Hog Language Reference

Jason Halpern Samuel Messing Benjamin Rapaport Kurry Tran Paul Tylkin

March 21, 2012

Contents

1	Inti	oduction	4
	1.1	The MapReduce Framework	4
	1.2	The Hog Language	5
		1.2.1 Guiding Principles	6
	1.3	The "Ideal" Hog User	6
2	Syn	tax Notation	6
3	Pro	gram Structure	7
	3.1	Overall Structure	7
	3.2	@Functions	7
	3.3	@Map	8
	3.4	@Reduce	9
	3.5	@Main	0
4	Lex	ical Conventions	0
	4.1	Tokens	0
	4.2	Comments	1
	4.3	Identifiers	1
	4.4	Keywords	1
	4.5	Constants	2
	4.6	Text Literals	2
	4.7	Variable Scope	2
5	Тур	oes 1	2
	5.1	Basic Types	2
	5.2	Derived Types (Collections)	3
	5.3	Conversions	3
6	Ext	pressions 1	4
	6.1	Operators	4
		6.1.1 Arithmetic Operators	4
		6.1.2 Logical Operators	5
		6.1.3 Comparators	5
		6.1.4 Assignment	5
7	Dec	larations 1	6
	7.1	Type Specifiers	6
	7.2	Declarations	_
		7.2.1 Null Declarations	-
		7.2.2 Primitive-Type Variable Declarations	-
		7.2.3 Derived-Type Variable Declarations	
		* -	7

8	Stat	ement	S	17
	8.1	Expres	ssion Statement	17
	8.2	Compo	ound Statement (Blocks)	17
	8.3	Flow-C	Of-Control Statements	18
	8.4	Iteration	on Statements	19
		8.4.1	Example of while	19
		8.4.2	Example of for	19
		8.4.3	Example of foreach	19
9	Buil	lt-in Fu	unctions	20
	9.1	System	n-level Built-ins	20
	9.2		t-level Built-ins	20
		9.2.1	dict	21
		9.2.2	iter	21
		9.2.3	list	22
		9.2.4	multiset	22
		9.2.5	set	23
		9.2.6	text	24
10	Syst	em Co	onfiguration	24
11	Con	npilatio	on Structure	25
12	Link	cage ar	nd I/O	25
			· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	26
		_	ple	26
13	Exc	eption	Handling	26
			ile-time Exceptions	27
		-	al Run-time Exceptions	28
			nal Run-time Exceptions	29
14	Gra	mmar		29

1 Introduction

As data sets have grown in size, so have the complexities of dealing with them. For instance, consider wanting to generate counts for all the words in *War and Peace* by means of distributed computation. Writing in Java and using Hadoop MapReduce (TM), a simple solution takes over 50 lines of code, as the programmer is required to specify intermediate objects not directly related to the desired computation, but required simply to get Hadoop to function properly. Our goal is to produce a language that can express the same computation in about 10 lines.

1.1 The MapReduce Framework

With the explosion in the size of datasets that companies have had to manage in recent years there are many new challenges that they face. Many companies and organizations have to handle the processing of datasets that are terabytes or even petabytes in size. The first challenge in this large-scale processing is how to make sense of all this data. More importantly, how can they process and manipulate the data in a time efficient and reliable manner. The second challenge is how they handle this across their distributed systems. Writing distributed, fault-tolerant programs requires a high level of expertise and knowledge of parallel systems.

In response to this need, a group of engineers at Google developed the MapReduce framework in 2004. This high-level framework can be used for of a variety of tasks, including handling search queries, indexing crawled documents and processing logs. The software framework was developed to handle computations on massive datasets that are distributed across hundreds or even thousands of machines. The motivation behind MapReduce was to create a unified framework that abstracted away many of the low level details from programmers, so they would not have to be concerned with how the data is distributed, how the computation is parallelized and how all of this is done in a fault tolerant manner.

The MapReduce framework partitions input data across different machines, so that the computations are initially performed on smaller sets of data distributed across the cluster. Each cluster has a master node that is responsible for coordinating the efforts among the slave nodes. Each slave node sends periodic heartbeats to the master node so it can be aware of progress and failure. In the case of failure, the master node can reassign tasks to other nodes in the cluster. In conjunction with the underlying MapReduce framework created at Google, the company also had to build the distributed Google File System (GFS). This file system "allows programs to access files efficiently from any computer, so functions can be mapped everywhere." [3] GFS was designed with the same goals as other distributed file systems, including "performance, scalability, reliability and availability." [2] Another key aspect of the GFS design is fault tolerance and this is achieved by treating failures as normal and optimizing for "huge files that are mostly appended to and then read." [2]



Figure 1: Overview of the MapReduce program. Taken from [2].

Within the framework, a programmer is responsible for writing both map and reduce functions. The map function is applied to all of the input data "in order to compute a set of intermediate key/value pairs." [1] In the map step, the master node partitions the input data into smaller problems and distributes them across the worker nodes in the cluster. This step is applied in parallel to all of the input that has been partitioned across the cluster. Then, the reduce step is responsible for collecting all the processed data from the slave nodes and formatting the output. The reduce function is carried out over all the values that have the same key such that each key has a single value. which is the answer to the problem MapReduce is trying to solve. The output is done to files in the distributed file system.

The use of "a functional model with user-specified map and reduce operations allows (Google) to parallelize large computations easily and to use reexecution as the primary mechanism for fault tolerance." [1] A programmer only has to specify the functions described above and the system handles the rest of the details. Figure 1.1 illustrates the execution flow of a MapReduce program.

