# Scalable Algorithm Design The MapReduce Programming Model

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## Key Principles

#### Scale out, not up!

- For data-intensive workloads, a large number of commodity servers is preferred over a small number of high-end servers
  - Cost of super-computers is not linear
  - But datacenter efficiency is a difficult problem to solve [1, 3]
- Some numbers ( $\sim$  2012):
  - Data processed by Google every day: 100+ PB
  - Data processed by Facebook every day: 10+ PB

### Implications of Scaling Out

#### Processing data is quick, I/O is very slow

- 1 HDD = 75 MB/sec
- ▶ 1000 HDDs = 75 GB/sec

#### Sharing vs. Shared nothing:

- Sharing: manage a common/global state
- Shared nothing: independent entities, no common state

#### Sharing is difficult:

- Synchronization, deadlocks
- Finite bandwidth to access data from SAN
- Temporal dependencies are complicated (restarts)

#### Failures are the norm, not the exception

- LALN data [DSN 2006]
  - Data for 5000 machines, for 9 years
  - Hardware: 60%, Software: 20%, Network 5%
- DRAM error analysis [Sigmetrics 2009]
  - Data for 2.5 years
  - 8% of DIMMs affected by errors
- Disk drive failure analysis [FAST 2007]
  - Utilization and temperature major causes of failures
- Amazon Web Service(s) failures [Several!]
  - Cascading effect

#### Implications of Failures

#### Failures are part of everyday life

Mostly due to the scale and shared environment

#### Sources of Failures

- Hardware / Software
- Electrical, Cooling, ...
- Unavailability of a resource due to overload

#### Failure Types

- Permanent
- Transient

#### Move Processing to the Data

- Drastic departure from high-performance computing model
  - HPC: distinction between processing nodes and storage nodes
  - HPC: CPU intensive tasks

- Data intensive workloads
  - Generally not processor demanding
  - ► The network becomes the bottleneck
  - MapReduce assumes processing and storage nodes to be collocated
  - → Data Locality Principle
- Distributed filesystems are necessary

#### **Process Data Sequentially and Avoid Random Access**

#### Data intensive workloads

- Relevant datasets are too large to fit in memory
- Such data resides on disks

#### Disk performance is a bottleneck

- Seek times for random disk access are the problem
  - Example: 1 TB DB with 10<sup>10</sup> 100-byte records. Updates on 1% requires 1 month, reading and rewriting the whole DB would take 1 day<sup>1</sup>
- Organize computation for sequential reads

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>From a post by Ted Dunning on the Hadoop mailing list

#### **Implications of Data Access Patterns**

- MapReduce is designed for:
  - Batch processing
  - involving (mostly) full scans of the data
- Typically, data is collected "elsewhere" and copied to the distributed filesystem
  - ▶ E.g.: Apache Flume, Hadoop Sqoop, · · ·
- Data-intensive applications
  - Read and process the whole Web (e.g. PageRank)
  - Read and process the whole Social Graph (e.g. LinkPrediction, a.k.a. "friend suggest")
  - ▶ Log analysis (e.g. Network traces, Smart-meter data, · · · )

#### **Hide System-level Details**

#### Separate the what from the how

- MapReduce abstracts away the "distributed" part of the system
- Such details are handled by the framework

#### BUT: In-depth knowledge of the framework is key

- Custom data reader/writer
- Custom data partitioning
- Memory utilization

#### Auxiliary components

- Hadoop Pig
- Hadoop Hive
- Cascading/Scalding
- ... and many many more!

#### Seamless Scalability

#### We can define scalability along two dimensions

- In terms of data: given twice the amount of data, the same algorithm should take no more than twice as long to run
- In terms of resources: given a cluster twice the size, the same algorithm should take no more than half as long to run

#### Embarrassingly parallel problems

- Simple definition: independent (shared nothing) computations on fragments of the dataset
- How to to decide if a problem is embarrassingly parallel or not?

