

# p-MDAG

## *A Parallel MDAG Approach*

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**Abstract:** In this paper, we present a novel parallel full cube computation approach, named *p*-MDAG. The *p*-MDAG approach is a parallel version of MDAG sequential approach. The sequential MDAG approach outperforms the classic Star approach in dense, skewed and sparse scenarios. In general, the sequential MDAG approach is 25-35% faster than Star, consuming, on average, 50% less memory to represent the same data cube. The *p*-MDAG approach improves the runtime while keeping the low memory consumption; it uses an attribute-based data cube decomposition strategy which combines both task and data parallelism. The *p*-MDAG approach uses the dimensions attribute values to partition the data cube. It also redesigns the MDAG sequential algorithms to run in parallel. The *p*-MDAG approach provides both good load balance and similar sequential memory consumption. Its logical design can be implemented in shared-memory, distributed-memory and hybrid architectures with minimal adaptation.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

The Data Warehouse (DW) and Online Analytical Processing (OLAP) technologies perform data generalization by summarizing huge amount of data at varying levels of abstraction. They are based on a multidimensional model. The multidimensional model views the stored data as a data cube. The data cube was introduced in (Gray, 1997). It is a generalization of the group-by operator over all possible combinations of dimensions with various granularity aggregates. Each group-by, named *cubeoid* or view, corresponds to a set of cells, described as *tuples* over the *cubeoid* dimensions.

Since the introduction of DW and OLAP, efficient computation of cubes has become one of the most relevant and pervasive problems in the DW area. The problem is of exponential complexity with respect to the number of dimensions; therefore, the materialization of a cube involves both a huge number of cells and a substantial amount of time for its generation.

One alternative for dealing with the data cube size is to allow partial cube computation. Instead of computing the full cube, a subset of a given set of dimensions or a smaller range of possible values for some of the dimensions is computed. We have

iceberg-cubes (Beyer, 1999) (Han, 2001) (Lima, 2007) (Xin, 2007), closed-cubes (Xin, 2006), quotient-cubes (Lakshmanan, 2002) and frag-cubes (Li, 2004) which address different solutions to compute partial data cubes.

The second alternative for dealing with the data cube size is to introduce parallel processing which can increase the computational power through multiple processors. Moreover, the parallel processing can increase the IO bandwidth through multiple parallel disks. There are several parallel cube computation and query approaches in the literature (Chen, 2004) (Chen, 2008) (Dehne, 2001) (Dehne, 2002) (Goil, 1997) (Goil, 1998) (Goil, 1999) (Lu, 2003) (Muto, 1999).

In this paper, we present a novel parallel approach to compute data cubes named Parallel Multidimensional Direct Acyclic Graph Approach (*p*-MDAG). The *p*-MDAG approach combines both data and task parallelism. It is designed to be executed in distributed-memory, shared-memory or hybrid architectures. Low cost hybrid architecture can be represented by a cluster of multiprocessor PCs interconnected by a network or switch.

The *p*-MDAG approach uses the dimensions attribute values to partition the data cube. It also redesigns the two phase (base and aggregation

phases) MDAG sequential algorithms to run in parallel.

The MDAG approach, proposed in (Lima, 2007), outperforms the Star approach, proposed in (Xin, 2007), in dense, skewed and sparse scenarios, computing full or iceberg cubes. The Star approach outperforms some classical cube approaches, as presented in (Zhao, 1997), (Beyer, 1999) and (Han, 2001), in the same scenarios. In general, the MDAG approach is 25-35% faster than Star, using, on average, 50% less memory to represent the same data cube.

