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# Summary for the Lecture High-Performance Data Analytics



# Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Data Models
- 3 Databases
- 4 Distributed Storage and Processing with Hadoop
- 5 Big Data SQL using Hive
- 6 Dataflow Computation
- 7 Columnar Access
- 8 Document Storage

# Examination Preparation

## Importance of Learning Objectives

- The exam will assess the learning objectives
- Study the learning objectives of each slide deck
- Study the learning objectives of the overall lecture

## Importance of Exercises

- Exercises are often a good hint regarding the examination
- Won't ask too specific implementation questions
- But may ask something like "sketch a pig program that does X"...

## This Lecture

- Aims to summarize some important points
- Still: need to check all slide decks

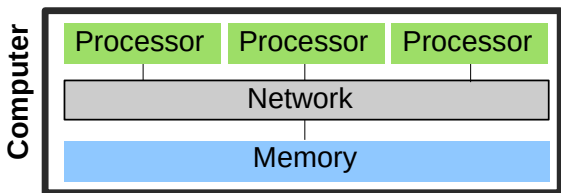
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# Parallel Architectures

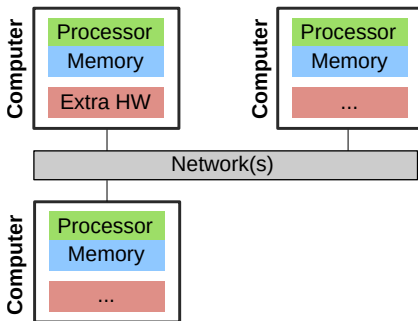
In practice, systems are a mix of two paradigms:

## Shared memory



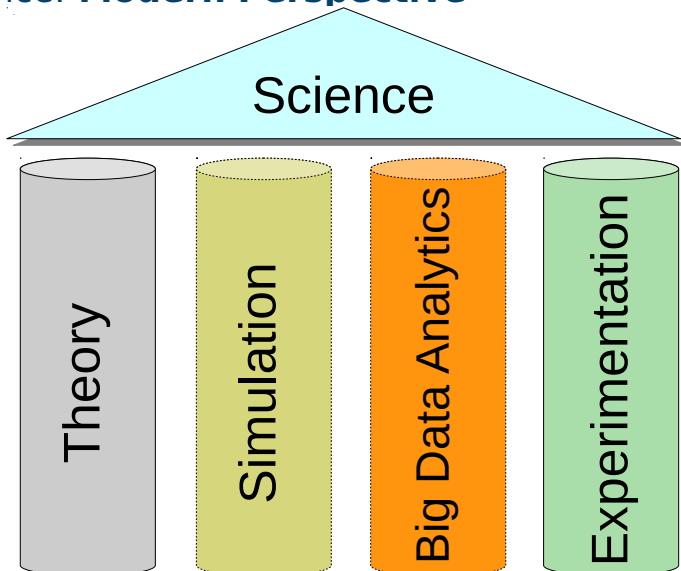
- Processors can access a joint memory
  - ▶ Enables communication/coordination
- Cannot be scaled up to any size
- Very expensive to build one big system

## Distributed memory systems (again!)



- Processor can only see own memory
- Performance of the network is key

# Pillars of Science: **Modern Perspective**



# Relation of the Scientific Method to D/P/S Computing

## Simulation models real systems to gain new insight

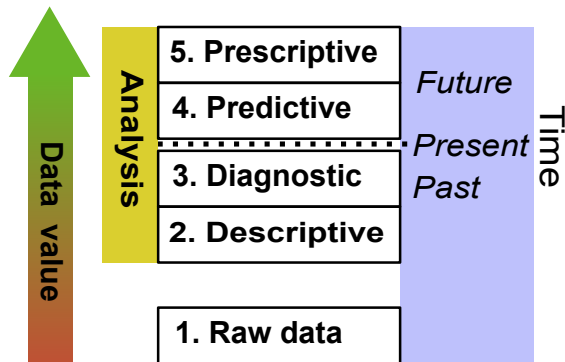
- Instrument to make observations, e.g., high-resolution and fast timescale
- Typically used to validate/refine theories, identify new phenomena
- Classical computational science: hard facts (based on models)
- The frontier of science needs massive computing resources on supercomputers
- Data-intensive sciences like climate imposes challenges to data handling, too

## Big Data Analytics extracts insight from data

- Provides a data pool to identify/mine new insight and to validate theories
- In business often approximate insight is enough (a small advantage)
- Distributed and parallel systems are needed to manage and analyze the data
- Gained knowledge is often made available as part of the cloud (for money)...

# Abstraction Levels of Analytics and the Value of Data

5. Prescriptive analytics
  - ▶ "What should we do and why?"
4. Predictive analytics
  - ▶ "What will happen?"
3. Diagnostic analytics
  - ▶ "What went wrong?"
  - ▶ "Why did this happen?"
2. Descriptive analytics<sup>46</sup>
  - ▶ "What happened?"
1. Raw (observed) data



## Relation to Computational Science

- These analysis steps are still done just by running computational experiments
- Also the output of the simulation must be analyzed

<sup>46</sup> Descriptive and diagnostic analysis are like forensics



# BigData Challenges & Characteristics

Dealing with large data is challenging in Big Data Analytics but also in Computational Science

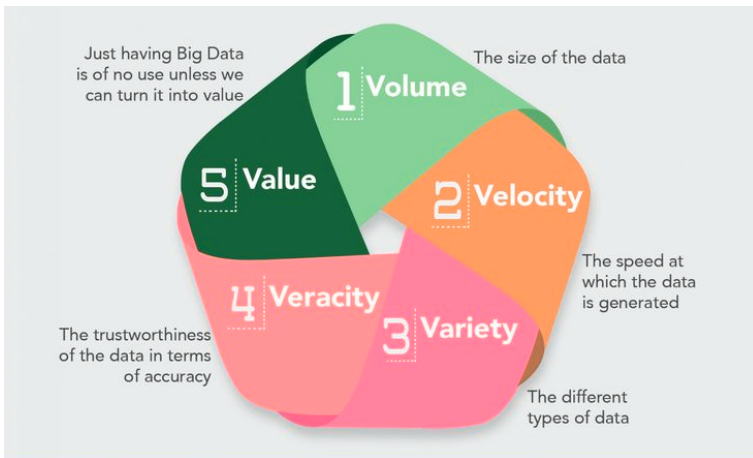


Figure: Source: MarianVesper (Forrester Big Data Webinar. Holger Kisker, Martha Bennet. Big Data: Gold Rush Or Illusion?)

# Volume: The size of the Data

## What is Big Data

Terrabytes to 10s of petabytes

## What is not Big Data

A few gigabytes

## Examples

- Wikipedia corpus with history ca. 10 TByte
- Wikimedia commons ca. 23 TByte
- Google search index ca. 46 Gigawebpages<sup>47</sup>
- YouTube per year 76 PByte (2012<sup>48</sup>)

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<sup>47</sup> <http://www.worldwidewebsize.com/>

<sup>48</sup> <https://sumanrs.wordpress.com/2012/04/14/youtube-yearly-costs-for-storagenetworking-estimate/>

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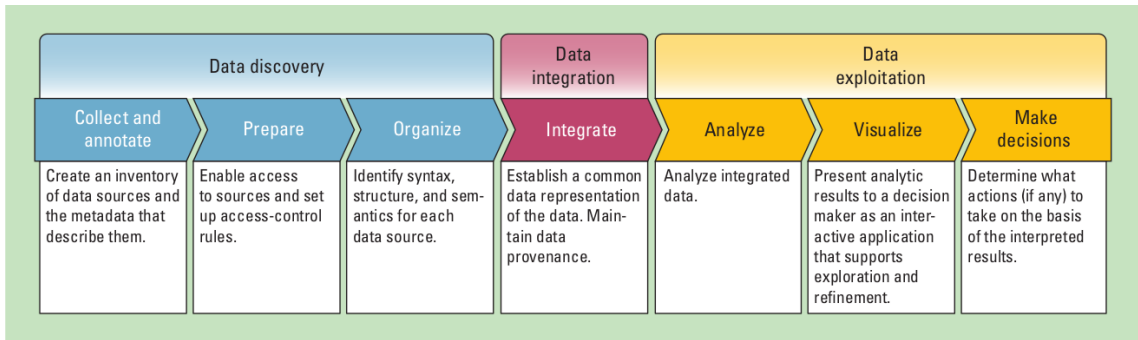
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# Terminology for Managing Data [1, 10]

- **Data governance:** *“control that ensures that the data entry ... meets precise standards such as business rule, a data definition and data integrity constraints in the data model”* [10]
  - ▶ Think about reasons that invalidate data that lead to catastrophic results...
  - ▶ Example: misinterpretation of data value "NaN" as "0" in a survey
- **Data provenance:** the documentation of input, transformations of data and involved systems to support analysis, tracing and reproducibility
  - ▶ e.g., Input (file.csv) ⇒ Calculate means via x.py (result: means.csv) ⇒ Create diagrams via d.py (result fig1.pdf)
- **Data-lineage** (Datenherkunft): forensics; allows to identify the source data used to generate data products (part of data provenance)
  - ▶ e.g., fig1.pdf has been produced from ... using Z...
  - ▶ I'm able to reproduce results and track errors from the product
- **Service level agreements** (SLAs): contract defining quality, e.g., performance/reliability & responsibilities between service user/provider