#### MapReduce is a first attempt, not the final answer

## The Programming Model

#### **Functional Programming Roots**

- Key feature: higher order functions
  - Functions that accept other functions as arguments
  - Map and Fold

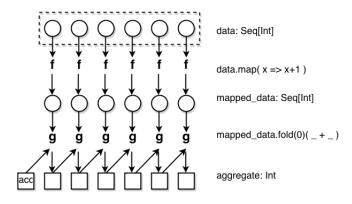


Figure: Illustration of map and fold.

## **Functional Programming Roots**

#### map phase:

Given a list, map takes as an argument a function f (that takes a single argument) and applies it to all element in a list

#### fold phase:

- Given a list, fold takes as arguments a function g (that takes two arguments) and an initial value (an accumulator)
- g is first applied to the initial value and the first item in the list
- ► The result is stored in an intermediate variable, which is used as an input together with the next item to a second application of *g*
- The process is repeated until all items in the list have been consumed

## **Functional Programming Roots**

#### We can view map as a transformation over a dataset

- ▶ This transformation is specified by the function *f*
- Each functional application happens in isolation
- ► The application of f to each element of a dataset can be parallelized in a straightforward manner

#### We can view fold as an aggregation operation

- The aggregation is defined by the function g
- Data locality: elements in the list must be "brought together"
- If we can group elements of the list, also the fold phase can proceed in parallel

#### Associative and commutative operations

Allow performance gains through local aggregation and reordering

## **Functional Programming and MapReduce**

#### Equivalence of MapReduce and Functional Programming:

- The map of MapReduce corresponds to the map operation
- ► The reduce of MapReduce corresponds to the fold operation

#### • The framework coordinates the map and reduce phases:

Grouping intermediate results happens in parallel

#### In practice:

- User-specified computation is applied (in parallel) to all input records of a dataset
- Intermediate results are aggregated by another user-specified computation

#### What can we do with MapReduce?

- MapReduce "implements" a subset of functional programming
  - The programming model appears quite limited and strict
- There are several important problems that can be adapted to MapReduce
  - We will focus on illustrative cases
  - We will see in detail "design patterns"
    - How to transform a problem and its input
    - How to save memory and bandwidth in the system

#### **Data Structures**

- Key-value pairs are the basic data structure in MapReduce
  - Keys and values can be: integers, float, strings, raw bytes
  - They can also be arbitrary data structures
- The design of MapReduce algorithms involves:
  - Imposing the key-value structure on arbitrary datasets<sup>2</sup>
    - ★ E.g.: for a collection of Web pages, input keys may be URLs and values may be the HTML content
  - In some algorithms, input keys are not used, in others they uniquely identify a record
  - Keys can be combined in complex ways to design various algorithms

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>There's more about it: here we only look at the input to the map function.

## A Generic MapReduce Algorithm

#### The programmer defines a mapper and a reducer as follows<sup>34</sup>:

```
▶ map: (k_1, v_1) \rightarrow [(k_2, v_2)]
▶ reduce: (k_2, [v_2]) \rightarrow [(k_3, v_3)]
```

#### In words:

- A dataset stored on an underlying distributed filesystem, which is split in a number of blocks across machines
- The mapper is applied to every input key-value pair to generate intermediate key-value pairs
- The reducer is applied to all values associated with the same intermediate key to generate output key-value pairs

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>We use the convention  $[\cdots]$  to denote a list.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Pedices indicate different data types.

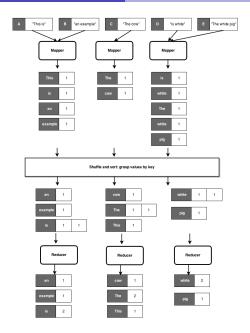
#### Where the magic happens

- Implicit between the map and reduce phases is a parallel "group by" operation on intermediate keys
  - Intermediate data arrive at each reducer in order, sorted by the key
  - No ordering is guaranteed across reducers
- Output keys from reducers are written back to the distributed filesystem
  - The output may consist of r distinct files, where r is the number of reducers
  - Such output may be the input to a subsequent MapReduce phase<sup>5</sup>
- Intermediate keys are transient:
  - They are not stored on the distributed filesystem
  - They are "spilled" to the local disk of each machine in the cluster

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Think of iterative algorithms.

