

# PyData SV 2013 - Tutorials

## HDF5 is for Lovers

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**Which you will learn today!**



# A Note on the Format

Intermixed, there will be:

- Slides
- Interactive Hacking
- Exercises



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Intermixed, there will be:

- Slides
- Interactive Hacking
- Exercises

Feel free to:

- Ask questions at anytime
- Explore at your own pace.





# Class Makeup

By a show of hands, how many people have used:

- HDF5 before?



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# Class Makeup

By a show of hands, how many people have used:

- HDF5 before?
- PyTables?
- h5py?
- the HDF5 C API?
- SQL?
- Other binary data formats?



# Setup

Please clone the repo:

```
git clone git://github.com/scopatz/hdf5-is-for-lovers.git
```

Or download a tarball from:

<https://github.com/scopatz/hdf5-is-for-lovers>



# Warm up exercise

In IPython:

```
import numpy as np
import tables as tb

f = tb.openFile('temp.h5', 'a')
heart = np.ones(42, dtype=[('rate', int), ('beat', float)])
f.createTable('/', 'heart', heart)
f.close()
```

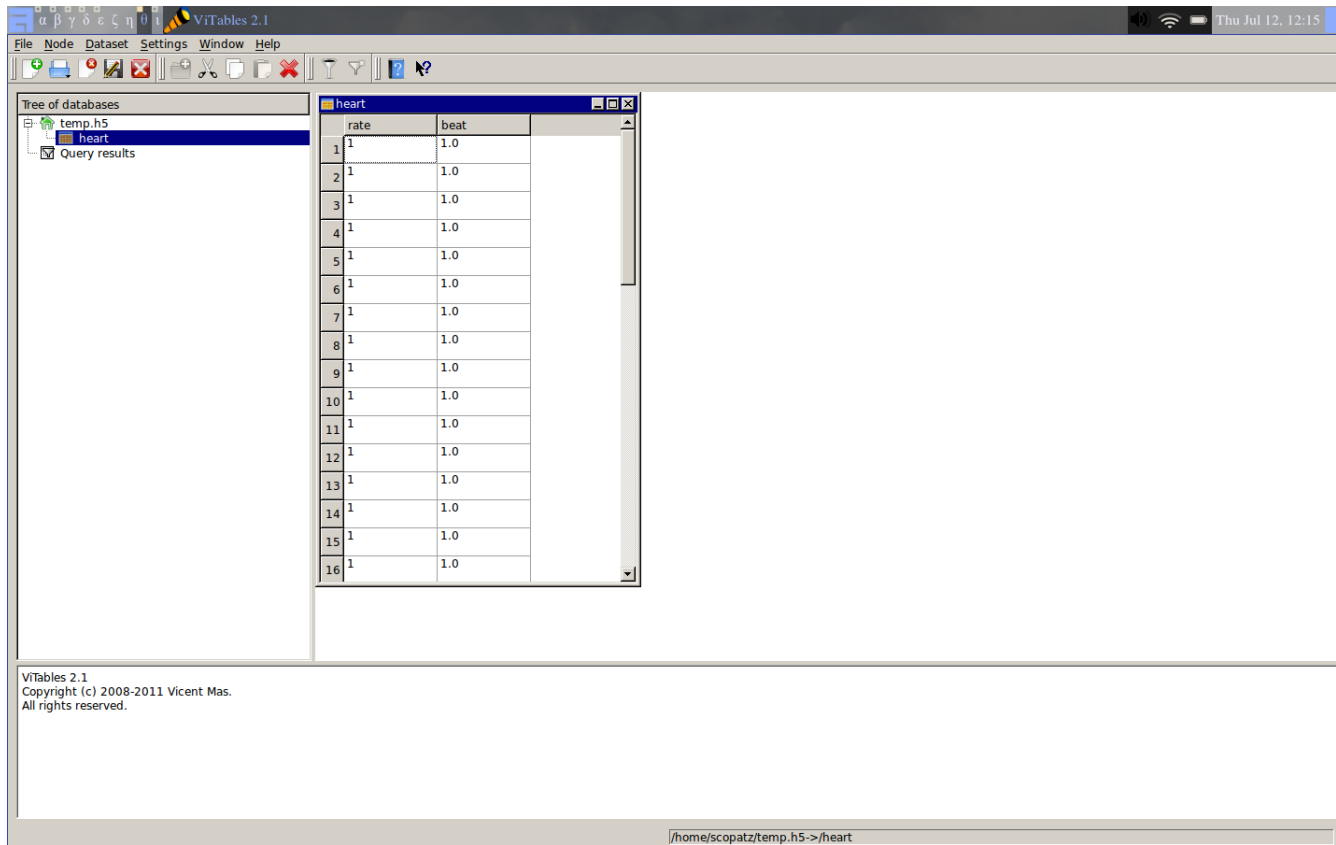
Or run `python exer/warmup.py`





# Warm up exercise

You should see in ViTables:



# A Brief Introduction

For persisting structured numerical data, binary formats are superior to plaintext.



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For persisting structured numerical data, binary formats are superior to plaintext.

For one thing, they are often smaller:

<i># small ints</i>	<i># med ints</i>
<b>42</b> (4 bytes)	<b>123456</b> (4 bytes)
'42' (2 bytes)	'123456' (6 bytes)
<i># near-int floats</i>	<i># e-notation floats</i>
<b>12.34</b> (8 bytes)	<b>42.424242E+42</b> (8 bytes)
'12.34' (5 bytes)	'42.424242E+42' (13 bytes)



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## *Note*

This is the mechanism behind `numpy.save()` and `numpy.savez()`.



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In effect, HDF5 is a file system within a file.



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(More on this later.)



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Basic dataset classes include:

- Array



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- CArray (chunked array)



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- VArray (variable length array)
- Table (structured array w/ named fields)

All of these must be composed of atomic types.





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- **float**: Floating point types. 16, 32 and 64 (default) bits.
- **complex**: Complex number. 64 and 128 (default) bits.
- **string**: Raw string types. 8-bit positive multiples.



