

Scalable Algorithm Design

The “Map Reduce” Programming Model

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Eurecom

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What is Big Data?

- **Vast repositories of data**

- ▶ The Web
- ▶ Physics
- ▶ Astronomy
- ▶ Finance

- **Volume, Velocity, Variety**

- **It's not the algorithm, it's the data!**

- ▶ More data leads to better accuracy
- ▶ With more data, accuracy of different algorithms converges

What is the “Map Reduce” Programming Model?

- **A distributed programming model:**
 - ▶ Inspired by functional programming
 - ▶ Inspired by Bulk Synchronous Parallelism (BSP)
- **An instance of an execution framework:**
 - ▶ Designed for large-scale data processing
 - ▶ Designed to run on clusters of commodity hardware

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
- **Some numbers (\sim 2012):**
 - ▶ Data stored/processed by Google every day: $O(EB)$
 - ▶ Data stored/processed by Facebook every day: $O(PB)$

Implications of Scaling Out

- **Processing data is quick, I/O is very slow**
 - ▶ 1 Mechanical HDD \sim 100 MB/sec
 - ▶ 1000 Mechanical HDDs \sim 100 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
 - ▶ Framework generally 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^{10} 100-byte records. Updates on 1% requires 1 month, reading and rewriting the whole DB would take 1 day¹
- ▶ Organize computation for sequential reads

¹From a post by Ted Dunning on the Hadoop mailing list

Implications of Data Access Patterns

- **Systems 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 Kafka, 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***

- ▶ Framework abstracts away the “distributed” part of the system
- ▶ Such details are handled by internal primitives

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

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

- **Auxiliary components**

- ▶ Too many to list!

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 decide if a problem is embarrassingly parallel or not?

The Programming Model

Functional Programming Roots

- **Key feature: higher order functions**

- ▶ Functions that accept other functions as arguments
- ▶ **Map** and **Fold**

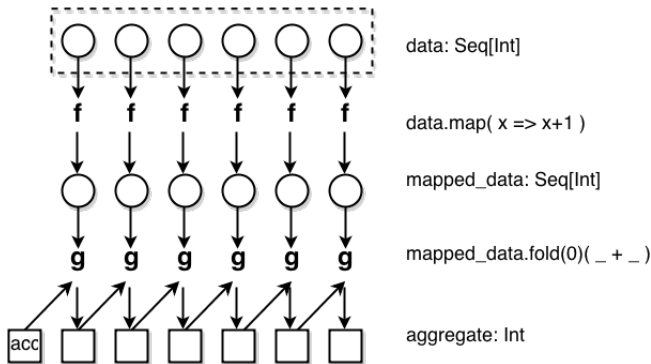


Figure: Illustration of *map* and *fold*.

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 “Map Reduce”

- **Equivalence of “Map Reduce” and Functional Programming:**
 - ▶ The map of Hadoop MapReduce corresponds to the map operation
 - ▶ The reduce of Hadoop 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 this Programming Model??

- **Introducing the Data Flow abstraction**

- ▶ The “old” Hadoop MapReduce programming model appears quite limited and strict
- ▶ Apache Spark programming model is much more flexible, and operates on a directed acyclic graph representative of the computations

- **Generally, everything can be computed with the “Map Reduce” model**

- ▶ 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 “Map Reduce”**
 - ▶ Keys and values can be: integers, float, strings, raw bytes
 - ▶ They can also be **arbitrary data structures**
- **The design of “Map Reduce” algorithms involves:**
 - ▶ Imposing the key-value structure on arbitrary datasets²
 - ★ 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

²There's more about it: here we only look at the input to the map function.

A Generic “Map Reduce” Algorithm

- The programmer defines a mapper and a reducer as follows³⁴:

- ▶ $\text{map}: (k_1, v_1) \rightarrow [(k_2, v_2)]$
- ▶ $\text{reduce}: (k_2, [v_2]) \rightarrow [(k_3, v_3)]$

- 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

³We use the convention $[\dots]$ to denote a list.

⁴Pedices 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 filesystem⁵**
 - ▶ The output may consist of r distinct files, where r is the number of reducers
 - ▶ Such output may be the input to a subsequent phase⁶
- **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

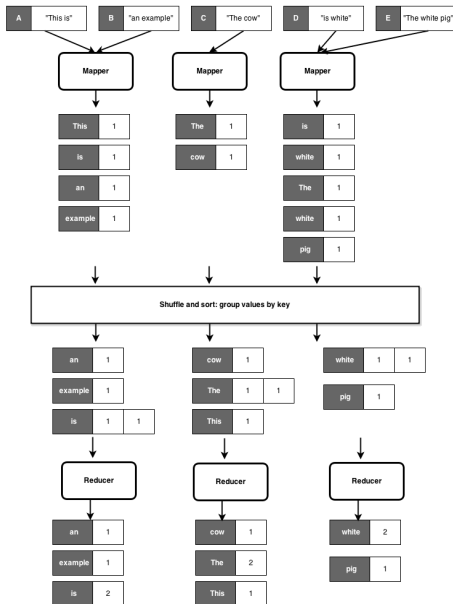
⁵This is true for Hadoop MapReduce. Apache Spark instead keeps in memory intermediate data.