## "Hello World" in MapReduce

```
1. class Mapper
       method MAP(offset a, line l)
2:
           for all term t \in \text{line } I do
3:
               EMIT(term t, count 1)
4:
1: class Reducer
       method REDUCE(term t, counts [c_1, c_2, ...])
2:
           sum \leftarrow 0
3:
           for all count c \in \text{counts} [c_1, c_2, \ldots] do
4:
5:
               sum \leftarrow sum + c
           EMIT(term t, count sum)
6:
```



#### "Hello World" in MapReduce

#### Input:

- Key-value pairs: (offset, line) of a file stored on the distributed filesystem
- a: unique identifier of a line offset
- ▶ I: is the text of the line itself

### Mapper:

- Takes an input key-value pair, tokenize the line
- Emits intermediate key-value pairs: the word is the key and the integer is the value

#### The framework:

 Guarantees all values associated with the same key (the word) are brought to the same reducer

#### • The reducer:

- Receives all values associated to some keys
- Sums the values and writes output key-value pairs: the key is the word and the value is the number of occurrences

#### **Combiners**

- Combiners are a general mechanism to reduce the amount of intermediate data
  - They could be thought of as "mini-reducers"
- Back to our running example: word count
  - Combiners aggregate term counts across documents processed by each map task
  - If combiners take advantage of all opportunities for local aggregation we have at most  $m \times V$  intermediate key-value pairs
    - ★ m: number of mappers
    - ★ V: number of unique terms in the collection
  - Note: due to Zipfian nature of term distributions, not all mappers will see all terms

#### A word of caution

#### The use of combiners must be thought carefully

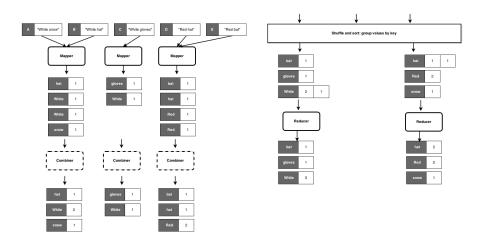
 In Hadoop, they are optional: the correctness of the algorithm cannot depend on computation (or even execution) of the combiners

#### Combiners I/O types

- Input: (k₂, [v₂]) [Same input as for Reducers]
- Output:  $[(k_2, v_2)]$  [Same output as for Mappers]

#### Commutative and Associative computations

- Reducer and Combiner code may be interchangeable (e.g. Word Count)
- This is not true in the general case



#### Algorithmic Correctness: an Example

#### Problem statement

- We have a large dataset where input keys are strings and input values are integers
- We wish to compute the mean of all integers associated with the same key
  - In practice: the dataset can be a log from a website, where the keys are user IDs and values are some measure of activity

#### Next, a baseline approach

- We use an identity mapper, which groups and sorts appropriately input key-value pairs
- Reducers keep track of running sum and the number of integers encountered
- The mean is emitted as the output of the reducer, with the input string as the key

#### Inefficiency problems in the shuffle phase

## **Example: Computing the mean**

```
1. class Mapper
2:
        method MAP(string t, integer r)
            EMIT(string t, integer r)
3:
  class Reducer
        method REDUCE(string t, integers [r_1, r_2, \ldots])
2:
            sum \leftarrow 0
3:
            cnt \leftarrow 0
4:
            for all integer r \in \text{integers} [r_1, r_2, \ldots] do
5:
6:
                 sum \leftarrow sum + r
                 cnt \leftarrow cnt + 1
7:
8:
            r_{ava} \leftarrow sum/cnt
            EMIT(string t, integer r_{ava})
9:
```

