

Information Technology

FIT5202 (Volume III - Join)

Week 3a - Parallel Join

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Wiley Series on Parallel and Distributed Computing . Albert Zomaya, Series Editor

High Performance Parallel Database Processing and Grid Databases

Chapter 3 Parallel Search

Last Week

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High Performance Parallel Database Processing and Grid Databases



3.2 Data Partitioning

3.1

- 3.3 Search Algorithms
- 3.4 Summary
- 3.5 Bibliographical Notes

Search Queries

3.6 Exercises



Revision

Exercise 1 (FLUX Quiz)

- If a query runs on a multi-core machine(e.g. Windows server with 16 cores), it is called parallel query processing. How about if multiple different queries run at the same time in a multi-core machine?
- A. Intra-query parallelism
- B. Inter-query parallelism
- C. Intra-operation parallelism
- D. Inter-operation parallelism



Revision

Exercise 2 (FLUX Quiz)

- If a **hash data partitioning** is used to store the data, and the query is a **discrete range search**, how many processors need to be used to process such a query efficiently in order to get the query results?
- A. 1 processor
- B. Selected processors
- C. All processors

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Chapter 5 Parallel Join

- 5.1 Join Operations
- 5.2 Serial Join Algorithms
- 5.3 Parallel Join Algorithms
- 5.4 Cost Models
- 5.5 Parallel Join Optimization
- 5.6 Summary
- 5.7 Bibliographical Notes
- 5.8 Exercises



5.1. Join Operations

- Join operations to link two tables based on the nominated attributes
 one from each table
 - Query 5.1:
 Select *
 From STUDENT S, ENROLMENT E
 Where S.Sid = E.Sid;

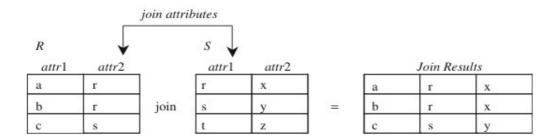


Figure 5.1 The join operation



5.2. Serial Join Algorithms

- Three serial join algorithms:
 - Nested loop join algorithm
 - Sort-merge join algorithm
 - Hash-based join algorithm

Adele	8
Bob	22
Clement	16
Dave	23
Ed	11
Fung	25
Goel	3
Harry	17
Irene	14
Joanna	2
Kelly	6
Lim	20
Meng	1
Noor	5
Omar	19

Table S		
Arts	8	
Business	15	
CompSc	2	
Dance	12	
Engineering	7	
Finance	21	
Geology	10	
Health	11	
IT	18	

Join Res	ults		150
Adele	8	Arts	
Ed	11	Health	
Joanna	2	CompSc	

Figure 5.2 Sample data



Nested-Loop Join Algorithm

For each record of table *R*, it goes through all records of table *S*

Table R			Table S		_	Join Resu	lts	
Adele	8	7	Arts	8		Adele	8	Arts
Bob	22	\triangleright	Business	1.5		Ed	1.1	Health
Clement	16	$\langle \rangle$	CompSc	2		Joanna	2	CompSc
Dave	23	4	Dance	1.2				•
Ed	11	17	Engineering	7				
Fung	25	11/2	Finance	21				
Goel	3	$M_{ m I}$	Geology	10				
Harry	17	"	Health	11				
Irene	14	- 1	IT	1.8				
Joanna	2				•			
Kelly	6							
Lim	20							
Meng	1							
Noor	5							
Omar	19							



Sort-Merge Join Algorithm

- Both tables must be pre-sorted based on the join attribute(s). If not, then both tables must be sorted first
- Then merge the two sorted tables



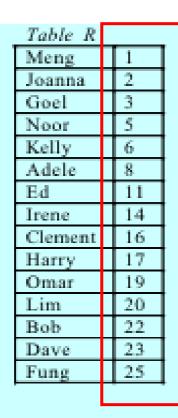


Table S	
CompSc	2
Engineering	7
Arts	8
Geology	10
Health	11
Dance	12
Business	15
IT	18
Finance	21