# Data Analysis Workflow

The traditional approach proceeds in phases:



**Figure:** Source: Gilbert Miller, Peter Mork From Data to Decisions: A Value Chain for Big Data.

- Analysis tools: machine learning, statistics, interactive visualization
- Limitation: Interactivity by browsing through prepared results
- Indirect feedback between visualization and analysis

# Alternative Processing Technology

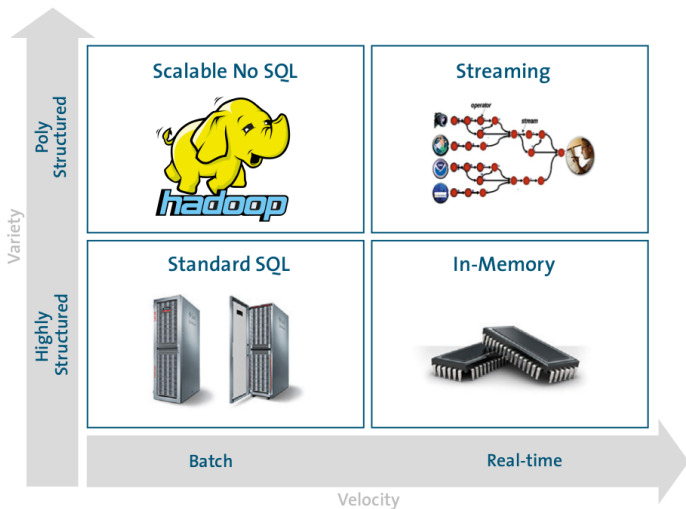
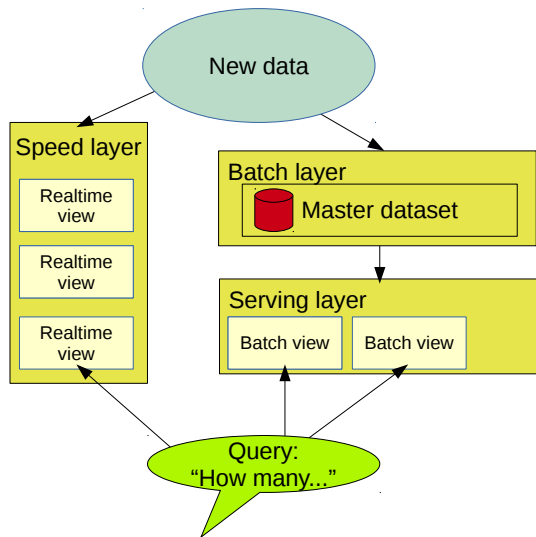


Figure: Source: Forrester Webinar. Big Data: Gold Rush Or Illusion? [4]

# The Lambda Architecture [11]



- **Goal:** Interactive Processing
- Batch layer pre-processes data
  - ▶ Master dataset is immutable/never changed
  - ▶ Operations are periodically performed
- Serving layer offers performance optimized views
- Speed layer serves deltas of batch and recent activities, may approximate results
- Robust: Errors/inaccuracies of real-time views are corrected in batch view

# Data Models<sup>49</sup> and their Instances [12]

- A data model describes how information is organized in a system
  - ▶ It is a tool to specify, access and process information
  - ▶ A model provide operations for accessing and manipulating data that follow certain semantics
  - ▶ Typical information is some kind of entity (virtual object) (e.g., car)

■ **Logical model:** abstraction expressing objects and operations

■ **Physical model:** maps logical structures onto hardware resources (e.g., files, bytes)

■ DM theory: Formal methods for describing data models with tool support

■ Applying theory creates a **data model instance** for a specific application

<sup>1</sup>: The term is often used ambivalently for a data (meta) model concept/theory or an instance

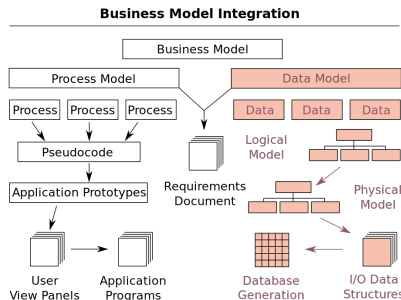


Figure: Source: [12]



# Operations

- Operations define how you can interact with the data
  - ▶ Minimal: Need to somehow store and retrieve data
  - ▶ Users may want to search for data, update existing data
- May want to offload some operations to the server side: active storage
  - ▶ Reduce data, e.g., compute mean/sum
  - ▶ Conditional updates

## Typical Operations

- POSIX: create, open, write (anywhere), read (anywhere)
  - ▶ Does not distinguish between write and update
- CRUD: Create, Read, Update, Delete
- Amazon S3: Put (Overwrite), Get (Partially), Delete

# Relational Model [10]

- Database model based on first-order predicate logic
  - ▶ Theoretic foundations: relational algebra and relational calculus
- Data is represented as tuples
  - ▶ In its original style, it does not support collections
- Relation/Table: groups tuples with similar semantics
  - ▶ Table consists of rows and named columns (attributes)
  - ▶ No (identical) duplicate of a row allowed
- Schema: specify structure of tables
  - ▶ Datatypes (domain of attributes)
  - ▶ Consistency via constraints
  - ▶ Organization and optimizations

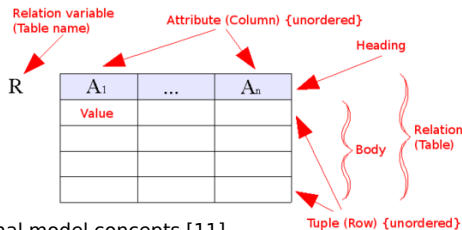


Figure: Source: Relational model concepts [11]

# Columnar Model

- Data is stored in rows and columns (similar to tables)
- A column is a tuple (name, value and timestamp)
- Each row can contain different columns
  - ▶ Columns can store complex objects, e.g., collections
- Wide columnar model: very sparse table of 100k+ columns
- Example technology: HBase, Cassandra, Accumulo

Row/Column:	student name	matrikel	lectures	lecture name
1	"Max Mustermann"	4711	[3]	-
2	"Nina Musterfrau"	4712	[3,4]	-
3	-	-	-	"Big Data Analytics"
4	-	-	-	"Hochleistungsrechnen"

**Table:** Example columnar model for the students, each value has its own timestamp (not shown). Note that lectures and students should be modeled with two tables

# Key-Value Store

- Data is stored as value and addressed by a key
- The value can be complex objects, e.g., JSON or collections
- Keys can be forged to simplify lookup (evtl. tables with names)
- Example technology: CouchDB, BerkeleyDB, Memcached, BigTable

Key	Value
stud/4711	<name>Max Mustermann</name><attended><id>1</id></attended>
stud/4712	<name>Nina Musterfrau</name><attended><id>1</id><id>2</id></attended>
lec/1	<name>Big Data Analytics</name>
lec/2	<name>Hochleistungsrechnen</name>

Table: Example key-value model for the students with embedded XML

# Document Model

- Collection of documents
- Documents contain semi-structured data (JSON, XML)
- Addressing to lookup documents are implementation specific
  - ▶ e.g., bucket/document key, (sub) collections, hierarchical namespace
- References between documents are possible
- Example technology: MongoDB, Couchbase, DocumentDB

```
1 <students>
2   <student><name>Max Mustermann</name><matrikel>4711</matrikel>
3     <lecturesAttended><id>1</id></lecturesAttended>
4   </student>
5   <student><name>Nina Musterfrau</name><matrikel>4712</matrikel>
6     <lecturesAttended><id>1</id><id>2</id></lecturesAttended>
7   </student>
8 </students>
```

**Table:** Example XML document storing students. Using a bucket/key namespace, the document could be addressed with key: “uni/stud” in the bucket “app1”

# Graph

- Entities are stored as nodes and relations as edges in the graph
- Properties/Attributes provide additional information as key/value
- Example technology: Neo4J, InfiniteGraph

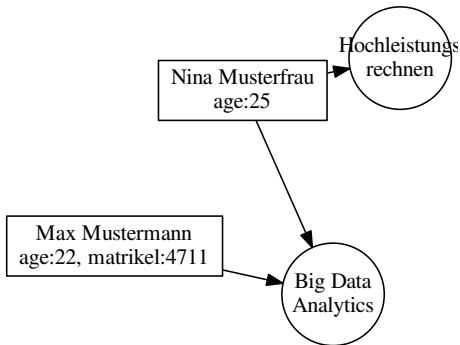


Figure: Graph representing the students (attributes are not shown)

## Fact-Based Model [11]<sup>51</sup>

- Store raw data as timestamped atomic facts aka log files of change/current status
- Never delete true facts: Immutable data
- Make individual facts unique to prevent duplicates

### Example: social web page

- Record all changes to user profiles as facts
- Benefits
  - ▶ Allows reconstruction of the profile state at any time
  - ▶ Can be queried at any time<sup>50</sup>

### Example: purchases

- Record each item purchase as facts together with location, time, ...

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<sup>50</sup> If the profile is changed recently, the query may return an old state.

