

# Data Warehousing

Saptarshi Pyne Assistant Professor Department of Computer Science and Engineering Indian Institute of Technology Jodhpur, Rajasthan, India 342030

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## **What we discussed in the last class**

- Hashing and Indexing
	- Hash maps or hash tables
	- B-trees
	- Sorted strings tables (SSTables)
	- Log-structured merge trees (LSM-trees)
	- Bloom filters

Transaction processing = Executing jobs that are needed to be performed with low latency i.e. in near real-time.

In the context of the term 'transaction processing', a 'transaction' could either be a database transaction with the ACID properties or a single set of read/write operations with the BASE properties.

Batch processing = Executing jobs that are scheduled to be performed periodically such as every night at 12 am.

#### **Online transaction processing (OLTP) vs. online analytic processing (OLAP)**

OLTP and OLAP are two broad categories of **storage engines**.

Storage engine = In a DBMS software, the component that manages how data is stored in main memory and on disk [1].

OLTP = Storage engines optimized for storing everyday operational data.

OLAP = Storage engines optimized for handling business analytics queries.

# **ETL (Extract-transform-load)**



Figure 3-8. Simplified outline of ETL into a data warehouse.

# **Data warehouse vs. data lake vs. data lakehouse**





A 'Data Lakehouse Architecture and **AI Company**'.

It is a 4 billion dollar data engineering and AI startup founded by the Apache Spark founders in 2016 at UC Berkeley.

#### **Data lakehouse = lake + warehouse**

#### **Amazon Redshift** is a **lakehouse** service offered by AWS.



# **Types of data warehouse schemas**

- The star schema
	- Centre = A fact table with one event per row
	- Periphery = Dimensional tables each representing different dimensions of the fact table
- The snowflake schema

#### **An example of a star schema**



Figure 3-9. Example of a star schema for use in a data warehouse.

# **Types of data warehouse schemas (contd.)**

- The star schema
- The snowflake schema
	- More normalized than the star schema
	- Demerit: Requires more joins for OLAP. More suitable for OLTP. **Dimension N**



Figure courtesy:

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Star\\_schema#/media/File:Star\\_Schema.png](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Star_schema/media/File:Star_Schema.png) [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Snowflake\\_schema#/media/File:Snowflake\\_schema.png](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Snowflake_schema/media/File:Snowflake_schema.png)

OLTP usually handles a continuous stream of read/write operations **each affecting a small number of records**. E.g.,

#### UPDATE fact\_sales SET quantity = 1 WHERE product\_sk =  $69$  AND store\_sk = 3;

Hence, the efficiency lies in finding the target records as fast as possible. For this reason, an efficient indexing scheme is paramount.

#### **How do OLTP storage engines store data in disk? (contd.)**

- The (classical) update-in-place paradigm
	- Update a single log file
	- Indexing data structures: B-tree, B+ tree
	- Software: Most OLTP storage engines
- The (modern) log-structured paradigm
	- Never update a block, append to the existing block, write a new block
	- Indexing data structures: SSTables, LSM-trees,
	- Software: Bitcask, LevelDB, Cassandra, HBase, Lucene

# **Challenges of OLTP storage engines**

**Disk seek time** is a limiting factor due to continuous disk read/write operations.

• Resolution 1:

- Replace random-access writes with sequentialaccess writes i.e. log-structured writes. The read/write head of the hard disk can perform random access by moving its head from one location to a distant location. Such head movements are time consuming. One the other hand, sequential access allows the read/write head to continuously move to the next word. Such sequential movement is much less time consuming.

# **Challenges of OLTP storage engines (contd.)**

**Disk seek time** is a limiting factor due to continuous disk read/write operations.

- Resolution 2:
	- Utilize flash-based solid state drive (SSD) disks.



# **Challenges of OLTP storage engines (contd.)**

SSDs store data as electrical voltage in **flash memory cells** that have random access time in microseconds.