1.2 The Hog Language

Hog is a data-oriented, high-level, scripting language for creating MapReduce programs. Used alongside Hadoop, Hog enables users to efficiently carry out distributed computation. Hadoop MapReduce is an open-source imple-

mentation of the MapReduce framework, which is especially useful for working with large data sets. While it is possible to write code to carry out computations with Hadoop directly, the framework requires users to specify low-level details that are often irrelevant to their desired goal.

By building a scripting language on top of Hadoop, we aim to simplify the process. Built around a **simple** and highly **readable** syntax, Hog will let users focus on what computations they want done, and not how they want to do them. Hog takes care of all the low-level details required to run computations on Hadoops distributed network. All a user needs to do is tell Hog the location of their valid Hadoop instance, and Hog will do the rest.

We intentionally have restricted the scope of Hog to deal with specific problems. For example, Hog's collection objects can only contain primitive types (preventing such data structures as lists of lists). Also, Hog only supports reading and writing plaintext files. While these limitations sacrifice the generality of the language, they promote ease of use.

1.2.1 Guiding Principles

The guiding principles of Hog are:

- Anyone can MapReduce
- Brevity over verbosity
- Simplicity over complexity

1.3 The "Ideal" Hog User

Hog was designed with a particular user in mind: one that has already learned the basics of programming in a different programming language (such as Python or Java), but is inexperienced with distributed computation and can benefit from a highly structured framework for writing MapReduce programs. The language was designed with the goal of making learning how to write MapReduce programs as easy as possible. However, the user should be adept with programming concepts such as program structure, control flow (iteration and conditional operators), evaluation of boolean expressions, etc.

2 Syntax Notation

In the syntax notation used throughout the Hog manual, different syntactic categories are noted by *italic type*, and literal words and characters are in typewriter style. When specific terms are introduced, *emboldened*, *italicized font* is used.

3 Program Structure

3.1 Overall Structure

Every Hog program consists of a single source file with a .hog extension. This source file must contain three sections: QMap, and QReduce, and QMain and can also include an optional QFunctions section. These sections must be included in the following order:

```
@Functions {
    .
    .
    .
}
@Map <type signature> {
    .
    .
}
@Reduce <type signature> {
    .
    .
}
@Main {
    .
    .
}
```

3.2 @Functions

At the top of every Hog program, the programmer has the option to define functions in a section called @Functions. Any function defined in this section can be called from any other section of the program, including @Map, @Reduce, and @Main and can also be called from other functions defined in the @Functions section. The section containing the functions begins with the keyword @Functions on its own line, followed by the function definitions.

Function definitions have the form:

```
type functionName ( parameterList ) { expressionList }  } where, parameterList \rightarrow parameter \ , \ parameterList \mid parameter
```

The return-type can be any valid Hog type. The rules regarding legal function-names are identical to those regarding legal variable identifiers. Each parameter in the parameter-list consists of a valid Hog type followed by the name of the parameter, which must also follow the naming rules for identifiers. Parameters in the parameter-list are separated by commas. The @Functions section ends when the next Hog section begins.

A complete example of an @Functions section:

```
@Functions {
  int min(int a, int b) {
    if (a < b) {
      return a
    } else {
      return b
    }
}

list<int> reverseList(list<int> oldList) {
    list<int> newList()
    for (int i = oldList.size() - 1; i >= 0; i--) {
      newList.add(oldList.get(i))
    }
    return newList
}
```

Function names can be overloaded as long as the function definitions have different signatures (i.e. parameter lists different in types and/or length). Additionally, user-defined functions can make reference to other user-defined functions.

3.3 @Map

The map function in a MapReduce program takes as input key-value pairs, performs the appropriate calculations and procedures, and emits intermediate key-value pairs as output. Any given input pair may map to zero, one, or multiple output pairs. The @Map section defines the code for the map function.

The @Map header must be followed by the signature of the map function, and then the body of the map function as follows:

```
@Map ( type identifier, type identifier ) -> ( type, type ) {
    .
    .
}
```

The first type identifier defines the key and the second defines the value of the input key-value pair to the CMap function. The identifiers specified for the key and value can be made reference to later within the CMap block. The CMap signature is followed by an arrow and another key-value pair, defining the types of the output of the map function. Notice that identifiers are not specified for the output key and value (said to be unnamed), as these pairs are only produced at the end of the map function. Also note that any code written in the same scope after an emit() call will be unreachable, and will cause a compile-time UnreachableCodeException.

The map function can include any number of calls to <code>emit()</code>, which outputs the resulting intermediate key-value pairs for use by the function defined in the <code>QReduce</code> section. The types of the values passed to the <code>emit()</code> function must agree with the signature of the output key-value pair as defined in the <code>QMap</code> type signature. All output pairs from the map function are subsequently grouped by key by the framework, and passed as input to the <code>QReduce</code> function.

Note: Currently, the only configuration available is for a file to be passed into the map function one line at a time, with the line of text being the value, and the corresponding line number as the key. This requires that the input key/value pair to the map function is of type (int keyname, text valuename). Extending this to allow for other input formats is a future goal of the Hog language.