<sup>51</sup> Note that the definitions in the data warehousing (OLAP) and big data [11] domains are slightly different

# From Big Data to the Data Lake

- With cheap storage costs, people promote the concept of the data lake
- Combines data from many sources (data silos) and of any type and model
- Allows for conducting future analysis and not miss any opportunity

## Attributes of the data lake

- Collect everything: all time all data: raw sources and processed data
  - ▶ Decide during analysis which data is important, e.g., no “schema” until read
- Dive in anywhere: enable users across multiple business units to
  - ▶ Refine, explore and enrich data on their terms
- Flexible access: shared infrastructure supports various patterns
  - ▶ Batch, interactive, online, search

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<http://hortonworks.com/blog/enterprise-hadoop-journey-data-lake/>

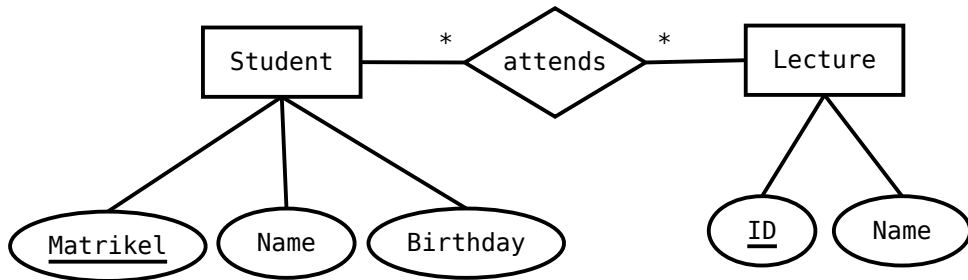


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# Entity Relationship Diagrams

- Illustrate the relational model and partly the database schema
- Elements: Entity, relation, attribute
  - ▶ Additional information about them, e.g., cardinality, data types



**Figure:** A student/lecture example in modified Chen notation  
\* is the cardinality and means any number is fine

## Queries [20]

- A query retrieves/computes a (sub)table from tables
  - ▶ It does **not change/mutate** any content of existing tables
- Statement: `SELECT < column1 >, < column2 >, ...`
- Subqueries: nesting of queries is possible to create temporary tables

### Supported clauses

- FROM: specify the table(s) to retrieve data
- WHERE: filter rows returned
- GROUP BY: group rows together that match conditions
- HAVING: filters grouped rows
- ORDER BY: sort the rows

```
1 SELECT Matrikel, Name FROM students WHERE Birthday='22.04.1955';
2 -- Returns a table with one row:
3 --   matrikel | name
4 --   -+-----
5 --       242 | Hans
```

# The OLAP Cube: Typical Operations [27]

- Slice: Fix one value to reduce the dimension by one
- Dice: Pick specific values of multiple dimensions
- Roll-up: Summarize data along a dimension
  - ▶ Formulas can be applied, e.g., profit = income - expense
- Pivot: Rotate the cube to see the faces

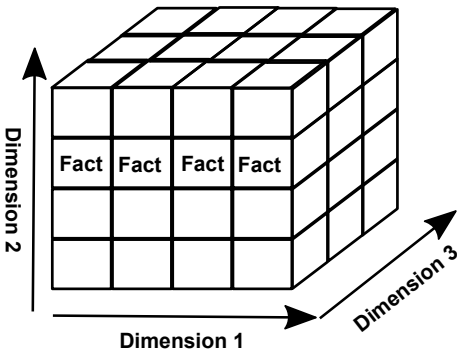


Figure: Example 3D cube

# Star Schema Example Model

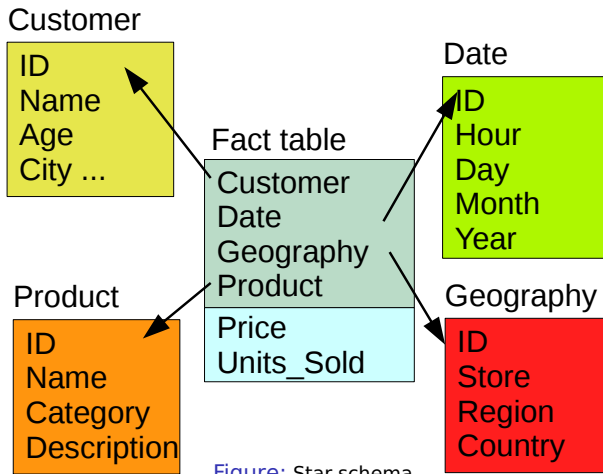


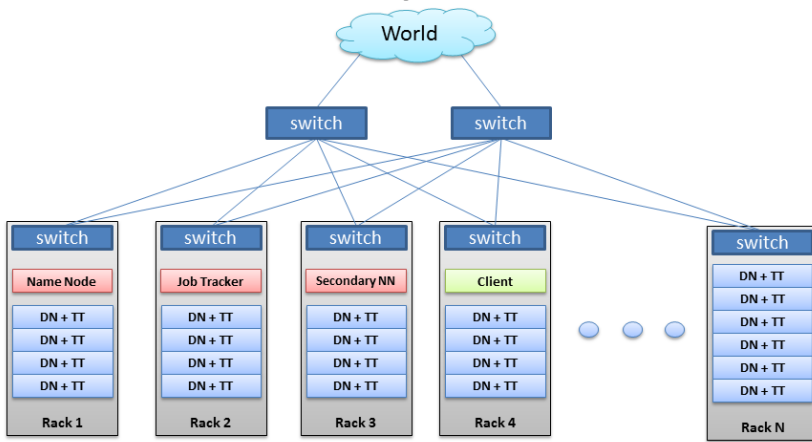
Figure: Star schema

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# System-Level Perspective of Hadoop Clusters

## Hadoop Cluster

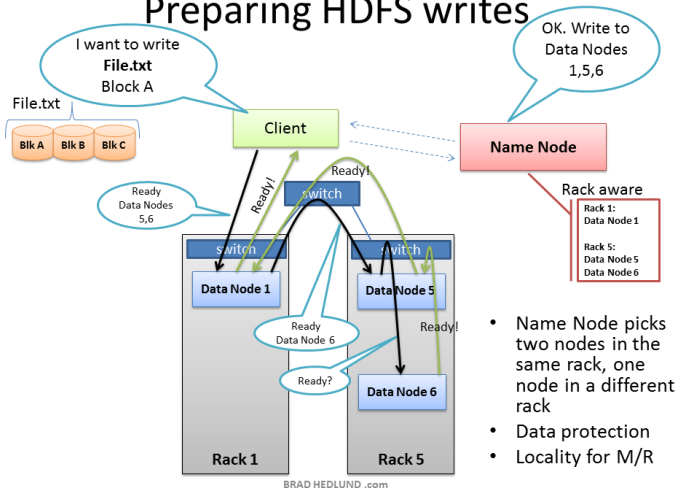


BRAD HEDLUND .com

Figure: Source: B. Hedlund. [15]

# The HDFS Write Path

## Preparing HDFS writes



- Name Node picks two nodes in the same rack, one node in a different rack
- Data protection
- Locality for M/R

Figure: Source: B. Hedlund [15]



# Map Reduce Execution Paradigm

Idea: Apply a processing pipeline consisting of map and reduce operations

1. Map: filter and convert input records (pos, data) to tuples (key, value)
2. Reduce: receives all tuples with the same key (key, list<value>)
  - Hadoop takes care of reading input, distributing (key,value) to reduce
  - Types for key, value & format, records depend on the configuration

Example: WordCount [10]: Count word frequency in large texts

```
1 map(key, text): # input: key=position, text=line
2   for each word in text:
3     Emit(word,1) # outputs: key/value
4
5 reduce(key, list of values): # input: key == word, our mapper output
6   count = 0
7   for each v in values:
8     count += v
9   Emit(key, count) # it is possible to emit multiple (key, value) pairs here
```

# Execution of MapReduce – the Big Picture

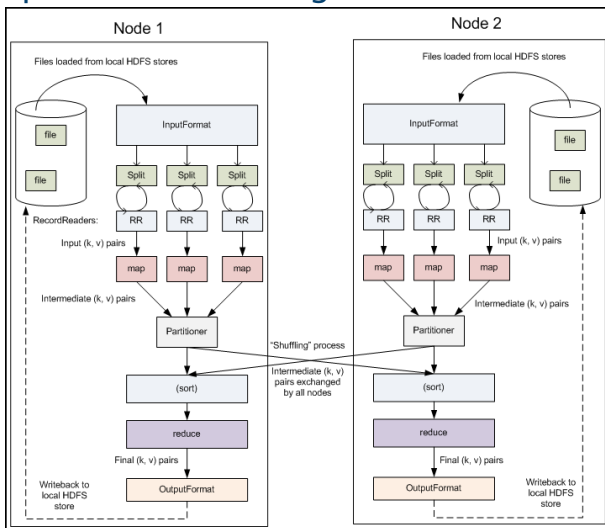


Figure: Source: jcdenton. [16]

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# Data Model [22]

## Data types

- Primitive types (int, float, strings, dates, boolean)
- Bags (arrays), dictionaries
- Derived data types (structs) can be defined by users

## Data organization

- Table: Like in relational databases with a schema
  - ▶ The Hive data definition language (DDL) manages tables
  - ▶ **Data is stored in files on HDFS**
- Partitions: table key determining the mapping to directories
  - ▶ Reduces the amount of data to be accessed in filters
  - ▶ Example key: /ds=<date> for table T
  - ▶ Predicate T.ds='2017-09-01' searches for files in /ds=2017-09-01/ directory
- Buckets/Clusters: Data of partitions are mapped into files
  - ▶ Hash value of a column determines partition

