

# Database Management Systems

## CSEP 544

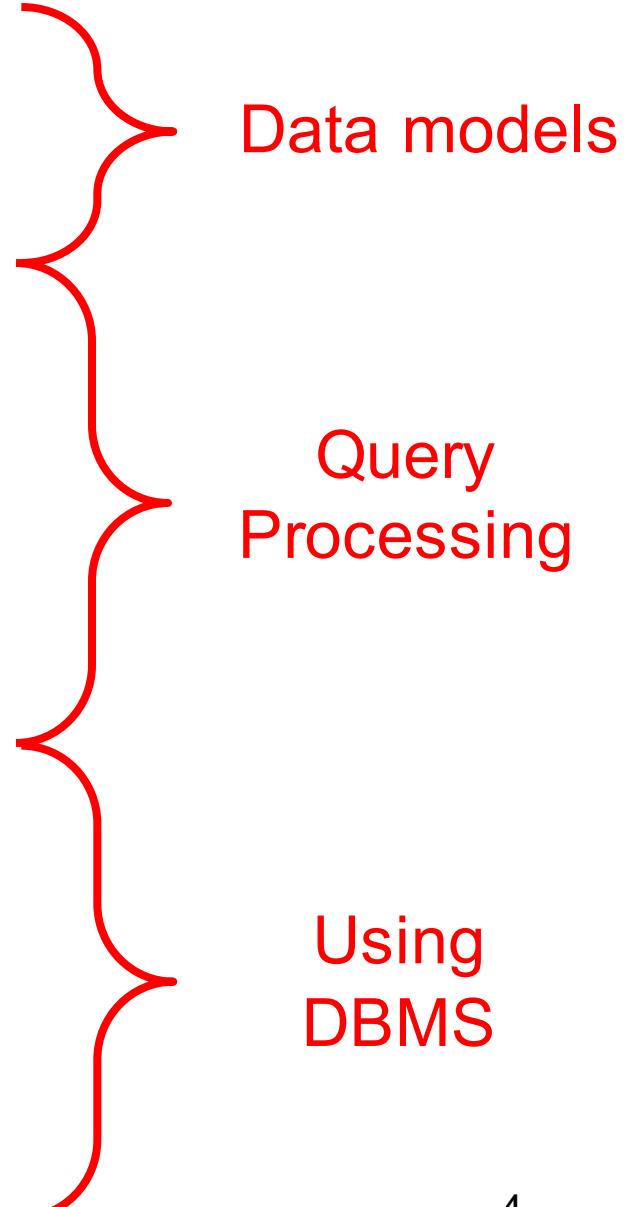
Lecture 6:  
Query Execution and Optimization  
Parallel Data processing

# Announcements

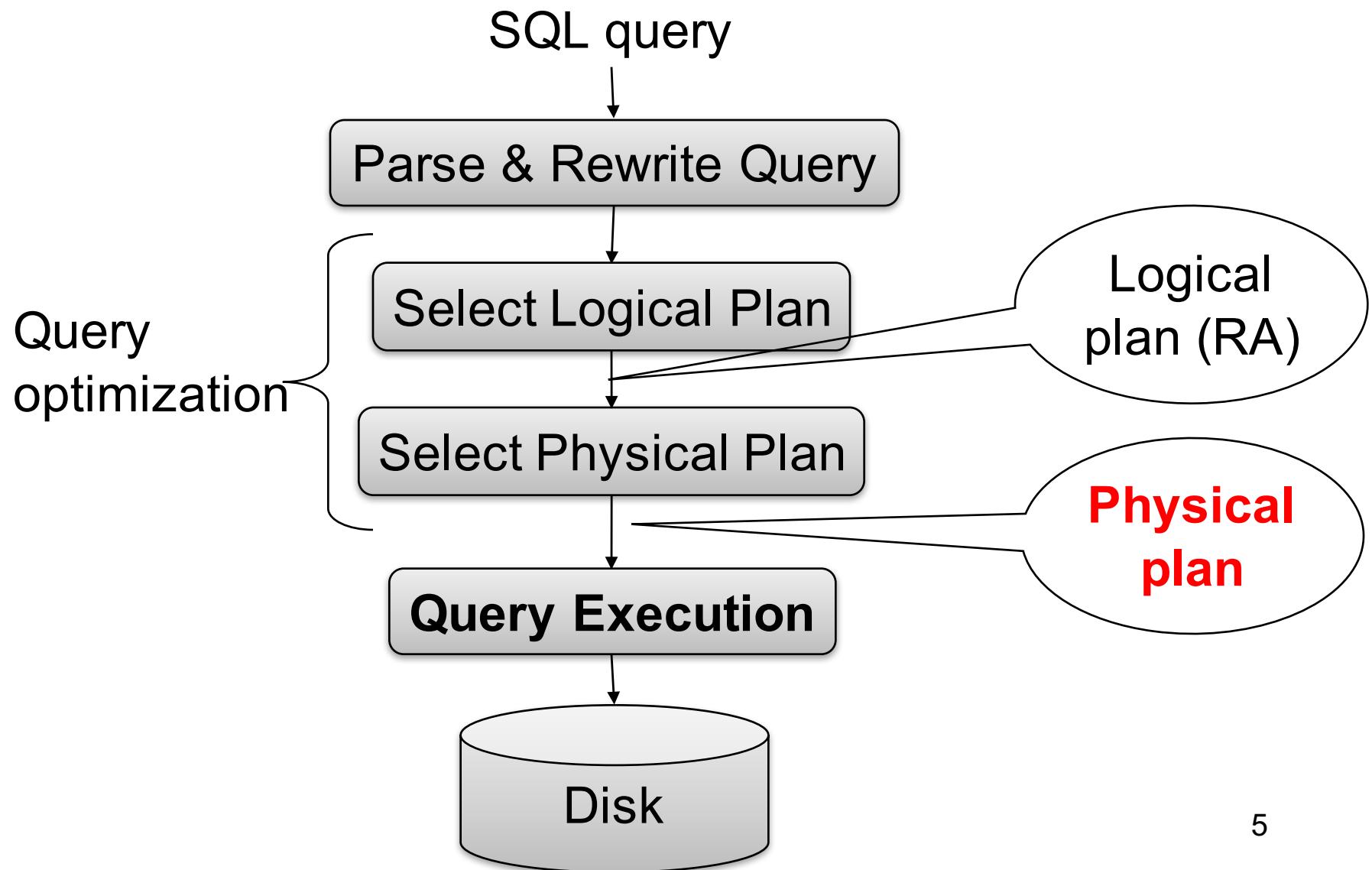
- HW5 due today
- HW6 released
  - Please start early! You need to apply for credits from Amazon
- Two lectures this week (tonight and Thurs)
  - Query optimization
  - Parallel data processing
  - Conceptual design
- No reading assignment for conceptual design
- OH change this week to Thursday

# Query Execution and Optimization

# Class overview

- Data models
    - Relational: SQL, RA, and Datalog
    - NoSQL: SQL++
  - RDBMS internals
    - Query processing and optimization
    - Physical design
  - Parallel query processing
    - Spark and Hadoop
  - Conceptual design
    - E/R diagrams
    - Schema normalization
  - Transactions
    - Locking and schedules
    - Writing DB applications
- 
- Data models
- Query Processing
- Using DBMS

# Query Evaluation Steps Review



# Implementing Query Operators with the Iterator Interface

```
interface Operator {  
    // initializes operator state  
    // and sets parameters  
    void open (...);  
  
    // calls next() on its inputs  
    // processes an input tuple  
    // produces output tuple(s)  
    // returns null when done  
    Tuple next ();  
  
    // cleans up (if any)  
    void close ();  
}
```

Example “on the fly” selection operator

```
class Select implements Operator {...  
    void open (Predicate p,  
              Operator child) {  
        this.p = p; this.child = child;  
    }  
    Tuple next () {  
        boolean found = false;  
        Tuple r = null;  
        while (!found) {  
            r = child.next();  
            if (r == null) break;  
            found = p(r);   
        }  
        return r;  
    }  
    void close () { child.close(); }  
}
```

# Implementing Query Operators with the Iterator Interface

```
interface Operator {  
  
    // initializes operator state  
    // and sets parameters  
    void open (...);  
  
    // calls next() on its inputs  
    // processes an input tuple  
    // produces output tuple(s)  
    // returns null when done  
    Tuple next ();  
  
    // cleans up (if any)  
    void close ();  
}
```

## Query plan execution

```
Operator q = parse("SELECT ...");  
q = optimize(q);  
  
q.open();  
while (true) {  
    Tuple t = q.next();  
    if (t == null) break;  
    else printOnScreen(t);  
}  
q.close();
```

`Supplier(sid, sname, scity, sstate)`

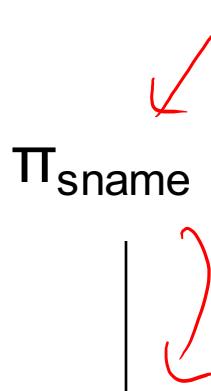
`Supply(sid, pno, quantity)`

# Pipelining

(On the fly)

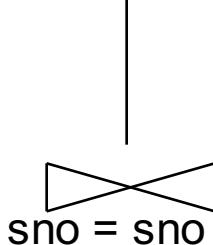
(On the fly)

(Nested loop)



Discuss: open/next/close  
for nested loop join

$\sigma_{scity = 'Seattle' \text{ and } sstate = 'WA' \text{ and } pno = 2}$



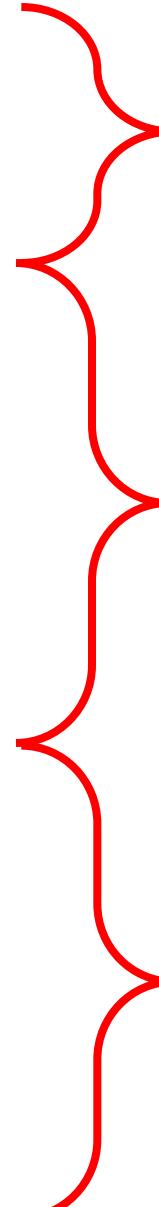
Suppliers  
(File scan)

Supplies  
(File scan)

# Recall: Physical Data Independence

- Applications are insulated from changes in physical storage details
- SQL and relational algebra facilitate physical data independence
  - Both languages input and output relations
  - Can choose different implementations for operators

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- Using DBMS

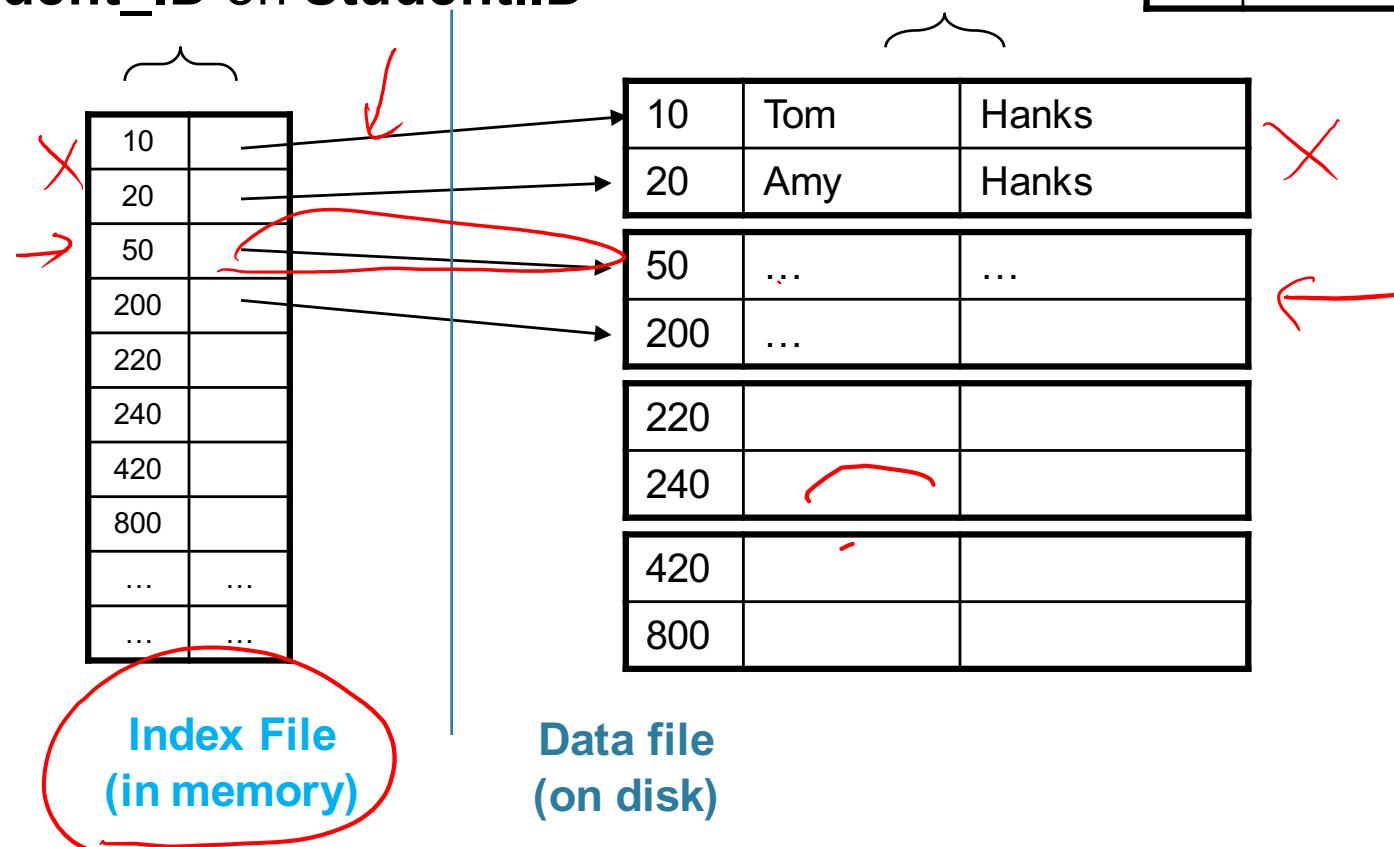
## Student

ID	fName	IName
10	Tom	Hanks
20	Amy	Hanks
...		

# Hash table example

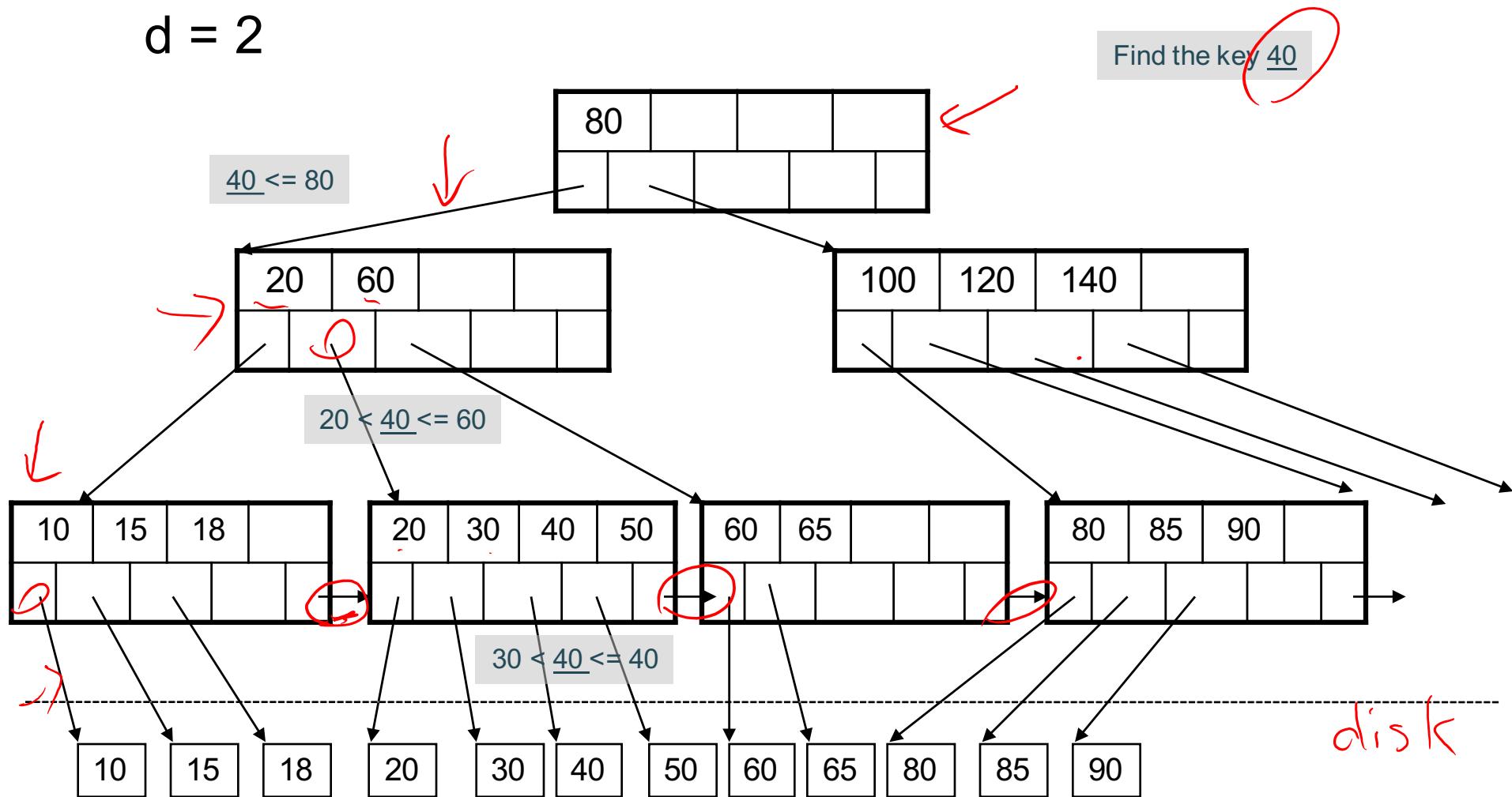
Index **Student\_ID** on **Student.ID**

Data File **Student**



# B+ Tree Index by Example

$d = 2$



# Basic Index Selection Guidelines

- Consider queries in workload in order of importance
- Consider relations accessed by query
  - No point indexing other relations
- Look at WHERE clause for possible search key
- Try to choose indexes that speed-up multiple queries

# Cost of Reading Data From Disk

# Cost Parameters

- Cost = I/O + ~~CPU~~ + ~~Network BW~~
  - We will focus on I/O in this class
- Parameters:
  - $B(R)$  = # of blocks (i.e., pages) for relation R
  - $T(R)$  = # of tuples in relation R
  - $V(R, a)$  = # of distinct values of attribute a
    - When  $a$  is a key,  $V(R,a) = T(R)$
    - When  $a$  is not a key,  $V(R,a)$  can be anything  $\leq T(R)$
- Where do these values come from?
  - DBMS collects **statistics** about data on disk

# Selectivity Factors for Conditions

- $A = c$  /\*  $\sigma_{A=c}(R)$  \*/
  - Selectivity =  $1/V(R,A)$
- $A < c$  /\*  $\sigma_{A < c}(R)$  \*/
  - Selectivity =  $(c - \min(R, A)) / (\max(R, A) - \min(R, A))$
- $c_1 < A < c_2$  /\*  $\sigma_{c_1 < A < c_2}(R)$  \*/
  - Selectivity =  $(c_2 - c_1) / (\max(R, A) - \min(R, A))$

# Cost of Executing Operators (Focus on Joins)

# Join Algorithms

- Hash join
- Nested loop join
- Sort-merge join

# Hash Join

Hash join:  $R \bowtie S$

- Scan R, build buckets in main memory
- Then scan S and join
- Cost:  $B(R) + B(S)$
- Which relation to build the hash table on?
- One-pass algorithm when  $B(R) \leq M$ 
  - $M$  = number of memory pages available

# Nested Loop Joins

- Tuple-based nested loop  $R \bowtie S$
- R is the outer relation, S is the inner relation

```
for each tuple t1 in R do  
  for each tuple t2 in S do  
    if t1 and t2 join then output (t1,t2)
```

- Cost:  $B(R) + T(R)B(S)$
- Multiple-pass since S is read many times

What is the Cost?

# Block-Nested-Loop Refinement

```
for each group of M-1 pages r in R do  
  for each page of tuples s in S do  
    for all pairs of tuples t1 in r, t2 in s  
      if t1 and t2 join then output (t1,t2)
```

- Cost:  $B(R) + B(R)B(S)/(M-1)$

What is the Cost?