Join Results					
2	CompSc				
8	Arts				
11	Health				
	2 8 11				

Figure 5.4. Sorted tables

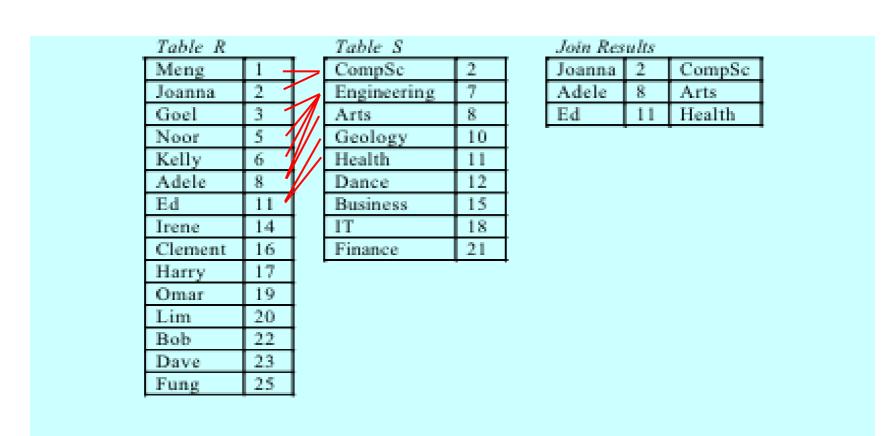
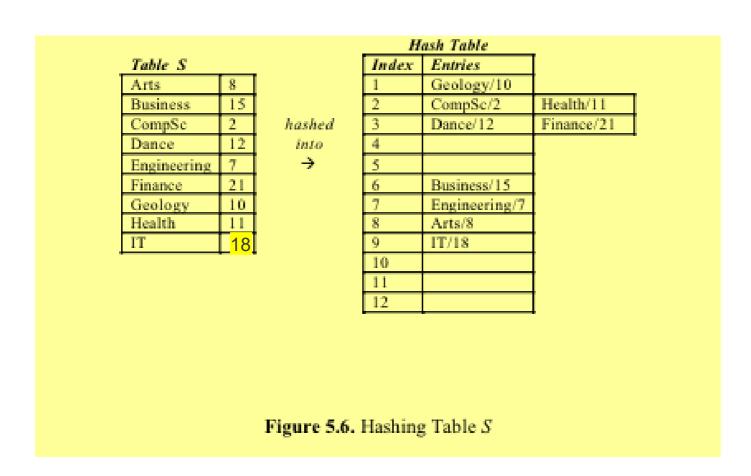


Figure 5.4. Sorted tables

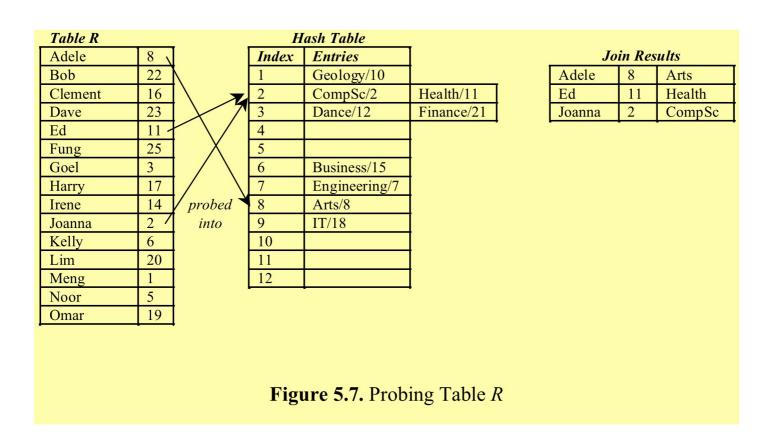
Hash-based Join Algorithm

- The records of files *R* and *S* are both hashed to the *same hash file*, using the *same hashing function* on the join attributes *A* of *R* and *B* of *S* as hash keys
- A single pass through the file with fewer records (say, R) hashes its records to the hash file buckets
- A single pass through the other file (*S*) then hashes each of its records to the appropriate bucket, where the record is combined with all matching records from *R*









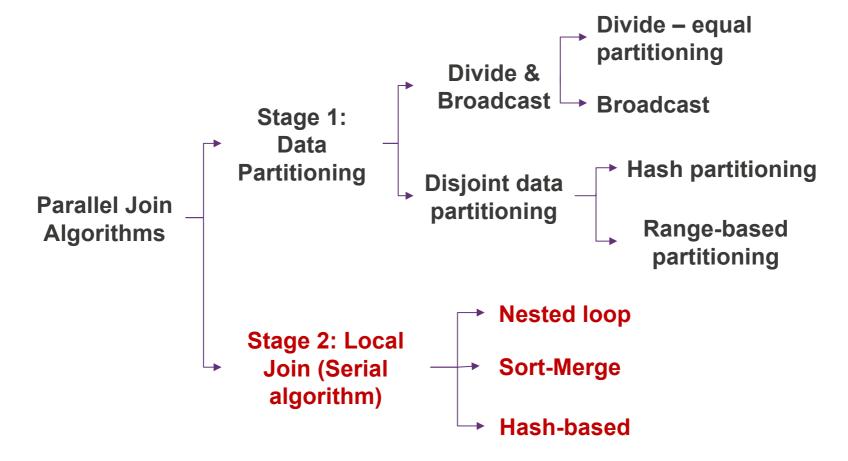


5.3. Parallel Join Algorithms

- Parallelism of join queries is achieved through data parallelism,
 whereby the same task is applied to different parts of the data
- After data partitioning is completed, each processor will have its own data to work with using any serial join algorithm
- Data partitioning for parallel join algorithms:
 - Divide and broadcast
 - Disjoint data partitioning