### **Algorithmic Correctness**

#### Note: operations are not distributive

- $Mean(1,2,3,4,5) \neq Mean(Mean(1,2), Mean(3,4,5))$
- Hence: a combiner cannot output partial means and hope that the reducer will compute the correct final mean

#### Rule of thumb:

 Combiners are optimizations, the algorithm should work even when "removing" them

### **Example: Computing the mean with combiners**

```
class Mapper
         method MAP(string t, integer r)
              EMIT(string t, pair (r, 1))
12 345 678 12 345 678 9
     class COMBINER
         method Combine(string t, pairs [(s_1, c_1), (s_2, c_2)...])
              sum \leftarrow 0
              cnt \leftarrow 0
             for all pair (s, c) \in \text{pairs } [(s_1, c_1), (s_2, c_2) \dots] do
                 sum \leftarrow sum + s
                 cnt \leftarrow cnt + c
              EMIT(string t, pair (sum, cnt))
     class Reducer
         method REDUCE(string t, pairs [(s_1, c_1), (s_2, c_2), \ldots])
              sum \leftarrow 0
              cnt \leftarrow 0
             for all pair (s, c) \in \text{pairs } [(s_1, c_1), (s_2, c_2) \dots] do
                  sum \leftarrow sum + s
                 cnt \leftarrow cnt + c
              r_{ava} \leftarrow sum/cnt
              EMIT(string t, integer r_{ava})
```

## Basic Design Patterns

## **Algorithm Design**

#### Developing algorithms involve:

- Preparing the input data
- Implement the mapper and the reducer
- Optionally, design the combiner and the partitioner

#### • How to recast existing algorithms in MapReduce?

- It is not always obvious how to express algorithms
- Data structures play an important role
- Optimization is hard
- → The designer needs to "bend" the framework

#### Learn by examples

- "Design patterns"
- "Shuffle" is perhaps the most tricky aspect

### **Algorithm Design**

#### Aspects that are not under the control of the designer

- Where a mapper or reducer will run
- When a mapper or reducer begins or finishes
- Which input key-value pairs are processed by a specific mapper
- Which intermediate key-value pairs are processed by a specific reducer

#### Aspects that can be controlled

- Construct data structures as keys and values
- Execute user-specified initialization and termination code for mappers and reducers
- Preserve state across multiple input and intermediate keys in mappers and reducers
- Control the sort order of intermediate keys, and therefore the order in which a reducer will encounter particular keys
- Control the partitioning of the key space, and therefore the set of keys that will be encountered by a particular reducer

### **Algorithm Design**

#### MapReduce algorithms can be complex

- Many algorithms cannot be easily expressed as a single MapReduce job
- Decompose complex algorithms into a sequence of jobs
  - Requires orchestrating data so that the output of one job becomes the input to the next
- Iterative algorithms require an external driver to check for convergence

## Basic design patterns<sup>6</sup>

- Local Aggregation
- Pairs and Stripes
- Order inversion

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>You will see them in action during the laboratory sessions.

### **Local Aggregation**

- In the context of data-intensive distributed processing, the most important aspect of synchronization is the exchange of intermediate results
  - ► This involves copying intermediate results from the processes that produced them to those that consume them
  - In general, this involves data transfers over the network
  - In Hadoop, also disk I/O is involved, as intermediate results are written to disk

- Network and disk latencies are expensive
  - Reducing the amount of intermediate data translates into algorithmic efficiency
- Combiners and preserving state across inputs
  - Reduce the number and size of key-value pairs to be shuffled

# **In-Mapper Combiners**

#### In-Mapper Combiners, a possible improvement over vanilla Combiners

Hadoop does not<sup>7</sup> guarantee combiners to be executed

# Use an associative array to cumulate intermediate results

- The array is used to tally up term counts within a single "document"
- ► The Emit method is called only after all InputRecords have been processed