# Hive Architecture and Query Execution in Hadoop

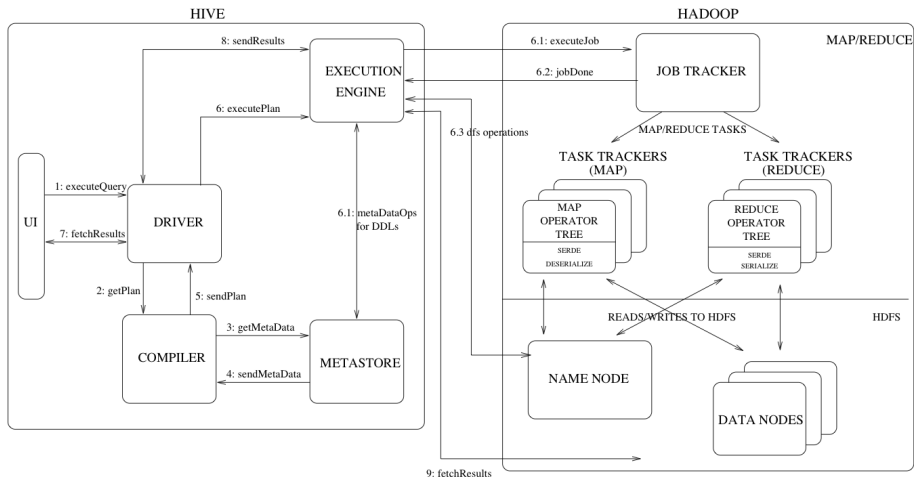


Figure: Architecture. Source: Design – Apache Hive [22]

# ORC Files [25]

- Stripe: group of row data
- Postscript: contains file metadata
  - ▶ Compression parameters
  - ▶ Size of the file footer
- Index data (per stripe & row group)
  - ▶ Min and max values
  - ▶ Bloom filter (to pre-filter matches)
  - ▶ Row position
- Compression of blocks: RLE, ZLIB, SNAPPY, LZO
- Tool to output ORC files:  
hive -orcfiledump

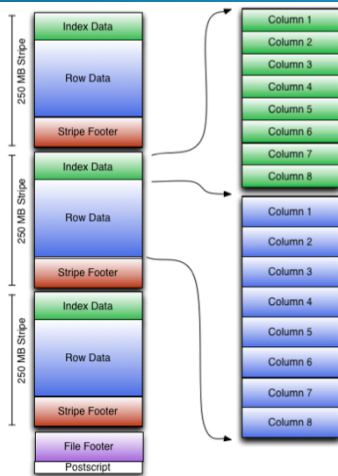


Figure: Source: [25]

Row groups are by default 10k rows of one column

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# General Data Model for Dataflow Languages

## Data

- Tuple  $t = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  where  $x_i$  may be of a given type
- Input/Output = list of tuples (like a table)

## Typical Operators for Data-Flow Processing

- Operations process individual tuples
  - ▶ Map/Foreach: process or transform data of **individual tuples or group**
    - transform a tuple: `student.Map((matrikel, name) => (matrikel + 4, name))`
    - count members for each group: `groupedStudents.Map((year) => count())`
  - ▶ Filter tuples by comparing a key to a value
- Operations that require the complete input data
  - ▶ Group tuples by a key
  - ▶ Sort data according to a key
  - ▶ Join multiple relations together
  - ▶ Split tuples of a relation into multiple relations (based on a condition)

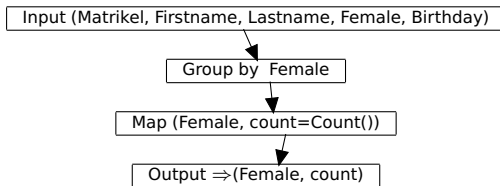


# Pipe Diagrams<sup>52</sup>

- Goal: Visualize the processing pipeline of data-flows with a schema
  - ▶ Optional: Add examples to illustrate processing

## Elements and diagram concepts

- Box: Operation
  - ▶ e.g., functions, filter, grouping, aggregating, mapping
  - ▶ Indicate also changes in schema
- Arrows show processing order (DAG), joins have two inputs



<sup>52</sup> We will use a variant from [11]

# Execution of Pig Queries on MapReduce and TEZ

```
f = LOAD 'foo' AS (x, y, z);
g1 = GROUP f BY y;
g2 = GROUP f BY z;
j = JOIN g1 BY group,
      g2 BY group;
```

## Pig : Split & Group-by

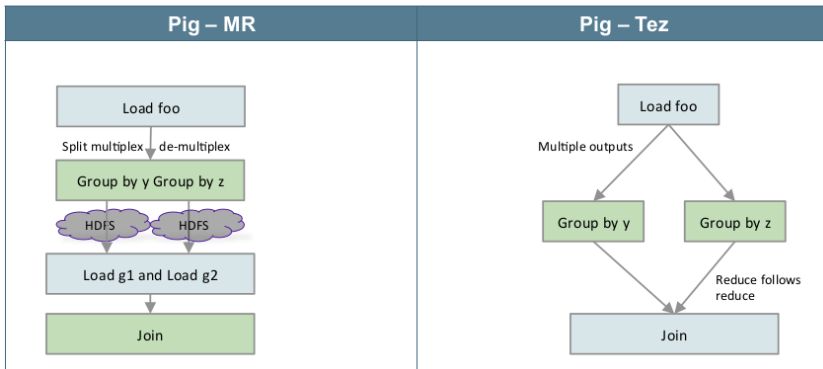


Figure: Source: H. Shah [20]

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# Zookeeper Overview [39, 40]

- Centralized service for coordination providing
  - ▶ Configuration information (e.g., service discovery)
  - ▶ Distributed synchronization (e.g., locking)
  - ▶ Group management (e.g., nodes belonging to a service)
- Simple: Uses a hierarchical namespace for coordination
- Strictly ordered access semantics
- Distributed and reliable using replication
- Scalable: A client can connect to any server

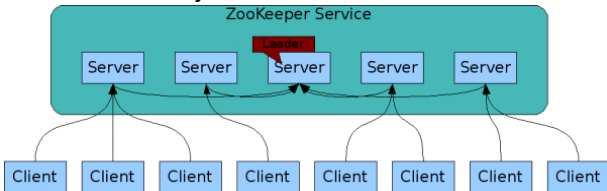


Figure: Source: ZooKeeper Service [40]

# Main Operations of HBase

## Data access

- **get**: return attributes for a row
- **put**: add row or update columns
- **increment**: increment values of multiple columns
- **scan**: iterate over multiple rows (potentially filtering)
- **delete**: remove a row, column or family
  - ▶ Data is only marked for deletion, finally removed during compaction

## Schema operations

- **create**: create a table, specify the column families (flexible columns!)
- **alter**: change table properties
- **describe**: retrieve table/column family properties
- **list**: list tables
- **create\_namespace**: create a namespace

# Distribution of Data [30]

- HBase uses HDFS as backend to store data
  - ▶ Utilize replication and place servers close to data
- Server (RegionServer) manage key ranges on a per table bases
  - ▶ Buffer I/O to multiple files on HDFS
  - ▶ Performs computation (and data filtering)
- Regions: base element for availability and distribution of tables
  - ▶ One **store** object per ColumnFamily
  - ▶ One Memstore for each **store** to write data to files
  - ▶ Multiple StoreFiles (HFile format) for each store (each sorted)
- Catalog Table *HBase:meta*, special non-split-table table
  - ▶ Contains a list of all regions *< table >*, *< regionstartkey >*, *< regionid >*

## Table splitting

- Upon initialization of a table only one region is created
- Auto-Splitting: Based on a policy, a region is split into two
  - ▶ Typical policy: split when the region is sufficiently large
  - ▶ Benefit: increases parallelism, automatic scale-out
- Manual splitting can be triggered

# Sharding of a Table into Regions

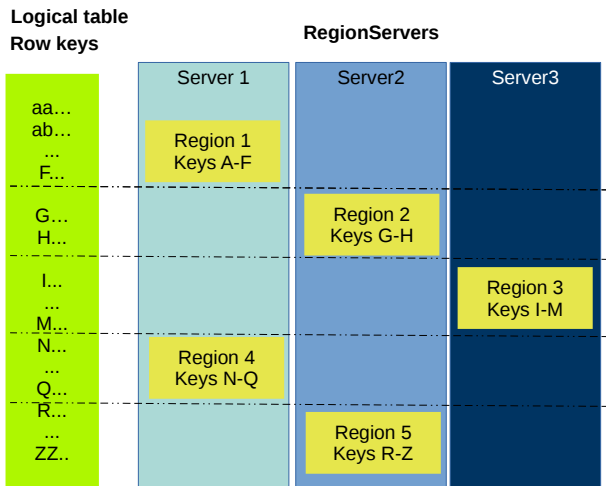


Figure: Distribution of keys to servers, values are stored with the row

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# MongoDB [11]

- Open-source document database
- High-performant and horizontally scalable for clusters
- Interfaces: Interactive mongo shell, REST, C, Python, ...
  - ▶ Connector for Hadoop for reading/writing to MongoDB