Overview



Divide and Broadcast-based Parallel Join Algorithms

- Two stages: data partitioning using the divide and broadcast method, and a local join
- Divide and Broadcast method: Divide one table into multiple disjoint partitions, where each partition is allocated a processor, and broadcast the other table to all available processors
- Dividing one table can simply use equal division
- Broadcast means replicate the table to all processors
- Hence, choose the smaller table to broadcast and the larger table to divide



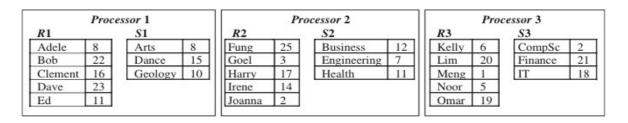


Figure 5.10 Initial data placement



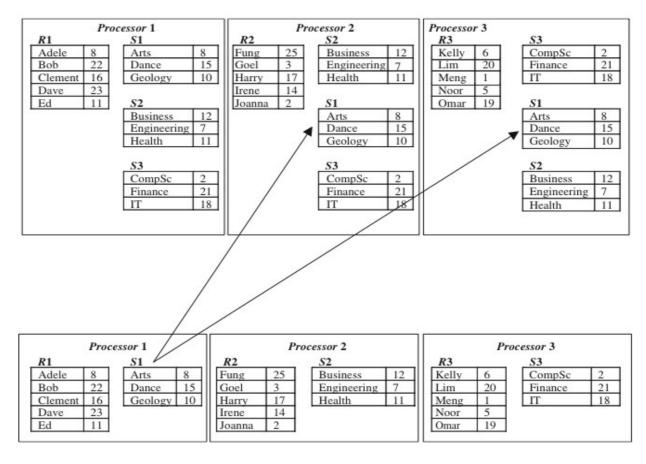


Figure 5.11 Divide and broadcast result



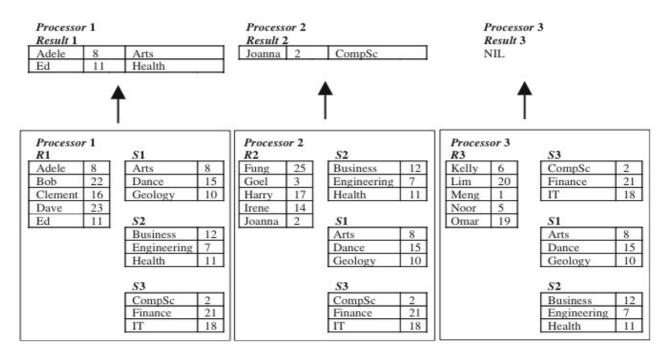


Figure 5.12 Join results based on divide and broadcast

Divide and Broadcast-based Parallel Join Algorithms

- No load imbalance problem, but the broadcasting method is inefficient
- The problem of workload imbalance will occur if the table is already partitioned using random-unequal partitioning
- If shared-memory is used, then there is no replication of the broadcast table. Each processor will access the entire table *S* and a portion of table *R*. But if each processor does not have enough working space, then the local join might not be able to use a hash-based join



- Disjoint Partitioning-based Parallel Join Algorithms
 - Two stages: data partitioning using a disjoint partitioning, and local join
 - Disjoint partitioning: range or hash partitioning
 - Local join: any serial local join algorithm