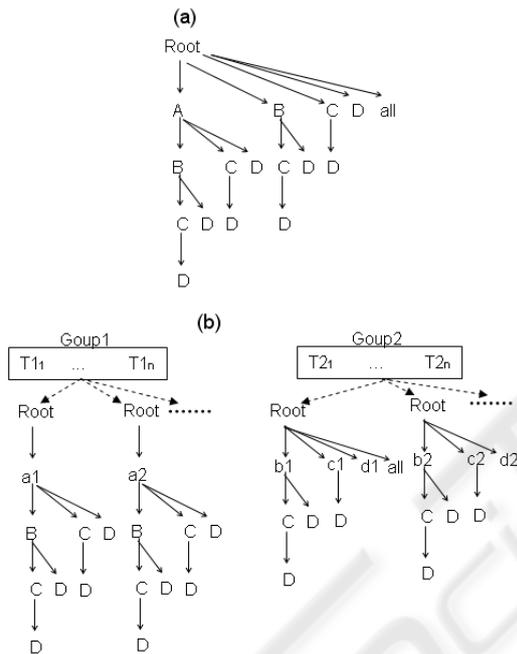


Figure 1: *p*-MDAG decomposition strategy.

Figure 1 illustrates the basis of *p*-MDAG data cube decomposition strategy. In Figure 1, we illustrate a data cube composed by four dimensions A, B, C and D with cardinalities  $C_A$ ,  $C_B$ ,  $C_C$  and  $C_D$ , respectively. We consider  $A=\{a_1; a_2; \dots\}$ ,  $B=\{b_1; b_2; \dots\}$ ,  $C=\{c_1; c_2; \dots\}$  and  $D=\{d_1; d_2; \dots\}$ .

In Figure 1-a, we have a unique lattice of *cuboids*, representing the *cuboids* A, B, C, D, AB, AC, AD, BC, BD, CD, ..., ABCD, all(\*). We use a prefixed data structure to represent such *cuboids*. A path from root to a node represents a *cuboid*.

The challenge is to find a set of disjoint cube partitions with similar size and a set of parallelizable tasks during the cube computation. In Figure 1-b, we first divide the lattice into partitions rooted by A attribute values. These partitions form the *cuboids* ABCD, ABC, AB and so on. The base *cuboid* ABCD is created from the base relation and the

remaining aggregated *cuboids* are created from the base *cuboid*, in a top-down fashion. All the *cuboids* rooted by A attribute values are created by the thread group 1.

In Figure 1,  $T_{11}, \dots, T_{1n}, T_{21}, \dots, T_{2n}$  represent the threads. The number of threads in a group depends on the number of processors in a machine. The number of partitions that each thread handles depends on the frequency of the attribute values of the dimensions. If the data is skewed, we can adopt sampling techniques to identify the approximate frequencies without full base relation scans.

After the execution of thread group 1, the thread group 2 starts its execution. The number of threads on both groups is not necessarily identical. We use identical thread group size to facilitate the explanation.

The second thread group creates the remaining *cuboids*, i.e., *cuboids* not started with dimension A (BCD, BC, B and so on). The threads in the second group are associated to the remaining dimensions attribute values. They read the partitions generated by the thread group 1 and update their own cube partitions. After the second thread group execution, the full cube is complete.

In summary, the *p*-MDAG approach minimizes regions of the algorithms that must be run sequentially. These regions are limited to the thread groups configuration, start-up and join. No synchronization is required to generate the aggregated *cuboids*. The *p*-MDAG approach achieves a good load balance, since each partition have similar size. Finally, *p*-MDAG and MDAG have similar memory consumption. The unique redundancy in *p*-MDAG approach is the internal node. Each cube partition has its shared internal nodes to avoid synchronizations, but the number of internal nodes is insignificant when compared with the number of non internal nodes.

We run the *p*-MDAG approach using base relations with different cardinalities, dimensions *tuples* and skew. In general, the *p*-MDAG approach scales very well in a shared-memory multiprocessor machine, where a linear speedup is not reachable to a memory-bound application, since the intensive memory access increases the bus system contention. Most bus-based systems do not scale well because of contention on the bus (Dongarra, 2003).

The remaining of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 the sequential MDAG approach is explained. In Section 3, the *p*-MDAG approach is explained in details, the algorithms are described and the performance results are presented. Discussion on the potential extensions and

limitations of the *p*-MDAG approach is described in Section 4. We conclude our work in Section 5.