## Data Model

- Database: As usual, defines permissions
- Document: BSON object (binary JSON) – Consisting of subdocuments
  - ▶ Primary key: `_id` field (manually set or automatically filled)

```
1  "_id" : ObjectId("43459bc2341bc14b1b41b124"),
2  "students" : [ # subdocument
3    { "name" : "Julian", "id" : 4711, "birth" : ISODate("2000-10-01") },
4    { "name" : "Hans", "id" : 4712, "birth", ... } ]
```

- Collection: Like a table of documents
  - ▶ Addressing: Collection name, document `_id` field (choose appropriately)
  - ▶ Documents can have individual schemas
  - ▶ Support for indexes on fields (and compound fields)
- Document references via object ids

# Partitioning of Data (One Collection) [14]

- **Shard key:** Immutable field(s) in every collection document
  - ▶ Either by hashing of fields or by distributing ranges
  - ▶ Performance relevant: Select an appropriate shard key
- **Chunk:** A contiguous range of shard key values
  - ▶ Chunks are automatically split and migrated between shards

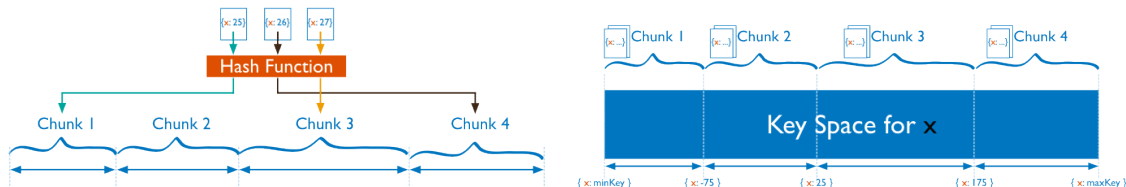


Figure: Hash and ranged sharding – Source: Reference [14]

- **Internal processing of queries**
  - ▶ Broadcast (scatter-gather) necessary if the query filter does not contain the shard key
  - ▶ If shard key is part of the query, only the subset of servers is contacted

# Examples

```
1 # Bulk insert some values into the collection uni (to be created)
2 var bulk = db.uni.initializeUnorderedBulkOp();
3 bulk.insert({"_id": "4711", "name": "Julian", "gender": "male", "major": "computer science", "birth": ISODate("2000-10-01")})
4 bulk.insert({"_id": "4712", "name": "Hans", "gender": "male", "major": "computer science", "birth": ISODate("2000-10-01")})
5 bulk.execute()
6 # BulkWriteResult({ "writeErrors" : [ ], "writeConcernErrors" : [ ], "nInserted" : 2, "nUpserted" : 0, "nMatched" : 0, "nModified" : 0, "nRemoved" :
   ↪ 0, "upserted" : [ ] })
7
8 # Create an index on the student's name
9 db.uni.createIndex( { "name": 1 } )
10
11 # Return the first 10 student names
12 db.uni.find( {}, {"name" : 1} ).limit(10)
13 #{ "_id" : "4711", "name" : "Julian" }
14 #{ "_id" : "4712", "name" : "Hans" }
15
16 # Return the student birth data where the name matches Hans
17 db.uni.find( { "name" : "Hans" }, {"birth" : 1} )
18 # { "_id" : "4712", "birth" : ISODate("2000-10-01T00:00:00Z") }
19
20 # Update the student, adding an address to all students with name Julian
21 db.uni.update ( {"name" : "Julian" }, {$set : { "address" : { "plz" : 4711, "city" : "Hamburg" } } }, {multi: true} )
22 # WriteResult({ "nMatched" : 1, "nUpserted" : 0, "nModified" : 1 })
23
24 # Aggregate to count the number of male and female computer science students
25 # The match stage filters the documents first
26 # The _id field indicates the field to use for grouping, here gender
27 db.uni.aggregate( [ { $match: { "major": "computer science" } },
28   { $group: { "_id": "$gender", "count": { $sum: 1 } } } ] )
29 # Returns: { "_id" : "male", "count" : 2 }
30
31 db.uni.drop() # remove collection
```

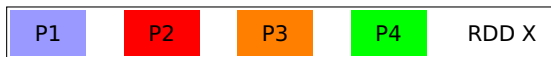
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# Spark Data Model

## ■ Distributed memory model: Resilient Distributed Datasets (RDDs)

- ▶ Named collection of elements distributed in partitions



$X = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots, 1000]$  distributed into 4 partitions

- ▶ Typically a list or a map (key-value pairs)
- ▶ An RDD is immutable, e.g., cannot be changed
- ▶ High-level APIs provide additional representations
  - e.g., SparkSQL uses DataFrames (aka tables)

## ■ Shared variables offer shared memory access

## ■ Durability of data

- ▶ RDDs live until the SparkContext is terminated
- ▶ To keep them, they need to be persisted (e.g., to HDFS)

## ■ Fault-tolerance is provided by **re-computing** data (if an error occurs)

# Resilient Distributed Datasets (RDDs) [13]

## ■ Creation of an RDD by either

- ▶ Parallelizing an existing collection

```
1 data = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
2 rdd = sc.parallelize(data, 5) # create 5 partitions
```

- ▶ Referencing a dataset on distributed storage, HDFS, ...

```
1 rdd = sc.textFile("data.txt")
```

## ■ RDDs can be transformed into derived (newly named) RDDs

```
1 rdd2 = rdd.filter( lambda x : (x % 2 == 0) ) # operation: filter odd tuples
```

- ▶ RDDs can be redistributed (called shuffle)
- ▶ RDD is computed if needed, but RDD can be cached in memory or stored
- ▶ Computation runs in parallel on the partitions
- ▶ RDD knows its data lineage (how it was computed)

## ■ Fault-tolerant collection of elements (lists, dictionaries)

- ▶ Split into choosable number of partitions and distributed
- ▶ Derived RDDs can be re-computed by using the recorded lineage

## Execution of Applications [12, 21]

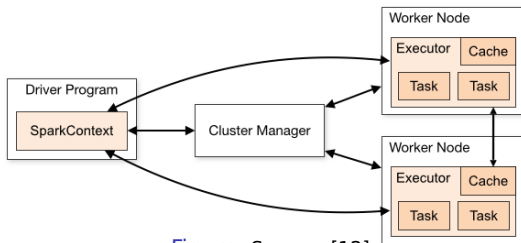


Figure: Source: [12]

- Driver program: process runs `main()`, creates/uses SparkContext
- Task: A unit of work processed by one executor
- Job: A spark action triggering computation starts a job
- Stage: collection of tasks executing the same code; run concurrently
  - ▶ Works independently on partitions without data shuffling
- Executor process: provides slots to runs tasks
  - ▶ Isolates apps, thus data cannot be shared between apps
- Cluster manager: allocates cluster resources and runs executor

# Computation

- **Lazy execution:** apply operations when results are needed (by actions)
  - ▶ Intermediate RDDs can be re-computed multiple times
  - ▶ Users can persist RDDs (in-memory or disk) for later use
- Many operations apply user-defined functions or **lambda** expressions
- Code and **closure** are serialized on the driver and send to executors
  - ▶ Note: When using class instance functions, the object (and all members) are serialized
- RDD partitions are processed in parallel (data parallelism)
  - ▶ Concept: Use local data where possible

## RDD Operation Types [13]

- **Transformations:** create a new RDD locally by applying operations
- **Actions:** return values to the driver program (or do I/O)
- **Shuffle operations:** re-distribute data across executors



# Simple Example

## ■ Example session when using pyspark

```
1 # Distribute the data: here we have a list of numbers from 1 to 10 million
2 # Store the data in an RDD called nums
3 nums = sc.parallelize( range(1,10000000) )
4
5 # Compute a derived RDD by filtering odd values
6 r1 = nums.filter( lambda x : (x % 2 == 1) )
7
8 # Now compute squares for all remaining values and store key/value tuples
9 result = r1.map( lambda x : (x, x*x*x) )
10 # Store results in memory, cached at first invocation of an action
11 resultCached = result.cache()
12
13 # Retrieve all distributed values into the driver and print them
14 # This will actually run the computation
15 print(result.collect()) # [(1, 1), (3, 27), (5, 125), (7, 343), (9, 729), (11, 1331), ... ]
```

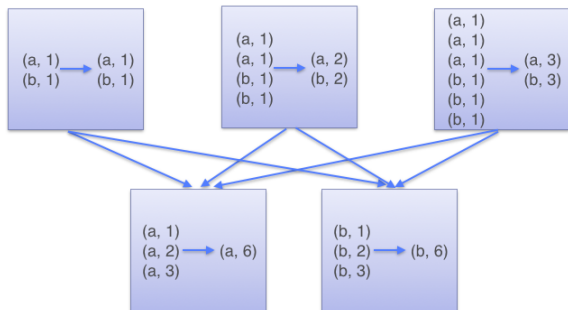
# Illustrating processing of KV RDDs [30]

- ReduceBy applies reduction function locally, creates new RDD and then globally
- Reduces network traffic, preferable solution

```

1 words = ["one", "two", "two", "three", "three", "three"]
2 wordPairsRDD = sc.parallelize(words).map(Lambda word : (word, 1))
3 wordCountsWithReduce = wordPairsRDD.reduceByKey(Lambda a, b : a+b).collect()
4 # [('two', 2), ('three', 3), ('one', 1)]
    
```