Example 1: Range partitioning

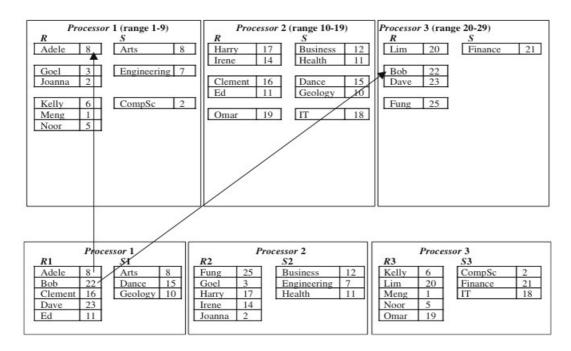


Figure 5.14 Range partitioning



Example 1: Range partitioning

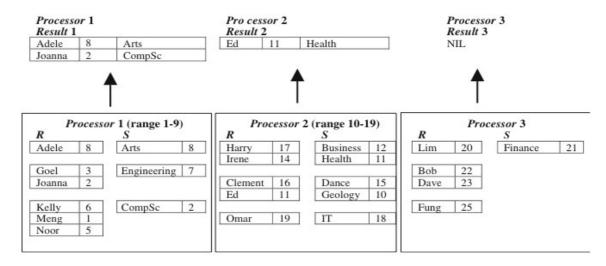


Figure 5.15 Join results based on range partitioning

Example 2: Hash partitioning

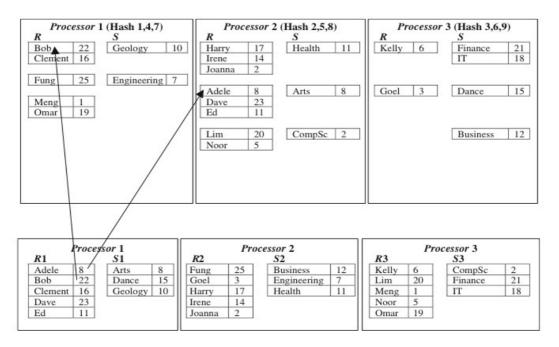


Figure 5.16 Hash partitioning



Example 2: Hash partitioning

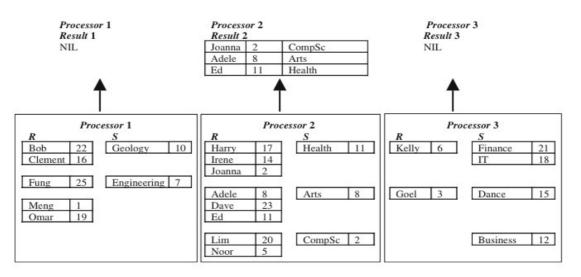


Figure 5.17 Join results based on hash partitioning



5.4. Cost Models for Parallel Join

Divide and Broadcast

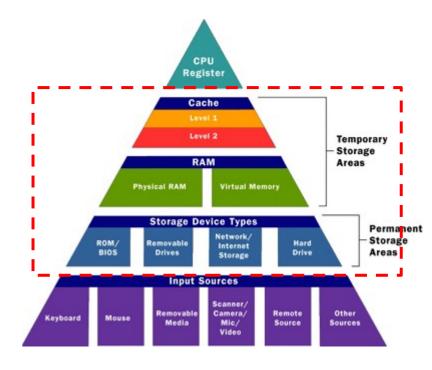
- Join two tables (table R and table S)
- The two tables have been partitioned and stored in 3 processors
- The tables have been partitioned using the random-equal data partitioning method
- The table fragments are called R1, R2, R3, and S1, S2, S3 (in general, each fragment is called Ri or Si, where i is the processor number)



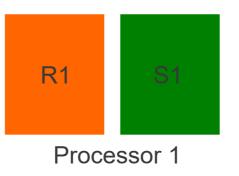


Divide and Broadcast

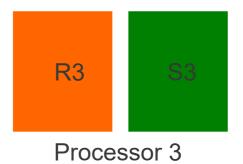
- Phase 1: Data Loading. Assume the table to be broadcast is table S.
- Read all records from table S in each processor
- If there are 30,000 records in table S, how long does it take to complete the reading before the process can continue to the next phase?
- Is it after reading 30,000 records, or after reading 10,000 records?



Initial data placement (random-equal partitioning)







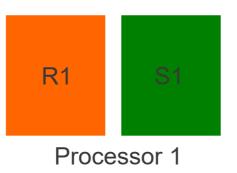
Divide and Broadcast

- **|S|** = 30,000 records
- N = 3 processors
- |Si| = 10,000 records (|Si| = |S|/N)
- Each record has a fixed length, in bytes
- The size of table S is denoted as S (in bytes)

Table 2.1 Cost notations

Symbol	Description					
Data para	meters					
R	Size of table in bytes					
R_i	Size of table fragment in bytes on process					
IR I	Number of records in table R					
$ R_i $	Number of records in table R on processor i					
Systems pa	arameters					
N	Number of processors					
P	Page size					
Н	Hash table size					
Query par	ameters					
π	Projectivity ratio					
σ	Selectivity ratio					
Time unit	cost					
10	Effective time to read a page from disk					
t_r	Time to read a record in the main memory					
t_w	Time to write a record to the main memory					
t_d	Time to compute destination					
Communic	cation cost					
m_p	Message protocol cost per page					
m_l	Message latency for one page					

Initial data placement (random-equal partitioning)







Exercise 3 (FLUX Quiz)

- |S| = 600 records, each record has the length of 100 bytes, and N=3.
- A. Si = 200 records
- B. Si = 20,000 bytes
- C. |Si| = 20,000 bytes
- D. |Si| = 200 records
- E. A and C
- F. B and D
- G. All of the above

Divide and Broadcast

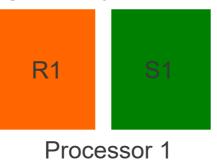
- When a table fragment is read from disk, it is based on the size of the table (in bytes), and not based how many records.
- Hence, it uses Si, and not |Si|
- When the disk reads a table fragment (Si), it reads a disk block at a time. The size of a disk block is P (or page size)
- The loading time or Scan cost = (Si/P) x IO, where IO is the time taken to load 1 page from disk to main memory

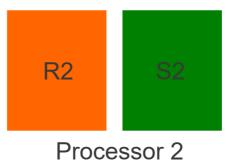


Divide and Broadcast

- Once the loading is complete, the records are not yet ready in the main memory. The records must be read by the CPU and be written to the main memory data page.
- All processing in the processor is based on number of records, and not the byte size
- Select cost = |Si| x (tr + tw)
- tr is the reading time by the CPU, and tw is the writing time by the CPU

Initial data placement (random-equal partitioning)