The following is an example of a complete @Map section for a program that counts the number of times each word appears in a set of files. The map function receives a single line of text, and for each word in the line (as delineated by whitespace), it emits the word as the key with a value of one. By emitting the word as the key, we can allow the framework to group by the word, thus calling the reduce function for every word.

```
@Map (int lineNum, text line) -> (text, int) {
  foreach word in line.tokenize(" ") {
    emit(word, 1)
  }
}
```

3.4 @Reduce

The reduce function in a MapReduce program takes a list of values that share the same key, as emitted by the map function, and outputs a smaller set of values to be associated with another key. The input and output keys do not have to match, though they often do.

The setup for the reduce section is similar to the map section. However, the input value for any reduce function is always an iterator over the list of values associated with its key. The type of the key must be the same as the type of the key emitted by the map function. The iterator must be an iterator over the type of the values emitted by the map function.

```
@Reduce ( type identifier, type identifier ) -> ( type, type ) {
    .
    .
    .
}
```

As with the map function, the reduce function can emit as many key/value pairs as the user would like. Any key/value pair emitted by the reduce function is recorded in the output file.

Below is a sample <code>@Reduce</code> section, which continues the word count example, and follows the <code>@Map</code> sample introduced in the previous section.

```
@Reduce (text word, iter<int> values) -> (text, int) {
  int count = 0
  while (values.hasNext()) {
    count = count + values.next()
  }
  emit(word, count)
}
```

3.5 @Main

The @Main section defines the code that is the entry point to a Hog program. In order to run the map reduce program defined by the user in the previous sections, @Main must contain a call to the system-level built-in function mapReduce() in order for the @Map and @Reduce functions to be used. Other arbitrary code can be run from the @Main section as well. Currently, @Main does not have access to the results of the MapReduce program resulting from a call to mapReduce(). Therefore, it is quite common for the @Main section to contain the call to mapReduce() and nothing else.

Below is a sample QMain section which prints to the standard output and runs a map reduce job.

```
@Main {
    print("Starting mapReduce job.\n")
    mapReduce()
    print("mapReduce complete.\n")
}
```

4 Lexical Conventions

4.1 Tokens

The classes of tokens include the following: identifiers, keywords, constants, string literals, operators and separators. Blanks, tabs, newlines and comments

are ignored. If the input is separated into tokens up to a given character, the next token is the longest string of characters that could represent a token.

4.2 Comments

Multi-line comments are identified by the enclosing character sequences #{ and }#. Anything within these enclosing characters is considered a comment, and is completely ignored by the compiler. For example,

```
int i = 0
#{ these are block
    comments and are ignored
    by the compiler }#
i++
```

In the above example, the text these are block comments \n comments and are ignored \n by the complier is completely ignored during compilation. Compilation goes directly from the line int i = 0 to the line i++.

Single-line comments are defined to be strings of text included between a '#' symbol on the left-hand side and a newline character (' \n ') on the right-hand side.

4.3 Identifiers

A valid identifier in Hog is a sequence of contiguous letters, digits, or underscores, which are used to distinguish declared entities, such as methods, parameters, or variables from one another. A valid identifier also provide a means of determining scope of an entity, and helps to determine whether the same valid identifier in another scope refers to the same entity. The first character of an identifier must not be a digit. Valid identifiers are case sensitive so foo is not the same identifier as Foo.

4.4 Keywords

The following words are reserved for use as keywords, and may not be redefined by a programmer:

@Functions	case	emit	in
@Map	catch	final	instanceof
@Reduce	default	for	int
and	dict	foreach	iter
bool	else	hadoop	list
break	elseif	if	map

not	return	throw	while
or	switch	try	
real	text	void	

4.5 Constants

The word *constant* has two different meanings in Hog. It can refer to either a variable that is *fixed*, that is, once it is initialized cannot be changed, or can refer to an *unnamed value*, such as "1.0". To declare a constant variable, use the following pattern,

final type variableName value

The following are a list of examples of unnamed values and their corresponding types:

-1, 0, 1, 2	(all of type int)
-0.12, 3.14159, 2.7182, 1.41421	(all of type real)
true, false	(all of type bool)

4.6 Text Literals

A string literal consists of a sequence of zero of more contiguous characters enclosed in double quotes, such as "hello". A string literal can also contain escape characters such as "\n" for the new line character or "\t" for the tab character. A string literal has a String type has many of the same built-in functions as the String class in Java. String literals are constant and their values cannot be changed after they are created. String literals can be concatenated with adjacent string literals by use of the + operator and are then converted into a single string. Hog implements concatenation by use of the Java String-Builder (or StringBuffer) class and its append method. All string literals in Hog programs are implemented as instances of the String class, and then are mapped directly to the equivalent String class in Java.

4.7 Variable Scope

Hog implements what is generally referred to as lexical scoping or block scope. An identifier is valid within its enclosing block. The identifier is also value for any block nested within its enclosing block.

5 Types

5.1 Basic Types

The basic types of Hog include int (integer numbers in base 10, 64 bytes in size), real (floating point numbers, 64 bytes in size), bool (boolean values,

true or false) and text (Strings, variable in size). Unlike most languages, Hog includes no basic character type. Instead, a programmer makes use of texts of size 1.

Implementation details: Hogs primitive types are not so primitive. They are in fact wrappers around Hadoop classes. For instance, Hogs int type is a wrapper around Hadoop's IntWritableclass. The following lists for every primitive type in Hog the corresponding Hadoop class that the type is built on top of:

Hog Type	Enclosed Hadoop Class	
int IntWritable		
real	DoubleWritable	
bool	BooleanWrtiable	
text	Text	

5.2 Derived Types (Collections)

Derived types include dict<K, V>, list<T>, set<T>, multiset<T>, and iter<T>. The list<T> type is an ordered collection of objects of the same type. The set<T> is an unordered collection of unique objects of the same type, with duplicates allowed. The dict<K,V> is a collection of keyvalue pairs, where keys are all of the same type, and values are all of the same type (keys and values can be of different types from one another). The only types currently allowed within collections are primitive types, preventing such constructs as a list of lists. All collections allow for null entries. 1

The last derived type is iter<T>, which is Hog's iterator object. An iter object is associated with a collection object (of one of the types mentioned above), and allows the user to traverse the elements in the collection once.