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PyTables docs may be found at <http://pytables.github.com/>



# Opening Files

```
import tables as tb  
f = tb.openFile('/path/to/file', 'a')
```



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- *'r'*: Read-only; no data can be modified.
- *'w'*: Write; a new file is created (an existing file with the same name would be deleted).
- *'a'*: Append; an existing file is opened for reading and writing, and if the file does not exist it is created.
- *'r+'*: It is similar to *'a'*, but the file must already exist.



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In HDF5, all nodes stem from a root ("/" or `f.root`).



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This is known as natural naming.





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Creating new nodes must be done on the file handle:

```
f.createGroup( '/', 'a_group', "My Group" )  
f.root.a_group
```



# Creating Datasets

The two most common datasets are Tables & Arrays.



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Appropriate create methods live on the file handle:

```
# integer array  
f.createArray('/a_group', 'arthur_count', [1, 2, 5, 3])
```



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Appropriate create methods live on the file handle:

```
# integer array  
f.createArray('/a_group', 'arthur_count', [1, 2, 5, 3])
```

```
# tables, need descriptions  
dt = np.dtype([('id', int), ('name', 'S10')])  
knights = np.array([(42, 'Lancelot'), (12, 'Bedivere')], dtype=dt)  
f.createTable('/', 'knights', dt)  
f.root.knights.append(knights)
```



# Reading Datasets

Arrays and Tables try to preserve the original flavor that they were created with.



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```
>>> print f.root.a_group.arthur_count[:]  
[1, 2, 5, 3]
```

```
>>> type(f.root.a_group.arthur_count[:])  
list
```

```
>>> type(f.root.a_group.arthur_count)  
tables.array.Array
```



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```
>>> f.root.knights[1]
(12, 'Bedivere')

>>> f.root.knights[:1]
array([(42, 'Lancelot')], dtype=[('id', '<i8'), ('name', 'S10')])

>>> mask = (f.root.knights.cols.id[:] < 28)
>>> f.root.knights[mask]
array([(12, 'Bedivere')], dtype=[('id', '<i8'), ('name', 'S10')])

>>> f.root.knights[([1, 0],)]
array([(12, 'Bedivere'), (42, 'Lancelot')], dtype=[('id', '<i8'), ('name', 'S10')])
```





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>>> f.root.knights[([1, 0],)]
array([(12, 'Bedivere'), (42, 'Lancelot')], dtype=[('id', '<i8'), ('name', 'S10')])
```

Data accessed in this way is *memory mapped*.



# Exercise

**`exer/peaks_of_kilimanjaro.py`**



**NONE SHALL PASS**



# Exercise

`sol/peaks_of_kilimanjaro.py`



# Hierarchy Layout

Suppose there is a big table of like-things:

```
# people:  name,           profession,    home
people = [('Arthur',      'King',          'Camelot'),
          ('Lancelot',    'Knight',       'Lake'),
          ('Bedevere',    'Knight',       'Wales'),
          ('Witch',       'Witch',        'Village'),
          ('Guard',       'Man-at-Arms',   'Swamp Castle'),
          ('Ni',          'Knight',       'Shrubbery'),
          ('Strange Woman', 'Lady',      'Lake'),
          ...
          ]
```



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          ('Ni',          'Knight',      'Shrubbery'),
          ('Strange Woman', 'Lady',      'Lake'),
          ...
          ]
```

It is tempting to throw everyone into a big `people` table.



# Hierarchy Layout

However, a search over a class of people can be eliminated by splitting these tables up:

```
knight = [('Lancelot',      'Knight',      'Lake'),
          ('Bedevere',     'Knight',      'Wales'),
          ('Ni',           'Knight',      'Shrubbery'),
          ]

others = [('Arthur',      'King',      'Camelot'),
          ('Witch',       'Witch',     'Village'),
          ('Guard',       'Man-at-Arms', 'Swamp Castle'),
          ('Strange Woman', 'Lady',     'Lake'),
          ...
          ]
```



# Hierarchy Layout

The profession column is now redundant:

```
knight = [('Lancelot', 'Lake'),  
          ('Bedevere', 'Wales'),  
          ('Ni', 'Shrubbery'),  
          ]  
  
others = [('Arthur', 'King', 'Camelot'),  
          ('Witch', 'Witch', 'Village'),  
          ('Guard', 'Man-at-Arms', 'Swamp Castle'),  
          ('Strange Woman', 'Lady', 'Lake'),  
          ...  
          ]
```



# Hierarchy Layout

Information can be embedded implicitly in the hierarchy as well:

```
root
|
| - England
|   |
|   | - knight
|   | - others
|
| - France
|   |
|   | - knight
|   | - others
```





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Ultimately, it is all about *speed*, especially for big tables.



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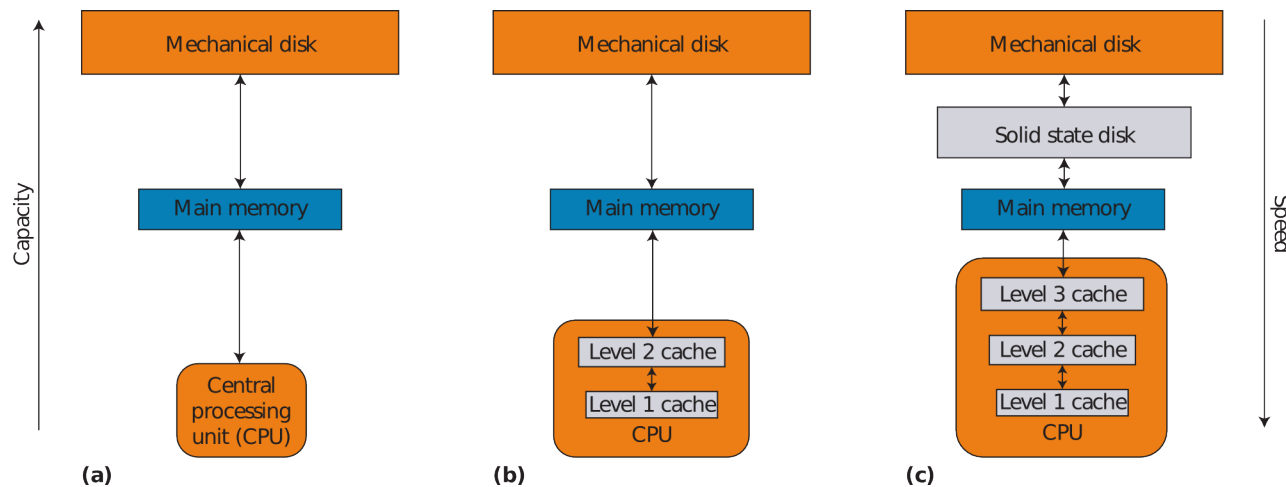
Accessing a (mechanical) HDD is leaving your office, leaving your building, wandering the planet for a year and four months to return to your desk with the information finally made available.