# Sort-Merge Join

Sort-merge join:  $R \bowtie S$

- Scan R and sort in main memory
  - Scan S and sort in main memory
  - Merge R and S
- 
- Cost:  $B(R) + B(S)$
  - One pass algorithm when  $B(S) + B(R) \leq M$
  - Typically, this is NOT a one pass algorithm

# Index Nested Loop Join

$R \bowtie S$

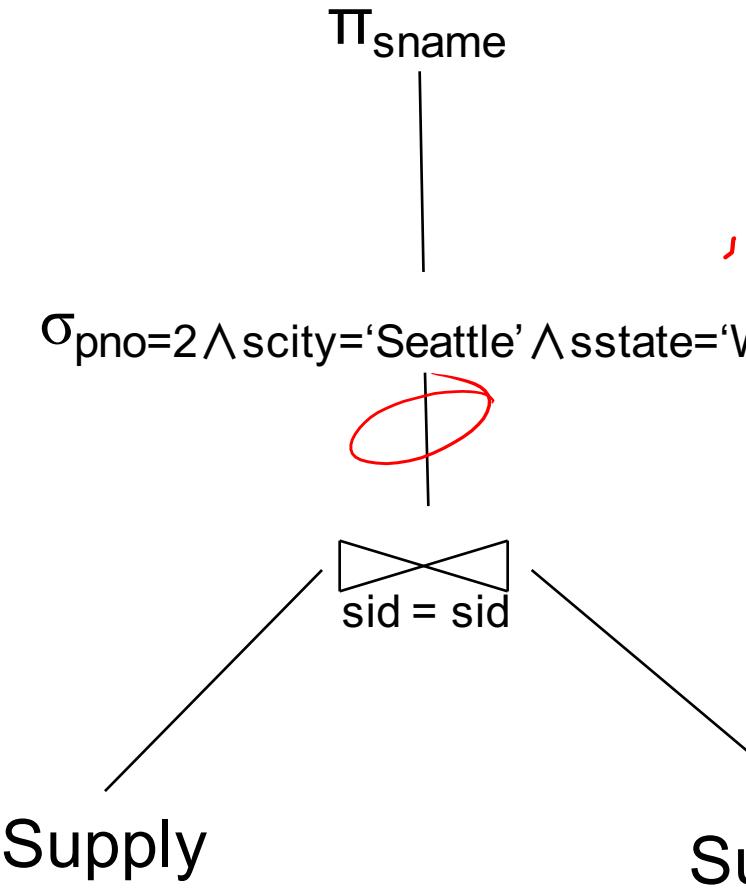
- Assume S has an index on the join attribute
- Iterate over R, for each tuple fetch corresponding tuple(s) from S
- Cost:
  - If index on S is clustered:  
 $B(R) + T(R) * (B(S) * 1/V(S,a))$
  - If index on S is unclustered:  
 $B(R) + T(R) * (T(S) * 1/V(S,a))$

# Cost of Query Plans

Supplier(sid, sname, scity, sstate)

Supply(sid, pno, quantity)

# Logical Query Plan 1



```
SELECT sname
FROM Supplier x, Supply y
WHERE x.sid = y.sid
and y.pno = 2
and x.scity = 'Seattle'
and x.sstate = 'WA'
```

T(Supply) = 10000  
B(Supply) = 100  
V(Supply, pno) = 2500

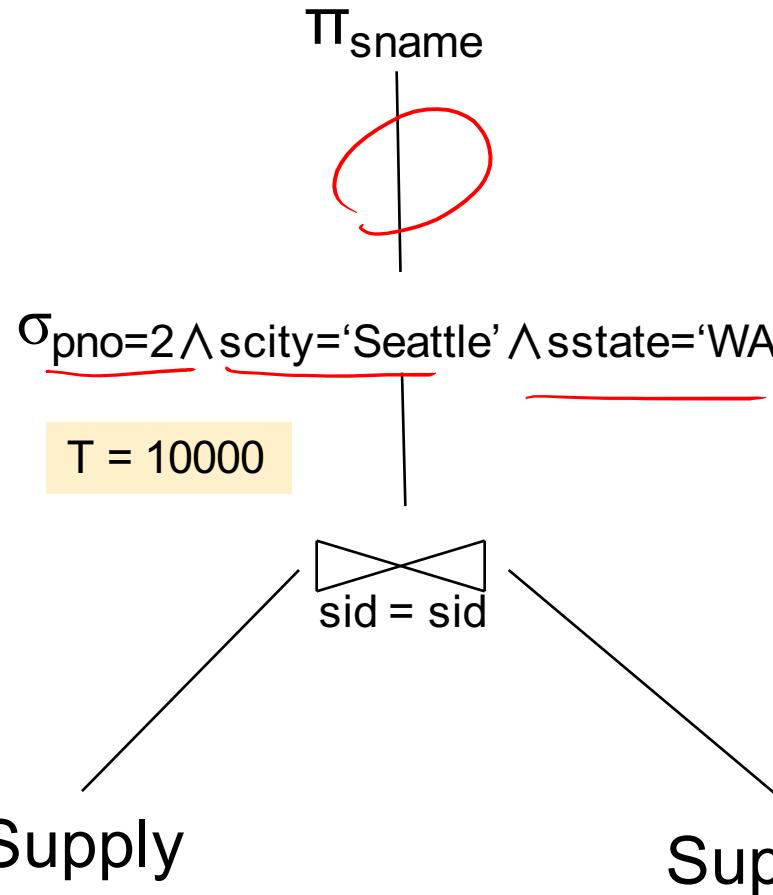
T(Supplier) = 1000  
B(Supplier) = 100  
V(Supplier, scity) = 20  
V(Supplier, state) = 10

M=11

Supplier(sid, sname, scity, sstate)

Supply(sid, pno, quantity)

# Logical Query Plan 1



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SELECT sname
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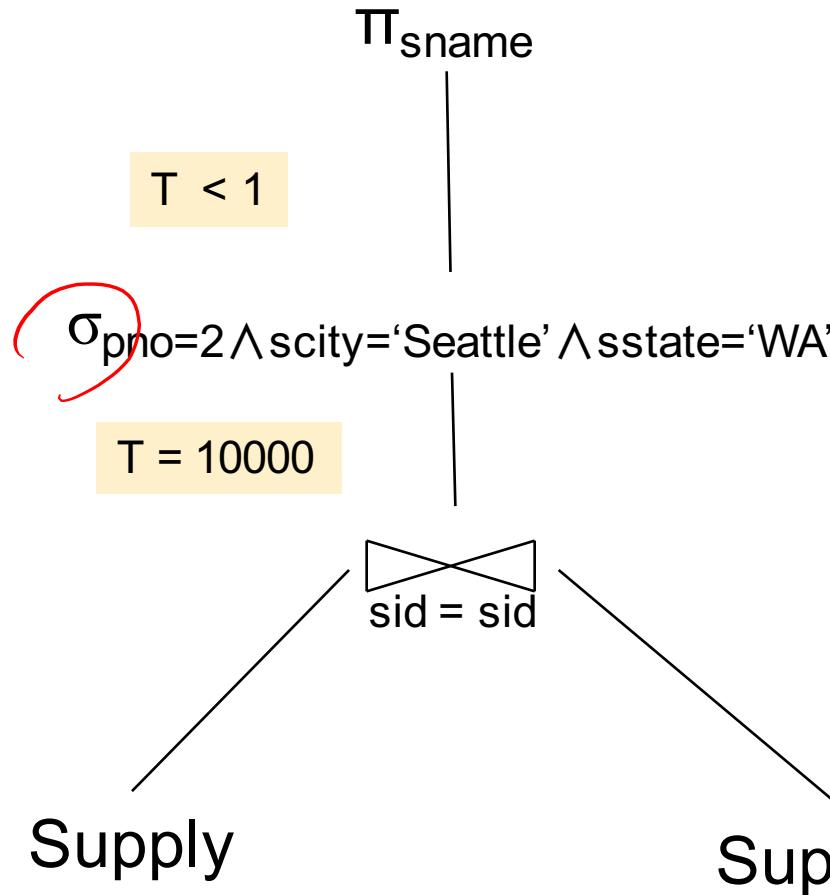
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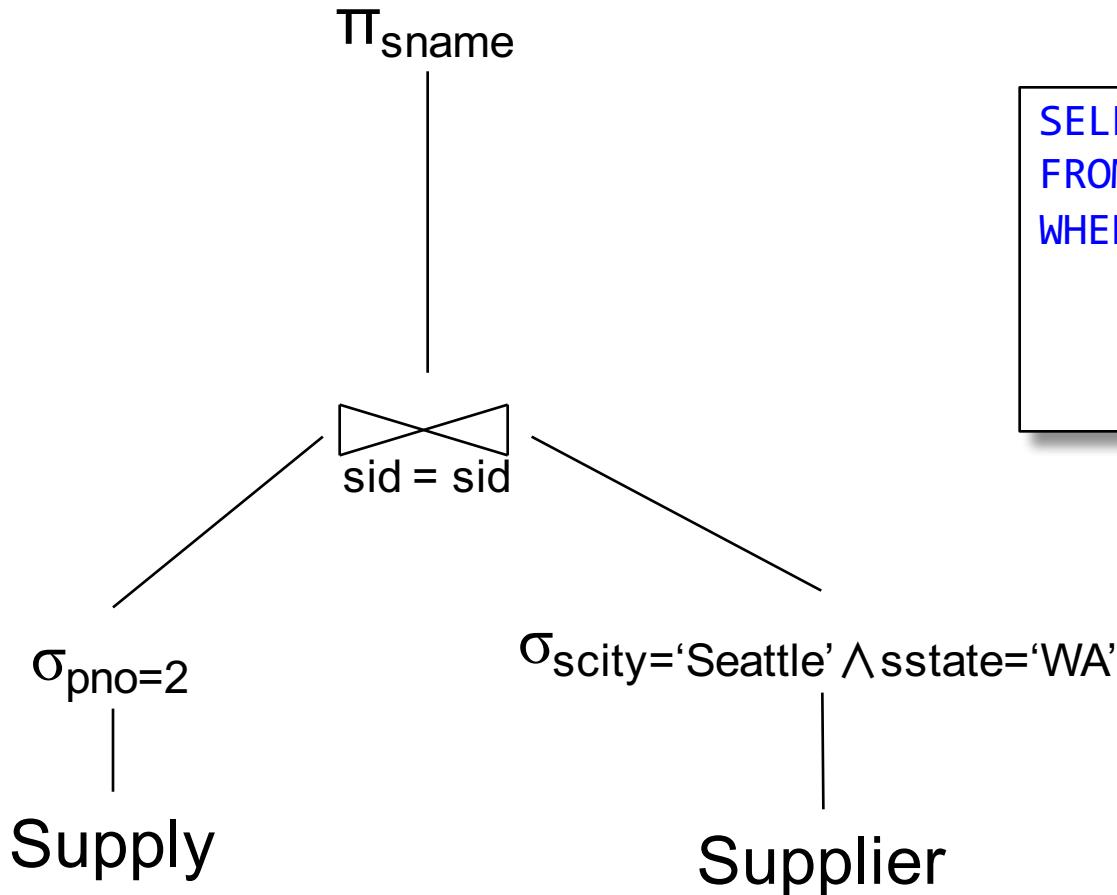
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 $V(\text{Supplier}, \text{state}) = 10$

M=11

Supplier(sid, sname, scity, sstate)

Supply(sid, pno, quantity)

## Logical Query Plan 2



```
SELECT sname
FROM Supplier x, Supply y
WHERE x.sid = y.sid
and y.pno = 2
and x.scity = 'Seattle'
and x.sstate = 'WA'
```

Selection  
pushdown

T(Supply) = 10000  
B(Supply) = 100  
V(Supply, pno) = 2500

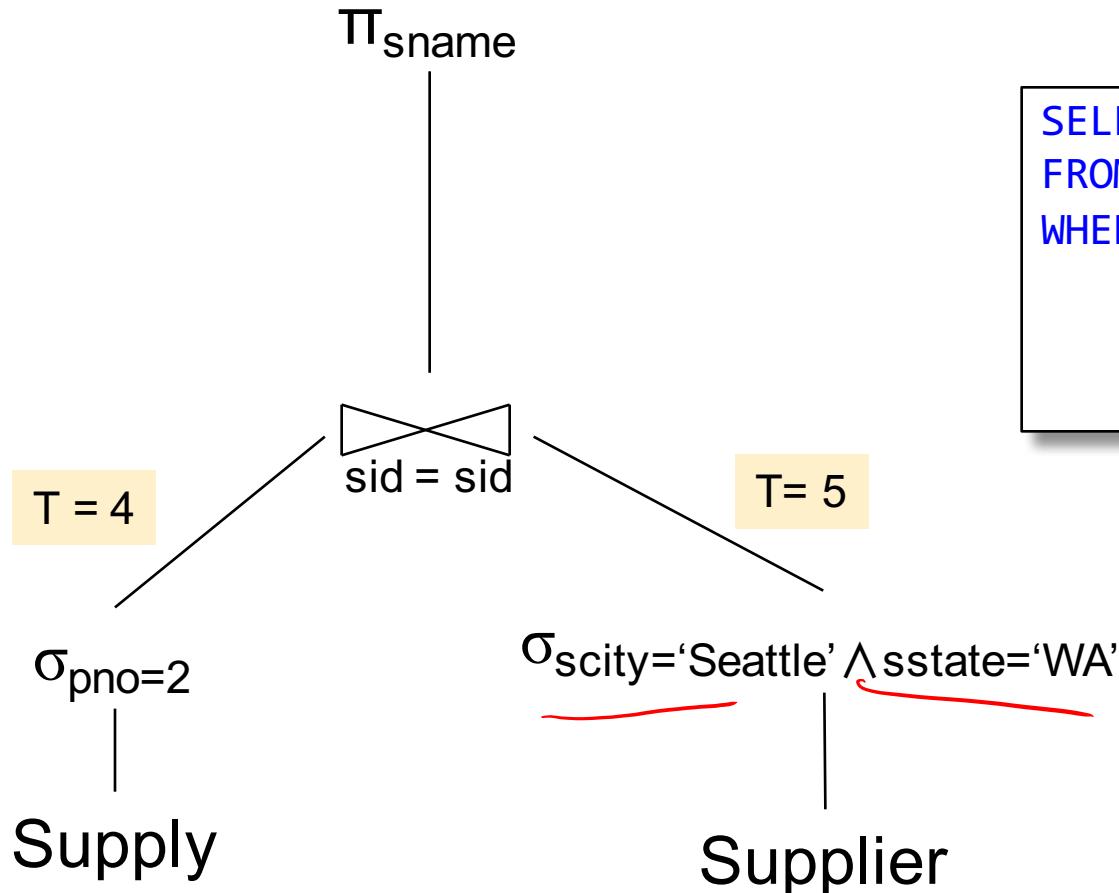
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V(Supplier, state) = 10

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Supplier(sid, sname, scity, sstate)

Supply(sid, pno, quantity)

# Logical Query Plan 2



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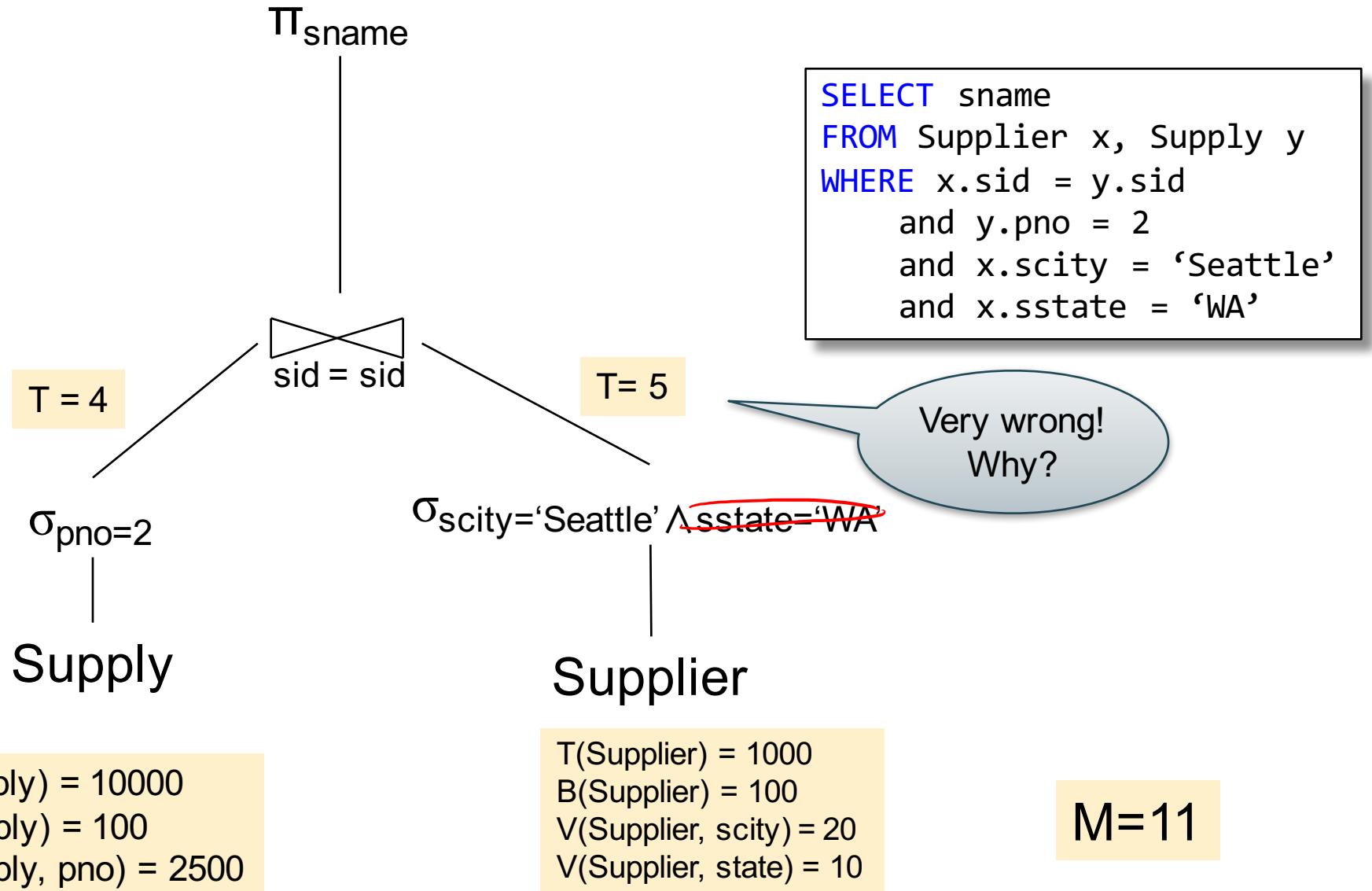
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Supplier(sid, sname, scity, sstate)

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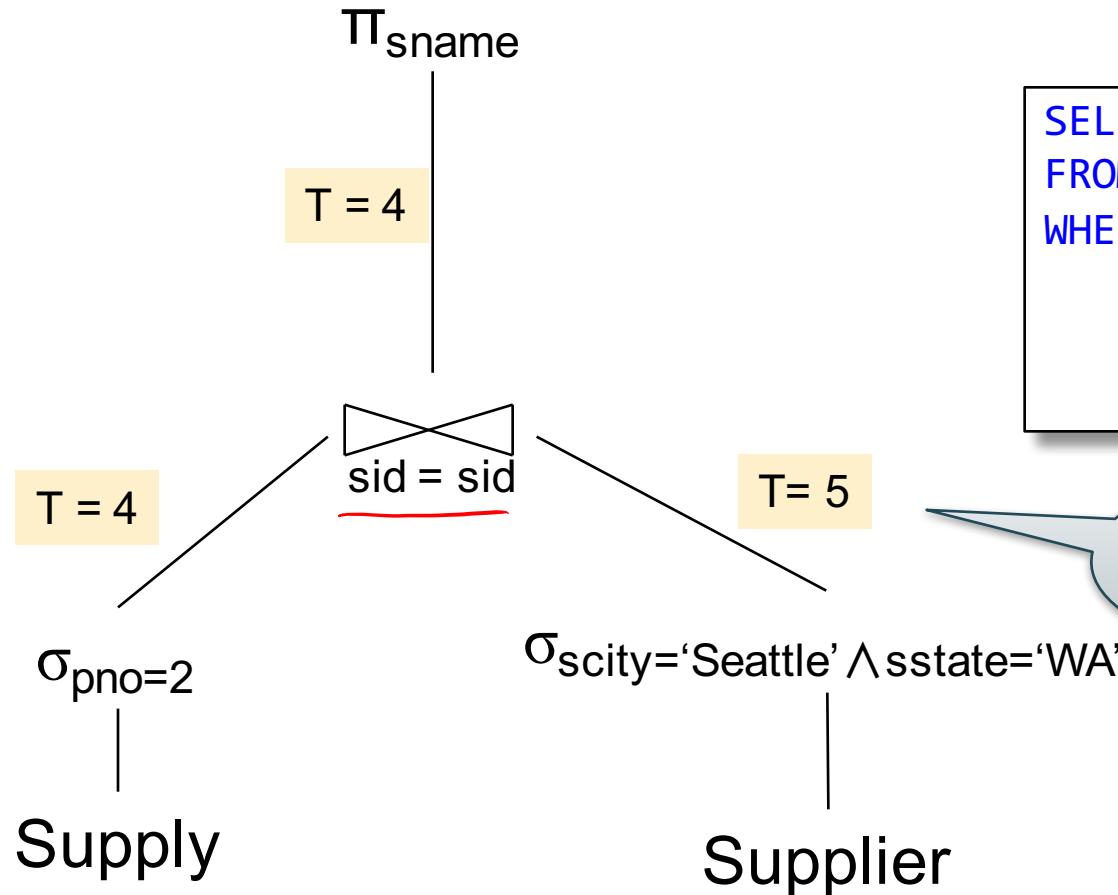
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Supplier(sid, sname, scity, sstate)

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# Logical Query Plan 2



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```

Very wrong!  
Why?