Keyboard



CPU

Register

Cache

Level 2

RAM

Storage Device Types

Input Sources

Virtual Memory

Network/

Storage

Physical RAM



Temporary

Permanent

Storage

Areas

Storage

Areas

Other

Hard Drive

Remote

Cost Models for Divide and Broadcast

- Phase 1: data loading consists of the *scan costs* and the *select costs*
- Scan cost for loading data from local disk in each processor is:

$$(Si/P) \times IO$$

- Select cost for getting record out of data page is:

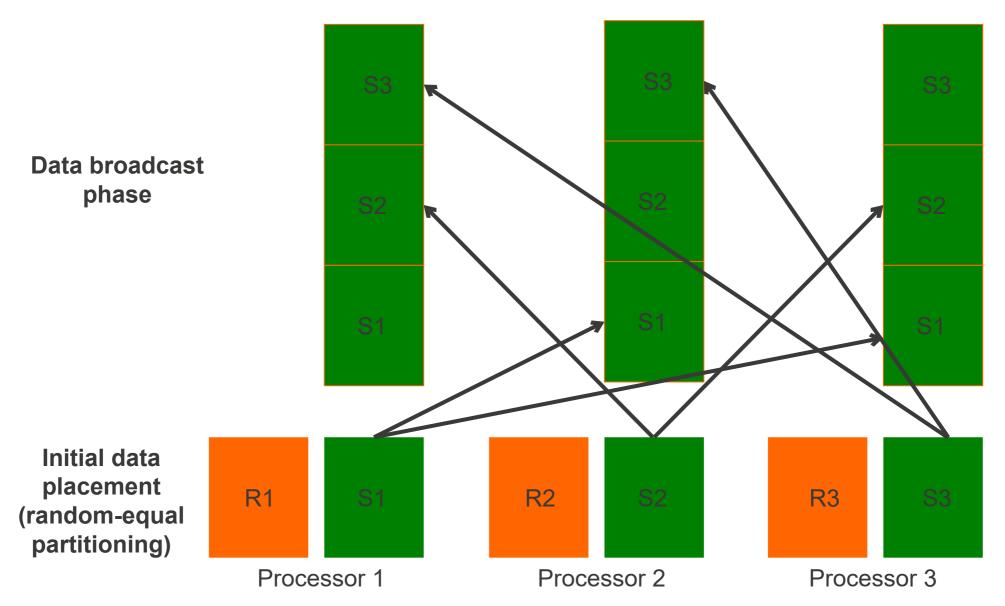
$$|Si| \times (tr + tw)$$

Exercise 4 (FLUX Quiz)

- The cost (the time taken) to read data from disk is called...
- A. Scan Cost
- B. Select Cost
- C. Both A and B

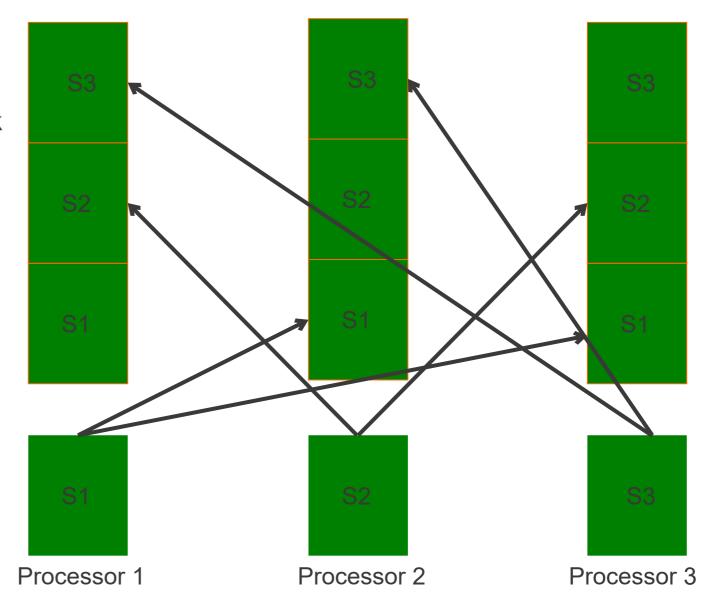


Phase 2: Data Broadcasting. Table fragment S1 must be broadcasted (copied) to processors 2 and 3. Table fragment S2 to processors 1 and 3, etc...



Phase 2: Data Broadcasting. Table fragment S1 must be broadcasted (copied) to processors 2 and 3. Table fragment S2 to processors 1 and 3, etc...