Thanks K. Smith & <http://duartes.org/gustavo/blog/post/what-your-computer-does-while-you-wait>



# Starving CPU Problem

Waiting around for access times prior to computation is known as the *Starving CPU Problem*.



Francesc Altet. 2010. Why Modern CPUs Are Starving and What Can Be Done about It. IEEE Des. Test 12, 2 (March 2010), 68-71. DOI=10.1109/MCSE.2010.51

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# Tables

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In fact, the struct / dtype / description concept is only a convenient way to assign meaning to bytes:

ids	first	last
-----	-----	-----



# Tables

Data types may be nested (though they are stored in flattened way).

```
dt = np.dtype([('id', int),
               ('first', 'S5'),
               ('last', 'S5'),
               ('parents', [
                   ('mom_id', int),
                   ('dad_id', int),
               ]),
              ])

people = np.fromstring(np.random.bytes(dt.itemsize * 10000), dt)
f.createTable('/', 'random_peeps', people)
```



# Tables

Table properties

File Node Dataset Settings Window Help

Tree of databases

- tmp.h5
  - knights
  - random\_peeps
  - big1
  - big
  - a\_group
  - Query results

random\_peeps

	id	first	last	parents
1	-416890702...	'\x0e\x03'\x0...	'\xad \xbd\x0...	(-5537396479236512389, 7583416593426657664)
2	8563582934...	'\xc0\x07'\x0...	'\x93'\x07'\x0...	(-4518160632182699102, -4951794778879208964)
3	4223310427...	'6'\xab'\xe4'\x...	'\xe8y'\x10'\x...	(3126181522521231759, -4203444881920202933)
4	4704731021...	'\x0a'\x05'\x...	'Q'\xe9'\xb4\$'	(-6397272458003114576, 2344611707613511300)
5	9048963637...			130038029)
6	9520397286...			017638923)
7	-429875389...			10766412)
8	-256399450...			793545726)
9	1959617167...			445308142)
10	-505359735...			555817104)
11	-239321754...			85999326)
12	-333221163...			106578144)
13	-618032879...			816926721)
14	-368773989...			71478507)
15	6379350372...			43060661)
16	3215441782...			240051631)

General System attributes User Attributes

Database

Name: random\_peeps

Path: /random\_peeps

Type: table

Dataspace

Dimensions: 1

Shape: (10000,)

Data Type: record

Compression: uncompressed

Field name	Type	Shape
last	string	()
parents	nested	-

OK Cancel

ViTables 2.1  
Copyright (c) 2008-2011 Vicent Mas.  
All rights reserved.  
Opening cancelled: file /home/scopatz/tmp.h5 has not HDF5 format.

//home/scopatz/tmp.h5->/random\_peeps



# Tables

Python already has the ability to dynamically declare the size of descriptions.





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This is accomplished in compiled languages through normal memory allocation and careful byte counting:

```
typedef struct mat {  
    double mass;  
    int atoms_per_mol;  
    double comp [];  
} mat;
```



# Tables

```
typedef struct mat {
    double mass;
    int atoms_per_mol;
    double comp [];
} mat;

size_t mat_size = sizeof(mat) + sizeof(double)*comp_size;
hid_t desc = H5Tcreate(H5T_COMPOUND, mat_size);
hid_t comptype = H5Tarray_create2(H5T_NATIVE_DOUBLE, 1, nuc_dims);

// make the data table type
H5Tinsert(desc, "mass", HOFFSET(mat, mass), H5T_NATIVE_DOUBLE);
H5Tinsert(desc, "atoms_per_mol", HOFFSET(mat, atoms_per_mol), H5T_NATIVE_DOUBLE);
H5Tinsert(desc, "comp", HOFFSET(mat, comp), comp_type);

// make the data array for a single row, have to over-allocate
mat * mat_data = new mat[mat_size];

// ...fill in data array...

// Write the row
H5Dwrite(data_set, desc, mem_space, data_hyperslab, H5P_DEFAULT, mat_data);
```



# Exercise

**exer/boatload.py**



**NONE SHALL PASS**



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`sol/boatload.py`



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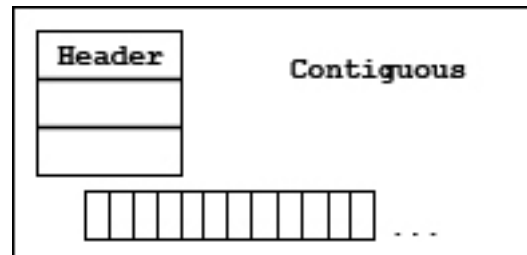
Extra metadata pointing to the location of the chunk in the file and in dataspace must be stored.

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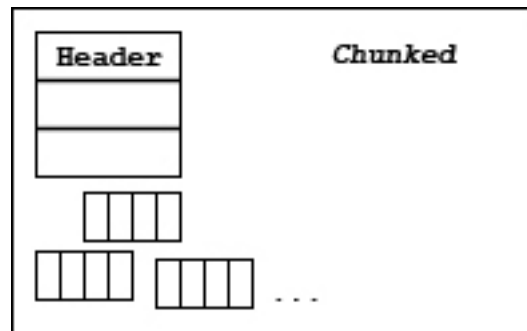
**Note:** Currently, PyTables only allows one extendable dim.