$T(\text{Supply}) = 10000$   
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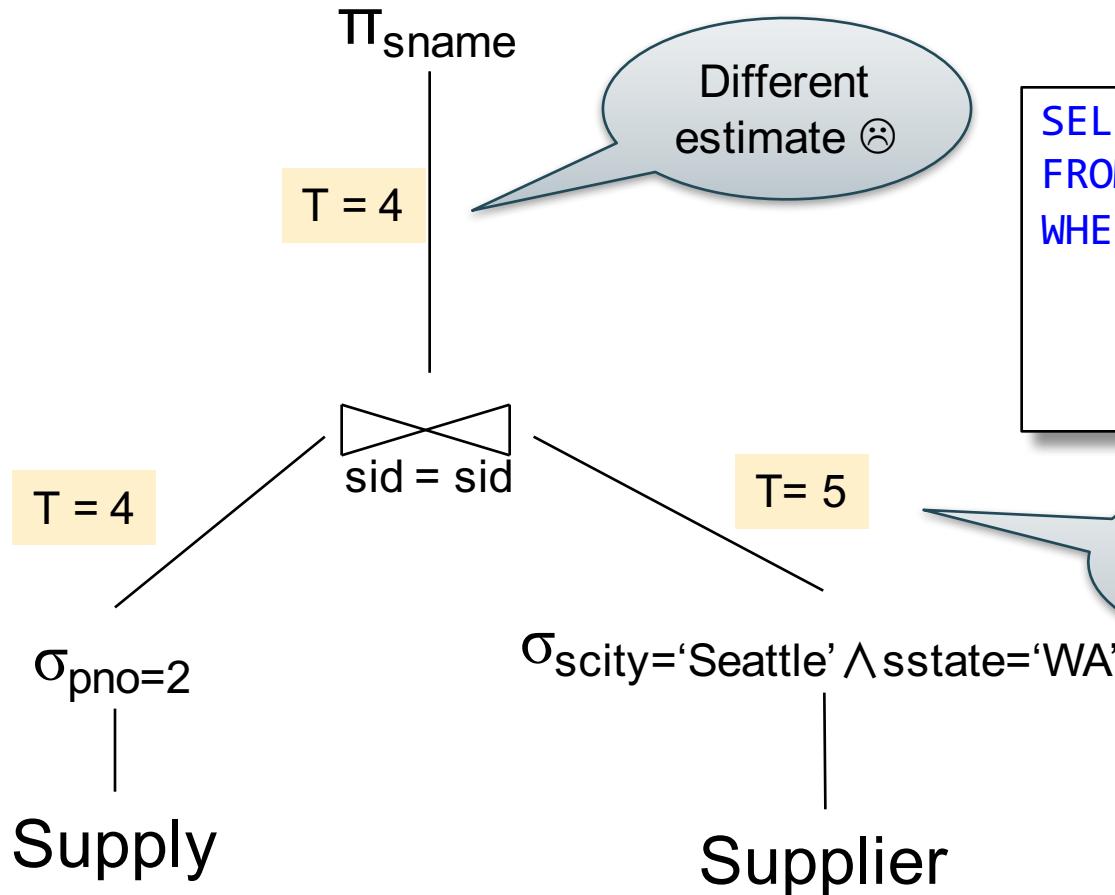
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Supplier(sid, sname, scity, sstate)

Supply(sid, pno, quantity)

## Logical Query Plan 2



`SELECT sname  
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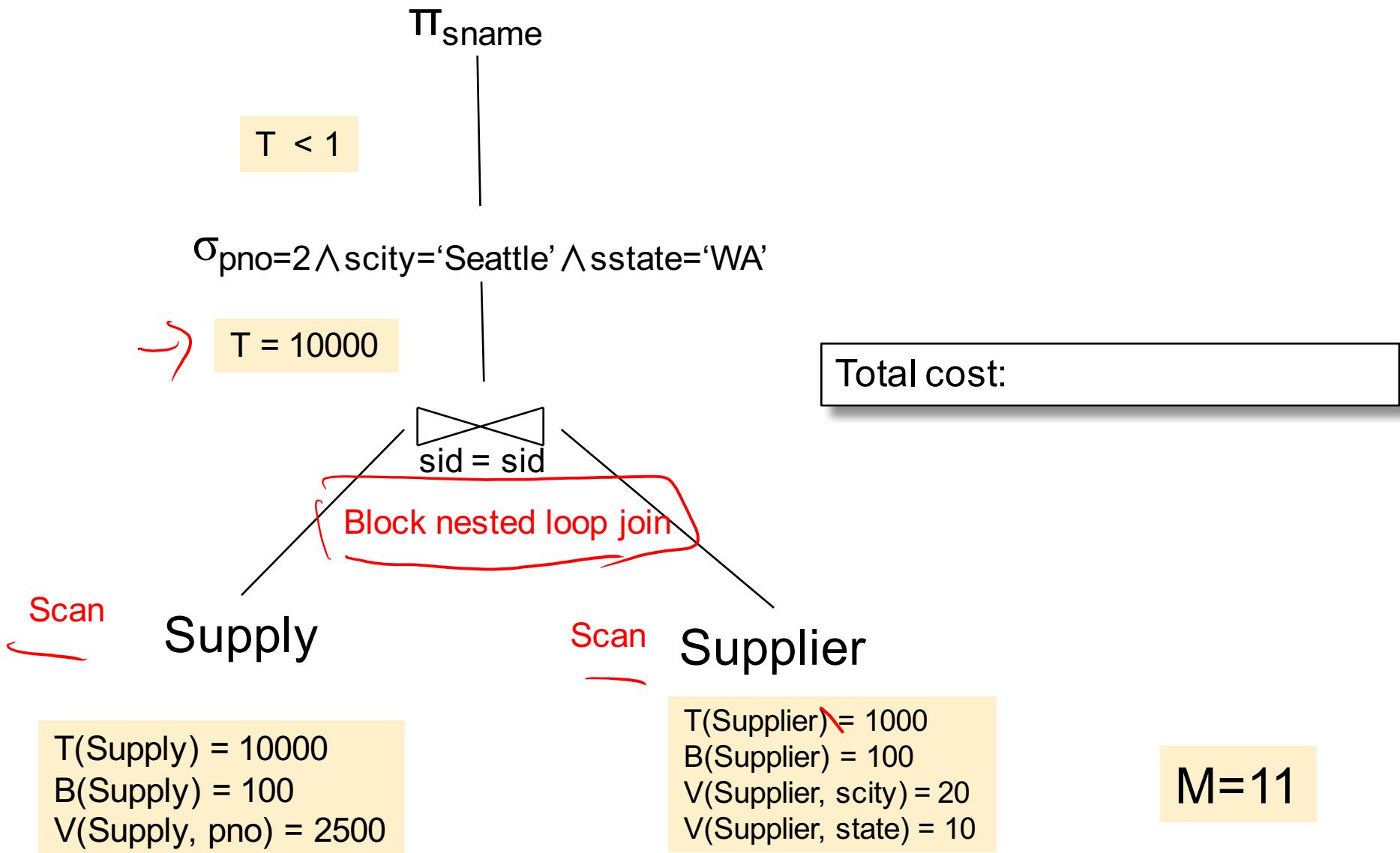
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Supplier(sid, sname, scity, sstate)

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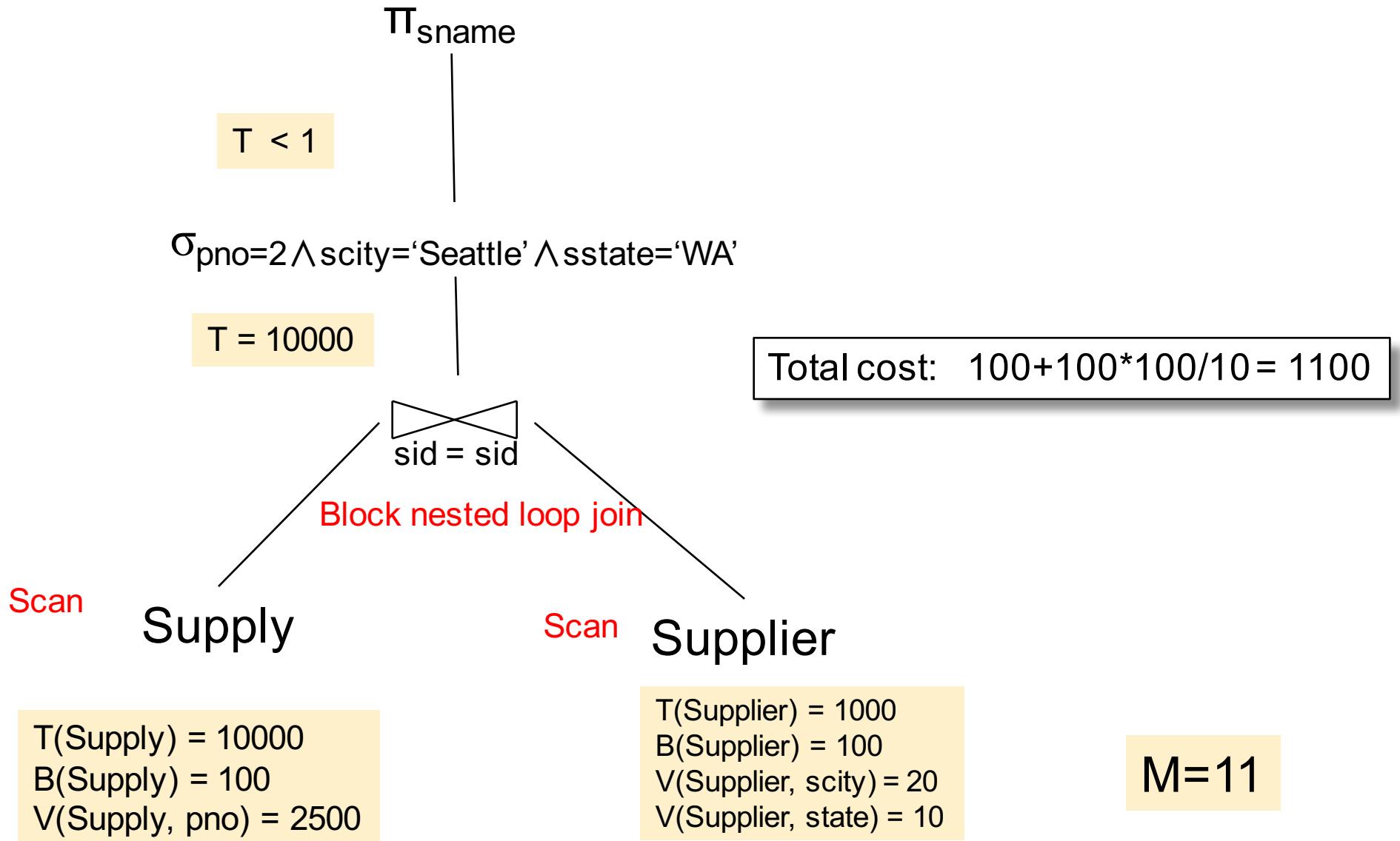
# Physical Plan 1



Supplier(sid, sname, scity, sstate)

Supply(sid, pno, quantity)

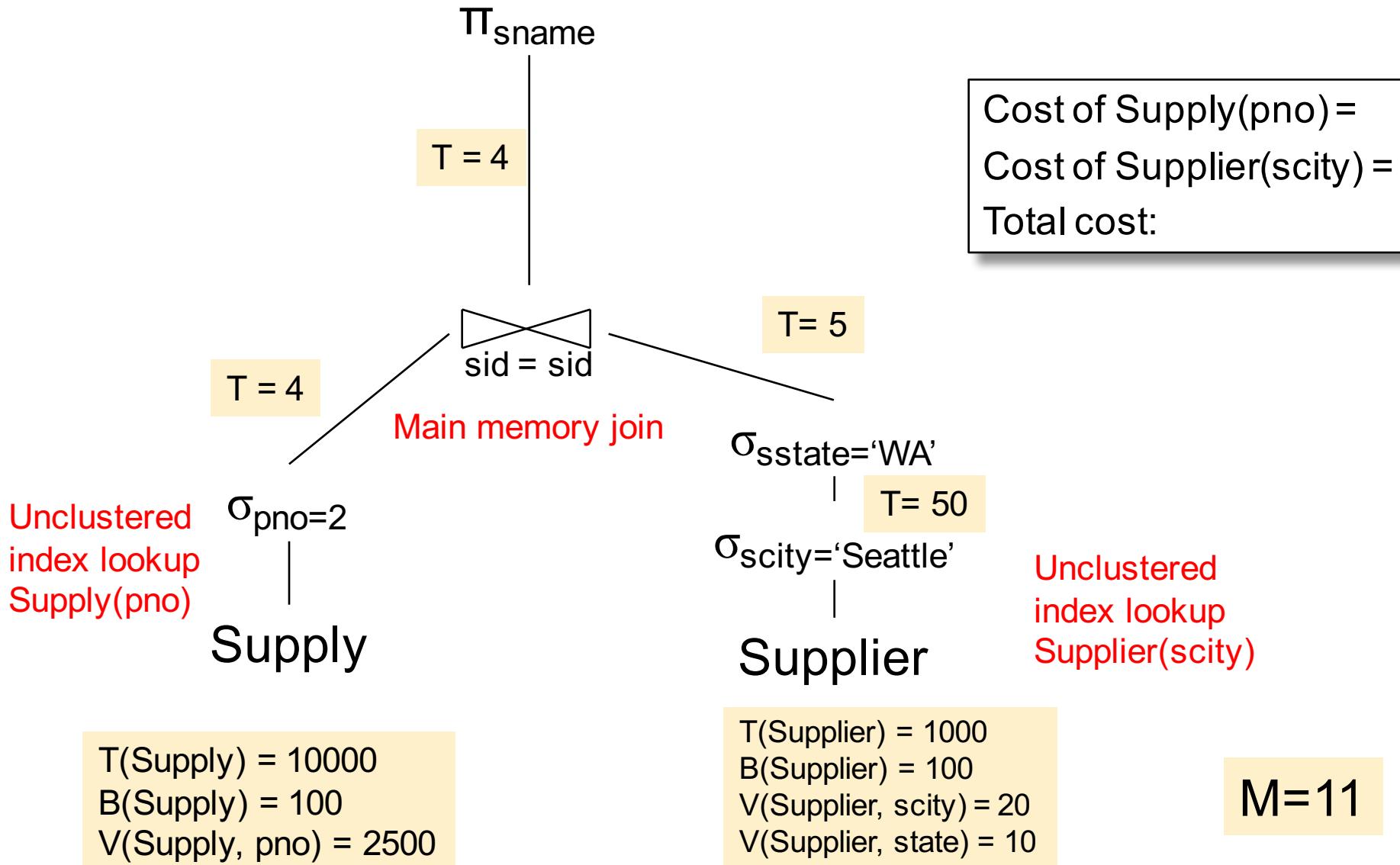
# Physical Plan 1



Supplier(sid, sname, scity, sstate)

Supply(sid, pno, quantity)

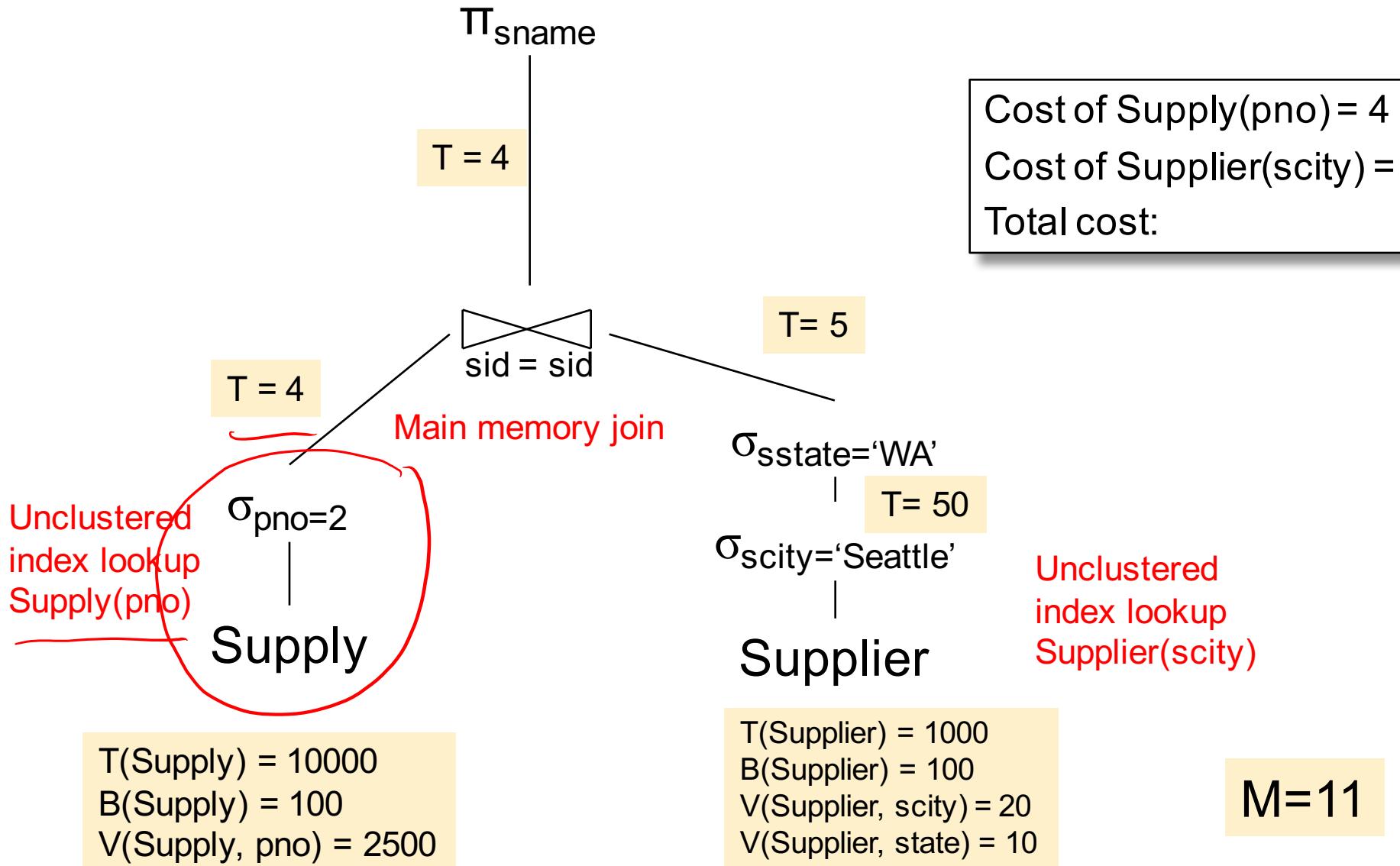
# Physical Plan 2



Supplier(sid, sname, scity, sstate)

Supply(sid, pno, quantity)