- Data broadcast is done through network (so it is a network data transfer)
- The transfer cost is based on how many bytes of data being transferred
- Hence, we use Si, instead of |Si|
- Data transfer is also done page-per-page (P)
- Hence, Si/P

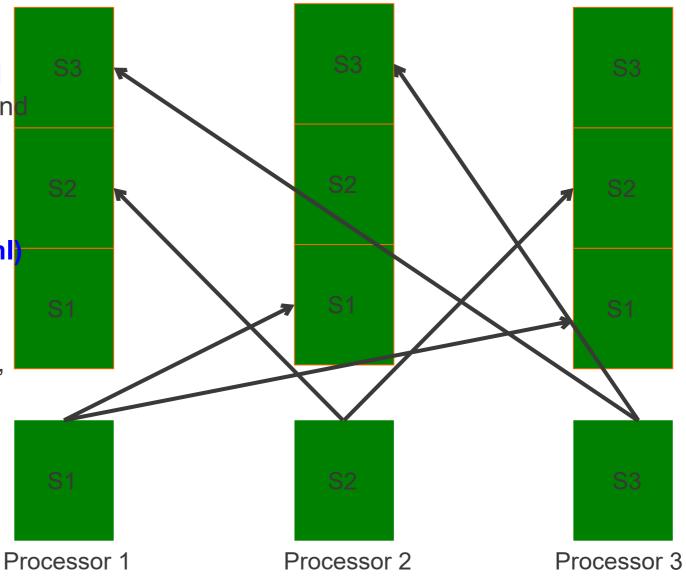


Phase 2: Data Broadcasting. Table fragment S1 must be broadcasted (copied) to processors 2 and 3. Table fragment S2 to processors 1 and 3, etc...

 S1 must be transferred twice (to processor 2 and to processor 3)

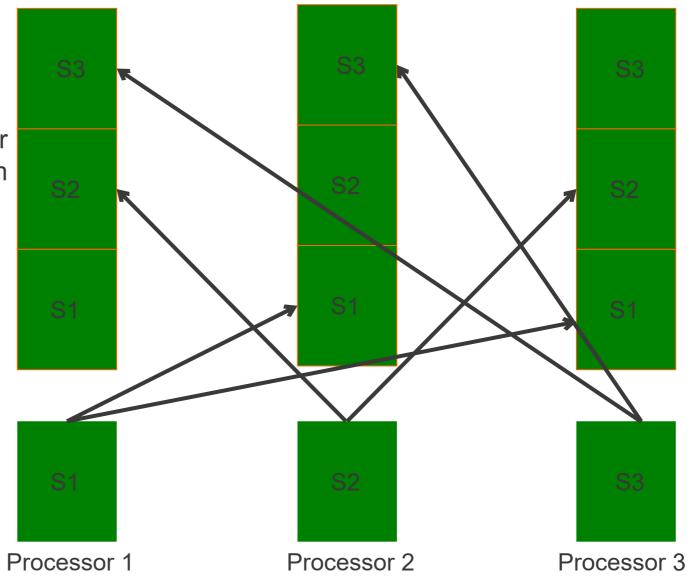
- Transfer cost =
 (Si/P) x (N-1) x (mp+ml

Where mp is message protocol per data page, and ml is message latency per data page.



Phase 2: Data Broadcasting. Table fragment S1 must be broadcasted (copied) to processors 2 and 3. Table fragment S2 to processors 1 and 3, etc...

- Processor 2 must receive S1 from processor 1; Processor 3 must receive S1 from processor 1
- Receiving cost =(S/P Si/P) x (mp)
- Why (S/P Si/P)?
- Why (mp) only?



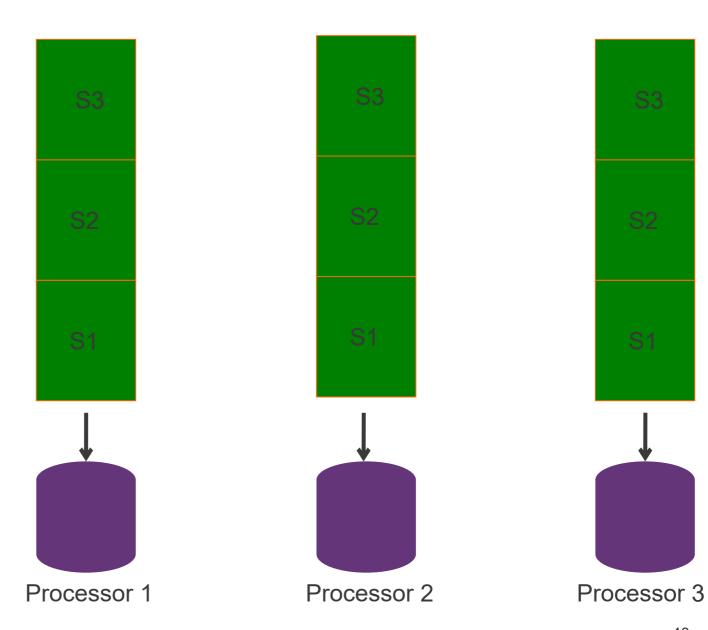
Cost Models for Divide and Broadcast

- Phase 2: The broadcast cost by each processor broadcasting its fragment to all other processors
- Data transfer cost is: $(Si/P) \times (N-1) \times (mp + ml)$
- The (N-1) indicates that each processor must broadcast to all other processors. Note that broadcasting from one processor to the others has to be done one processor at a time, although all processors send the broadcast in parallel. The above cost equation would be the same as $(S/P Si/P) \times (mp + ml)$, where (S/P Si/P) is the size of other fragments.
- Receiving records cost is: (S/P Si/P) x (mp)

Phase 3: Data Storing. Each fragment in each processor must be stored/written in the local disks



- Why (S/P – Si/P)?