⁶Think of **iterative algorithms**.

“Hello World” in “Map Reduce”

```
1: class MAPPER
2:   method MAP(offset  $a$ , line  $l$ )
3:     for all term  $t \in$  line  $l$  do
4:       EMIT(term  $t$ , count 1)

1: class REDUCER
2:   method REDUCE(term  $t$ , counts  $[c_1, c_2, \dots]$ )
3:      $sum \leftarrow 0$ 
4:     for all count  $c \in$  counts  $[c_1, c_2, \dots]$  do
5:        $sum \leftarrow sum + c$ 
6:     EMIT(term  $t$ , count  $sum$ )
```



“Hello World” in “Map Reduce”

- **Input:**

- ▶ Key-value pairs: (offset, line) of a file stored on the distributed filesystem
- ▶ a: unique identifier of a line offset
- ▶ l: 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**

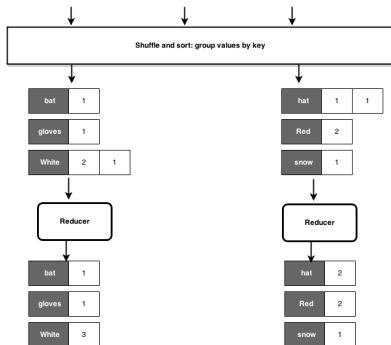
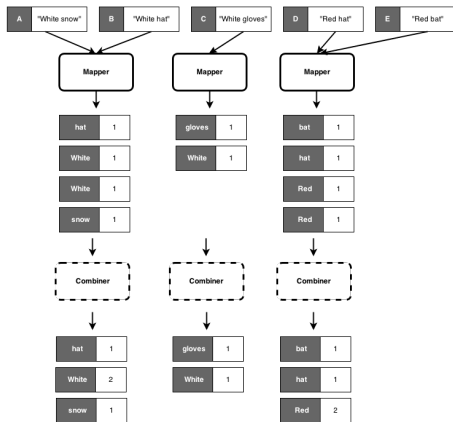
- ▶ In Hadoop, they are optional: the correctness of the algorithm cannot depend on computation (or even execution) of the combiners
- ▶ In Apache Spark, they're mostly automatic

- **Combiners I/O types**

- ▶ Input: $(k_2, [v_2])$ [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  $r$ )
3:     EMIT(string  $t$ , integer  $r$ )

1: class REDUCER
2:   method REDUCE(string  $t$ , integers  $[r_1, r_2, \dots]$ )
3:      $sum \leftarrow 0$ 
4:      $cnt \leftarrow 0$ 
5:     for all integer  $r \in$  integers  $[r_1, r_2, \dots]$  do
6:        $sum \leftarrow sum + r$ 
7:        $cnt \leftarrow cnt + 1$ 
8:      $r_{avg} \leftarrow sum / cnt$ 
9:     EMIT(string  $t$ , integer  $r_{avg}$ )
```

Algorithmic Correctness

- **Note: operations are not distributive**

- ▶ $\text{Mean}(1,2,3,4,5) \neq \text{Mean}(\text{Mean}(1,2), \text{Mean}(3,4,5))$
- ▶ 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

```

1: class MAPPER
2:   method MAP(string t, integer r)
3:     EMIT(string t, pair (r, 1))
1: class COMBINER
2:   method COMBINE(string t, pairs [(s1, c1), (s2, c2) . . .])
3:     sum ← 0
4:     cnt ← 0
5:     for all pair (s, c) ∈ pairs [(s1, c1), (s2, c2) . . .] do
6:       sum ← sum + s
7:       cnt ← cnt + c
8:     EMIT(string t, pair (sum, cnt))
1: class REDUCER
2:   method REDUCE(string t, pairs [(s1, c1), (s2, c2) . . .])
3:     sum ← 0
4:     cnt ← 0
5:     for all pair (s, c) ∈ pairs [(s1, c1), (s2, c2) . . .] do
6:       sum ← sum + s
7:       cnt ← cnt + c
8:     ravg ← sum/cnt
9:     EMIT(string t, integer ravg)

```

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 “Map Reduce”?**

- ▶ It is not always obvious how to express algorithms
- ▶ Data structures play an important role
- ▶ Optimization is hard

- **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

- **“Map Reduce” algorithms can be complex**
 - ▶ Hadoop MapReduce requires algorithm decomposition in several jobs
 - ▶ Apache Spark is much simpler
 - ▶ In general, iterative algorithms require a **driver**
- **Basic design patterns⁷**
 - ▶ Local Aggregation
 - ▶ Pairs and Stripes
 - ▶ Order inversion

⁷You 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 not⁸ guarantee combiners to be executed
 - ▶ Combiners can be costly in terms of CPU and I/O
- **Use a hash map to cumulate intermediate results**
 - ▶ The data structure is also known as “associative array” or “dictionary”
 - ▶ 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

⁸Actually, combiners are not called if the number of map output records is less than a small threshold, *i.e.*, 4

In-Memory Combiners