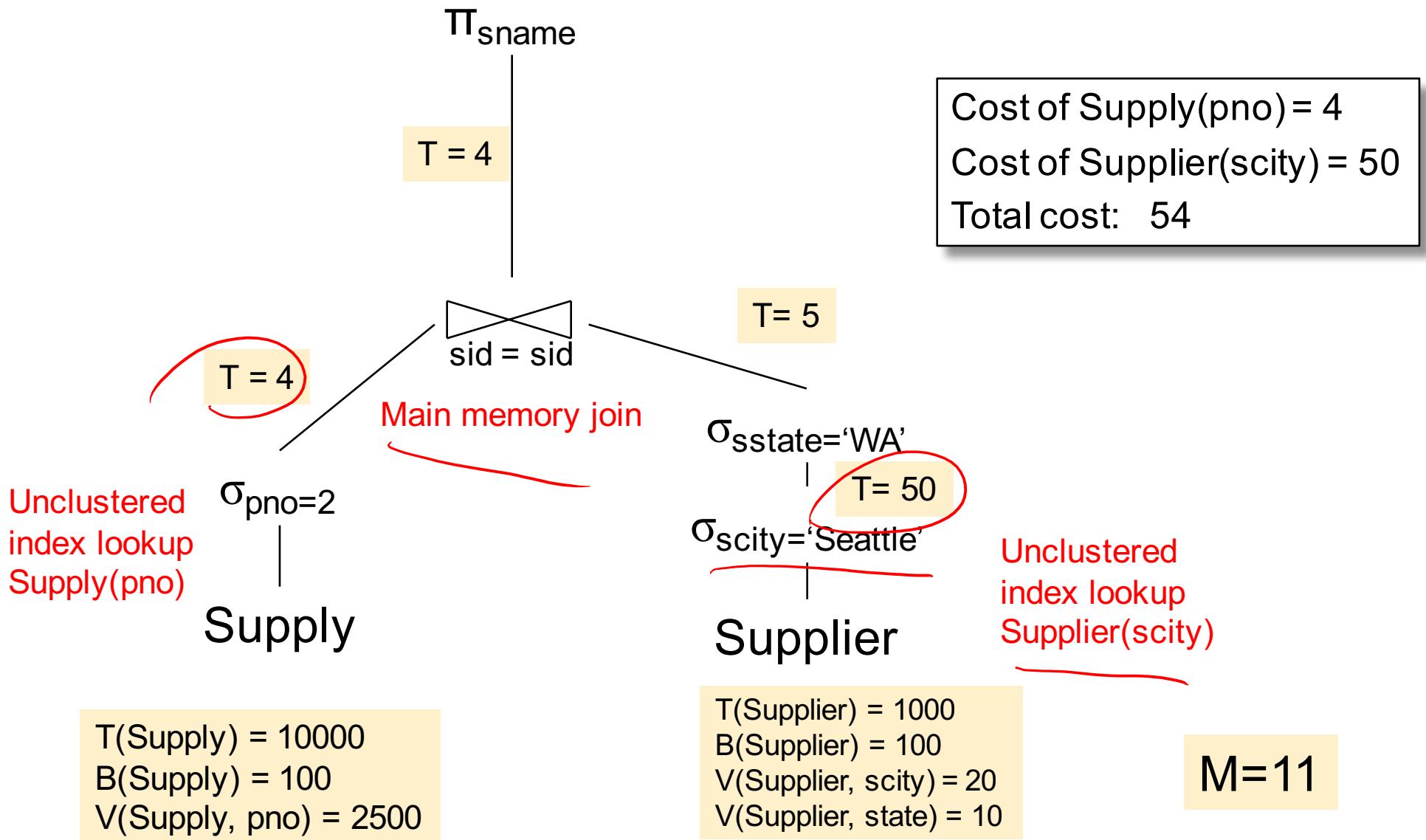
# Physical Plan 2



Supplier(sid, sname, scity, sstate)

Supply(sid, pno, quantity)

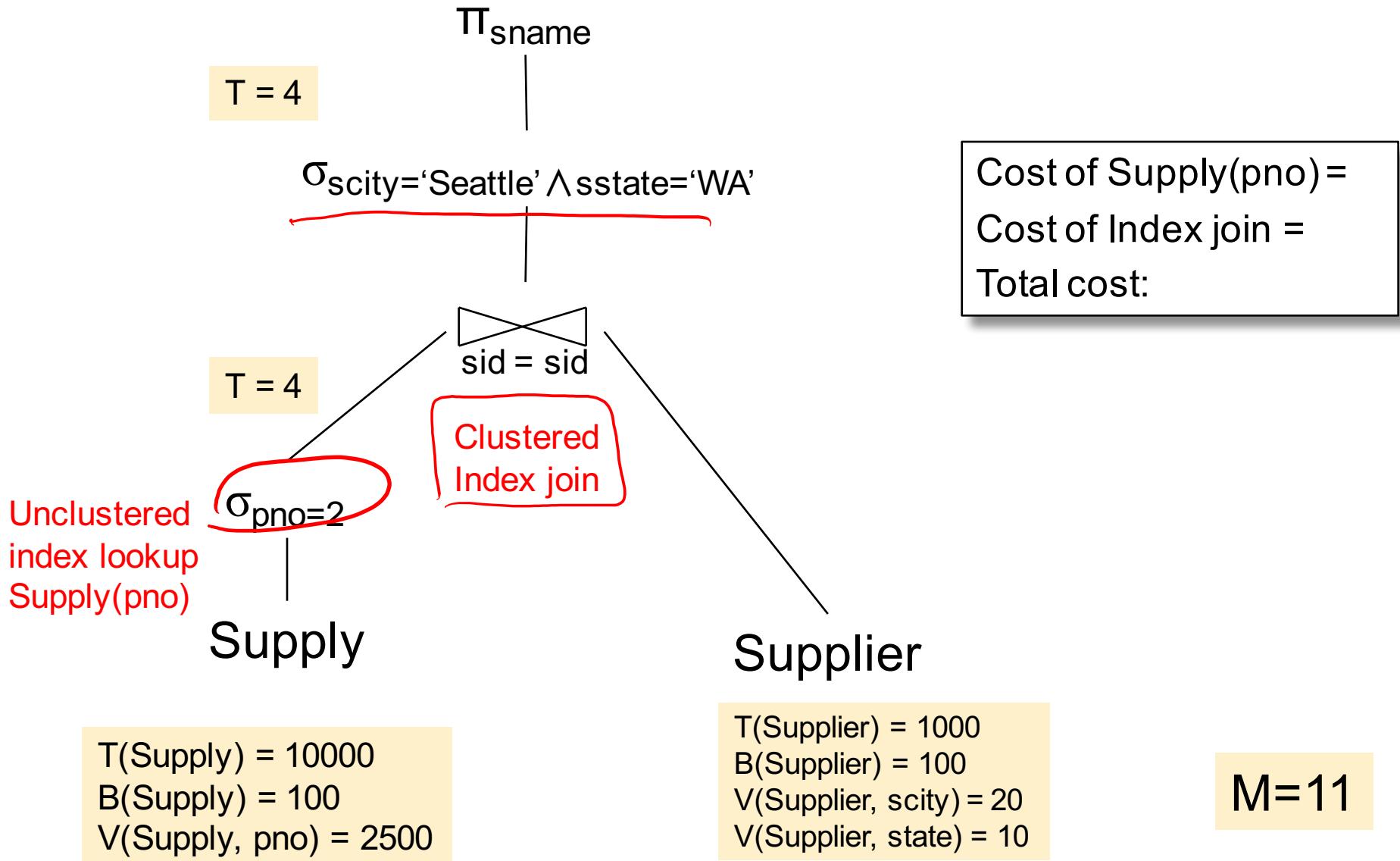
# Physical Plan 2



Supplier(sid, sname, scity, sstate)

Supply(sid, pno, quantity)

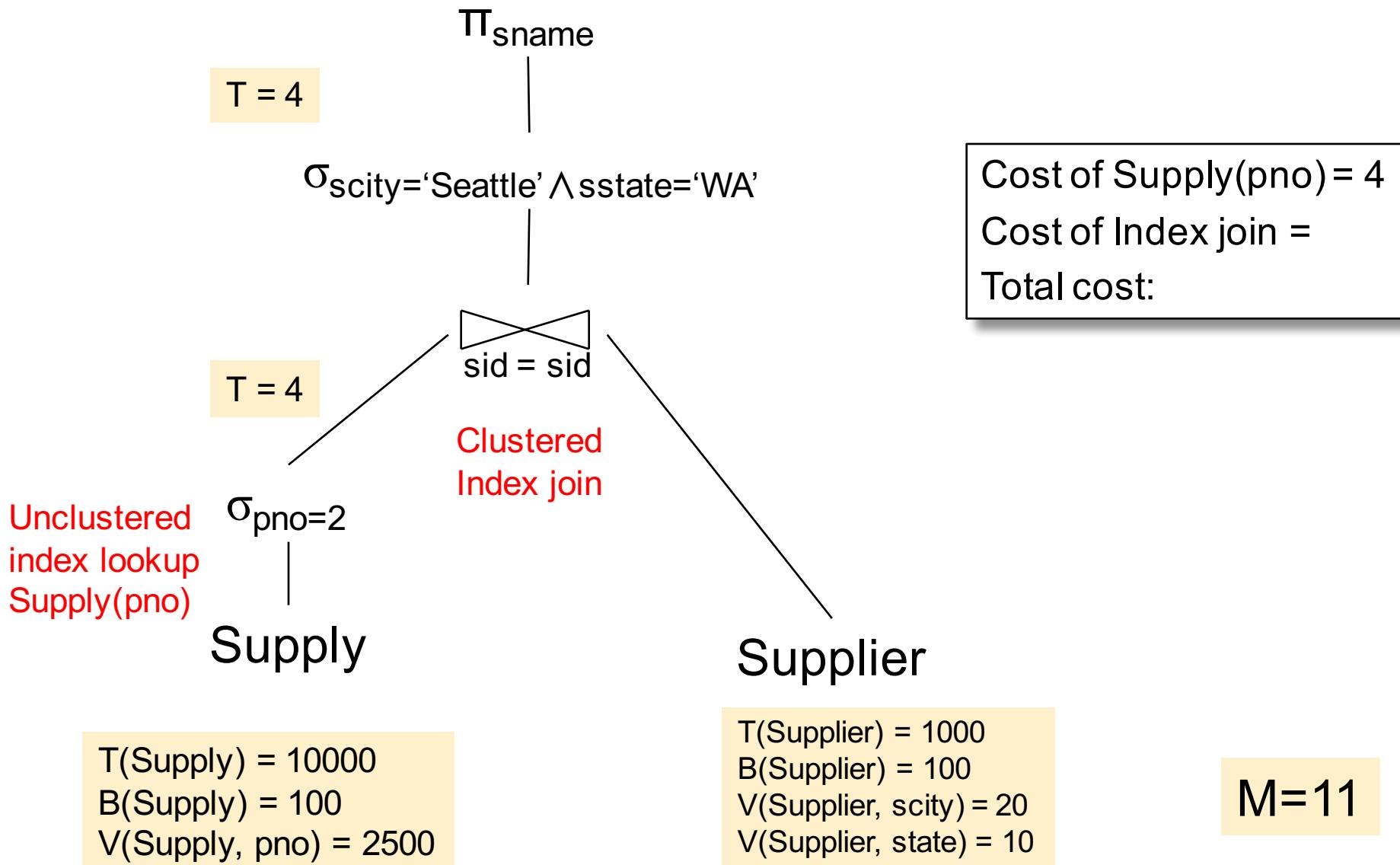
# Physical Plan 3



Supplier(sid, sname, scity, sstate)

Supply(sid, pno, quantity)

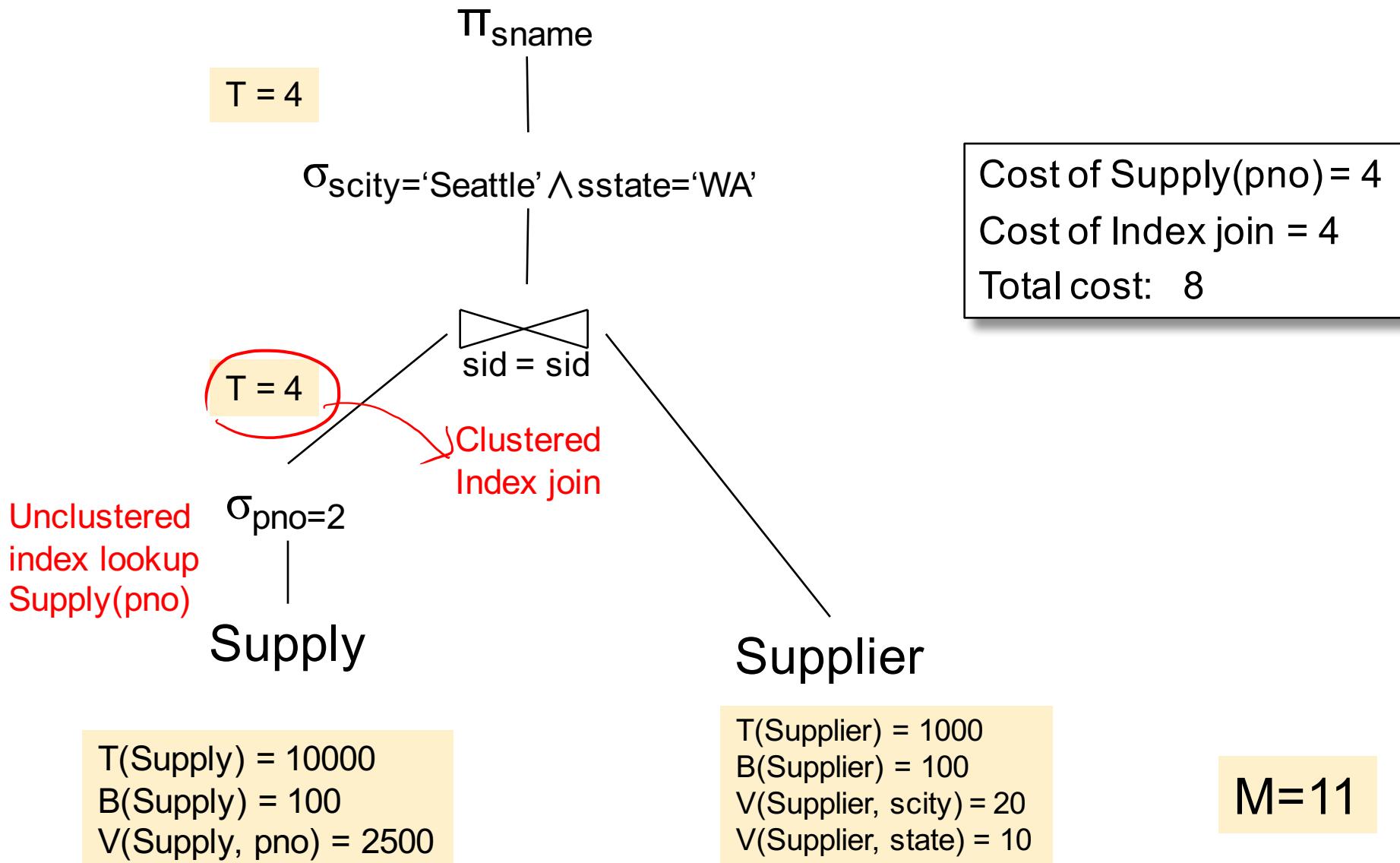
# Physical Plan 3



Supplier(sid, sname, scity, sstate)

Supply(sid, pno, quantity)

# Physical Plan 3



# Query Optimizer

```
lowestCost = ∞;  
bestPlan = null;  
for (p : physicalPlan(q)) {  
    if (cost(p) < lowestCost)  
        bestPlan = p;  
}  
return p;
```

- This never works
- Way too many plans to consider!

- Typical query optimizer:
    - Construct logical plan p
    - Apply heuristic rules to transform p (e.g., do selection as early as possible)
    - Go through each operator op in bottom up manner
    - Choose an implementation for op to construct the physical plan
- (why does this not always return the best plan?) <sup>41</sup>

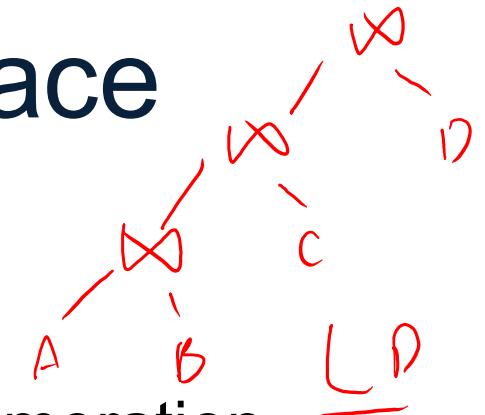
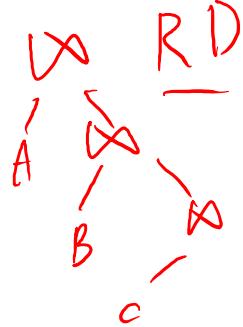
# The System R Optimizer

## A Case Study

# Two Types of Plan Enumeration Algorithms

- Dynamic programming
  - Based on System R (aka Selinger) style optimizer [1979]
  - Limited to joins: *join reordering algorithm*
  - Bottom-up
- Rule-based algorithm (will not discuss)
  - Database of rules (=algebraic laws)
  - Usually: dynamic programming
  - Usually: top-down

# System R Search Space



- Only left-deep plans
  - Enable dynamic programming for enumeration
  - Facilitate tuple pipelining from outer relation
- Consider plans with all “interesting orders”
- Perform cross-products after all other joins (heuristic)
- Only consider nested loop & sort-merge joins
- Consider both file scan and indexes
- Try to evaluate predicates early

# Plan Enumeration Algorithm

- Idea: use dynamic programming
- For each subset of  $\{R_1, \dots, R_n\}$ , compute the best plan for that subset
- In increasing order of set cardinality:
  - Step 1: for  $\{R_1\}, \{R_2\}, \dots, \{R_n\}$
  - Step 2: for  $\{R_1, R_2\}, \{R_1, R_3\}, \dots, \{R_{n-1}, R_n\}$
  - ...
  - Step n: for  $\{R_1, \dots, R_n\}$
- It is a bottom-up strategy
- A subset of  $\{R_1, \dots, R_n\}$  is also called a *subquery*

# Dynamic Programming Algo.

- For each subquery  $Q \subseteq \{R_1, \dots, R_n\}$  compute the following:
  - $\text{Size}(Q)$
  - A best plan for  $Q$ :  $\text{Plan}(Q)$
  - The cost of that plan:  $\text{Cost}(Q)$

# Dynamic Programming Algo.

- **Step 1:** Enumerate all single-relation plans
  - Consider selections on attributes of relation
  - Consider all possible access paths
  - Consider attributes that are not needed
  - Compute cost for each plan
  - Keep cheapest plan per “interesting” output order

# Dynamic Programming Algo.

- **Step 2:** Generate all two-relation plans
  - For each each single-relation plan from step 1
  - Consider that plan as outer relation
  - Consider every other relation as inner relation
  - Compute cost for each plan
  - Keep cheapest plan per “interesting” output order

# Dynamic Programming Algo.

- **Step 3:** Generate all three-relation plans
  - For each each two-relation plan from step 2
  - Consider that plan as outer relation
  - Consider every other relation as inner relation
  - Compute cost for each plan
  - Keep cheapest plan per “interesting” output order
- **Steps 4 through n:** repeat until plan contains all the relations in the query

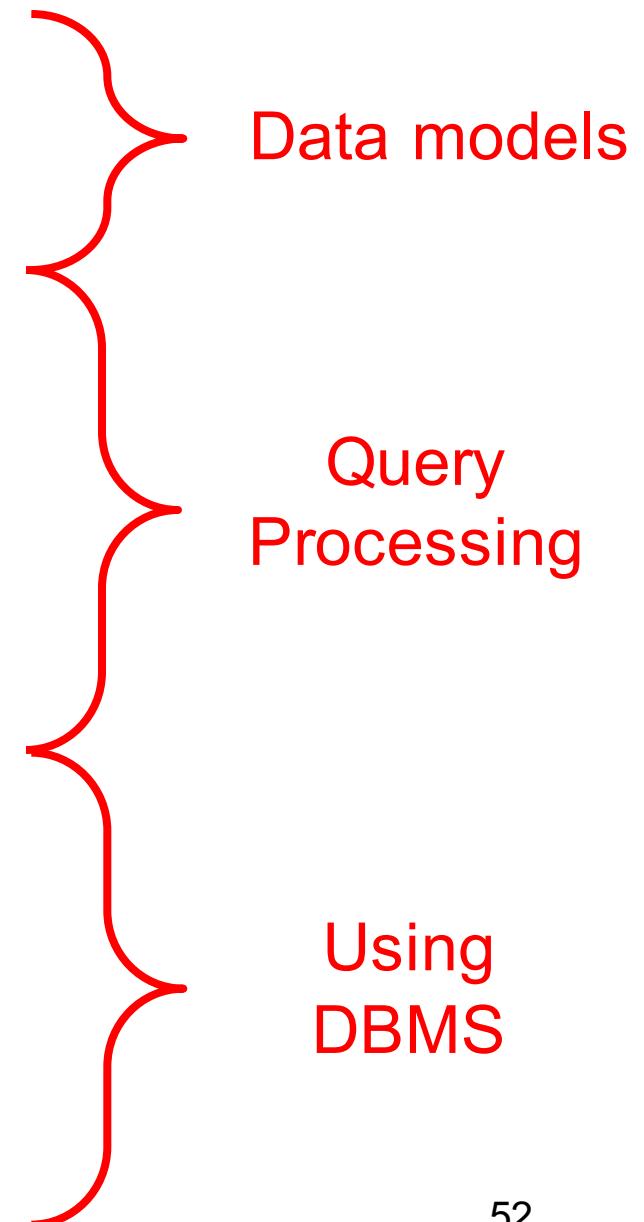
# Query Optimizer Summary

- Input: A logical query plan
- Output: A good physical query plan
- Basic query optimization algorithm
  - Enumerate alternative plans (logical and physical)
  - Compute estimated cost of each plan
  - Choose plan with lowest cost
- This is called cost-based optimization

# Parallel Data Processing

# Class overview

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  - NoSQL: SQL++
- RDMBS internals
  - Query processing and optimization
  - Physical design
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# Why compute in parallel?