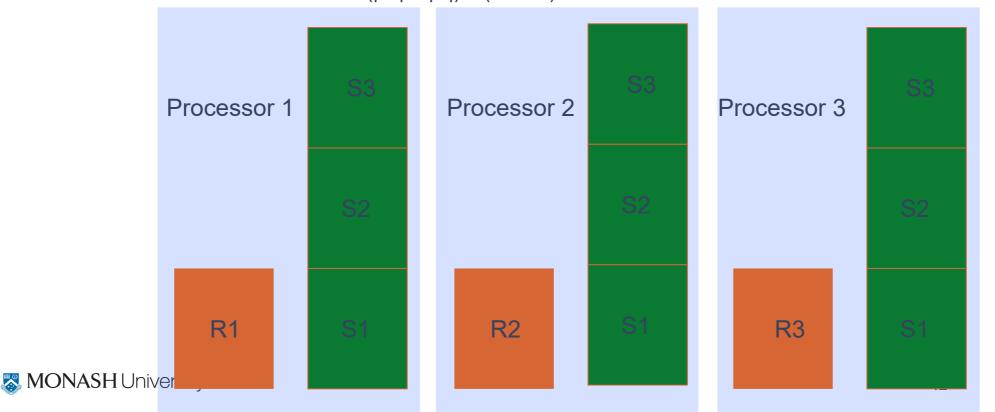
- Cost Models for Divide and Broadcast
 - Phase 3: Each processor after receiving all other fragments of table S, needs to be stored on local disk.
 - Disk cost for storing the table is: $(S/P Si/P) \times IO$

Local Join

- Each processor performs a local join (using a Hash Join Algorithm)
- Phase 1: Loading cost

 Scan cost = ((Ri / P) + (S / P)) x IO

 Select cost = (|Ri| + |S|) x (tr + tw)



Cost Models for Local Join

- Assume to use hash-based join
- Three main phases: data loading from each processor, the joining process (hashing and probing), and result storing in each processor.
- Phase 1: The data loading consists of scan costs and select costs
- Scan cost = $((Ri/P) + (S/P)) \times IO$
- Select cost = $(|Ri| + |S|) \times (tr + tw)$

Query Parameters

• Projectivity ratio π :

Ratio between projected attribute size and original record length

Selectivity ratio σ:

 Ratio between number of records in the query result and original total number of records

Example: Join selectivity ratio

If the query operation involves two tables (like in a join operation), a selectivity ratio can be written as σ_j , for example. The value of σ_j indicates the ratio between the number of records produced by a join operation and the number of records of the Cartesian product of the two tables to be joined. For example, $|R_i| = 1000$ records and $|S_i| = 500$ records; if the join produces 5 records only, then the join selectivity ratio σ_i is $5/(1,000 \times 500) = 0.00001$.

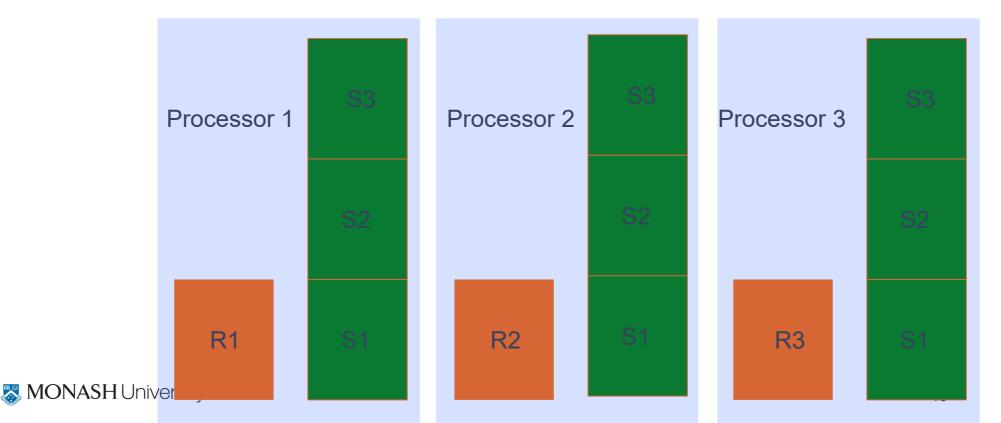


Local Join

Phase 2: Join cost (using a Hash Join Algorithm)

$$(|Ri| \times (tr + th) + (|S| \times (tr + th + tj))$$

Where tr is reading cost, th is hashing cost, and tj is joining cost



Cost Models for Local Join

- Phase 2: The join process is the hashing and probing costs
- Join costs involve reading, hashing, and probing: $(|Ri| \times (tr + th) + (|S| \times (tr + th + tj)))$
- If the memory size is smaller than the hash table size, we normally partition the hash table into multiple buckets whereby each bucket can perfectly fit into main memory. All but the first bucket is spooled to disk.
- Reading/Writing of overflow buckets cost is the I/O cost associated with the limited ability of main memory to accommodate the entire hash table.