5.3 Conversions

In order to cast a variable to be of a different type, use the following notation:

Not all basic types can be cast to a different basic type. Any variable of type int or real can be cast to any of the other basic types (int, real, bool, text). However, a variable of type bool can only be cast to text and a variable of type text can be cast to an int or real. If casting a text to an int or real results in an invalid number (e.g. (int) "1a4"), then a TypeCaseException will be thrown.

 $^{^1}$ Note that for set<T>, only one null entry is allowed, and for map<K,V>, only one null key is allowed.

6 Expressions

6.1 Operators

6.1.1 Arithmetic Operators

Hog implements all of the standard arithmetic operators. All arithmetic operators are only defined for use between variables of numeric type (int, real) with the exception that the + operator is also defined for use between two text variables. In such instances, + is defined as concatenation. Thus, in the following,

```
text face = "face"
text book = "book"
text facebook = face + book
```

After execution, the variable facebook will have the value "facebook". No other arithmetic operators are defined for use with text variables, and + is only valid if both variables are of type text. Otherwise, the program will result in a compile-time TypeMismatchException.

When an arithmetic operator is used between two numeric variables of different type, as in,

```
int a = 1
real b = 2.0
a + b
```

the non-real variable will be *coerced* into a real before the evaluation of the statement, so that both operands have the same type. Therefore, the resulting type of the value of an expression involving an arithmetic operator and one or two operand of type real is always real.

If one of the operands happens to have a null value (for instance, if a variable is *uninitialized*), then the resulting operation will cause a run-time NullValueException, and the program will crash.

Operator	Arity	Associativity	Precedence Level	Behavior
+	binary	left	0	addition
_	binary	left	0	minus
*	binary	left	1	multiplication
/	binary	left	1	division
%	binary	left	2	mod^2
++	unary	left	3	increment
	unary	left	3	decrement
_	unary	right	3	negate

6.1.2 Logical Operators

The following are the logical operators implemented in Hog. Note that these operators only work with two operands of type bool. Attempting to use a logical operator with an object of any other type results in a compile-time exception (see §13.1).

Operator	Arity	Associativity	Precedence Level	Behavior
or	binary	left	0	logical or
and	binary	left	1	logical and
not	unary	right	2	negation

6.1.3 Comparators

The following are the comparators implemented in Hog (all are binary operations).

Operator	Associativity	Precedence Level	Behavior
<	none	0	less than
<=	none	0	less than or equal to
>	none	0	greater than
>=	none	0	greater than or equal to
==	none	0	equal
!=	none	0	not equal

Note: All comparators do not work with non-numeric or non-boolean types, except for null. Comparisons require that the two operands be either both numeric or both boolean, and a numeric value cannot be compared to a boolean value. The only valid comparators that can be used with boolean expressions are == and !=. The use of a comparison operator in Hog between any two objects (non-numeric (including char), or non-boolean) will result in a compile-time exception (see §13.1). In Hog, null == null will evaluate to false. For any non-null reference value foo, foo.equals(null) will evaluate to false.

6.1.4 Assignment

There is one single assignment operator, '='. Expressions involving the assignment operator have the following form:

$$identifier_1 = expression \mid identifier_2$$

At compile-time, the compiler checks that both the result of the *expression* (or $identifier_2$) and $identifier_1$ have the same type. If not, a compile-time TypeMismatchException will be thrown.

7 Declarations

While it is not specified in the grammar of Hog, like many other programming languages, a user is only allowed to use variables/functions after they have been declared. When declaring a variable, a user must include both a type and an identifier for that variable. Otherwise, an exception will be thrown at compile time.

7.1 Type Specifiers

Every variable, be it a primitive or derived in type has to be assigned a type upon declaration, for instance,

list<int> myList

Declares the variable myList to be a list of ints. And,

text myText

Declares the variable myText to be of type text.

7.2 Declarations

7.2.1 Null Declarations

If a variable is declared but not initialized, the variable becomes a *null reference*, which means it points to nothing, holds no data, and will fail any comparison (see §6.1 for a discussion of how null affects comparisons and elementary arithmetic and boolean operations).

7.2.2 Primitive-Type Variable Declarations

Variables of one of the primitive types, including int, real, text, or bool, are declared using the following patterns:

1. type identifier (uninitialized)

2. $type\ identifier = expression$ (initialized)

When the first pattern is used, we say that the variable is *uninitialized*, and has the value null. When the second pattern is used, we say that the variable is *initialized*, and has the same value as the value of the result of the *expression*. The *expression* must return a value of the right type, or the compiler will throw a TypeMismatchError. The *expression* may contain an expression involving both other variables and unnamed raw primitives (e.g. 1 or 2), an expression involving only other variables or unnamed raw primitives, or a single variable, or a single unnamed raw primitive.