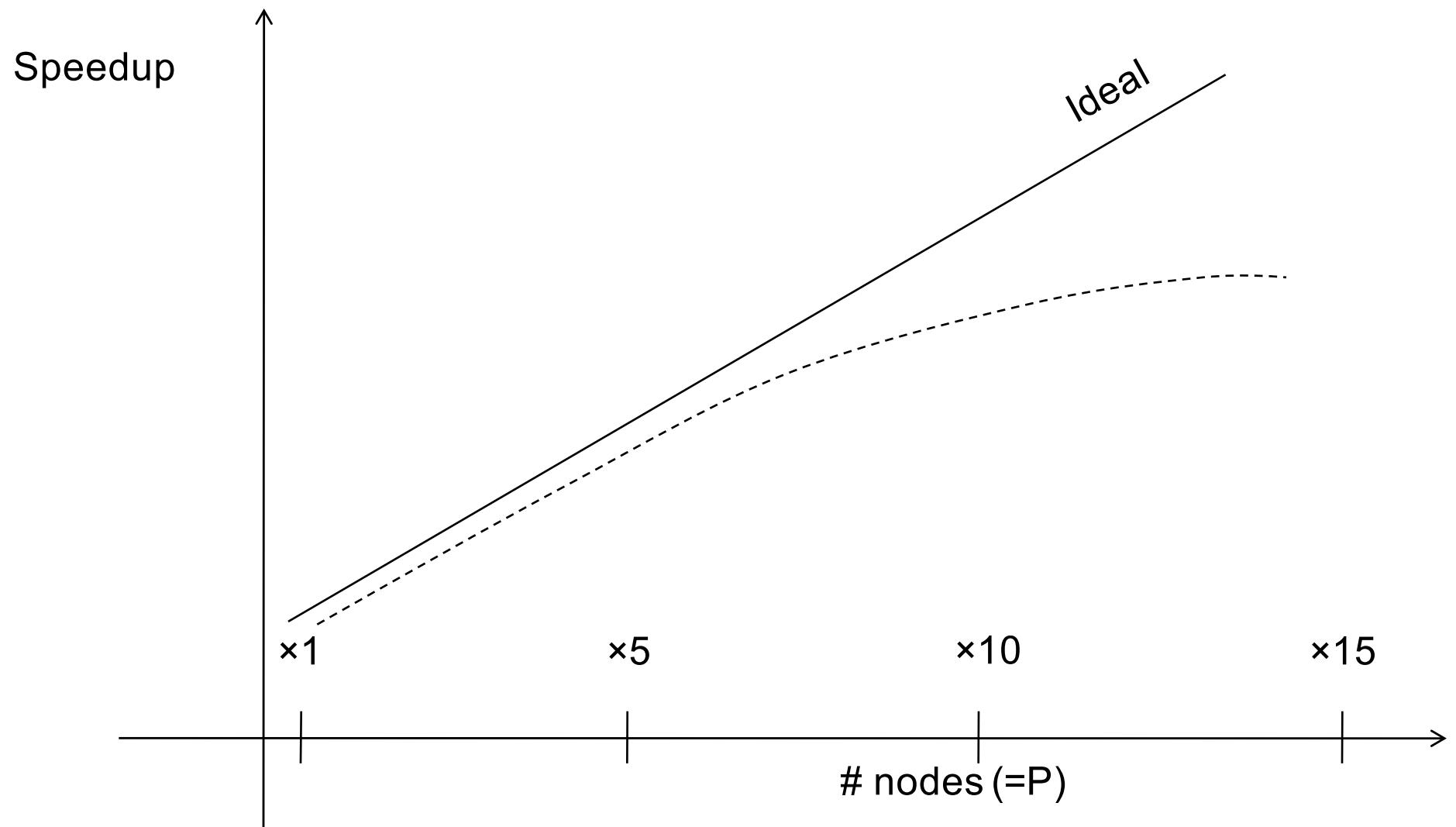
- Multi-cores:
  - Most processors have multiple cores
  - This trend will likely increase in the future
- Big data: too large to fit in main memory
  - Distributed query processing on 100x-1000x servers
  - Widely available now using cloud services
  - Recall HW3 and HW6

# Performance Metrics for Parallel DBMSs

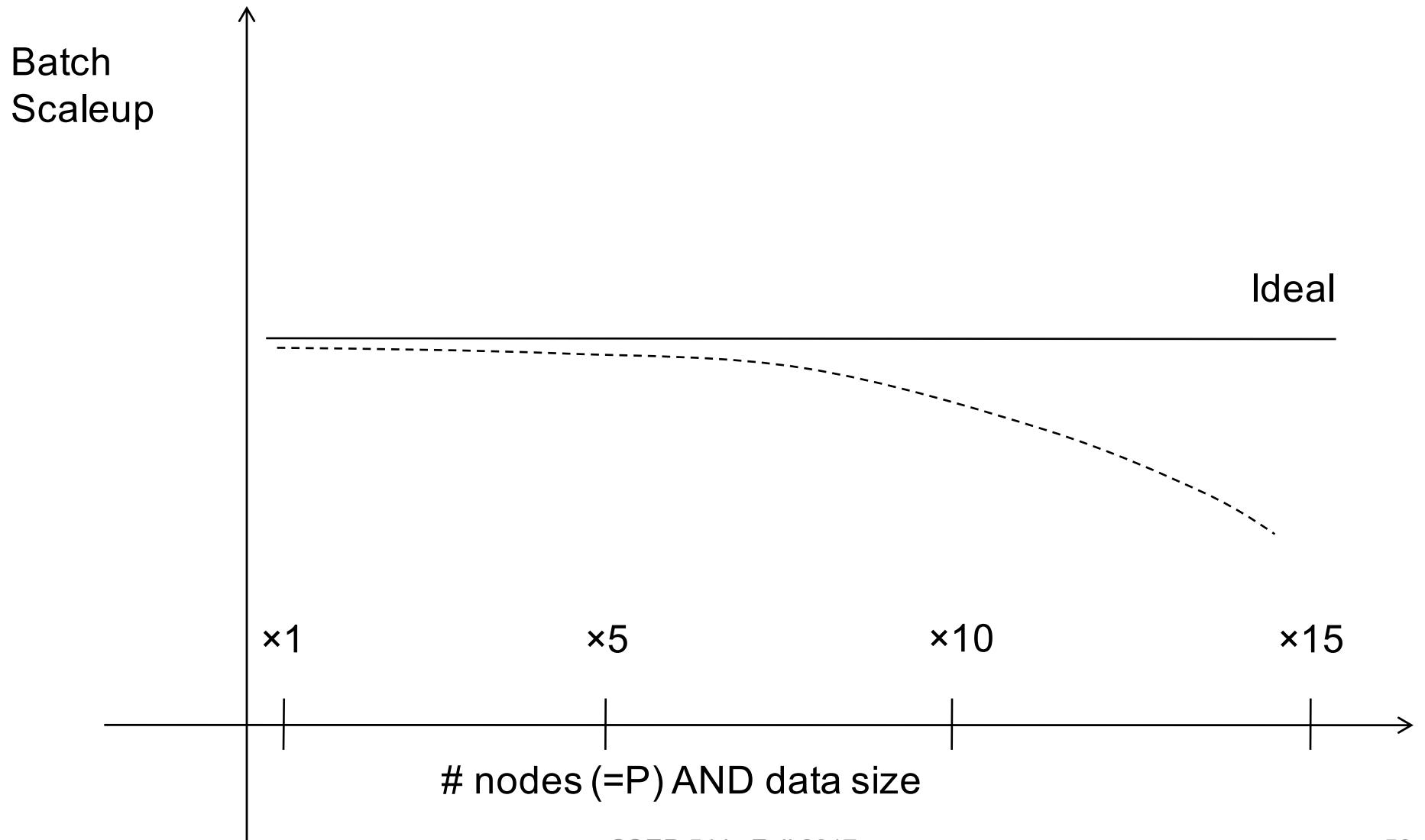
Nodes = processors, computers

- Speedup:
  - More nodes, same data → higher speed
- Scaleup:
  - More nodes, more data → same speed

# Linear v.s. Non-linear Speedup



# Linear v.s. Non-linear Scaleup



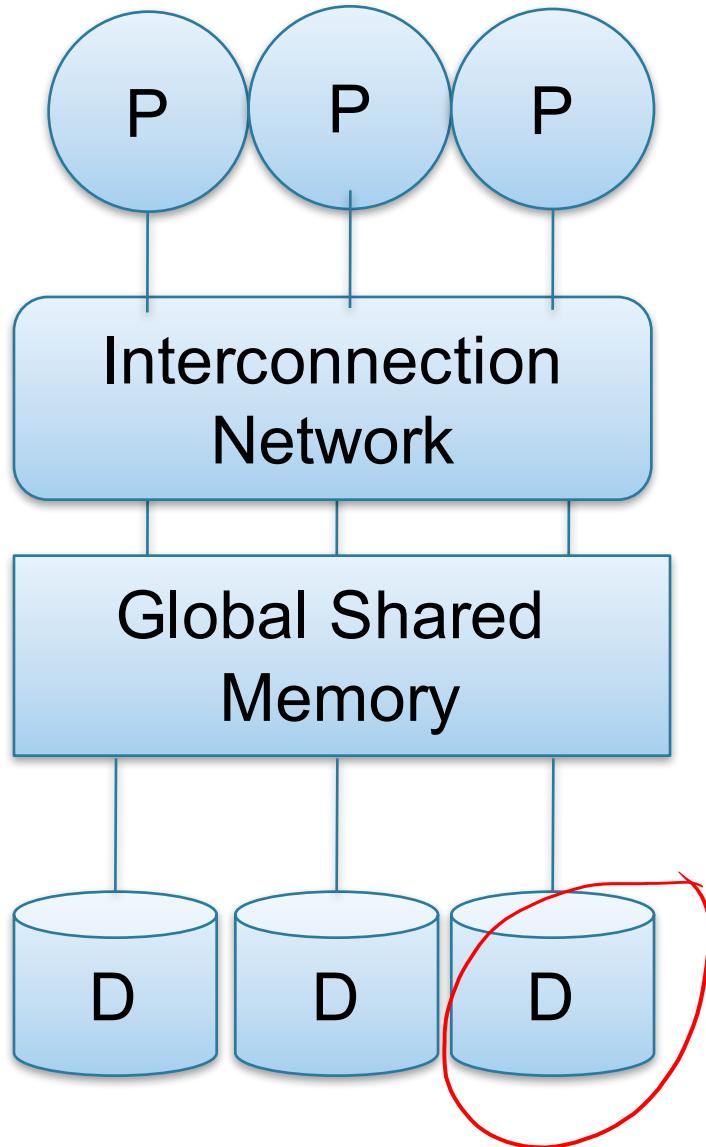
# Why Sub-linear Speedup and Scaleup?

- Startup cost
  - Cost of starting an operation on many nodes
- Interference
  - Contention for resources between nodes
- Skew
  - Slowest node becomes the bottleneck

# Architectures for Parallel Databases

- Shared memory
- Shared disk
- Shared nothing

# Shared Memory



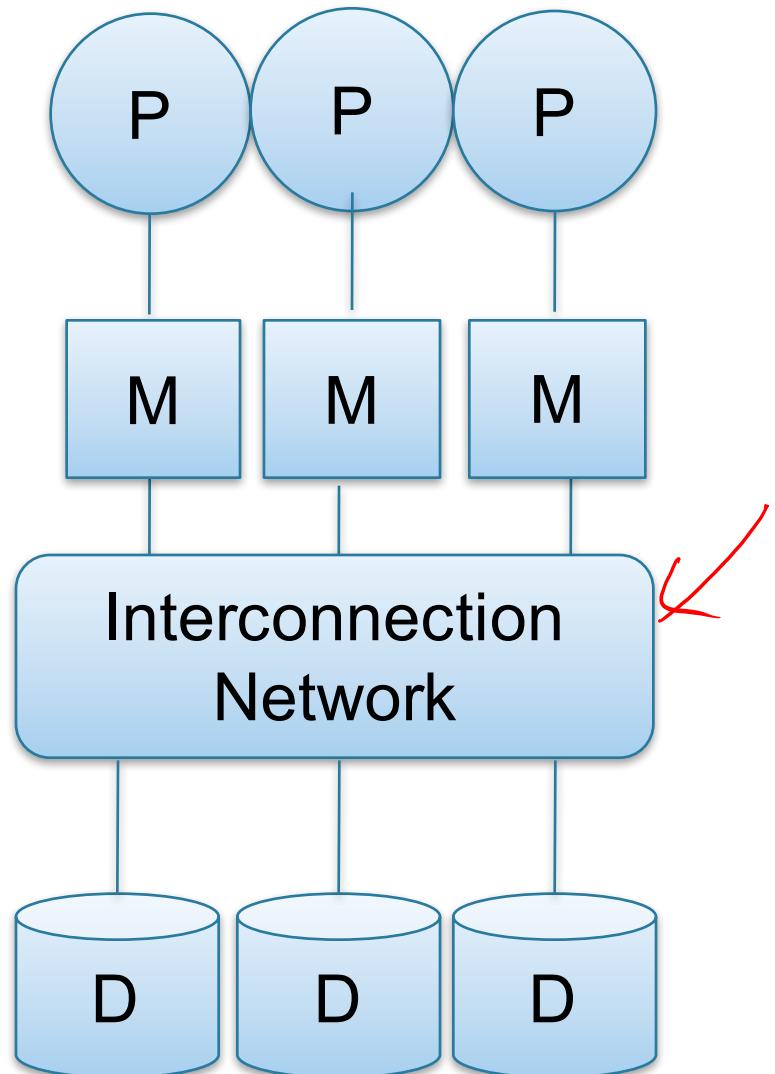
- Nodes share both RAM and disk
- Dozens to hundreds of processors

Example: SQL Server runs on a single machine and can leverage many threads to speed up a query

- check your HW3 query plans

- Easy to use and program
- Expensive to scale
  - last remaining cash cows in the hardware industry

# Shared Disk

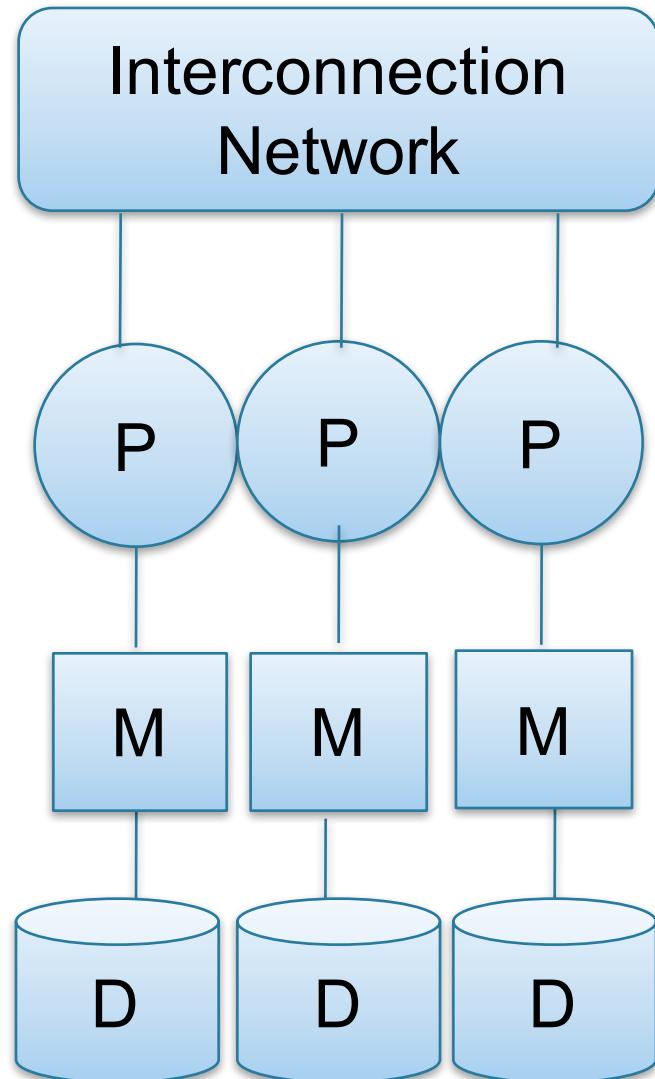


- All nodes access the same disks
- Found in the largest "single-box" (non-cluster) multiprocessors

Example: Oracle

- No need to worry about shared memory
- Hard to scale: existing deployments typically have fewer than 10 machines

# Shared Nothing



- Cluster of commodity machines on high-speed network
- Called "clusters" or "blade servers"
- Each machine has its own memory and disk: lowest contention.

Example: Google

Because all machines today have many cores and many disks, shared-nothing systems typically run many "nodes" on a single physical machine.

- Easy to maintain and scale
- Most difficult to administer and tune.

We discuss only Shared Nothing in class

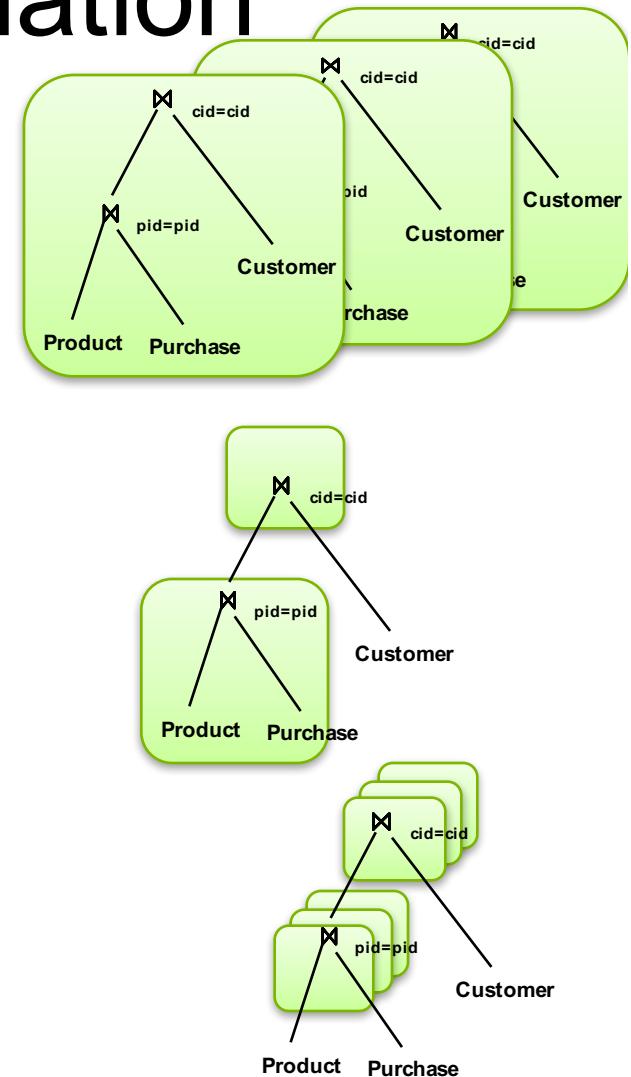


# Parallel Data Processing @ 1990



# Approaches to Parallel Query Evaluation

- **Inter-query parallelism**
  - Transaction per node
  - Good for transactional workloads
- **Inter-operator parallelism**
  - Operator per node
  - Good for analytical workloads
- **Intra-operator parallelism**
  - Operator on multiple nodes
  - Good for both?



We study only intra-operator parallelism: most scalable

# Single Node Query Processing (Review)

Given relations  $R(A,B)$  and  $S(B, C)$ , no indexes:

- Selection:  $\sigma_{A=123}(R)$ 
  - Scan file R, select records with  $A=123$
- Group-by:  $\gamma_{A,\text{sum}(B)}(R)$ 
  - Scan file R, insert into a hash table using A as key
  - When a new key is equal to an existing one, add B to the value
- Join:  $R \bowtie S$ 
  - Scan file S, insert into a hash table using B as key
  - Scan file R, probe the hash table using B

# Distributed Query Processing

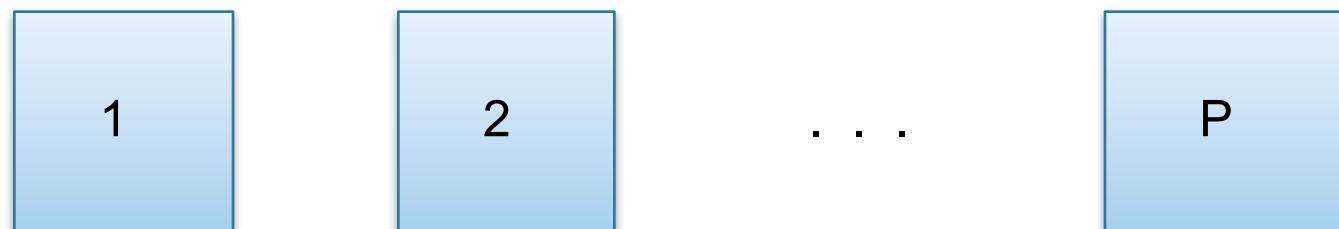
- Data is horizontally partitioned on many servers
- Operators may require data reshuffling
- First let's discuss how to distribute data across multiple nodes / servers

# Horizontal Data Partitioning

Data:

K	A	B
...	....	