# Chunking



*Contiguous Dataset*



# *Chunked Dataset*



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All I/O happens by chunk. This is important for:

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- reading and writing in parallel
- small chunks are good for accessing some of data
- large chunks are good for accessing lots of data





# Chunking

Any chunked dataset allows you to set the chunksize.

```
f.createTable('/', 'omnomnom', data, chunkshape=(42,42))
```



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However, it could not have a 12x12 chunksize, since the ranks must be less than or equal to that of the array.



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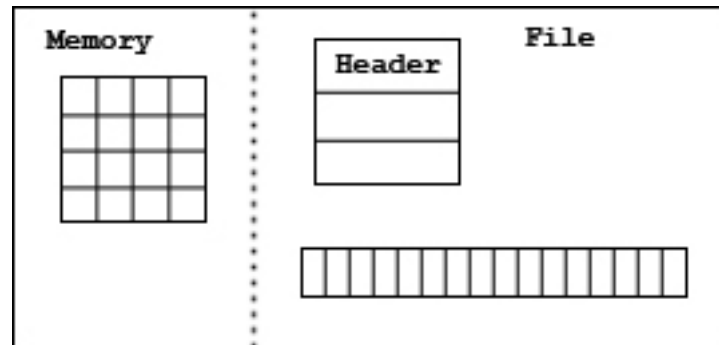
For example, a 4x4 chunked array could have a 3x3 chunksize.

However, it could not have a 12x12 chunksize, since the ranks must be less than or equal to that of the array.

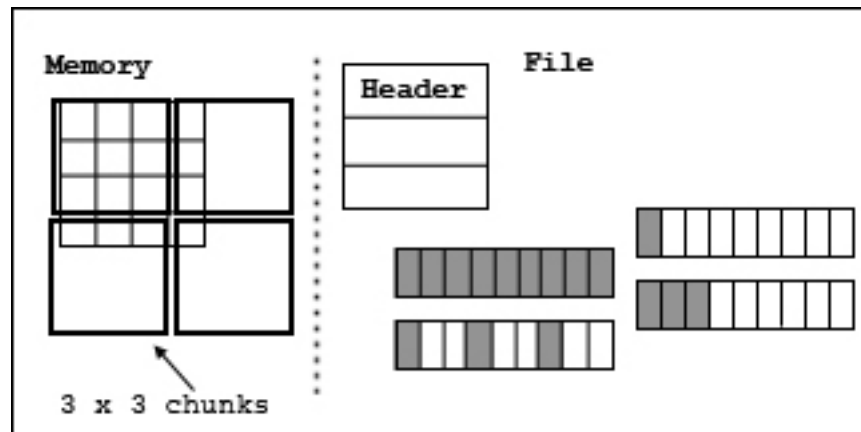
Manipulating the chunksize is a great way to fine-tune an application.



# Chunking



*Contiguous 4x4 Dataset*

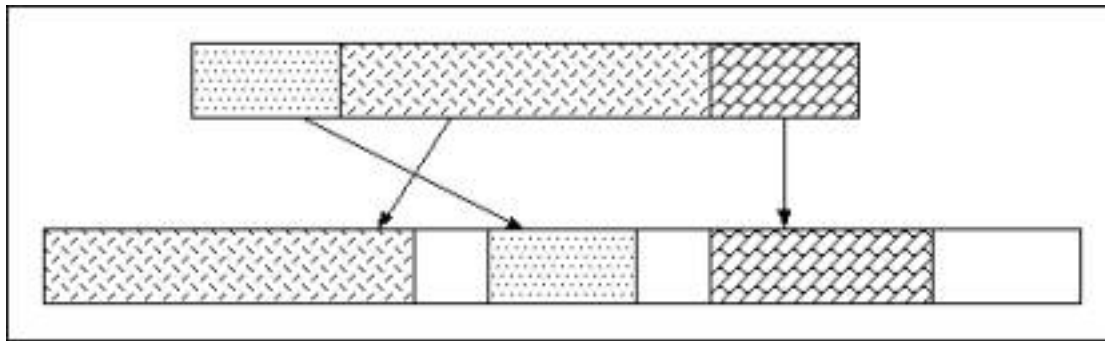


# *Chunked 4x4 Dataset*



# Chunking

Note that the addresses of chunks in dataspace (memory) has no bearing on their arrangement in the actual file.



*Dataspace (top) vs File (bottom) Chunk Locations*



# In-Core vs Out-of-Core

Calculations depend on the current memory layout.





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Recall access time analogy (wander Earth for 16 months).



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**Definitions:**



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# In-Core vs Out-of-Core

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## Definitions:

- Operations which require all data to be in memory are *in-core* and may be memory bound (NumPy).
- Operations where the dataset is external to memory are *out-of-core* (or *in-kernel*) and may be CPU bound.



# In-Core Operations

Say, `a` and `b` are arrays sitting in memory:

```
a = np.array(...)  
b = np.array(...)  
c = 42 * a + 28 * b + 6
```



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For `N` operations, `N-1` temporaries are made.

Wastes memory and is slow. Pulling from disk is slower.





# In-Core Operations

A less memory intensive implementation would be an element-wise evaluation:

```
c = np.empty(...)  
for i in range(len(c)):  
    c[i] = 42 * a[i] + 28 * b[i] + 6
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But if `a` and `b` were HDF5 arrays on disk, individual element access time would kill you.

Even with in memory NumPy arrays, there are problems with gratuitous Python type checking.



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```
for i in range(0, len(a), 256):  
    r0, r1 = a[i:i+256], b[i:i+256]  
    multiply(r0, 42, r2)  
    multiply(r1, 28, r3)  
    add(r2, r3, r2); add(r2, 6, r2)  
    c[i:i+256] = r2
```



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PyTables implements a `tb.Expr` class which backends to the numexpr VM but has additional optimizations for disk reading and writing.



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This is the basic idea behind numexpr, which provides a general virtual machine for NumPy arrays.

This problem lends itself nicely to parallelism.

Numexpr has low-level multithreading, avoiding the GIL.