7.2.3 Derived-Type Variable Declarations

Derived-type variables are declared using the following patterns:

- 1. type identifier
- $2. \ type \ identifier = expression$
- 3. type idenfitier(parameterList) where, parameterList → parameter, parameterList | parameter

The first two patterns operate in essentially the same way as for primitivetype variables. When the first pattern is used, we say that the variable is *uninitialized*, and has the value null. If a user attempts to use any type-specific operations (for instance, myList.size() on an uninitialized variable, the program will through a runtime exception (see §13 for a discussion of exceptions)). When the second pattern is used, the variable is *initialized* to the result of the *expression*.

Because derived-type variables often have additional structure that needs to be defined at initialization, a third pattern is provided. In this pattern, the user can specify a list of *parameters* to initialize the object. For instance,

```
list<int> myList(5)
```

Specifies that myList should be initialized with five null values.

7.2.4 Function Declarations

In order to declare a function, use the following notation:

```
type\ functionName\ (\ parameter List\ )\ \{\\ expression List\\ \}
```

8 Statements

8.1 Expression Statement

An *expression statement* is either an individual assignment or a function call. All consequences of a given expression take effect before the next expression is executed.

8.2 Compound Statement (Blocks)

Compound statements are defined by { and } and are used to group a sequence of statements, so that they are syntactically equivalent to a single statement.

8.3 Flow-Of-Control Statements

The following are the *flow-of-control* statements included in Hog:

```
if ( expression ) statement
if ( expression ) statement else statement
if ( expression ) statement elseif ( statement ) ... else statement
switch ( expression ) statement
```

In the above statements, the ... signifies an unlimited number of elseif statements, since there is no limit on the number of elseif statements that can appear before the final else statement. In all forms of the if statement, the expression will be evaluated as a bool. If the expression is a number, then any nonzero number will be considered true and zero will be treated as false. In the second statement above, when the expression in the if statement evaluates to false, then the else statement will execute. In the third statement above with if, elseif and else statements, the statement will be executed that follows the first expression evaluating to true. If none of these expressions evaluate to true, then the else statement is executed.

The switch statement causes control to transfer to a statement depending on the matching case label. There can be an unlimited number of case labels within the switch statement, so that the switch will operate as such:

```
 \begin{array}{lll} \mathtt{switch} & (& expression_0 \text{ }) \text{ } \{ \\ & \mathtt{case} & expression_1 : & statement_1 \\ & \mathtt{case} & expression_2 : & statement_2 \\ & \mathtt{default} : & statement_3 \\ \} \\ \end{array}
```

An expression is passed in to the switch statement and then the flow of control will fall through the switch and the expression will then be compared to the constant expression next to each case label. When the switch expression matches the expression next to a specific case, the statement for that case is executed. If the flow of control falls to the bottom of the switch without finding an equality, then the default statement will be executed. The case constants are converted to the switch expression type. There cannot be two case expressions with the same value after conversion. In addition, there can only be one default label within each switch.

Note: switch statements in Hog follow the normal conventions of fall-through. When a particular case is matched, all of the statements are executed until the keyword break is encountered. So statements from other case's are executed so long as they are below the matched case, and there is no break statement between them.

The above control statements can all be nested within each other.

8.4 Iteration Statements

Iteration statements signify looping and can appear in one of the two following forms:

```
while ( expression ) statement for ( expression_1 ; expression_2 ; expression_3 ) statement for each expression in iterable-object statement
```

In the while pattern, the associated *statements* will be executed repeatedly until the *expression* evaluates to false. The *expression* is evaluated before every iteration.

In the for pattern, $expression_1$ is the initialization step, $expression_2$ is the test or condition and $expression_3$ is the increment step. At each step through the for loop, $expression_2$ is evaluated. When $expression_2$ evaluates to false, iteration through the loop ends.

In the foreach pattern, the iteration starts at the first element in the *iterable-object statement* (a statement that evaluates to an object that supports the iterator() function). The *statement* executes during every iteration. The iteration ends when the *statement* has been executed for each item in the iterable object and there are no items left to iterate through.

8.4.1 Example of while

```
int i = 0
while (i < 10) {
  print(i)
  i++
}</pre>
```

8.4.2 Example of for

```
for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++) {
  print(i)
}</pre>
```

8.4.3 Example of foreach

```
list<int> iList()
iList = [0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9]
foreach i in iList {
   print(i)
}
```

9 Built-in Functions

Hog includes both system-level and object-level built-in functions. Here built-in means functions provided by the language itself.

9.1 System-level Built-ins

Hog includes a number of systemlevel builtin functions that can be called from various sections of a Hog program. The functions are:

```
void emit(key, value)
```

This function can be called from the @Map and @Reduce sections in order to communicate the results of the map and reduce functions to the Hadoop platform. The types of the key/value pairs must match those defined as the output types in the header of each section.

```
void mapReduce()
```

This function can be called from the @Main section in order to initiate the mapreduce job, as definied in the @Map and @Reduce sections. Any Hog program that implements mapreduce will need to call this function in @Main.

```
void print(toPrint)
```

This function can be called from the QMain section in order to print to standard output. The argument must be a primitive type.

9.2 Object-level Built-ins

The derived type objects have several built-in functions that provide additional functionality. All of these functions are invoked using the following pattern:

```
identifier.functionName(parameterList)
```

Where *identifier* is the identifier for the object in question, *functionName* is the name of the function, and *parameterList* is a (possibly empty) list of parameters used to specify the behavior of the invocation.

Note: In what follows, if a function has return type T, it means that the return type of this function matches the parameterized type of this object (i.e. for an iter<int> object, these functions have return type int).