Additionally, modern SSDs utilize **parallelization** by dividing the memory cells into partitions and then having one controller for each partition.



# **Challenges of OLTP storage engines (contd.)**



# **How do OLAP storage engines store data in disk?**

OLTP usually generates business intelligence reports by performing queries **each reading a small number of columns from a large chunk of related records**.

E.g., (Analyze whether people are more inclined to buy fresh fruit or candy, depending on the day of the week)

SELECT **dim\_date.weekday**, **dim\_product.category**, SUM(**fact\_sales.quantity**) AS quantity\_sold

FROM fact sales

JOIN dim\_date ON fact\_sales.date\_key = dim\_date.date\_key

JOIN dim\_product ON fact\_sales.product\_sk = dim\_product.product\_sk WHERE

dim\_date.year = 2014 AND dim\_product.category IN ('Fresh fruit', 'Candy') GROUP BY dim\_date.weekday, dim\_product.category;

Hence, the efficiency lies in compressing column data.

#### **The column storage strategy**

A roworiented storage (a fact table usually have trillions of records and 100+ columns)

A columnoriented storage

(each column is stored in a separate file)



#### Columnar storage layout:

fact sales table



Figure 3-10. Storing relational data by column, rather than by row.

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#### **Column compression using bitmaps (one bitmap for each distinct value)**



The number of bits in each bitmap  $=$  The number of rows in the table.

## **Fast analytics using column bitmaps**

Case study: SELECT quantity FROM fact sales WHERE product\_sk =  $31$  AND store sk = 3;

product\_sk values: 69, 69, 69, 74, 31, 31, 31, 31 product\_sk = 31: 0 0 0 0 1 1 1 1

store\_sk values: 4, 5, 5, 3, 2, 3, 3, 8 store\_sk = 3: 0 0 0 1 0 1 1 0

 $(preduct_s k = 31 AND store_s k = 3)$ : bitwise AND  $00007110$ Select only the 6<sup>th</sup> and 7<sup>th</sup> rows.

### **Sparse bitmaps**

For a column, when the number of distinct values is small and the values are almost uniformly distributed, the vanilla bitmap encoding is sufficient.

However, when there are a large number of distinct values or the distribution of values is skewed, we will see a lot of zeroes in each bitmap. Such bitmaps are called **sparse bitmaps**.

Sparse bitmaps can be more efficiently stored as **runlength encoded (RLE) bitmaps**.

# **Run-length encoded (RLE) bitmaps**



Figure 3-11. Compressed, bitmap-indexed storage of a single column.

# **Challenges of OLAP storage engines**

Once the to-read values are located, we also need a mechanism to transfer/copy them from the disk to the main memory as fast as possible.

# **Challenges of OLAP storage engines (contd.)**

**Disk bandwidth** is a limiting factor for transferring large volumes of data from disk to main memory.

• Resolutions: Use SSDs with higher bandwidth connection interfaces, e.g., use NVMe PCIe SSDs instead of SATA SSDs.



# **Challenges of OLAP storage engines (contd.)**



# **Another way to reduce read latency in OLAP**

#### Ready-to-read data (like ready-to-eat food)

- Materialized aggregates
	- Materialized views:

A materialized view is a database object that contains the results of a query.

Example:

CREATE MATERIALIZED VIEW mv1 AS SELECT \* FROM fact\_sales;

#### **Another way to reduce read latency in OLAP (contd.)**

#### Ready-to-read data (like ready-to-eat food)

- Materialized aggregates
	- Materialized views
		- Special type: Data cubes or OLAP cubes or hypercubes



Figure 3-12. Two dimensions of a data cube, aggregating data by summing.

#### **References**

- M. KLEPPMANN (2017), Designing Data-Intensive Applications The Big Ideas Behind Reliable, Scalable, and Maintainable Systems, O'Reilly.
	- Pages 90-108, Chapter 3: Storage and Retrieval

# Thank you