMS assigns timestamps to transactions
  - Get timestamps within same group commit timestamp range to identify and ignore effects of in-flight txns.

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- Use failed group commit timestamp range:
  - DBMS uses range during tuple visibility checks.
  - Ignores tuples created or updated within this range.
  - UNDO is implicitly done via visibility checks.



- Recovery consists of only analysis phase
  - The DBMS can immediately start processing transactions after restart with explicit UNDO/REDO phases.
- Garbage collection eventually kicks in to remove the physical versions of uncommitted transactions.

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- Using timestamp range information in write-behind log.
- After this finishes, no need to do extra visibility checks.



#### Metadata for Instant Recovery

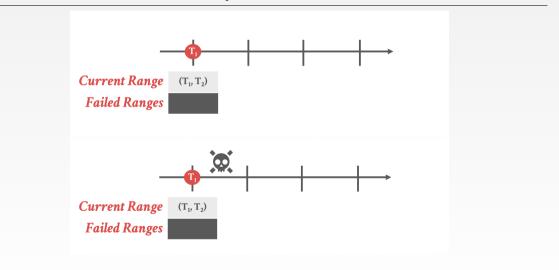
• Use group commit timestamp range to ignore effects of transactions in failed group commit.

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Maintain list of failed timestamp ranges.



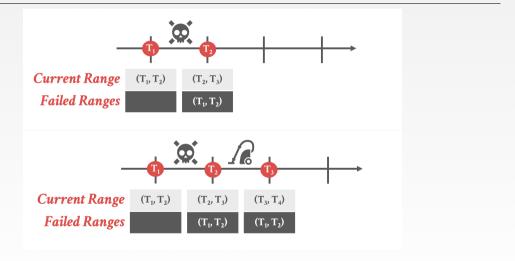
### Metadata for Instant Recovery



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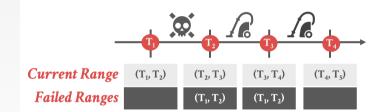
#### Metadata for Instant Recovery



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#### Metadata for Instant Recovery

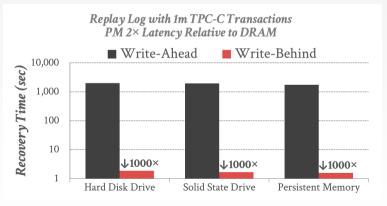


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### Write-Behind Logging – Recovery

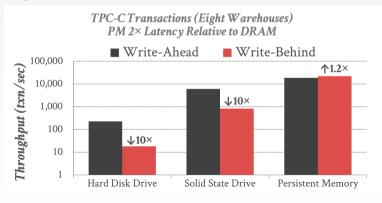
- Replay Log with 1m TPC-C Transactions
- PM 2× Latency Relative to DRAM





### Write-Behind Logging – Runtime

- TPC-C Transactions (Eight Warehouses)
- PM 2× Latency Relative to DRAM



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# Conclusion

### **PM Summary**

- Optimization of Storage Engine Architectures
  - Leverage byte-addressability to avoid unnecessary data duplication.
- Optimization of Logging and Recovery Protocol
  - PM-optimized recovery protocols avoid the overhead of processing a log.
  - Non-volatile data structures ensure consistency.



## **Parting Thoughts**

- The design of a in-memory DBMS is significantly different than a disk-oriented system.
- The world has finally become comfortable with in-memory data storage and processing.
- Byte-addressable PM is going to be a game changer.
- We are likely to see many new computational components that DBMSs can use in the next decade.

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The core ideas / algorithms will still be the same.



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#### **Next Class**

Concurrency Control