9.2.1 dict

void clear()

Removes all key-value pairs in this dict.

bool containsKey(K key)

Returns true if key is a key in this dict, false otherwise.

V get(K key)

Returns the value associated the key in this dict, or null if this dict doesn't contain key.

```
set<T> keySet()
```

Returns a set of all the keys in this dict.

```
void put(K key, V value)
```

Places a new key-value pair in this dict.

dict<V, K> reverseDict()

Returns as new dict object with the key-value pairs of this dict reverse (i.e. keys become values and values become keys). *Note*: If there are duplicate values, they are collapsed, and an arbitrary key out of all of the associated keys is chosen as the new value.

bool size()

Returns the number of key-value pairs in this dict.

9.2.2 iter

iter is Hog's iteration object, and supports several built-in functions that are independent of the particular type of the iter object. The built-in functions are as follows:

bool hasNext()

This function returns true if the iterator object has a next object to return, and false otherwise. This function is equivalent to evaluating if (iter_object.peek() == null).

T next()

This function returns the next object (if one exists) for the owning iter object. A call to next() differs from a call to peek() in that the function call advances the cursor of the iterator. If next() is called on an iterator that has no more values, null is returned.

T peek()

This function returns the next object (if one exists) for the owning iter object. A call to peek() returns the object without advancing the iterator's cursor, thus multiple calls to peek() without any intermediate function calls will all return the same value. If peek() is called on an iterator that has no more values, null is returned.

9.2.3 list

```
void add(T itemToAdd)
```

Adds the object passed to the end of the list. The object must be of the same type as the list, or the operation will result in a **compile-time or run-time** exception.

```
void clear()
```

Removes all elements in this list.

```
T get(int index)
```

Returns the item from the list at the specified index.

```
iter<T> iterator()
```

Returns an iterator for the objects in this list.

```
void sort()
```

Function that sorts the items in the list in lexicographical ascending order.

```
int size()
```

Returns an int with the number of elements in the list.

9.2.4 multiset

The multiset object is similar in kind to the set object in that it is an unordered collection of objects of the same type. The key difference between set and multiset is that multiset allows for duplicates. The built-in functions on multiset are as follows:

```
void add(T object)
```

Adds object to the multiset.

void clear()

Removes all elements in this multiset.

bool contains(T object)

Returns true if this multiset contains at least one instance of object, false otherwise.

int count(T object)

The count(T object) method returns the number of instances of object in the given multiset. If the multiset does not contain the given object, then O is returned.

list<T> entrySet()

This function returns a list of all entries in the multiset, with duplicates removed. Please note: objects are added to the list in an arbitrary order, since multiset objects are inherently unordered. Do not ever rely on entrySet() providing a consistent ordering of objects.

bool isEmpty()

This function returns true if the multiset contains no objects, and false otherwise.

iter<T> iterator()

This function returns an iterator for the entries of the objects in this list, with duplicates removed. Again, the order of the objects is arbitrary.

bool removeAll(T object)

Removes all instances of object from the given multiset. Returns true if removal was successful, false otherwise (i.e. object was not contained in the mutliset).

bool removeOne(T object)

Removes one instance of object from the given multiset. Returns true if the removal was successful, false otherwise (i.e., object was not in the multiset).

int size()

Returns the total number of objects in this multiset.

9.2.5 set

bool add(T element)

Returns true if the element was successfully added to the set, false otherwise.

void clear()

Removes all elements from the set such that it is empty afterwards.

bool contains(T element)

Returns true if the set contains this element, false otherwise.

bool containsAll(set<T> otherSet)

Returns true if all elements in otherSet are found in this set.

```
bool isEmpty()
```

Returns true if there are no elements in this set, false otherwise.

```
iter<T> iterator()
```

Returns an iterator over the elements in this set.

```
bool remove(T element)
```

Returns true if the element was successfully removed from the set, false otherwise (i.e. the list didn't contain element).

```
bool removeAll(set<T> otherSet)
```

Returns true if all the elements in otherSet were successfully removed from this set.

```
int size()
```

Returns the number of elements in the set.

9.2.6 text

The following function can be called on a text object:

```
int length()
```

Returns the length (number of individual characters) of this text.

```
text replace(text matchText, text replacementText)
```

Returns a new text object with each sub-text that matches matchText replaced by replacementText. This function does not alter the original text object.

```
list<text> tokenize(text delimiter)
```

tokenize() can be called on a text object to tokenize it into a list of text objects based on the delimiter. The delimiter is not included in any of the text objects in the returned list.

10 System Configuration

The user must set configuration variables in the hog.rb build script to allow the Hog compiler to link the Hog program with the necessary jar files to run the MapReduce job. The user must also specify the job name within the Hog source file.

HADOOP_HOME absolute path of hadoop folder

HADOOP_VERSION hadoop version number

JAVA_HOME absolute path of java executable

JAVAC_HOME absolute path of javac executable

HOST where to job is rsynced to and run

LOCALMEM how much memory for java to use when running in local mode

REDUCERS the number of reduce tasks to run, set to zero for map only jobs

11 Compilation Structure

Currently, the Hog compiler is implemented as a translator into the Java programming language. The first phase of Hog compilation uses the JFlex as its lexical analyzer, which is designed to work with the Look-Ahead Left-to-Right (LALR) parser generator CUP. The lexical analyzer creates lexemes, which are logically meaningful sequences, and for each lexeme the lexical analyzer sends to the LALR parser a token of the form <token-name, attribute-value>. The second phase of Hog compilation uses Java CUP to create a syntax tree, which is a tree-like intermediate representation of the source program, which depicts the grammatical structure of the Hog source program.