PyTables implements a `tb.Expr` class which backends to the numexpr VM but has additional optimizations for disk reading and writing.

The full array need never be in memory.



# Out-of-Core Operations

Fully out-of-core expression example:

```
shape = (10, 10000)
f = tb.openFile("/tmp/expression.h5", "w")

a = f.createCArray(f.root, 'a', tb.Float32Atom(dflt=1.), shape)
b = f.createCArray(f.root, 'b', tb.Float32Atom(dflt=2.), shape)
c = f.createCArray(f.root, 'c', tb.Float32Atom(dflt=3.), shape)
out = f.createCArray(f.root, 'out', tb.Float32Atom(dflt=3.), shape)

expr = tb.Expr("a*b+c")
expr.setOutput(out)
d = expr.eval()

print "returned-->", repr(d)
f.close()
```



# Querying

The most common operation is asking an existing dataset whether its elements satisfy some criteria. This is known as *querying*.



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Because querying is so common PyTables defines special methods on Tables.

```
tb.Table.where(cond)
tb.Table.getWhereList(cond)
tb.Table.readWhere(cond)
tb.Table.whereAppend(dest, cond)
```



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They are executed in the context of table itself combined with `locals()` and `globals()`.

The `where()` method itself returns an iterator over all matched (hit) rows:

```
for row in table.where('(col1 < 42) & (col2 == col3)'):  
    # do something with row
```



# Querying

For a speed comparison, here is a complex query using regular Python:

```
result = [row['col2'] for row in table if (  
    ((row['col4'] >= lim1 and row['col4'] < lim2) or  
    (row['col2'] > lim3 and row['col2'] < lim4))) and  
    ((row['col1']+3.1*row['col2']+row['col3']*row['col4']) > lim5)  
)]
```



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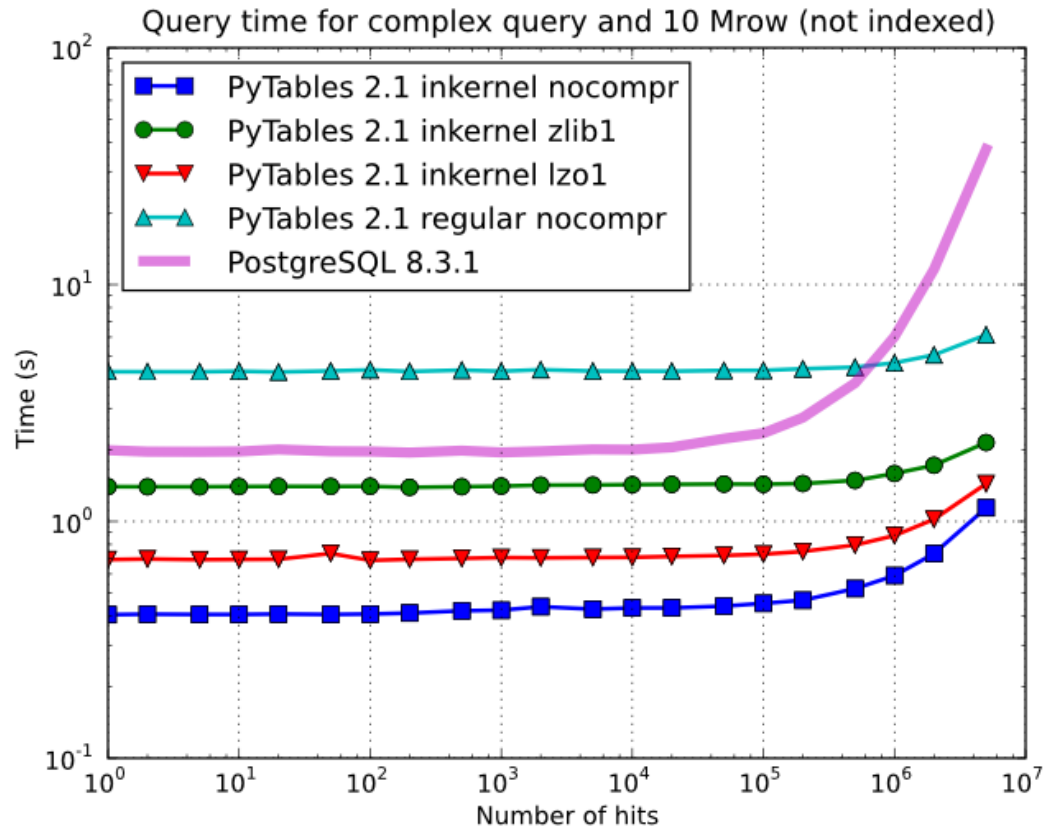
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result = [row['col2'] for row in table if (  
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)]
```

And this is the equivalent out-of-core search:

```
result = [row['col2'] for row in table.where(  
    '(((col4 >= lim1) & (col4 < lim2)) | '  
    '((col2 > lim3) & (col2 < lim4)) & '  
    '((col1+3.1*col2+col3*col4) > lim5)) ')]
```



# Querying

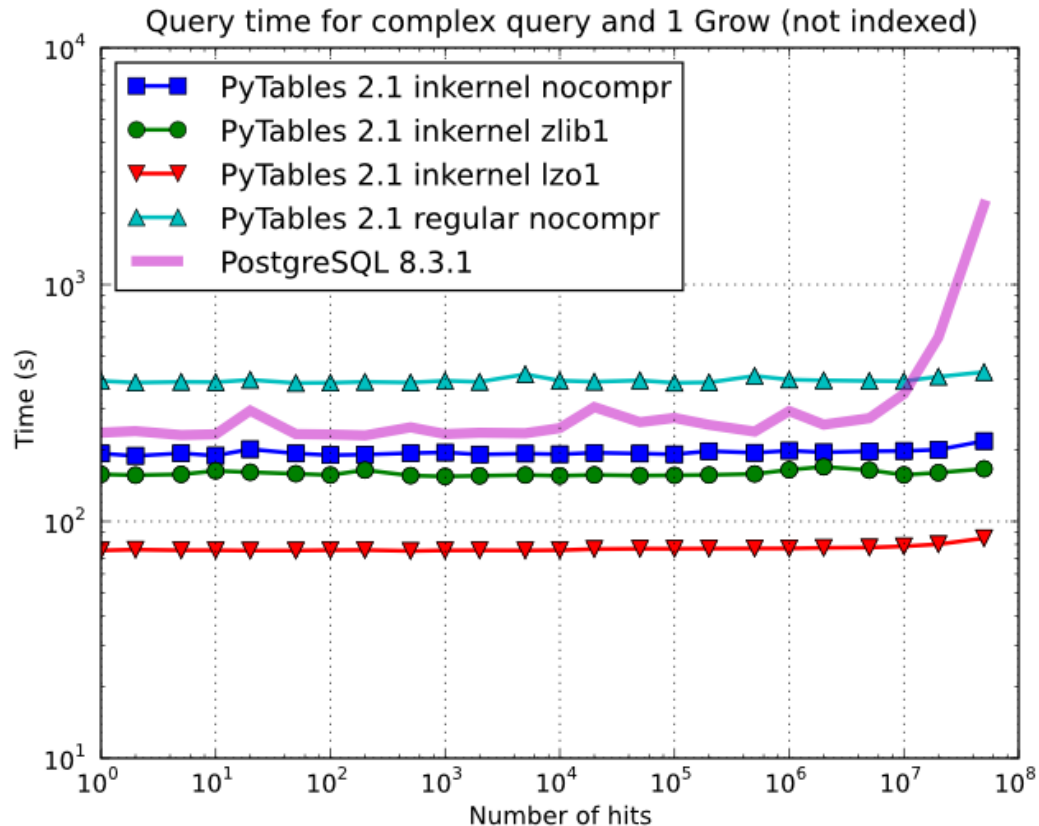


*Complex query with 10 million rows. Data fits in memory.*





# Querying



*Complex query with 1 billion rows. Too big for memory.*







# Exercise

**exer/crono.py**



**NONE SHALL PASS**



# Exercise

`sol/crono.py`



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A more general way to solve the starving CPU problem is through *compression*.

Compression is when the dataset is piped through a zipping algorithm on write and the inverse unzipping algorithm on read.

Each chunk is compressed independently, so chunks end up with a varying number bytes.

Has some storage overhead, but may drastically reduce file sizes for very regular data.



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However, because there is *less total information* to transfer, the time spent unpacking the array can be far less than moving the array around wholesale.



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Compression/Decompression is clearly more CPU intensive than simply blitting an array into memory.

However, because there is *less total information* to transfer, the time spent unpacking the array can be far less than moving the array around wholesale.

This is kind of like power steering, you can either tell wheels how to turn manually or you can tell the car how you want the wheels turned.