Servers:

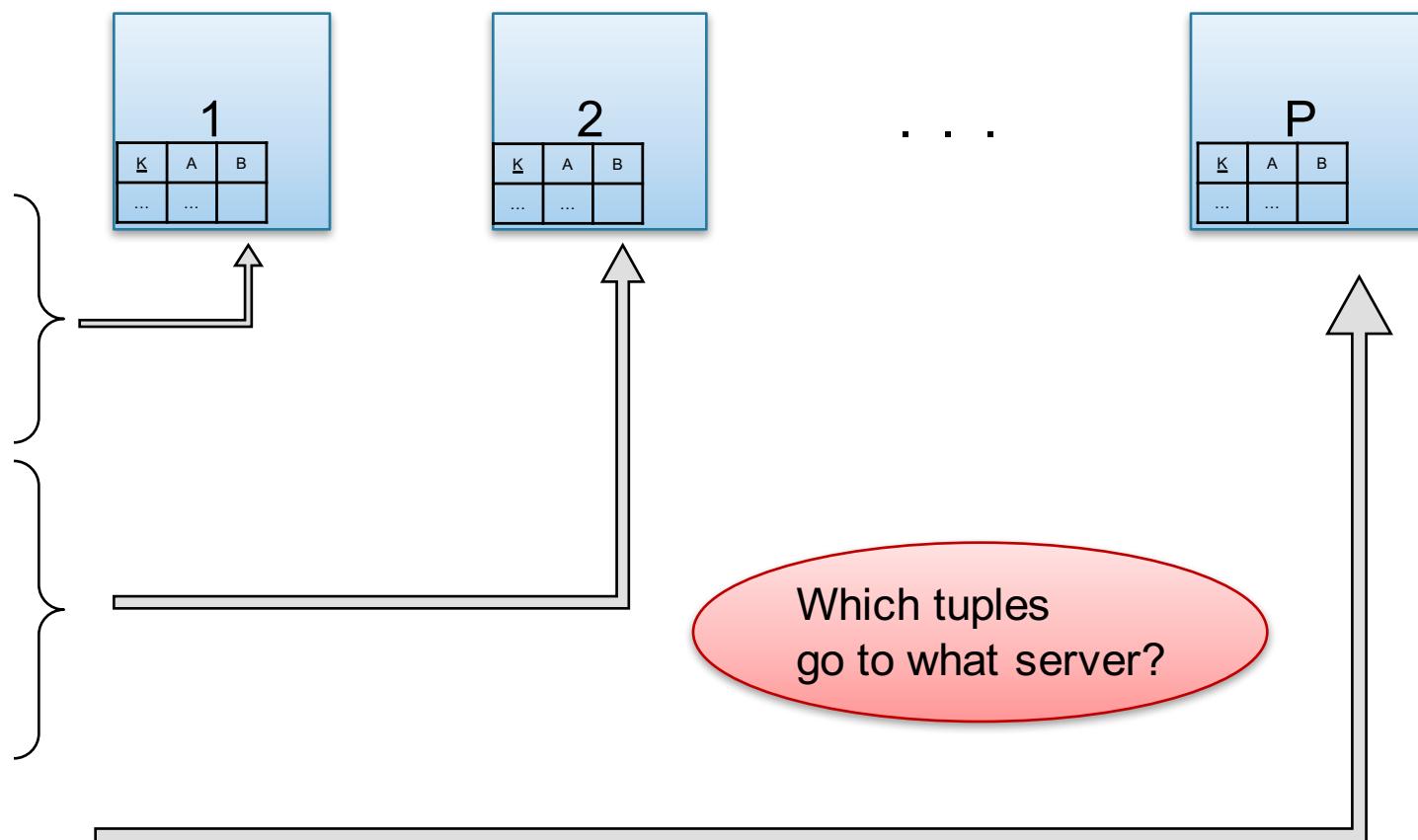


# Horizontal Data Partitioning

Data:

K	A	B
...	...	

Servers:



# Horizontal Data Partitioning

- **Block Partition:**
  - Partition tuples arbitrarily s.t.  $\text{size}(R_1) \approx \dots \approx \text{size}(R_P)$
- **Hash partitioned on attribute A:**
  - Tuple  $t$  goes to chunk  $i$ , where  $i = h(t.A) \bmod P + 1$
  - Recall: calling hash fn's is free in this class
- **Range partitioned on attribute A:**
  - Partition the range of  $A$  into  $-\infty = v_0 < v_1 < \dots < v_P = \infty$
  - Tuple  $t$  goes to chunk  $i$ , if  $v_{i-1} < t.A < v_i$

# Uniform Data v.s. Skewed Data

- Let  $R(K, A, B, C)$ ; which of the following partition methods may result in **skewed** partitions?

- Block partition**



- Hash-partition**

- On the key K



Assuming good hash function

- On the attribute A



E.g. when all records have the same value of the attribute A, then all records end up in the same partition

Keep this in mind in the next few slides

# Parallel Execution of RA Operators: Grouping

Data:  $R(K, A, B, C)$

Query:  $\gamma_{A, \text{sum}(C)}(R)$

How to compute group by if:

- $R$  is hash-partitioned on  $A$  ?

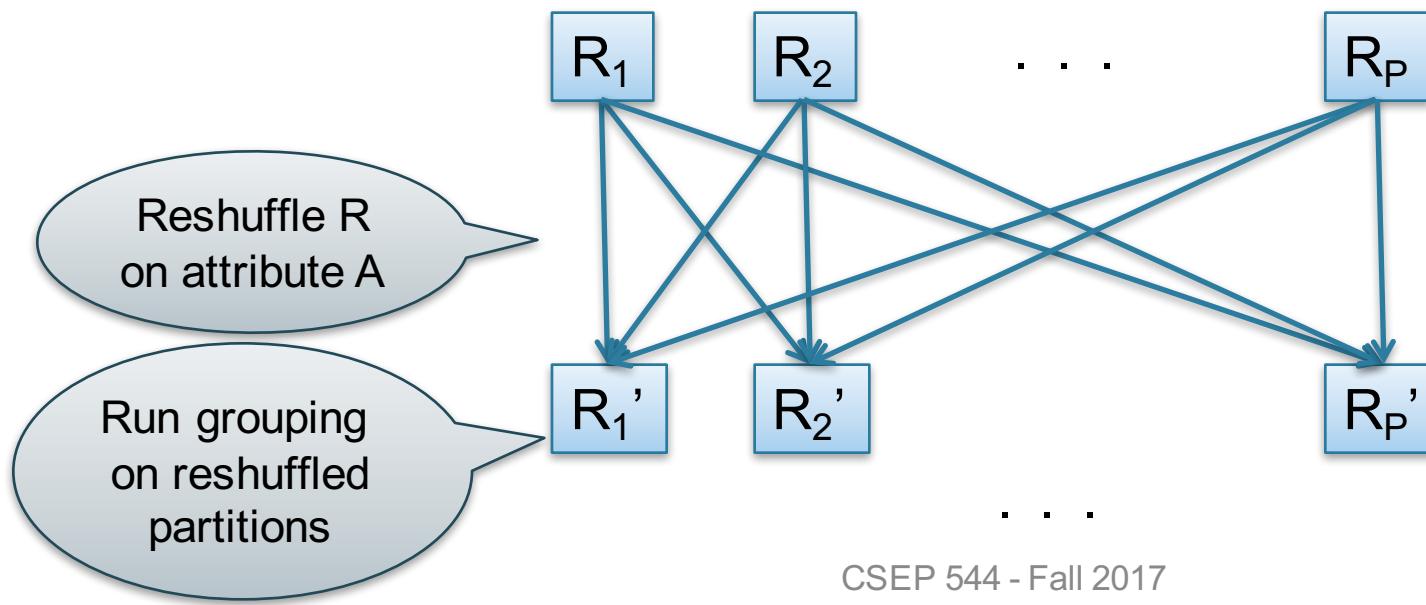
- $R$  is block-partitioned ?
- $R$  is hash-partitioned on  $K$  ?

# Parallel Execution of RA Operators: Grouping

**Data:**  $R(K, A, B, C)$

**Query:**  $\gamma_{A, \text{sum}(C)}(R)$

- $R$  is block-partitioned or hash-partitioned on  $K$

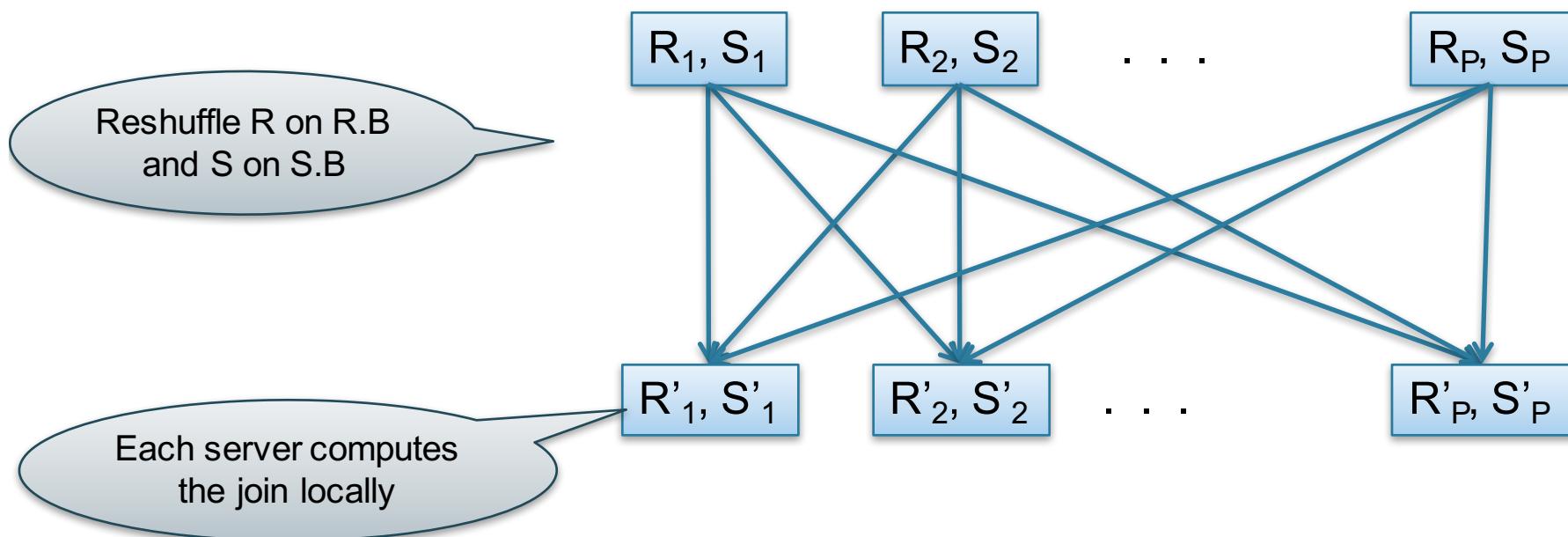


# Speedup and Scaleup

- Consider:
  - Query:  $\gamma_{A,\text{sum}(C)}(R)$
  - Runtime: only consider I/O costs
- If we double the number of nodes  $P$ , what is the new running time?
  - Half (each server holds  $\frac{1}{2}$  as many chunks)
- If we double both  $P$  and the size of  $R$ , what is the new running time?
  - Same (each server holds the same # of chunks)

# Parallel Execution of RA Operators: Partitioned Hash-Join

- **Data:**  $R(\underline{K1}, A, B)$ ,  $S(\underline{K2}, B, C)$
- **Query:**  $R(\underline{K1}, A, \textcolor{red}{B}) \bowtie S(\underline{K2}, \textcolor{red}{B}, C)$ 
  - Initially, both R and S are partitioned on K1 and K2



Data: R(K1, A, B), S(K2, B, C)

Query: R(K1, A, B)  $\bowtie$  S(K2, B, C)

# Parallel Join Illustration

Partition

R1	S1	R2	S2
<u>K1</u>	K2	<u>R2</u>	K2
1	101	3	201
2	102	4	202

M1                                    M2

Shuffle on B

Local  
Join

R1'	S1'	R2'	S2'
<u>K1</u>	K2	<u>R2</u>	K2
1      20	201      20	2      50	101      50

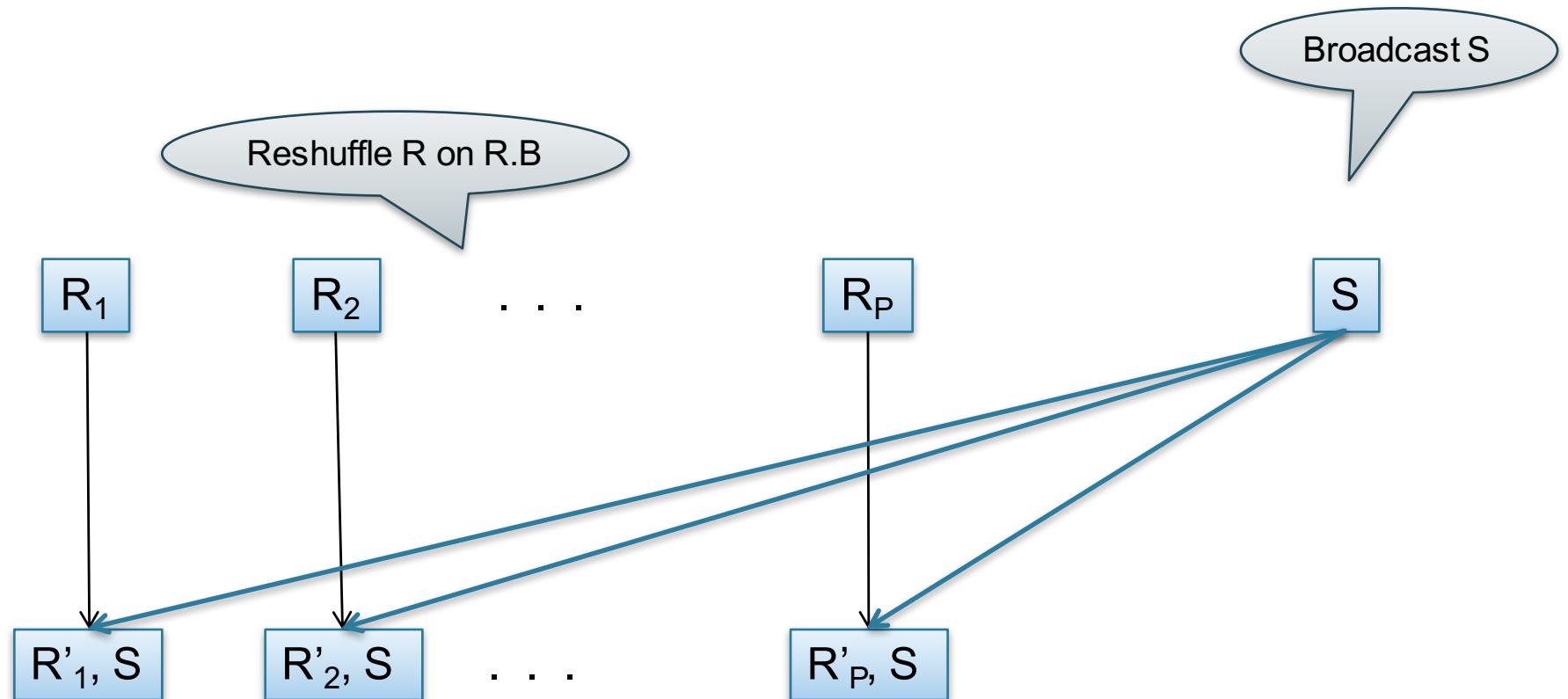
$\bowtie$                                      $\bowtie$

M1                                    M2

Data:  $R(A, B)$ ,  $S(C, D)$

Query:  $R(A,B) \bowtie_{B=C} S(C,D)$

# Broadcast Join



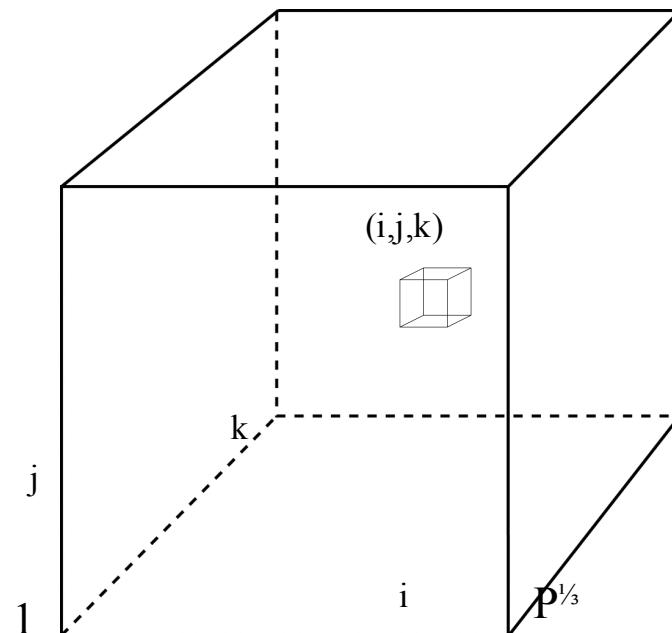
Why would you want to do this?

# A Challenge

- Have P number of servers (say P=27 or P=1000)
- How do we compute this Datalog query in one step?
- $Q(\textcolor{blue}{x}, \textcolor{red}{y}, \textcolor{red}{z}) :- R(\textcolor{blue}{x}, \textcolor{red}{y}), S(\textcolor{black}{y}, \textcolor{red}{z}), T(\textcolor{red}{z}, \textcolor{blue}{x})$

# A Challenge

- Have  $P$  number of servers (say  $P=27$  or  $P=1000$ )
- How do we compute this Datalog query **in one step?**  
$$Q(x,y,z) = R(x,y), S(y,z), T(z,x)$$
- Organize the  $P$  servers into a cube with side  $P^{1/3}$ 
  - Thus, each server is uniquely identified by  $(i,j,k)$ ,  $i,j,k \leq P^{1/3}$



# HyperCube Join

- Have P number of servers (say P=27 or P=1000)
- How do we compute this Datalog query **in one step?**

$$Q(x,y,z) = R(x,y), S(y,z), T(z,x)$$

- Organize the P servers into a cube with side  $P^{1/3}$

– Thus, each server is uniquely identified by  $(i,j,k)$ ,  $i,j,k \leq P^{1/3}$

- **Step 1:**

$1, 2$

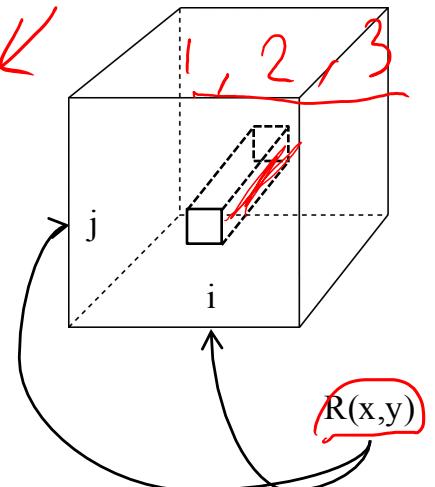
$1, 2,$

– Each server sends  $R(x,y)$  to all servers  $(h(x), h(y), *)$

– Each server sends  $S(y,z)$  to all servers  $(*, h(y), h(z))$

– Each server sends  $T(x,z)$  to all servers  $(h(x), *, h(z))$

$R(1, 2)$   
 $S(2, 3)$   
 $T(3, 1)$



# HyperCube Join

- Have  $P$  number of servers (say  $P=27$  or  $P=1000$ )
- How do we compute this Datalog query **in one step?**

$$Q(x,y,z) = R(x,y), S(y,z), T(z,x)$$

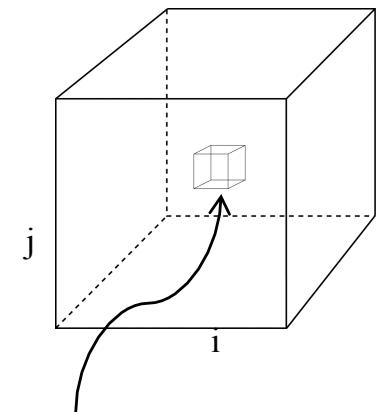
- Organize the  $P$  servers into a cube with side  $P^{1/3}$ 
  - Thus, each server is uniquely identified by  $(i,j,k)$ ,  $i,j,k \leq P^{1/3}$