In the last phase of compilation, the Hog semantic analyzer generates Java source code, which is then compiled into byte code by the Java compiler. Then with the Hadoop Java Archives (JARs) the bytecode is executed on the Java Virtual Machine (JVM). With the syntax tree and the information from the symbol table, the Hog compiler then checks the Hog source program to ensure semantic consistency with the language specification. The syntax tree is initially untyped, but after semantic analysis Hog types are added to the syntax tree. Hog types are represented in two ways, either a translation of a Hog type into a new Java class, or by mapping Hog types to the equivalent Java types. Mapping Hog types directly to Java types improves performance because a JVM can handle primitive types much more efficiently than objects. Also, a JVM implements optimizations for well-known types, such as String, and thus Hog is built for optimal performance.

12 Linkage and I/O

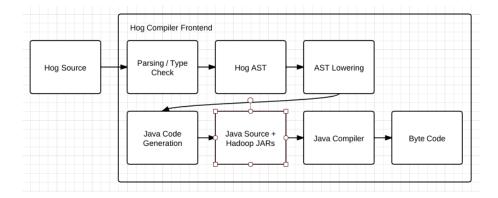


Figure 2: The overall structure of the Hog compiler.

12.1 Usage

To build and run a Hog source file there is an executable script hog that automates the compilation and linking steps for the user.

Usage: hog [--hdfs|--local] job < job args>

--hdfs: if job ends in '.hog' or '.java' and the file exists, link it against the hadoop JARFILE and then run it on HOST.

--local: run on local host.

12.2 Example

hog --local WordCountJob.hog --input someInputFile.txt --output ./someOutputFile.csv

This runs the wordCount job in *local* mode (i.e. not on a Hadoop cluster).

13 Exception Handling

Similar to other programming languages (Java, C++), Hog uses an exception model in which an exception is thrown and can be caught by a catch block. Code should be surrounded by a try block and then any exceptions occurring within the try block will subsequently be caught by the catch block. Each try block should be associated with at least one catch block. However, there can be multiple catch blocks to handle specific types of exceptions. In addition, an optional finally block can be added. The finally block will execute in all circumstances, whether or not an exception is thrown. The structure of exception handling should be similar to this, although there can be multiple catch blocks and the finally block is optional:

```
try {
    expression
} catch ( exception ) {
    expression
} finally {
    expression
}
```

Because the proper behavior of a Hog program is dependent on resources outside of the language (i.e. the proper behavior of the users Hadoop software), there are more sources exceptions in Hog than most general purpose languages. These sources can be divided into three categories: *compiletime exceptions*, *internal runtime exceptions* and *external runtime exceptions*.

To throw an exception, a programmer uses the following pattern,

throw exceptionType exceptionMessage

For example,

```
if (a instanceof text and b instanceof int) {
  throw TypeMismatchException "Cannot add a text and an int!"
}
```

13.1 Compile-time Exceptions

The primary cause of most compiletime exceptions in Hog are syntax errors. Such errors are unrecoverable because it is impossible for the compiler to properly interpret the user program. Some compilers for other languages offer a limited amount of compiletime error correction. Because Hog programs are often designed to process gigabytes or terabytes of data at a time, the standard Hog compiler offers no compiletime error correction. The assumption is that a user would rather retool their program than risk the chance of discovering, only after hours of processing, that the compilers has incorrectly assumed what the user meant. The following are Hog compiletime exceptions:

IncorrectArgumentException

Thrown when a derived-type object is instantiated with invalid parameters, or a function is called with invalid parameters.

TypeMismatchException

Thrown when a program attempts to carry out an operation on a variable of the wrong type (like adding a text and an int together). This exception can be generated at compile-time or run-time.

ProgramStructureException

Thrown when a Hog program does not follow the structure described earlier in section 2.1

${\tt NoSuchVariableException}$

Thrown when an attempt is made to use a variable that has not been declared yet.

NoSuchFunctionException

Thrown when a function is invoked that does not exist.

UnsupportedOperationException

Thrown when a variable invokes a function that is not supported for that type (i.e. when tokenize() is invoked by a variable of type int).

${\tt UnreachableCodeException}$

Thrown when code is included in a part of a program that will never be executed (i.e. any code included after the emit function in the @Map and @Reduce sections).

${\tt RedundantDeclarationException}$

Thrown when a variable is redeclared in a program that it has previously been declared in.

13.2 Internal Run-time Exceptions

Internal runtime exceptions include such problems as I/O exceptions (i.e. a specified file is not found on either the users local file system or the associated Hadoop file system), type mismatch exceptions (i.e. a program attempts to place two elements of different types into the same list) and parsing exceptions. The following are Hog internal runtime exceptions:

FileNotFoundException

Thrown when the Hog program attempts to open a non-existent file.

FileLoadException

Thrown when an error occurs while Hog is attempting to read a file (e.g. the file is deleted while reading).

ArrayOutOfBoundsException

Thrown when a program tries to access a non-valid index of a list.

${\tt IncorrectArgumentException}$

Thrown when a derived-type object is instantiated with invalid parameters, or a function is called with invalid parameters.

TypeMismatchException

Thrown when a program attempts to carry out an operation on a variable of the wrong type (like adding a text and an int together).

${\tt HogMapFunctionException}$

Thrown when a map function receives a key, value pair of the wrong type.