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The compression capabilities feature a plugin architecture which allow for a variety of different algorithms, including user defined ones!

PyTables supports:

- zlib (default),
- lzo,
- bzip2, and
- blosc.



# Compression

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# filters may also be set on most other nodes
f.createTable('/', 'table', desc, filters=filters)
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Filters only act on chunked datasets.



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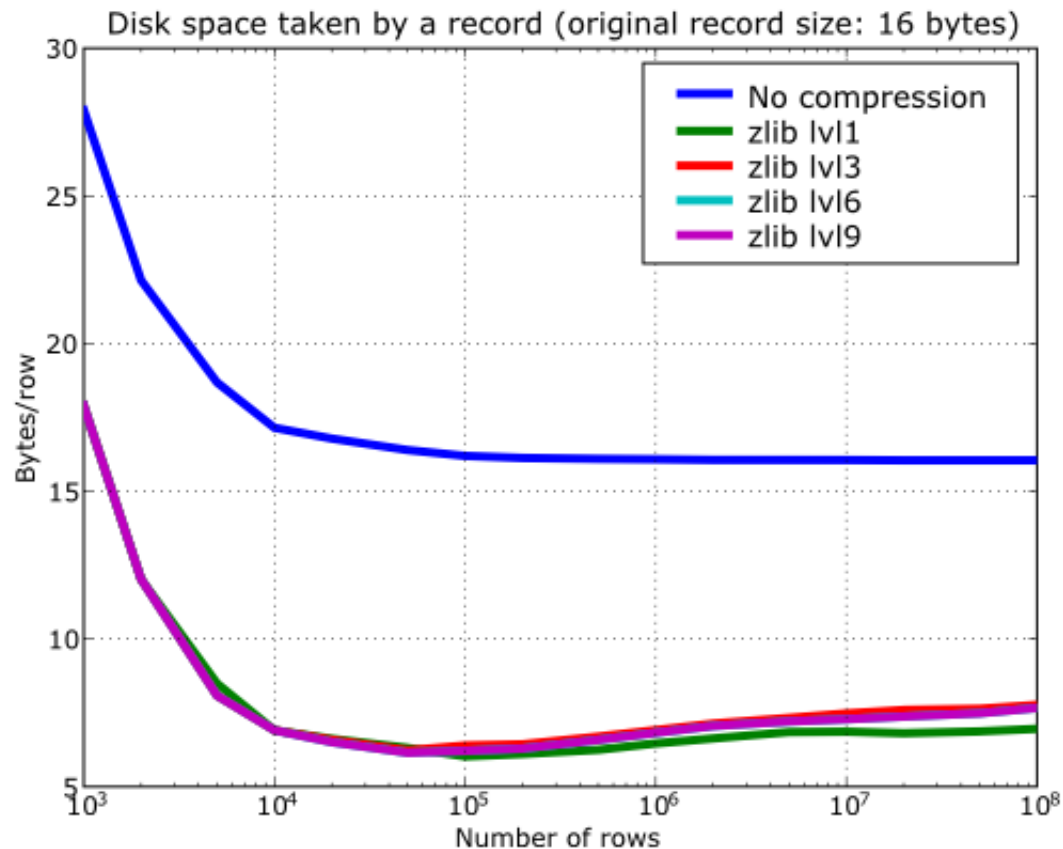
- A mid-level (5) compression is sufficient. No need to go all the way up (9).
- Use zlib if you must guarantee complete portability.
- Use blosc all other times. It is optimized for HDF5.

*But why?* (I don't have time to go into the details of blosc. However here are some justifications...)





# Compression

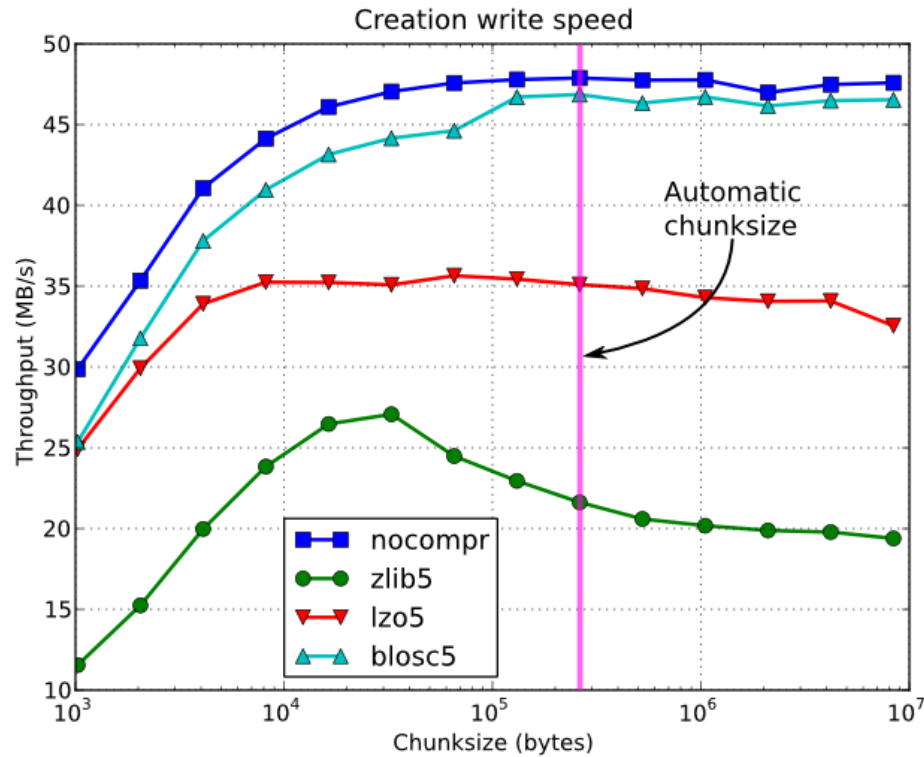


*Comparison of different compression levels of zlib.*





# Compression

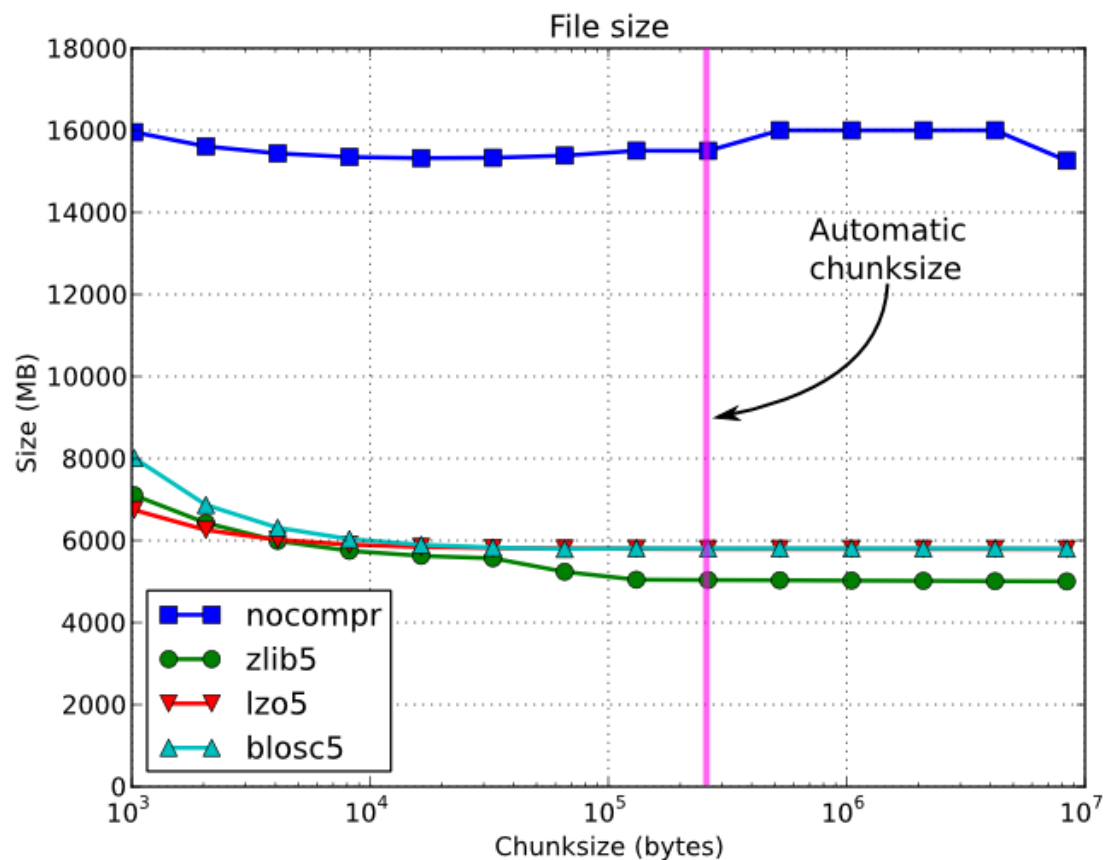


*Creation time per element for a 15 GB EArray and different chunksizes.*





# Compression

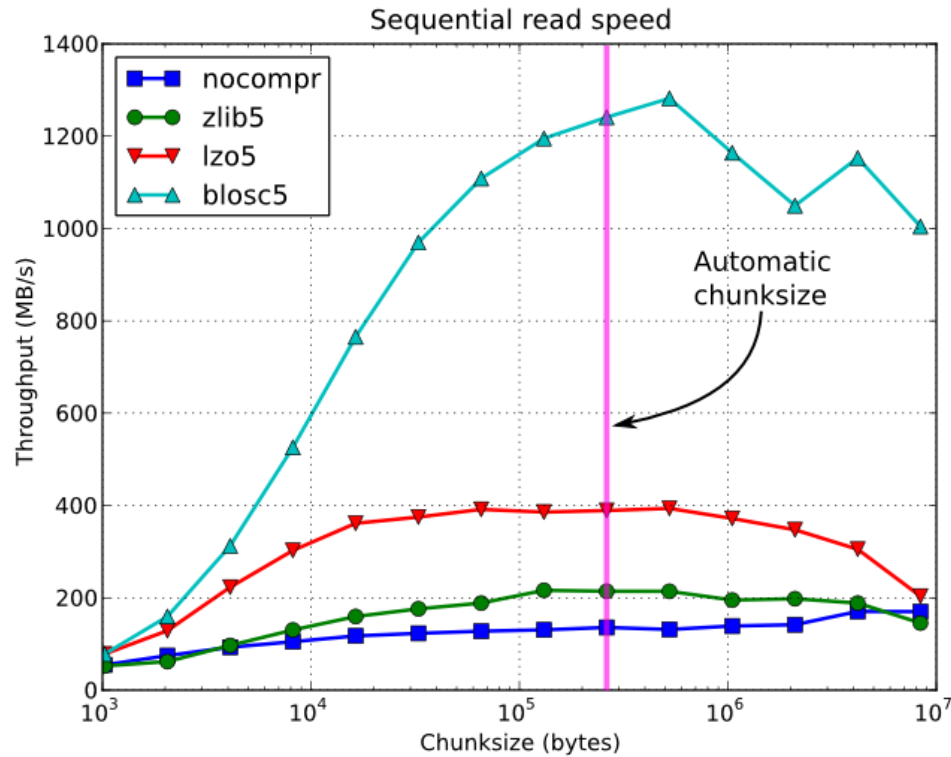


*File sizes for a 15 GB EArray and different chunksizes.*





# Compression



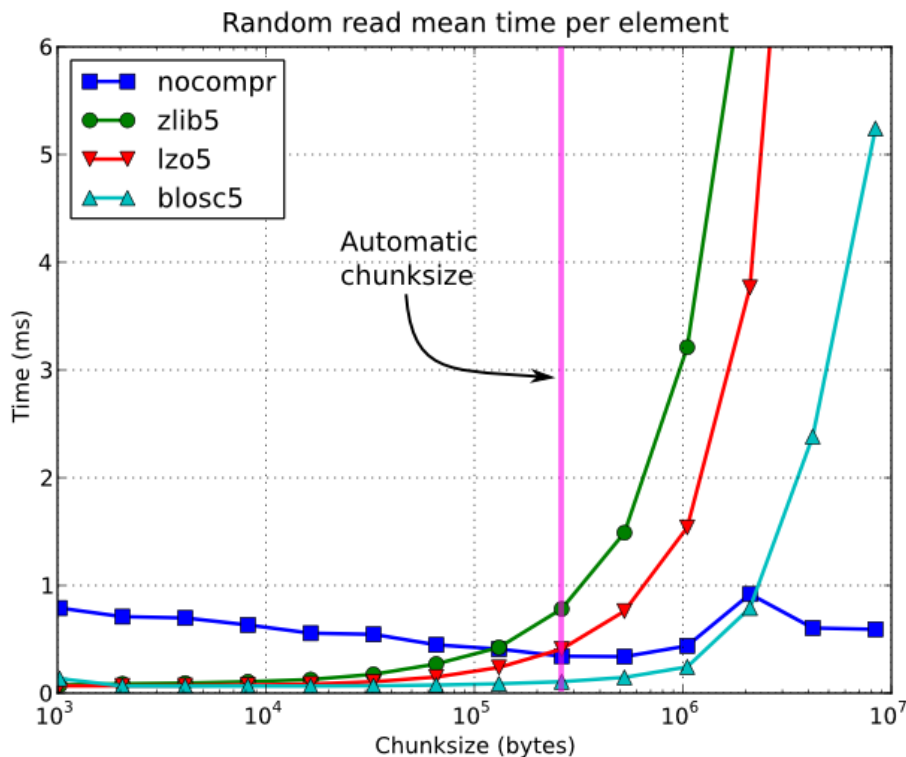
*Sequential access time per element for a 15 GB EArray and different chunksizes.*