## ReduceByKey



## Creating an In-memory Table from an RDD

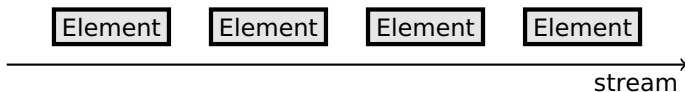
```
1 # Create a table from an array using the column names value, key
2 # The data types of the columns are automatically inferred
3 r = sqlContext.createDataFrame([('test', 10), ('data', 11)], ["value", "key"])
4
5 # Alternative: create/use an RDD
6 rdd = sc.parallelize(range(1,10)).map(lambda x : (x, str(x)) )
7
8 # Create the table from the RDD using the columnnames given, here "key" / "value"
9 schema = sqlContext.createDataFrame(rdd, ["key", "value"])
10 schema.printSchema()
11
12 # Register table for use with SQL, we use a temporary table, so the table is NOT visible in Hive
13 schema.registerTempTable("nums")
14
15 # Now you can run SQL queries
16 res = sqlContext.sql("SELECT * from nums")
17
18 # res is an DataFrame that uses columns according to the schema
19 print( res.collect() ) # [Row(key=1, value='1'), Row(key=2, value='2'), ... ]
20
21 # Save results as a table for Hive
22 from pyspark.sql import DataFrameWriter
23 dw = DataFrameWriter(res)
24 dw.saveAsTable("data")
```

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# Stream Processing [12]

- Stream processing paradigm = dataflow programming
- Programming
  - ▶ Implement operations (kernel) functions and define data dependencies
  - ▶ Uniform streaming: Operation is executed on all elements individually
  - ⇒ Default: no view of the complete data at any time
- Advantages
  - ▶ Pipelining of operations and massive parallelism is possible
  - ▶ Data is in memory and often in CPU cache, i.e., in-memory computation
  - ▶ Data dependencies of kernels are known and can be dealt at compile time



## Overcoming restrictions of the programming model

- Windowing: sliding (overlapping) windows contain multiple elements
- Stateless vs. stateful (i.e., keep information for multiple elements)

## Storm Data Model [37, 38]

- **Tuple:** an ordered list of named elements
  - ▶ e.g., fields (weight, name, BMI) and tuple (1, "hans", 5.5)
  - ▶ Dynamic types (i.e., store anything in fields)
- **Stream:** a sequence of tuples
- **Spouts:** a source of streams for a computation
  - ▶ e.g., Kafka messages, tweets, real-time data
- **Bolts:** processors for input streams producing output streams
  - ▶ e.g., filtering, aggregation, join data, talk to databases
- **Topology:** the graph of the calculation represented as network
  - ▶ Note: the parallelism (tasks) is statically defined for a topology

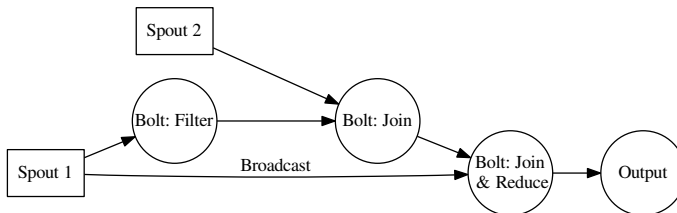


Figure: Example topology

## Partitions and Stream Groupings [38]

- Multiple instances (tasks) of spouts/bolts each processes a partition
- Stream grouping defines how to transfer tuples between partitions
- Selection of groupings (we note similarities to YARN)
  - ▶ Shuffle: send a tuple to a random task
  - ▶ Field: send tuples which share the values of a subset of fields to the same task, e.g., for counting word frequency
  - ▶ All: replicate/Broadcast tuple across all tasks of the target bolt
  - ▶ Local: prefer local tasks if available, otherwise use shuffle
  - ▶ Direct: producer decides which consumer task receives the tuple

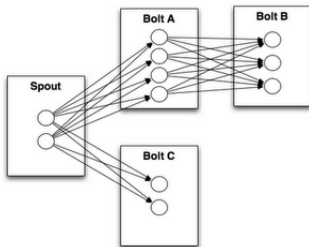
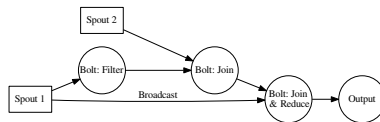
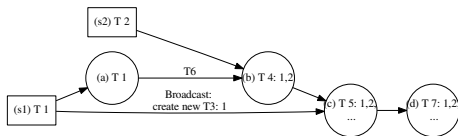


Figure: Source: [38]

# Processing Strategy [11, 54]

- Track tuple processing
  - ▶ Each tuple has a random 64 Bit message ID
  - ▶ Explicit record **all spout tuple IDs** a tuple is derived of
- **Acker task** tracks the tuple DAG implicitly for each tuple
  - ▶ Spout informs Acker tasks of new tuple
  - ▶ Acker notifies all Spouts if a “derived” tuple completed
  - ▶ Hashing maps spout tuple ID to Acker task
- Acker uses 20 bytes per tuple to track the state of the tuple tree<sup>53</sup>
  - ▶ Map contains: tuple ID to Spout (creator) task AND 64 Bit ack value
  - ▶ Ack value is an XOR of all “derived” tuple IDs and all acked tuple IDs
  - ▶ If Ack value is 0, the processing of the tuple is complete



<sup>53</sup> Independent of the size of the topology!



## Exactly-Once Semantics [11, 54]

- Semantics guarantees each tuple is executed exactly once
- Operations depending on exactly-once semantics
  - ▶ Updates of stateful computation
  - ▶ Global counters (e.g., wordcount), database updates

### Strategies to achieve exactly-once semantics

#### 1 Provide idempotent operations: $f(f(tuple)) = f(tuple)$

- ▶ Stateless (side-effect free) operations are idempotent

#### 2 Execute tuples strongly ordered to avoid replicated execution

- ▶ Create tuple IDs in the spout with a strong ordering
- ▶ Bolts memorize last seen / executed tuple ID (transaction ID)
  - Perform updates only if tuple ID > last seen ID
- ⇒ ignore all tuples with tuple ID < failure
- ▶ Requirement: Don't use random grouping

#### 3 Use Storm's transactional topology [57]

- ▶ Separate execution into processing phase and commit phase
  - Processing does not need exactly-once semantics
  - Commit phase requires strong ordering
- ▶ Storm ensures: any time only one batch can be in commit phase

# Spark: Processing of Streams

Basic processing concept is the same as for RDDs, example:

```
1 words = lines.flatMap(lambda l: l.split(" "))
```

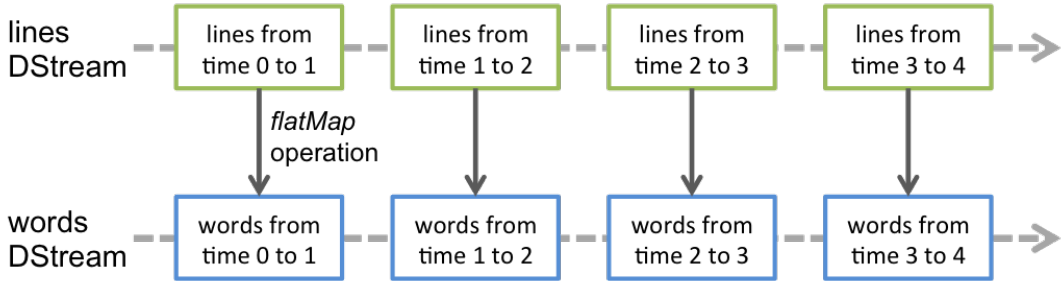


Figure: Source: [16]

# Window-Based Operations

```

1 # Reduce a window of 30 seconds of data every 10 seconds
2 rdd = words.reduceByKeyAndWindow(lambda x, y: x + y, 30, 10)
    
```

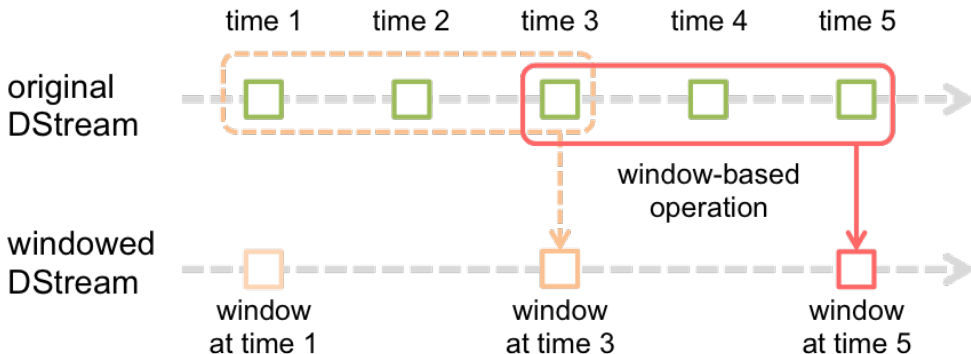


Figure: Source: [16]

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# Semantics of a Service

Semantics describe operations and their behavior, i.e., the property of the service

- Application programming interface (API)
- **Consistency:** Behavior of simultaneously executed operations
  - ▶ Atomicity: Are partial modifications visible to other clients
  - ▶ Visibility: When are changes visible to other clients
  - ▶ Isolation: Are operations influencing other ongoing operations
- **Availability:** Readiness to serve operations
  - ▶ Robustness of the system for typical (hardware and software) errors
  - ▶ Scalability: availability and performance behaviour depending on the number of clients, concurrent requests, request size, etc.
  - ▶ Partition tolerance: Continue to operate even if the network breaks partially
- **Durability:** Modifications should be stored on persistent storage
  - ▶ Consistency: Any operation leaves a consistent (correct) system state