$$\left(1-\min\left(\frac{H}{|R_i|},1\right)\right)\times\left(\frac{R_i}{P}\times2\times IO\right)$$

Cost Models for Local Join

 Reading/Writing of overflow buckets cost is the I/O cost associated with the limited ability of main memory to accommodate the entire hash table.

$$\left(1 - \min\left(\frac{H}{|R_i|}, 1\right)\right) \times \left(\frac{R_i}{P} \times 2 \times IO\right)$$

- For example, the Hash table can only occupy 10 records at a time from table Ri. Assume |Ri|=50 records. That means that there will be 5 buckets. Because the main memory can take one bucket only, it means the 4 buckets must be stored on disk.
- (1-min(H/|Ri|,1)) = 1-min(0.2,1) = 1-0.2 = 0.8
- If |Ri|=10 or less, then (1-min(H/|Ri|,1)) = 1-1 = 0; That means there is no overflow bucket cost.
- (Ri/P x 2 x IO) → the constant 2 means two input/output accesses: one for spooling, and the other for reading it back from the disk

Cost Models for Local Join

- Phase 3: query results storing cost, consisting of generating result cost and disk cost.
- Generating result records cost is: |Ri| x σj x |S| x tw
- Disk cost for storing the final result is: $(\pi_R \times Ri \times \sigma j \times \pi_S \times S/P) \times IO$

Home Work

- Disjoint data partitioning based parallel join algorithm
- Cost Model for Disjoint data partitioning based parallel join algorithm

https://onlinelibrary-wiley-com.ezproxy.lib.monash.edu.au/doi/pdf/10.1002/978047 0391365.ch5

5.5. Parallel Join Optimization

- The aim of query processing in general is to speed up the query processing time
- In terms of parallelism, the reduction in the query elapsed time is achieved by having each processor finish its execution as early as possible and as evenly as possible → load balancing issue
- In the disjoint partitioning, after the data is distributed to the designated processors, the data has to be stored on disk. Then in the local join, the data has to be loaded from the disk again → managing main memory issue



5.5. Parallel Join Optimization (cont'd)

Optimizing Main Memory

- Disk access is the most expensive operations, so need to reduce disk access as much as possible
- If it is possible, only a single scan of data should be done. If not, then minimize the number of scan
- If main memory size is unlimited, single disk scan is possible
- However, main memory size is not unlimited, hence optimizing main memory is critical
- Problem: In the distribution, when the data arrives at a processor, it is stored in disk. In the local join, the data needs to be reloaded from disk
- This is inefficient. When the data arrives after being distributed from other processor, the data should be left in main memory, so that the data remain available in the local join process
- The data left in the main memory can be as big as the allocated size for data in the main memory



5.5. Parallel Join Optimization (cont'd)

Optimizing Main Memory

Assuming that the size of main memory for data is *M* (in bytes), the disk cost for storing data distribution with a disjoint partitioning is:

$$((Ri/P) + (Si/P) - (M/P)) \times IO$$

- And the local join scan cost is then reduced by *M* as well:

$$((Ri/P) + (Si/P) - (M/P)) \times IO$$

 When the data from this main memory block is processed, it can be swapped with a new block. Therefore, the saving is really achieved by not having to load/scan the disk for one main memory block

5.5. Parallel Join Optimization (cont'd)

Load Balancing

- Load imbalance is the main problem in parallel query processing. It is normally caused by data skew and then processing skew
- No load imbalance in divide and broadcast-based parallel join. But this kind of parallel join is unattractive, due to the heavy broadcasting
- In disjoint-based parallel join algorithms, processing skew is common
- To solve this skew problem, create more fragments than the available processors, and then rearrange the placement of the fragments

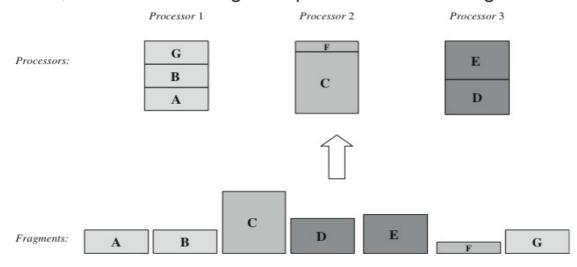


Figure 5.19 Load balancing



5.6. Summary

- Parallel join is one of the most important operations in parallel database systems
- Parallel join algorithms have two stages
 - Data partitioning
 - Local join
- Two types of data partitioning
 - Divide and broadcast
 - Disjoint partitioning
- Three types of local join
 - Nested-loop join
 - Sort-merge join
 - Hash-based join