## Example (see next slide)

 The code emits a key-value pair for each unique term in the document

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup>Actually, combiners are not called if the number of map output records is less than a small threshold. *i.e.*. 4

```
    class MAPPER
    method MAP(offset a, line l)
    H ← new AssociativeArray
    for all term t ∈ line l do
    H{t} ← H{t} + 1
    for all term t ∈ H do
    EMIT(term t, count H{t})
```

## Taking the idea one step further

- Exploit implementation details in Hadoop
- A Java mapper object is created for each map task
- JVM reuse must be enabled

## Preserve state within and across calls to the Map method

- Initialize method, used to create an across-map, persistent data structure
- Close method, used to emit intermediate key-value pairs only when all map task scheduled on one machine are done

```
1: class Mapper
       method INITIALIZE
2:
          H ← new AssociativeArray
3:
       method MAP(offset a, line l)
4:
          for all term t \in \text{line } I do
5:
              H\{t\} \leftarrow H\{t\} + 1
6:
       method CLOSE
7:
          for all term t \in H do
8:
              EMIT(term t, count H\{t\})
9:
```

- Summing up: a first "design pattern", in-memory combining
  - Provides control over when local aggregation occurs
  - Designer can determine how exactly aggregation is done

## Efficiency vs. Combiners

- There is no additional overhead due to the materialization of key-value pairs
  - ★ Un-necessary object creation and destruction (garbage collection)
  - \* Serialization, deserialization when memory bounded
- ► With combiners. mappers still need to emit all key-value pairs, combiners "only" reduce network traffic

#### Precautions

- In-memory combining breaks the functional programming paradigm due to state preservation
- Preserving state across multiple instances implies that algorithm behavior might depend on execution order
  - ★ Works well with commutative / associative operations
  - Otherwise, order-dependent bugs are difficult to find

## Memory capacity is limited

- In-memory combining strictly depends on having sufficient memory to store intermediate results
- A possible solution: "block" and "flush"

#### **Further Remarks**

- The extent to which efficiency can be increased with local aggregation depends on the size of the intermediate key space
  - Opportunities for aggregation arise when multiple values are associated to the same keys

- Local aggregation also effective to deal with reduce stragglers
  - Reduce the number of values associated with frequently occurring keys

# Computing the average, with in-mapper combiners

- Partial sums and counts are held in memory (across inputs)
- Intermediate values are emitted only after the entire input split is processed
- The output value is a pair

```
1. class MAPPER
        method INITIALIZE
 2:
             S \leftarrow \text{new AssociativeArray}
 3:
             C \leftarrow new AssociativeArray
 4:
        method MAP(term t, integer r)
 5:
             S\{t\} \leftarrow S\{t\} + r
 6:
            C\{t\} \leftarrow C\{t\} + 1
 7:
        method CLOSE
 8:
            for all term t \in S do
 9:
                 EMIT(term t, pair (S\{t\}, C\{t\}))
10:
```

# **Pairs and Stripes**

- A common approach in MapReduce: build complex keys
  - Use the framework to group data together
- Two basic techniques:
  - Pairs: similar to the example on the average
  - Stripes: uses in-mapper memory data structures

 Next, we focus on a particular problem that benefits from these two methods

#### **Problem statement**

# The problem: building word co-occurrence matrices for large corpora

- ▶ The co-occurrence matrix of a corpus is a square  $n \times n$  matrix, M
- ▶ *n* is the number of unique words (*i.e.*, the vocabulary size)
- ▶ A cell  $m_{ij}$  contains the number of times the word  $w_i$  co-occurs with word  $w_i$  within a specific context
- Context: a sentence, a paragraph a document or a window of m words
- NOTE: the matrix may be symmetric in some cases

#### Motivation

- This problem is a basic building block for more complex operations
- Estimating the distribution of discrete joint events from a large number of observations
- Similar problem in other domains:
  - ★ Customers who buy this tend to also buy that

#### **Observations**

## Space requirements

- ► Clearly, the space requirement is  $O(n^2)$ , where n is the size of the vocabulary
- For real-world (English) corpora n can be hundreds of thousands of words, or even billions of worlds in some specific cases

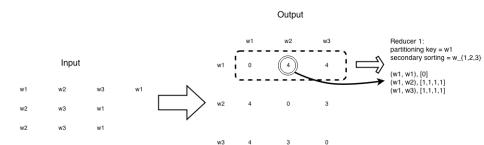
#### So what's the problem?