# Wishlist for Distributed Software

- High-availability, i.e., you can use the service all the time
- Fault-tolerance, i.e., can tolerate errors
- Scalable, i.e., the ability to be used in a range of capabilities
  - ▶ Linear scalability with the data volume (or number of users served)
    - i.e.,  $2n$  servers handle  $2n$  the data volume + same processing time
- Extensible, i.e., easy to introduce new features and data
- Usability: high user productivity - i.e., simple programming models
- Ready for the cloud
- Debuggability
  - ▶ In respect to coding errors and performance issues
- High Performance
  - ▶ Real-time/interactive capabilities - user interact with the system without noticing delay
- High efficiency, i.e., make good use of resources (compute and storage)

# Multitier architecture [25]

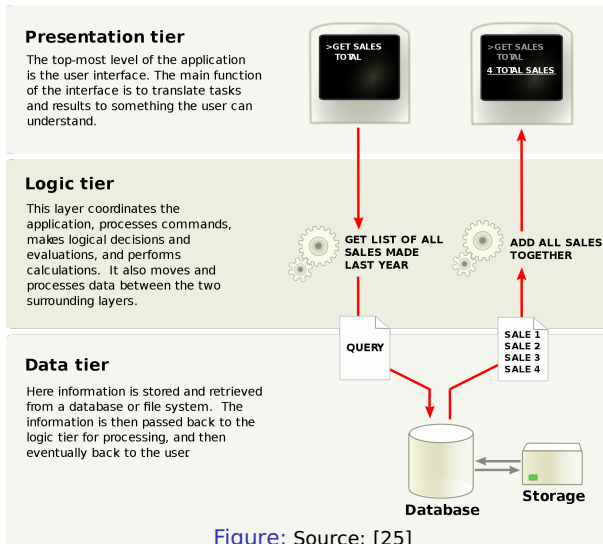


Figure: Source: [25]

# Two-Phase Commit Protocol (2PC) [18]

- Idea: one process coordinates commit and checks that all agree on the decision

## Sketch of the algorithm

### 1 Prepare phase

- 1 Coordinator sends message with transaction to all participants
- 2 Participant executes transaction until commit is needed.  
Replies yes (commit) or no (e.g. conflict). Records changes in undo/redo logs
- 3 Coordinator checks decision by all replies, if all reply yes, decide commit

### 2 Commit phase

- 1 Coordinator sends message to all processes with decision
- 2 Processes commit or rollback the transactions, send acknowledgment
- 3 Coordinator sends reply to requester

- Think about: What should happen if the coordinator fails?
- What should a "participant" do upon such failures, how to detect them?



# Consistent Hashing (2)

- In this example, server IP addresses are hashed to the ring
  - ▶ They could be hashed several times for fault tolerance
- The items are strings, the hash determines where they are located
- The arrow shows the server responsible for the items

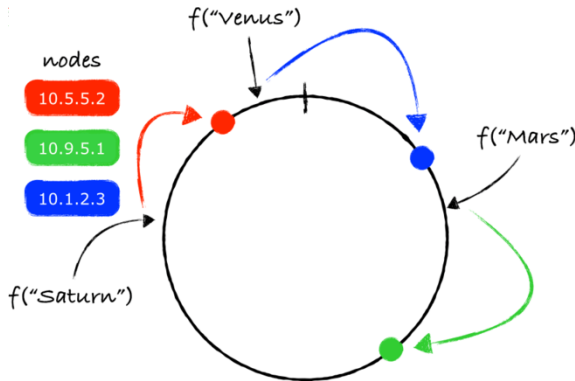


Figure: Source: [22]

- For more info, see <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=juxlRh4ZhoI> and [22], [23]

# REST [31]

## ■ Advantages of REST due to HTTP

- ▶ Simplicity of the interfaces
- ▶ Portability: Independent of client and server platform
- ▶ Cachable: Read requests can be cached close to the user
- ▶ Tracable: Communication can be inspected

## Semantics of HTTP request verbs [33]

- GET: retrieve a representation of a resource (no updates)
- PUT: store the enclosed data under the given URI
- POST: transfer an entity/data as a subordinate of the web resource
- DELETE: remove the given URI
- PUT and DELETE are idempotent
  - ▶ GET also w/o concurrent updates

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# HPC Cluster Characteristics

- High-end components
- Extra fast interconnect, global/shared storage with dedicated servers
- Network provides high (near-full) bisection bandwidth. Various topologies are possible.

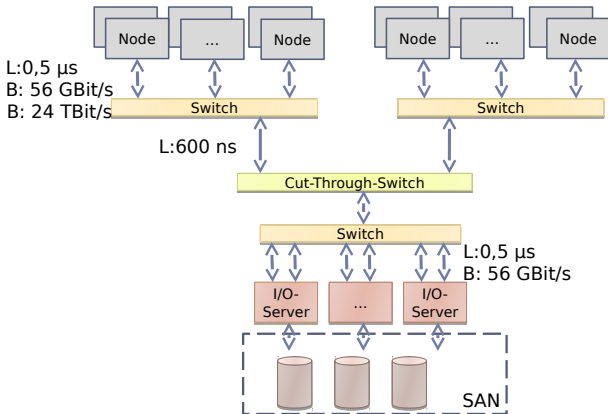


Figure: Architecture of a typical HPC cluster (here fat-tree network topology)

# Basic Approach

## Question

Is the observed performance acceptable?

## Basic Approach

Start with a simple model

- 1 Measure time for the execution of your workload
- 2 Quantify the workload with some metrics
  - ▶ E.g., amount of tuples or data processed, computational operations needed
  - ▶ E.g., you may use the statistics output for each Hadoop job
- 3 Compute  $W$ , the workload you process per time
- 4 Compute the expected performance  $P$  based on the system's hardware characteristics
- 5 Compare  $W$  with  $P$ , the efficiency is  $E = \frac{W}{P}$ 
  - ▶ If  $E \ll 1$ , e.g., 0.01, you are using only 1% of the potential!

Refine the model as needed, e.g., include details about intermediate steps

# Discussion: Comparing Pig and Hive Big Data Solutions

## Benchmark by IBM [16], similar to Apache Benchmark

- Tests several operations, data set increases 10x in size
  - ▶ Set 1: 772 KB; 2: 6.4 MB; 3: 63 MB; 4: 628 MB; 5: 6.2 GB; 6: 62 GB
- Five data/compute nodes, configured to run eight reduce and 11 map tasks

	Set 1	Set 2	Set 3	Set 4	Set 5	Set 6
Arithmetic	32	36	49	83	423	3900
Filter 10%	32	34	44	66	295	2640
Filter 90%	33	32	37	53	197	1657
Group	49	53	69	105	497	4394
Join	49	50	78	150	1045	10258

	Set 1	Set 2	Set 3	Set 4	Set 5	Set 6
Arithmetic	32	37.	72	300	2633	27821
Filter 10%	32	53.	59	209	1672	18222
Filter 90%	31	32.	36	69	331	3320
Group	48	47.	46	53	141	1233
Join	48	56.	10.	517	4388	-
Distinct	48	53.	72	109	-	-

Figure: Time for **Pig (left)** and **Hive**. Source: B. Jakobus (modified), "Table 2: Averaged performance" [16]

## Assessing performance

- How could we model performance here?
- How would you judge the runtime here?

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# Visual Analytics Workflow

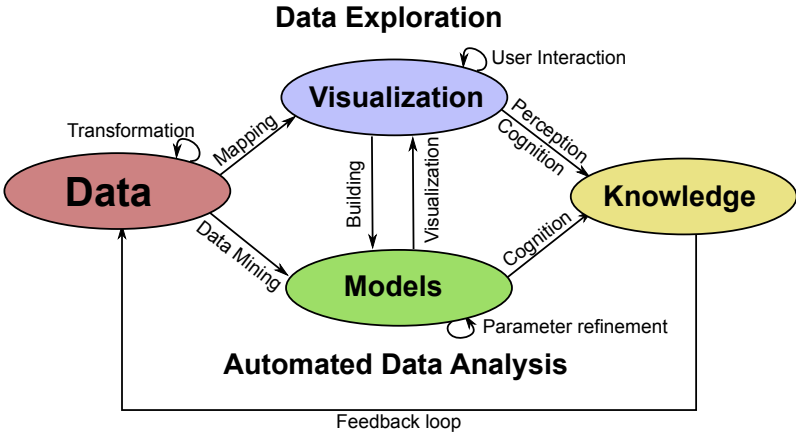


Figure: Figure based on [48]

Motto: Analyse First – Show the Important; Zoom, Filter and Analyse Further – Details on Demand[34]



# Guidelines for Graphical Displays

## Goals of **graphical displays** according to [42]

- show the data
- induce the viewer to **think about the substance** rather than about methodology, graphic design, the technology of graphic production, or something else
- avoid distorting what the data have to say
- present many numbers in a small space
- make large data sets coherent
- encourage the eye to compare different pieces of data
- reveal the data at several levels of detail, from a broad overview to the fine structure
- serve a reasonably clear purpose: description, exploration, tabulation, or decoration
- be closely integrated with the statistical and verbal descriptions of a data set