- **Step 1:**

- Each server sends  $R(x,y)$  to all servers  $(h(x), h(y), *)$
  - Each server sends  $S(y,z)$  to all servers  $(*, h(y), h(z))$
  - Each server sends  $T(x,z)$  to all servers  $(h(x), *, h(z))$

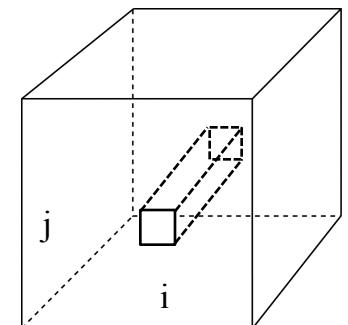
- **Final output:**

- Each server  $(i,j,k)$  computes the query  $R(x,y), S(y,z), T(z,x)$  locally



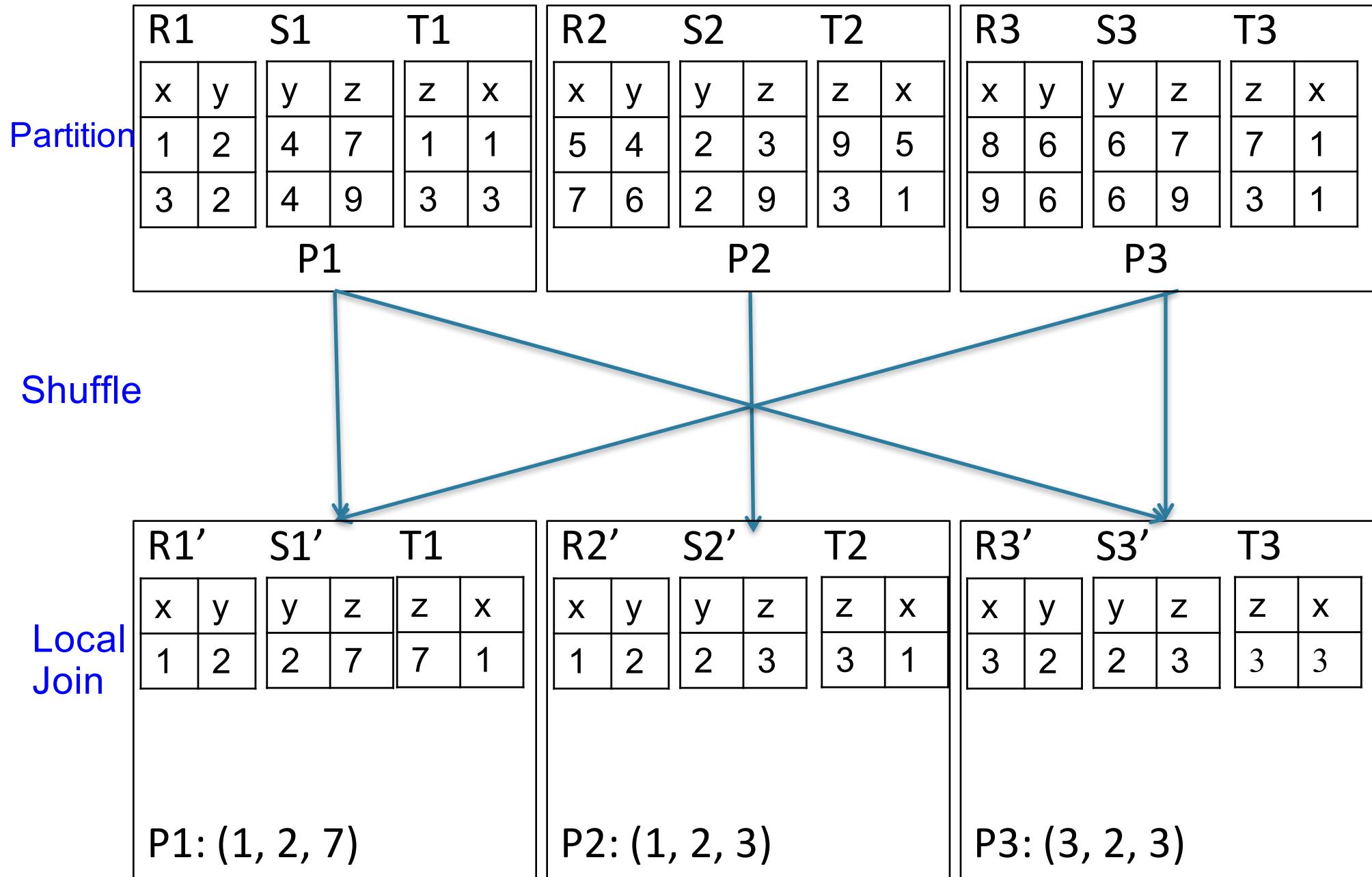
# HyperCube Join

- Have  $P$  number of servers (say  $P=27$  or  $P=1000$ )
- How do we compute this Datalog query **in one step?**  
$$Q(x,y,z) = R(x,y), S(y,z), T(z,x)$$
- Organize the  $P$  servers into a cube with side  $P^{1/3}$ 
  - Thus, each server is uniquely identified by  $(i,j,k)$ ,  $i,j,k \leq P^{1/3}$
- **Step 1:**
  - Each server sends  $R(x,y)$  to all servers  $(h(x), h(y), *)$
  - Each server sends  $S(y,z)$  to all servers  $(*, h(y), h(z))$
  - Each server sends  $T(x,z)$  to all servers  $(h(x), *, h(z))$
- **Final output:**
  - Each server  $(i,j,k)$  computes the query  $R(x,y), S(y,z), T(z,x)$  locally
- **Analysis:** each tuple  $R(x,y)$  is replicated at most  $P^{1/3}$  times



$$Q(x,y,z) = R(x,y), S(y,z), T(z,x)$$

Hypercube join



$$Q(x,y,z) = R(x,y), S(y,z), T(z,x)$$

Hypercube join

Partition	R1	S1	T1	R2	S2	T2	R3	S3	T3
	x   y	y   z	z   x	x   y	y   z	z   x	x   y	y   z	z   x
P1	1   2	4   7	1   1	5   4	2   3	9   5	8   6	6   7	7   1
	3   2	4   9	3   3	7   6	2   9	3   1	9   6	6   9	3   1

Shuffle

What if

$h(x): h(1) = h(3)$ ?

$$Q(x,y,z) = R(x,y), S(y,z), T(z,x)$$

Hypercube join

**Partition**

R1	S1	T1	R2	S2	T2	R3	S3	T3
x y	y z	z x	x y	y z	z x	x y	y z	z x
1 2	4 7	1 1	5 4	2 3	9 5	8 6	6 7	7 1
3 2	4 9	3 3	7 6	2 9	3 1	9 6	6 9	3 1

P1                    P2                    P3

**Shuffle**

What if

$h(x): h(1) = h(3)$ ?

**Local Join**

R1'	S1'	T1	R2'	S2'	T2	R3'	S3'	T3
x y	y z	z x	x y	y z	z x	x y	y z	z x
1 2	2 7	7 1	1 2	2 3	3 1	1 2	2 3	3 3

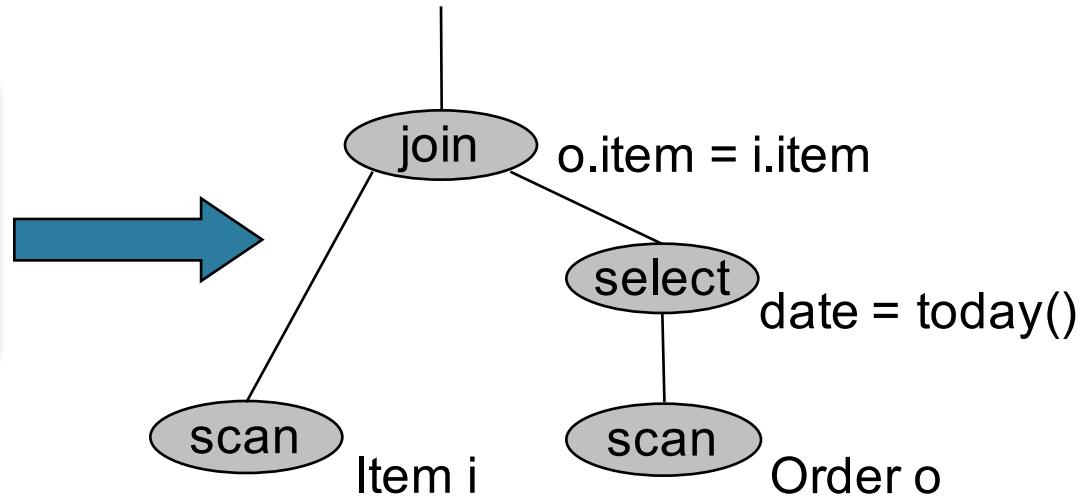
P1: (1, 2, 7)  
P2: (1, 2, 3)  
P3: (3, 2, 3)

`Order(oid, item, date), Line(item, ...)`

# Putting it Together: Example Parallel Query Plan

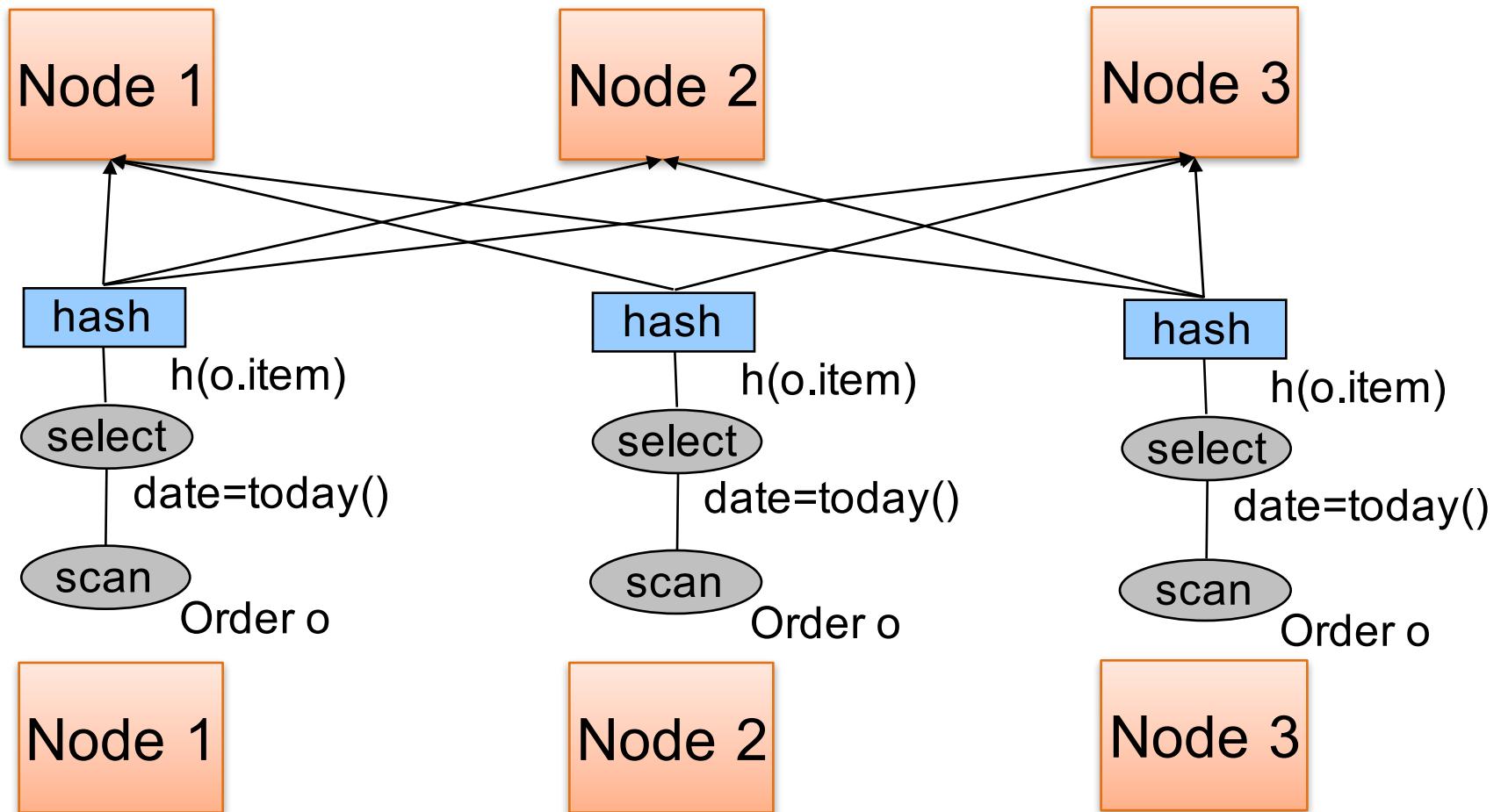
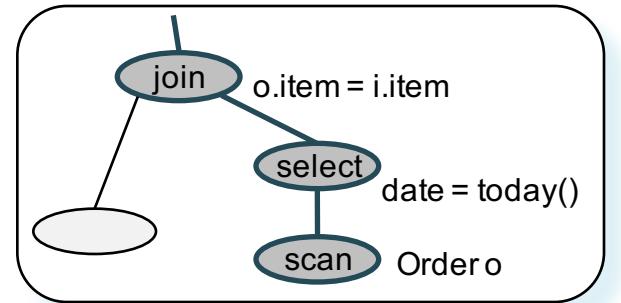
*Find all orders from today, along with the items ordered*

```
SELECT *
  FROM Order o, Line i
 WHERE o.item = i.item
   AND o.date = today()
```



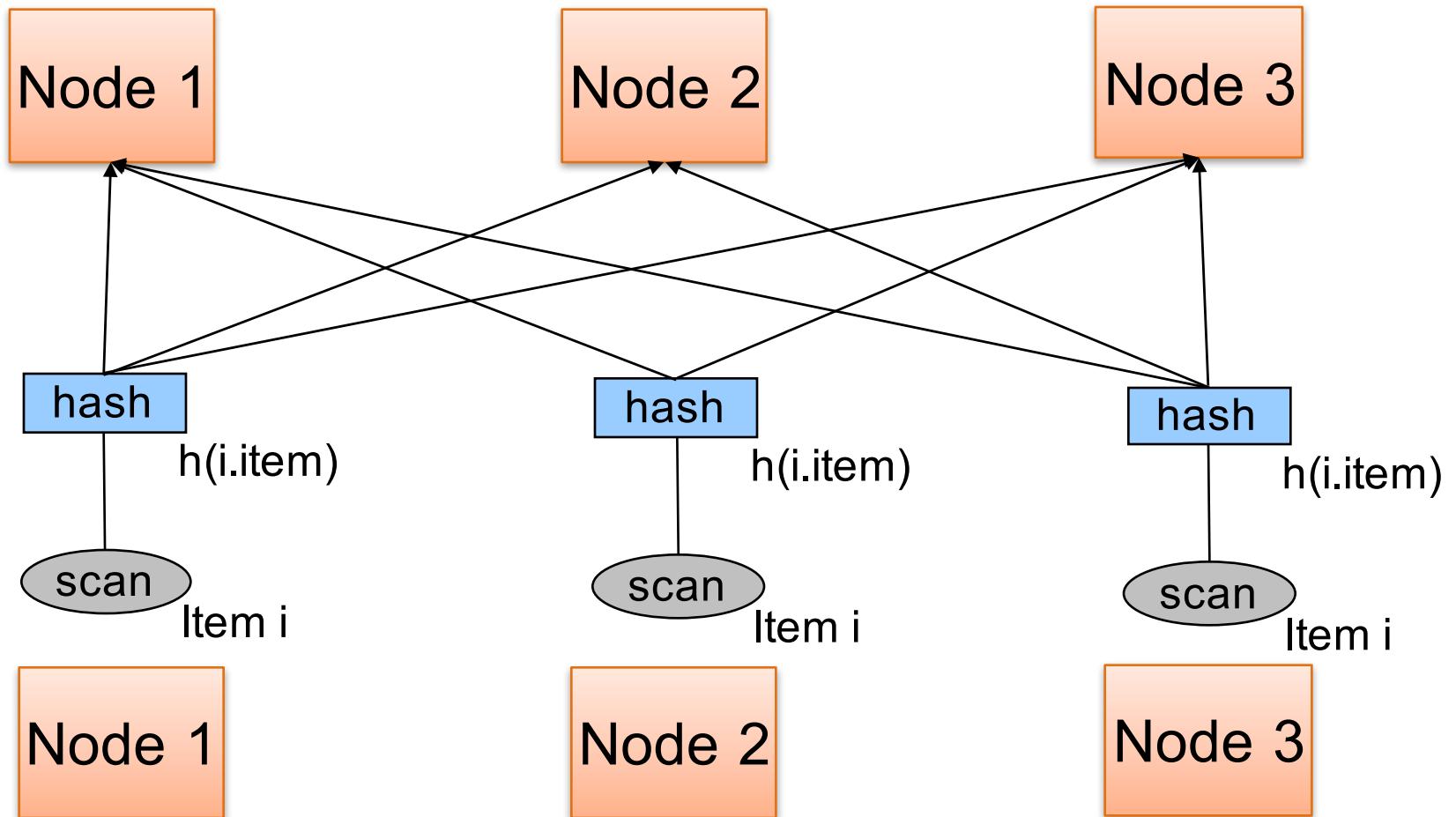
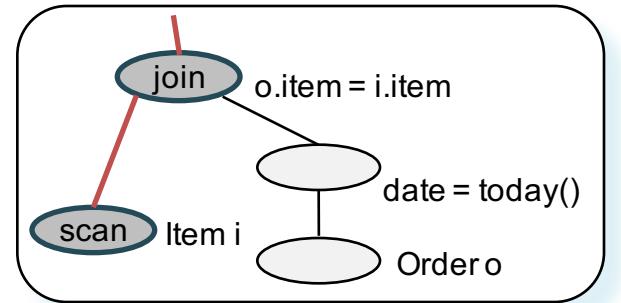
Order(oid, item, date), Line(item, ...)

# Example Parallel Query Plan



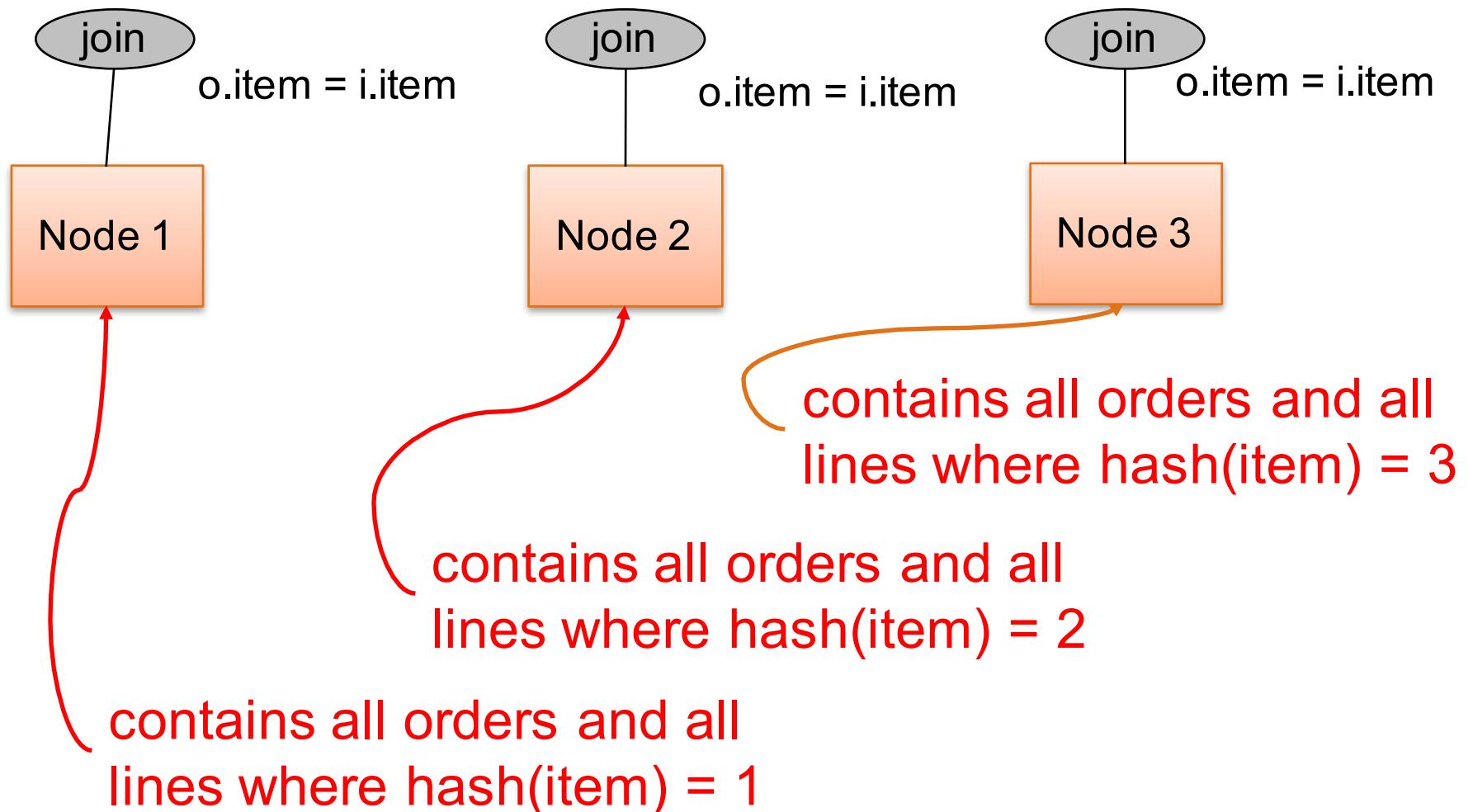
Order(oid, item, date), Line(item, ...)