- ▶ If the matrix can fit in the memory of a single machine, then just use whatever naive implementation
- Instead, if the matrix is bigger than the available memory, then paging would kick in, and any naive implementation would break

#### Compression

- Such techniques can help in solving the problem on a single machine
- However, there are scalability problems

# Word co-occurrence: the Pairs approach



# Word co-occurrence: the Pairs approach

#### Input to the problem

Key-value pairs in the form of a offset and a line

# • The mapper:

- Processes each input document
- Emits key-value pairs with:
  - ★ Each co-occurring word pair as the key
  - ★ The integer one (the count) as the value
- This is done with two nested loops:
  - The outer loop iterates over all words
  - The inner loop iterates over all neighbors

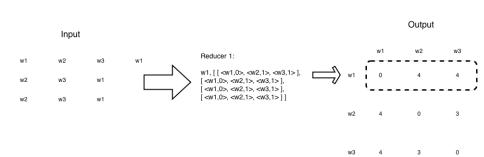
#### • The reducer:

- Receives pairs related to co-occurring words
  - ★ This requires modifying the partitioner
- Computes an absolute count of the joint event
- Emits the pair and the count as the final key-value output
  - ★ Basically reducers emit the cells of the output matrix

# Word co-occurrence: the Pairs approach

```
1: class Mapper
        method MAP(offset a, line l)
 2:
            for all term w \in \text{line } I do
 3:
                for all term u \in NEIGHBORS(w) do
 4:
                    EMIT (pair (w, u), count 1)
 5:
   class Reducer
        method REDUCE(pair p, counts [c_1, c_2, \cdots])
 7:
            s \leftarrow 0
 8:
            for all count c \in \text{counts} [c_1, c_2, \cdots] do
 9:
                s \leftarrow s + c
10:
            EMIT (pair p, count s)
11:
```

# Word co-occurrence: the Stripes approach



# Word co-occurrence: the Stripes approach

## Input to the problem

Key-value pairs in the form of a offset and a line

## • The mapper:

- Same two nested loops structure as before
- Co-occurrence information is first stored in an associative array
- Emit key-value pairs with words as keys and the corresponding arrays as values

#### • The reducer:

- Receives all associative arrays related to the same word
- Performs an element-wise sum of all associative arrays with the same key
- Emits key-value output in the form of word, associative array
  - ★ Basically, reducers emit rows of the co-occurrence matrix

# Word co-occurrence: the Stripes approach

```
1: class Mapper
        method MAP(offset a, line l)
 2:
            for all term w \in \text{line } I \text{ do}
 3:
                H ← new AssociativeArray
 4:
 5:
                for all term u \in NEIGHBORS(w) do
                    H\{u\} \leftarrow H\{u\} + 1
 6:
 7:
                EMIT (term w, Stripe H)
    class Reducer
 9:
        method REDUCE(term w, Stripes [H_1, H_2, H_3 \cdots])
            H_f \leftarrow new AssociativeArray
10.
            for all Stripe H \in \text{Stripes} [H_1, H_2, H_3 \cdots] do
11:
                SUM(H_f, H)
12:
            EMIT (term w, Stripe H_f)
13:
```

# Pairs and Stripes, a comparison

# The pairs approach

- Generates a large number of key-value pairs
  - ★ In particular, intermediate ones, that fly over the network
- The benefit from combiners is limited, as it is less likely for a mapper to process multiple occurrences of a word
- Does not suffer from memory paging problems