# Guidelines

## Simple rules

- Use the right visualization for the for data types
- Use building blocks for graphics (known plot styles)
- Reduce information to the essential part to be communicated
- Consistent use of building blocks and themes (retinal properties)

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# Large Scale Data Analytics for Scientific Computing

## Scientific Computing

- Large-scale computing on the frontier of science
- Traditional workflow: execute scientific application, store results, analyze results

## Challenges

- Large data volumes and velocities
  - ▶ How can we analyze 1 PByte of data?
  - ▶ How can we manage 100 M files?
- Complex system (and storage) topologies
- Understanding/optimization of system behavior is difficult
- Data movement between CPU and even memory storage is costly
  - ▶ 5000x more than a DP FLOP<sup>54</sup>
  - ▶ 10 pJ per Flop (2018), 2000 pJ for DRAM access

<sup>54</sup> <http://www.fatih.edu.tr/esma.yildirim/DIDC2014-workshop/DIDC-parashar.pdf>

# In-situ and in-transit Analysis/Processing

- **In-situ:** analyze results while the application is still computing
  - ▶ How: define computation (e.g. data flow graph) of data a-priori
  - ▶ Runtime deploys them with application execution
  - ▶ Typically on either the same nodes as the application or dedicated servers
- **In-transit:** analyze/post-process data while it is on the I/O path
  - ▶ Extend in-situ idea with means to deploy parts of the processing across system
- **Computational steering:** interact with the application while it runs
  - ▶ e.g., modify simulation parameters, modify objects
- Example solutions that support analysis
  - ▶ DataSpaces<sup>55</sup>
  - ▶ ADIOS<sup>56</sup>
  - ▶ Paraview (with Catalyst)

<sup>55</sup> <http://www.fatih.edu.tr/esma.yildirim/DIDC2014-workshop/DIDC-parashar.pdf>

<sup>56</sup> Paper: Combining in-situ and in-transit processing to enable extreme-scale scientific analysis, 2012

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# The I/O Stack

- Parallel application
  - ▶ Is distributed across many nodes
  - ▶ Has a specific access pattern for I/O
  - ▶ May use several interfaces
    - File (POSIX, ADIOS, HDF5), SQL, NoSQL
- Middleware provides high-level access
- POSIX: ultimately file system access
- Parallel file system: Lustre, GPFS, PVFS2
- File system: EXT4, XFS, NTFS
- Block device: utilizes storage media to export a block API
- Operating system: (orthogonal aspect)

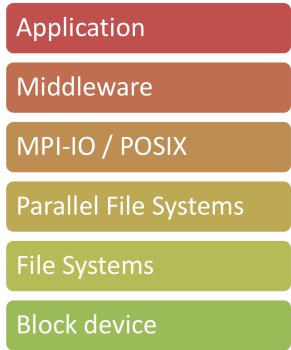


Figure: Example I/O stack

# Storage Media

- Many technologies are available with different characteristics
- Block-accessible or byte-addressable (NVRAM)

	Memristor	PCM	STT-RAM	DRAM	Flash	HD
Chip area per bit (F <sup>2</sup> )	4	8–16	14–64	6–8	4–8	n/a
Energy per bit (pJ) <sup>2</sup>	0.1–3	2–100	0.1–1	2–4	10 <sup>1</sup> –10 <sup>4</sup>	10 <sup>6</sup> –10 <sup>7</sup>
Read time (ns)	<10	20–70	10–30	10–50	25,000	5–8x10 <sup>6</sup>
Write time (ns)	20–30	50–500	13–95	10–50	200,000	5–8x10 <sup>6</sup>
Retention	>10 years	<10 years	Weeks	<Second	~10 years	~10 years
Endurance (cycles)	~10 <sup>12</sup>	10 <sup>7</sup> –10 <sup>8</sup>	10 <sup>15</sup>	>10 <sup>17</sup>	10 <sup>3</sup> –10 <sup>6</sup>	10 <sup>15</sup> ?
3D capability	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	n/a

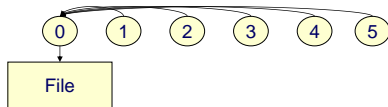
Figure: Source: ZDNet [100]



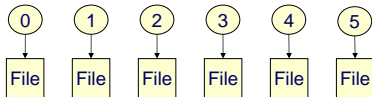
# Application I/O Types

## Serial, multi-file parallel and shared file parallel I/O

**Serial I/O**



**Parallel Multi-file I/O**



**Parallel Shared-file I/O**

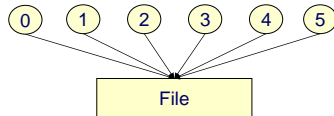
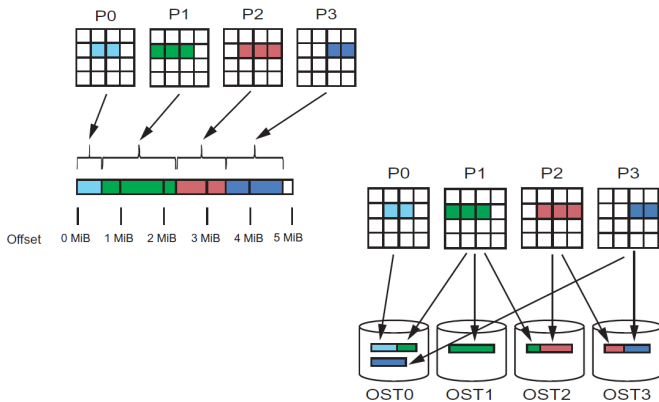


Figure: Source: Lonnie Crosby [101]

# File Striping: Distributing Data Across Devices

## File Striping: Physical and Logical Views



# NetCDF: Common Data form Language

- Notation used to describe NetCDF object is called CDL (network Common Data form Language)
  - ▶ Provides a convenient way of describing NetCDF datasets
- Utilities allow producing CDL text files from binary NetCDF datasets and vice-versa
- File contains dimensions, variables, and attributes
- Components are used together to capture the meaning of data and relations among data fields

```
netcdf filename {
dimensions:
  lat = 3 ;
  lon = 4 ;
  time = UNLIMITED ; // (2 currently)

variables:
  float lat(lat) ;
    lat:long_name = "Latitude" ;
    lat:units = "degrees_north" ;
  float lon(lon) ;
    lon:long_name = "Longitude" ;
    lon:units = "degrees_east" ;
  int time(time) ;
    time:long_name = "Time" ;
    time:units = "days since 1895-01-01" ;
    time:calendar = "gregorian" ;
  float rainfall(time, lat, lon) ;
    rainfall:long_name = "Precipitation" ;
    rainfall:units = "mm yr-1" ;
    rainfall:missing_value = -9999.f ;

// global attributes:
  :title = "Historical Climate Scenarios" ;
  :Conventions = "CF-1.0" ;

data:
  lat = 48.75, 48.25, 47.75 ;
  lon = -124.25, -123.75, -123.25, -122.75 ;
  time = 364, 730 ;
  rainfall =
    761, 1265, 2184, 1812, 1405, 688, 366, 269, 328, 455, 524, 877,
    1019, 714, 865, 697, 927, 926, 1452, 626, 275, 221, 196, 223 ;
}
```

Coordinate variable

Variable attribute

Global attribute

# Understanding of I/O Behavior and Systems

How can we understand system behavior?

- Observation

- ▶ Measurement of runs on the system
- ▶ Can be many cases to run
- ▶ Slight bias since measurement perturbs behavior
- ▶ Benchmarking: applications geared to exhibit certain system behavior

- Monitoring: system/tool-provided observation creation

- Theory: Performance models

- ▶ Used to determine performance for a system/workload
- ▶ Behavioral models  
Build models based on ensemble of observations

- System/application simulation

- ▶ Based on system and workload models

# How Can Benchmarks Help to Analyze I/O?

## ■ Benefits of benchmarks

- ▶ Can use simple/understandable sequence of operations
  - Ease comparison with theoretic values (that requires understandable metrics)
- ▶ May use a pattern like a realistic workloads
  - Provides performance estimates or bounds for workloads!
- ▶ Sometimes only possibility to understand hardware capabilities
  - Because the theoretic analysis may be infeasible

## ■ Benefits of benchmarks vs. applications

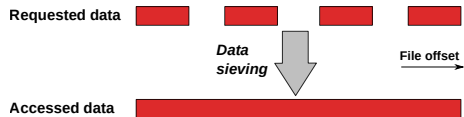
- ▶ Are easier to code/understand/setup/run than applications
- ▶ Come with less restrictive "license" limitations

## ■ Flexible testing (strategies)

- ▶ Single-shot: e.g., acceptance test
- ▶ Periodically: regression tests

# Optimizations

- There are too many tunables and optimizations for I/O
  - ▶ Read-ahead, write-behind, async I/O
  - ▶ Distribution of data across servers (e.g., Lustre stripe size)
  - ▶ We will investigate the complexity of one example...
- Performance benefit of I/O optimizations is non-trivial to predict
- Non-contiguous I/O supports data-sieving optimization
  - ▶ Transforms non-sequential I/O to large contiguous I/O
  - ▶ Tunable with MPI hints: enabled/disabled, buffer size
  - ▶ Benefit depends on system AND application



- Data sieving is difficult to parameterize
  - ▶ What should be recommended from a data center's perspective?

# Summary

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