HogReduceFunctionException

Thrown when a reduce function receives a key, value pair of the wrong type.

NullPointerException

Thrown whenever the value of a variable cannot be null (e.g. in myList.get(i), if i is null, the operation with throw a NullPointerException).

ArithmeticException

Thrown whenever an arithmetic operation is attempted on non-numeric operands.

13.3 External Run-time Exceptions

In Hog, if a compute-node throws any run-time exception that causes the compute-node to crash or abort execution, the tasks running on that node will be reassigned to other compute-nodes automatically by the Hadoop runtime. There will not be any data transferred between compute-nodes since the Hadoop Distributed File System replicates the same data across all compute-nodes.

In Hog, there is support for specifying a policy for retrying method failures after an exception has been thrown, through the interface RetryPolicy in Hadoop. The interface consists of one method: boolean shouldRetry(Exception e, int retries) which determines whether Hadoop should retry a method, and the number of retries that have been attempted so far.

Hog also provides, through the Hadoop, prespecified retry policies:

- 1. RETRY_FOREVER: Keep trying forever.
- 2. TRY_ONCE_DONT_FAIL: Try once, and fail silently for void methods, or by re-throwing the exception for non-void methods.
- 3. TRY_ONCE_THEN_FAIL: Try once, and fail by re-throwing the exception.

14 Grammar

```
%token FALSE TRUE
%token UMINUS DECR INCR
%token MINUS PLUS TIMES DIVIDE MOD
%token LESS GRTR LESS_EQL GRTR_EQL DBL_EQLS NOT_EQLS ASSIGN
%token TEXT BOOL INT REAL LIST VOID
%token TEXT_LITERAL ID ARROW INT_CONST REAL_CONST BOOL_CONST
%token BREAK CASE DEFAULT
```

```
%token IN AND OR NOT
%token WHILE FOR FOREACH IF ELSE ELSEIF SWITCH
%token FUNCTION FUNCTIONS MAIN MAP REDUCE
%left OR
%left AND
%right NOT
%left MINUS PLUS
%left TIMES DIVIDE
%left MOD
%right UMINUS
%left DECR INCR
%nonassoc LESS GRTR LESS_EQL GRTR_EQL DBL_EQLS NOT_EQLS
%right ASSIGN
%start program
%%
program
    : functions map reduce main
functions
   : FUNCTION '{' function_list '}'
    | /* epsilon */
function_list
    : function
    | function_list function
function
    : type ID '(' parameter_list ')' '{' statement_list '}'
parameter_list
    : type ID ',' parameter_list
    | type ID
    | /* epsilon */
map
```

```
: MAP section_type '{' statement_list '}'
reduce
    : REDUCE section_type '{' statement_list '}'
section_type
    : '(' type ID ',' type ID ')' ARROW '(' type ',' type ')'
{\tt main}
    : MAIN '{' statement_list '}'
statement_list
    : statement
    | statement_list statement
statement
    : expression_statement
    | selection_statement
    | iteration_statement
    | labeled_statement
    | BREAK
expression_statement
    : '\n'
    | expression '\n'
expression
    : logical_expression
    | unary_expression ASSIGN expression
logical_expression
    : logical_expression OR logical_term
    | logical_term
logical_term
    : logical_term AND equality_expression
    | equality_expression
```

```
;
equality_expression
    : relational_expression
    | equality_expression DBL_EQLS relational_expression
    | equality_expression NOT_EQLS relational_expression
relational_expression
    : additive_expression
    | relational_expression LESS additive_expression
    | relational_expression GRTR additive_expression
    | relational_expression LESS_EQL additive_expression
    | relational_expression GRTR_EQL additive_expression
additive_expression
    : multiplicative_expression
    | additive_expression PLUS multiplicative_expression
    | additive_expression MINUS multiplicative_expression
multiplicative_expression
    : cast_expression
    | multiplicative_expression TIMES cast_expression
    | multiplicative_expression DIVIDE cast_expression
    | multiplicative_expression MOD cast_expression
cast_expression
    : unary_expression
    | '(' type ')' cast_expression
unary_expression
    : UMINUS cast_expression
    | NOT cast_expression
    | postfix_expression
postfix_expression
    : primary_expression
    | postfix_expression INCR
    | postfix_expression DECR
```

```
primary_expression
   : ID
    | constant
    | TEXT_LITERAL
    | '(' expression ')'
constant
   : INT_CONST
   | REAL_CONST
   | BOOL_CONST
selection_statement
    : IF '(' expression ')' statement elseif_statement else_statement
    | SWITCH '(' expression ')' statement
elseif_statement
    : ELSEIF '(' expression ')' elseif_statement
    | /* epsilon */
else_statement
    : ELSE statement
    | /* epsilon */
iteration_statement
    : WHILE '(' expression ')' statement
    | FOR '(' expression ';' expression ';' expression ')' statement
    | FOREACH '(' expression IN expression ')' statement
labeled_statement
    : CASE ':' statement
    | DEFAULT ':' statement
type
   : VOID
    | TEXT
    | BOOL
    | INT
    l REAL
```

References

- [1] DEAN, J., AND GHEMAWAT, S. Mapreduce: Simplified data processing on large clusters. OSDI '04 (2004), 10.
- [2] Ghemata, S., Gobioff, H., and Leung, S. The google file system. *The 19th Symposium of Operating Systems Principles* (2003), 29–43.
- [3] Patterson, D. Technical perspective: The data center is the computer. Communications of the ACM 51, 1 (2005), 105.