## The stripes approach

- More compact
- Generates fewer and shorted intermediate keys
  - ★ The framework has less sorting to do
- The values are more complex and have serialization / deserialization overhead
- Greatly benefits from combiners, as the key space is the vocabulary
- Suffers from memory paging problems, if not properly engineered

# Computing relative frequencies

#### "Relative" Co-occurrence matrix construction

- Similar problem as before, same matrix
- Instead of absolute counts, we take into consideration the fact that some words appear more frequently than others
  - ★ Word w<sub>i</sub> may co-occur frequently with word w<sub>j</sub> simply because one of the two is very common
- ▶ We need to convert absolute counts to relative frequencies  $f(w_j|w_i)$ 
  - ★ What proportion of the time does w<sub>i</sub> appear in the context of w<sub>i</sub>?

## Formally, we compute:

$$f(w_j|w_i) = \frac{N(w_i, w_j)}{\sum_{w'} N(w_i, w')}$$

- ▶  $N(\cdot, \cdot)$  is the number of times a co-occurring word pair is observed
- ► The denominator is called the marginal

# **Computing relative frequencies**

## The stripes approach

- ► In the reducer, the counts of all words that co-occur with the conditioning variable (w<sub>i</sub>) are available in the associative array
- Hence, the sum of all those counts gives the marginal
- ► Then we divide the joint counts by the marginal and we're done

## The pairs approach

- ▶ The reducer receives the pair  $(w_i, w_i)$  and the count
- From this information alone it is not possible to compute  $f(w_i|w_i)$
- Fortunately, as for the mapper, also the reducer can preserve state across multiple keys
  - ★ We can buffer in memory all the words that co-occur with w<sub>i</sub> and their counts
  - ★ This is basically building the associative array in the stripes method

# Computing relative frequencies: a basic approach

# We must define the sort order of the pair

- In this way, the keys are first sorted by the left word, and then by the right word (in the pair)
- ► Hence, we can detect if all pairs associated with the word we are conditioning on (*w<sub>i</sub>*) have been seen
- At this point, we can use the in-memory buffer, compute the relative frequencies and emit

# We must define an appropriate partitioner

- The default partitioner is based on the hash value of the intermediate key, modulo the number of reducers
- For a complex key, the raw byte representation is used to compute the hash value
  - Hence, there is no guarantee that the pair (dog, aardvark) and (dog,zebra) are sent to the same reducer
- What we want is that all pairs with the same left word are sent to the same reducer

# Computing relative frequencies: order inversion

# The key is to properly sequence data presented to reducers

- If it were possible to compute the marginal in the reducer before processing the joint counts, the reducer could simply divide the joint counts received from mappers by the marginal
- The notion of "before" and "after" can be captured in the ordering of key-value pairs
- The programmer can define the sort order of keys so that data needed earlier is presented to the reducer before data that is needed later

## Computing relative frequencies: order inversion

# Recall that mappers emit pairs of co-occurring words as keys

# • The mapper:

- ▶ additionally emits a "special" key of the form  $(w_i, *)$
- ► The value associated to the special key is one, that represents the contribution of the word pair to the marginal
- Using combiners, these partial marginal counts will be aggregated before being sent to the reducers

#### • The reducer:

- ▶ We must make sure that the special key-value pairs are processed before any other key-value pairs where the left word is w<sub>i</sub>
- We also need to modify the partitioner as before, i.e., it would take into account only the first word

# Computing relative frequencies: order inversion

#### • Memory requirements:

- Minimal, because only the marginal (an integer) needs to be stored
- No buffering of individual co-occurring word
- No scalability bottleneck

#### Key ingredients for order inversion

- Emit a special key-value pair to capture the marginal
- Control the sort order of the intermediate key, so that the special key-value pair is processed first
- Define a custom partitioner for routing intermediate key-value pairs
- Preserve state across multiple keys in the reducer

# References

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