# Compression



*Random access time per element for a 15 GB EArray and different chunksizes.*





# Exercise

`exer/spam_filter.py`



NONE SHALL PASS



# Exercise

`sol/spam_filter.py`



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Overwhelmingly, numpy arrays have been the in-memory data structure of choice.

Using lists or tuples instead of arrays follows analogously.

It is data structures like sets and dictionaries which do not quite map.

However, as long as all elements may be cast into the same atomic type, these structures can be stored in HDF5 with relative ease.





# Sets

Example of serializing and deserializing sets:

```
>>> s = {1.0, 42, 77.7, 6E+01, True}

>>> f.createArray('/', 's', [float(x) for x in s])
/s (Array(4,)) ' '
  atom := Float64Atom(shape=(), dflt=0.0)
  maindim := 0
  flavor := 'python'
  byteorder := 'little'
  chunkshape := None

>>> set(f.root.s)
set([1.0, 42.0, 77.7, 60.0])
```



# Exercise

`exer/dict_table.py`



NONE SHALL PASS



# Exercise

`sol/dict_table.py`



# What Was Missed

- Walking Nodes
- File Nodes
- Indexing
- Migrating to / from SQL
- HDF5 in other database formats
- Other Databases in HDF5
- HDF5 as a File System



# Acknowledgements

Many thanks to everyone who made this possible!



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# Acknowledgements

(Cont.)

- The NumPy Developers





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**Shameless Plug:** *We are always looking for more hands.  
Join Now!*



# Questions