# Example Parallel Query Plan



Order(oid, item, date), Line(item, ...)

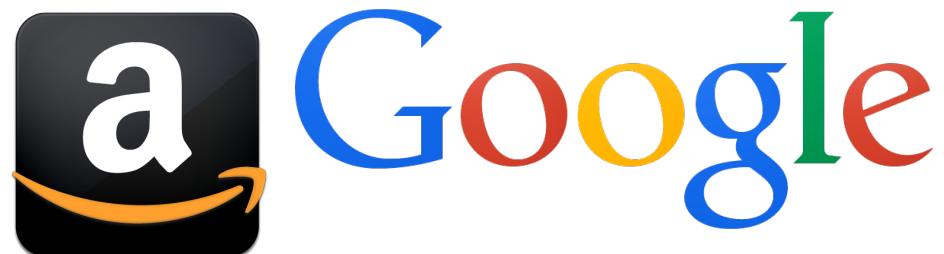
# Example Parallel Query Plan



# The MapReduce Programming Paradigm



# Parallel Data Processing @ 2000



# Optional Reading

- Original paper:  
<https://www.usenix.org/legacy/events/osdi04/tech/dean.html>
- Rebuttal to a comparison with parallel DBs:  
<http://dl.acm.org/citation.cfm?doid=1629175.1629198>
- Chapter 2 (Sections 1,2,3 only) of Mining of Massive Datasets, by Rajaraman and Ullman  
<http://i.stanford.edu/~ullman/mmds.html>

# Motivation

- We learned how to parallelize relational database systems
- While useful, it might incur too much overhead if our query plans consist of simple operations
- MapReduce is a programming model for such computation
- First, let's study how data is stored in such systems

# Distributed File System (DFS)

- For very large files: TBs, PBs
- Each file is partitioned into *chunks*, typically 64MB
- Each chunk is replicated several times ( $\geq 3$ ), on different racks, for fault tolerance
- Implementations:
  - Google's DFS: **GFS**, proprietary
  - Hadoop's DFS: **HDFS**, open source

# MapReduce

- Google: paper published 2004
- Free variant: Hadoop
- MapReduce = high-level programming model and implementation for large-scale parallel data processing

# Typical Problems Solved by MR

- Read a lot of data
- **Map**: extract something you care about from each record
- Shuffle and Sort
- **Reduce**: aggregate, summarize, filter, transform
- Write the results

Paradigm stays the same,  
change map and reduce  
functions for different problems

# Data Model

Files!

A file = a bag of (key, value) pairs

A MapReduce program:

- Input: a bag of (inputkey, value) pairs
- Output: a bag of (outputkey, value) pairs

# Step 1: the **MAP** Phase

User provides the **MAP**-function:

- Input: (**input key, value**)
- Output: bag of (**intermediate key, value**)

System applies the map function in parallel to all  
(**input key, value**) pairs in the input file

# Step 2: the **REDUCE** Phase

User provides the **REDUCE** function:

- Input: (intermediate key, bag of values)
- Output: bag of output (values)

System groups all pairs with the same intermediate key, and passes the bag of values to the REDUCE function

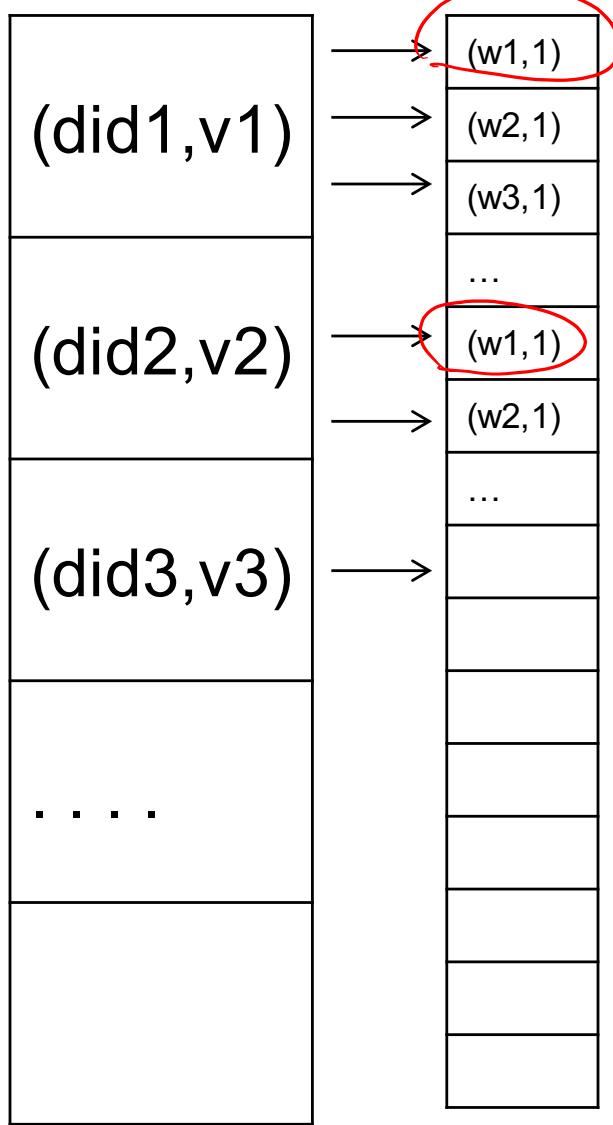
# Example

- Counting the number of occurrences of each word in a large collection of documents
- Each Document
  - The **key** = document id (**did**)
  - The **value** = set of words (**word**)

```
map(String key, String value):  
    // key: document name  
    // value: document contents  
    for each word w in value:  
        EmitIntermediate(w, "1");
```

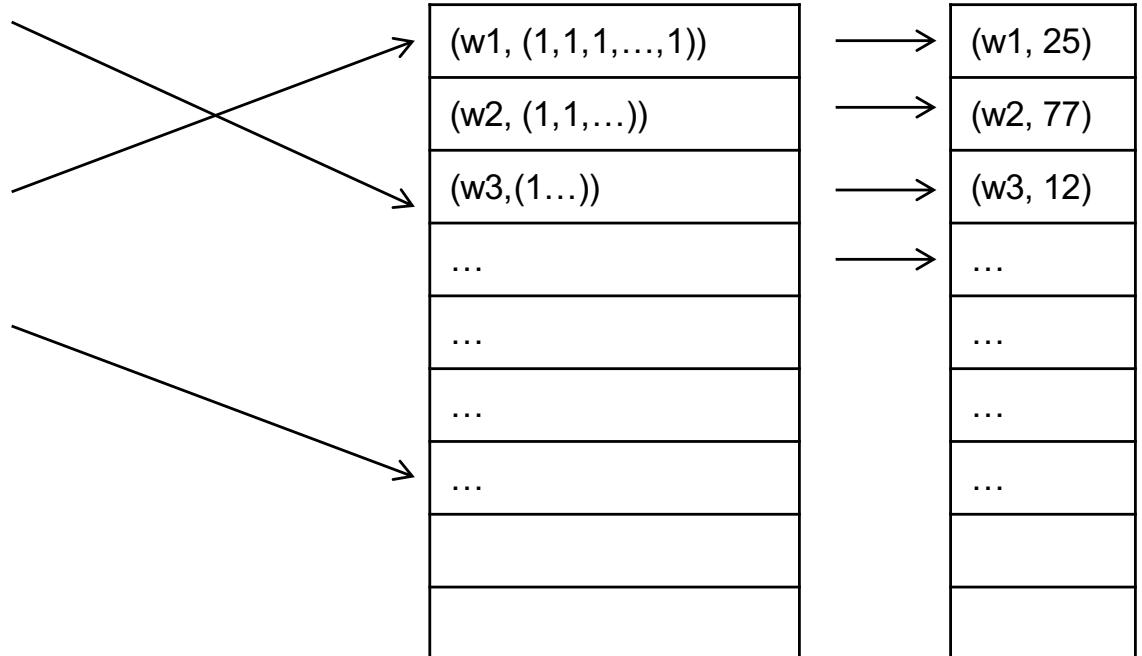
```
reduce(String key, Iterator values):  
    // key: a word  
    // values: a list of counts  
    int result = 0;  
    for each v in values:  
        result += ParseInt(v);  
    Emit(AsString(result));
```

# MAP



# REDUCE

Shuffle



# Jobs v.s. Tasks

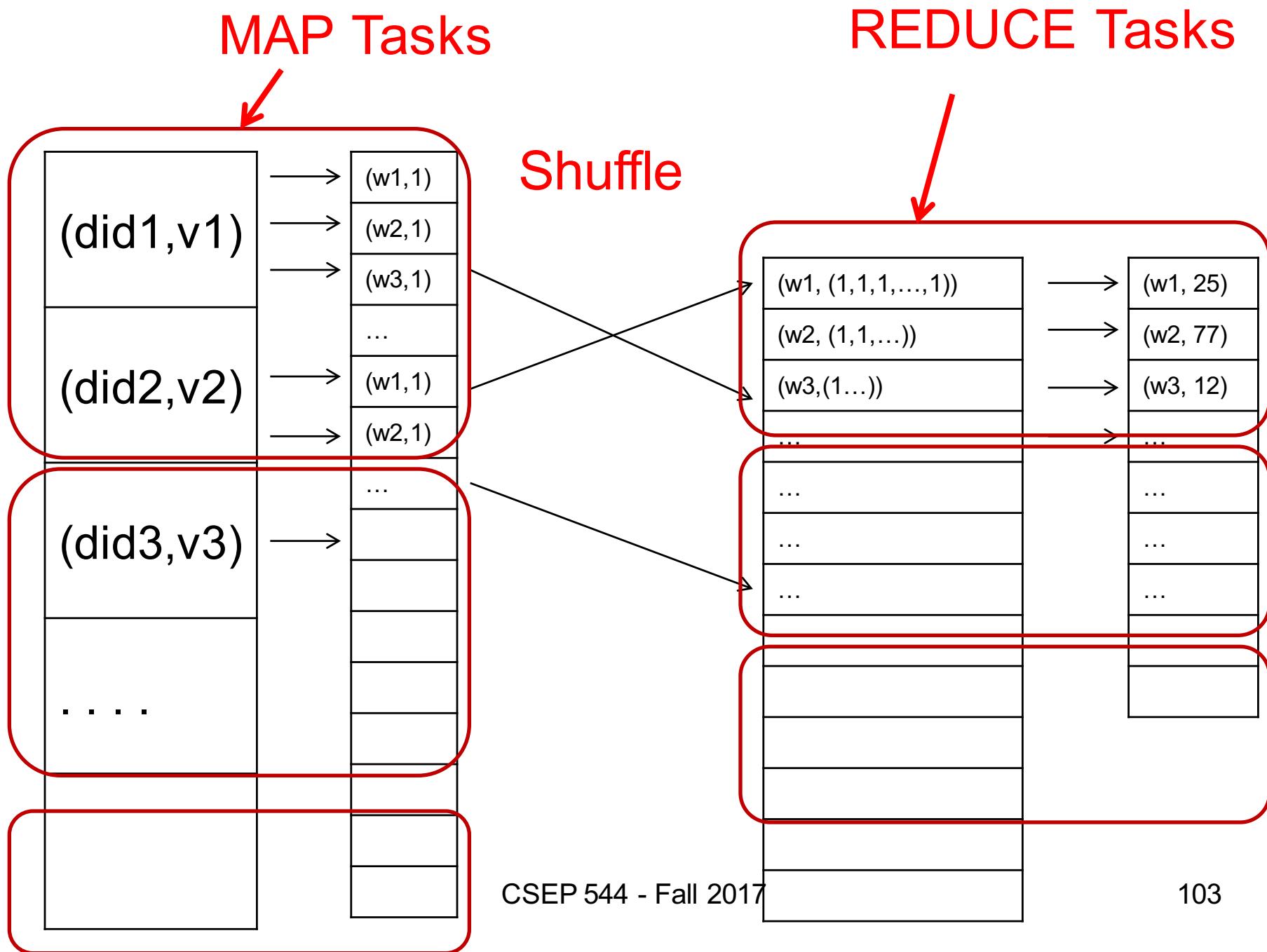
- A MapReduce Job
  - One single “query”, e.g. count the words in all docs
  - More complex queries may consist of multiple jobs
- A Map Task, or a Reduce Task
  - A group of instantiations of the map-, or reduce-function, which are scheduled on a single worker

# Workers

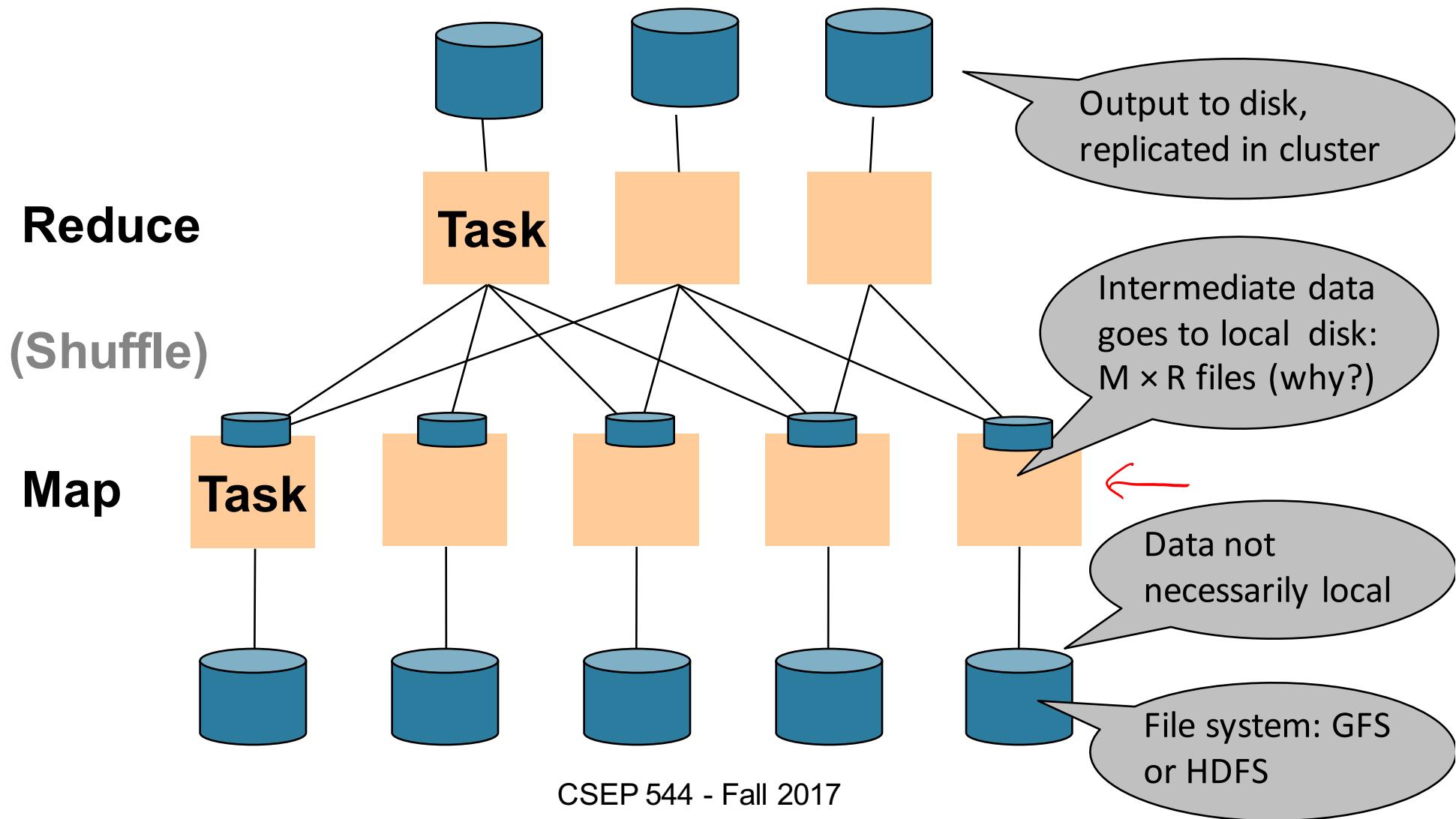
- A **worker** is a process that executes one task at a time
- Typically there is one worker per processor, hence 4 or 8 per node

# Fault Tolerance

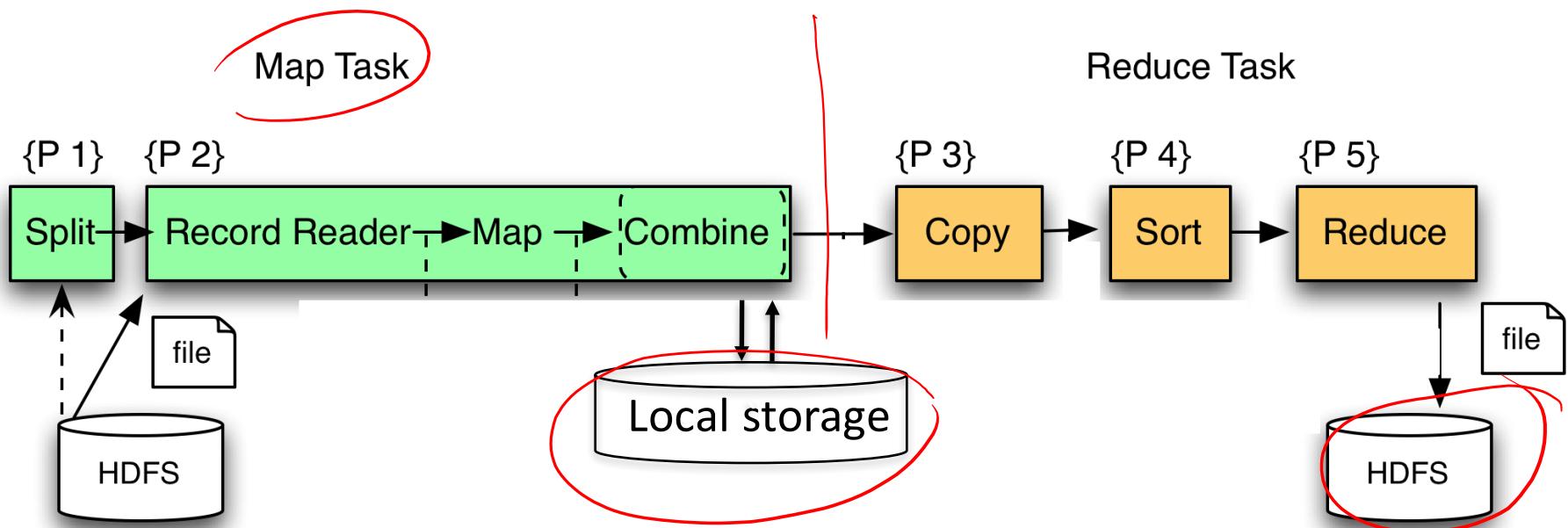
- If one server fails once every year...  
... then a job with 10,000 servers will fail in less than one hour
- MapReduce handles fault tolerance by writing intermediate files to disk:
  - Mappers write file to local disk
  - Reducers read the files (=reshuffling); if the server fails, the reduce task is restarted on another server



# MapReduce Execution Details



# MapReduce Phases



# Implementation

- There is one master node
- Master partitions input file into  $M$  splits, by key
- Master assigns *workers* (=servers) to the  $M$  map tasks, keeps track of their progress
- Workers write their output to local disk, partition into  $R$  regions
- Master assigns workers to the  $R$  reduce tasks
- Reduce workers read regions from the map workers' local disks

# Interesting Implementation Details

Worker failure:

- Master pings workers periodically,
- If down then reassigns the task to another worker

# Interesting Implementation Details

Backup tasks:

- *Straggler* = a machine that takes unusually long time to complete one of the last tasks. E.g.:
  - Bad disk forces frequent correctable errors (30MB/s → 1MB/s)
  - The cluster scheduler has scheduled other tasks on that machine
- Stragglers are a main reason for slowdown
- Solution: *pre-emptive backup execution of the last few remaining in-progress tasks*

# Straggler Example