```
1: class MAPPER
2:   method MAP(offset a, line l)
3:     H  $\leftarrow$  new HashMap
4:     for all term t  $\in$  line l do
5:       H{t}  $\leftarrow$  H{t} + 1
6:     for all term t  $\in$  H do
7:       EMIT(term t, count H{t})
```

In-Memory Combiners

- **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

In-Memory Combiners

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

In-Memory Combiners

- **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

In-Memory Combiners

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

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_j *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 words in some specific cases

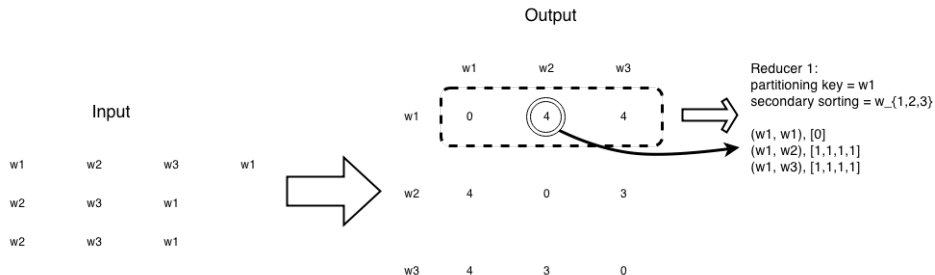
- **So what's the problem?**

- ▶ 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

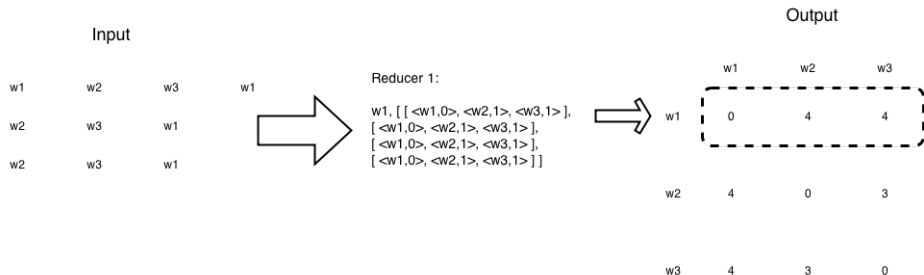
- **The reducer:**

- ▶ 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
2:   method MAP(offset  $a$ , line  $l$ )
3:     for all term  $w \in$  line  $l$  do
4:       for all term  $u \in$  NEIGHBORS( $w$ ) do
5:         EMIT (pair ( $w, u$ ), count 1)
6: class REDUCER
7:   method REDUCE(pair  $p$ , counts [ $c_1, c_2, \dots$ ])
8:      $s \leftarrow 0$ 
9:     for all count  $c \in$  counts [ $c_1, c_2, \dots$ ] do
10:       $s \leftarrow s + c$ 
11:     EMIT (pair  $p$ , count  $s$ )
```

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 hash maps related to the same word
- ▶ Performs an element-wise sum of all hash maps with the same key
- ▶ Emits key-value output in the form of word, hash map
 - ★ Basically, reducers emit **rows** of the co-occurrence matrix

Word co-occurrence: the Stripes approach

```
1: class MAPPER
2:   method MAP(offset  $a$ , line  $l$ )
3:     for all term  $w \in$  line  $l$  do
4:        $H \leftarrow$  new HashMap
5:       for all term  $u \in$  NEIGHBORS( $w$ ) do
6:          $H\{u\} \leftarrow H\{u\} + 1$ 
7:       EMIT (term  $w$ , Stripe  $H$ )
8: class REDUCER
9:   method REDUCE(term  $w$ , Stripes [ $H_1, H_2, H_3 \dots$ ])
10:     $H_f \leftarrow$  new HashMap
11:    for all Stripe  $H \in$  Stripes [ $H_1, H_2, H_3 \dots$ ] do
12:      SUM( $H_f, H$ )
13:    EMIT (term  $w$ , Stripe  $H_f$ )
```

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 shorter 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_i may co-occur frequently with word w_j 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_j appear in the context of w_i ?

● 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_i) are available in the hash map
- ▶ 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_j) and the count
- ▶ From this information alone **it is not possible** to compute $f(w_j|w_i)$
- ▶ 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_i and their counts
 - ★ This is basically building the hash map 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_i) 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_i
 - ▶ 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