## 2 MDAG APPROACH

The sequential MDAG approach, proposed in (Lima, 2007), computes a full cube in two phases: first, it scans the base relation to generate the base *cuboid*; second, it scans the base *cuboid* to generate the aggregated *cuboids*. The aggregated *cuboids* are generated in a top-down fashion.

The MDAG approach uses internal nodes in a data cube representation to reduce the number of redundant nodes. The presence of internal nodes also reduces both the number of branches and the height of the MDAG cube representation, as Figure 2 illustrates. During the base and aggregated *cuboids* construction, the MDAG guarantees no internal node redundancies in the lattice.

Figure 2 illustrates Star and MDAG full cubes, computed from R. R is a base relation with 11 tuples, one measure and three dimensions (ABC) with cardinalities 3, 3 and 2, respectively.

The MDAG approach uses Direct Acyclic Graphs (DAGs) to represent individual *cuboids*. In Figure 2-b, a path from root to a leaf node or a path from root to leaf node plus an internal node represents a MDAG cube cell. In Figure 2-a, a path from root to a leaf node represents a Star cube cell.

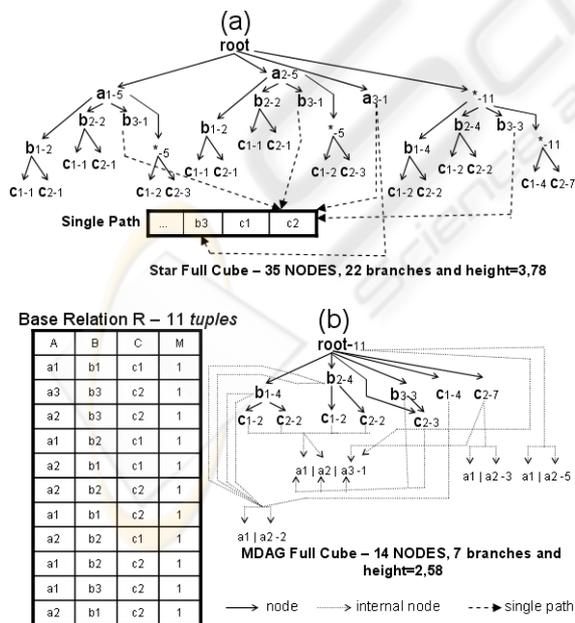


Figure 2: Star and MDAG full cubes.

During the aggregated *cuboids* construction, there are several single paths in the lattice. Consider a single path a branch of a data structure where no forks exist. In Star approach, the first node of the single path points to some attribute values and the remaining single path nodes are removed, as Figure 2-a illustrates. In MDAG, a similar idea is proposed. In Figure 2-b, path  $b_3c_2$  is a single path and  $c_2$  is used as both base and aggregated node. Both Star and MDAG approaches avoid the creation of new nodes to represent the aggregations derived from single paths.

In general, MDAG is 25-35% faster than Star, consuming, on average, 50% less memory to represent the same data cube.

## 3 p-MDAG APPROACH

The *p*-MDAG approach adopts the producer/consumer model to minimize synchronizations. Figure 3 illustrates the logical design of *p*-MDAG approach. A 4D data cube ABCD is used to exemplify our approach. Each dimension has equal cardinality *n* to facilitate the explanation.

The original base relation *R* can be partitioned according to the number of disks and processors. *R* can be partitioned into  $R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n$ , where  $R = R_1 \cup R_2 \dots \cup R_n$ . Each  $R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n$  base relation represents a subset of *R* without any arrangement, i.e., the original *R* tuples order is maintained in  $R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n$  base relations. These independent relations are stored into independent disks, being read simultaneously by IO threads. Each independent relation has its own IO thread. The IO threads implement the producer in the producer/consumer model. They share the resources where the tuples are inserted. The unique synchronization point of the entire solution is the resource, i.e., the resource access methods *putTuple* and *getTuple*.

The IO threads have the information where each tuple must be inserted. The criterion for classification is based on the first dimension attribute values. In our example, dimension A attribute values are selected. In the MDAG sequential approach, one dimension (the highest cardinality dimension) is used to produce the internal nodes. If dimension A is selected to form such internal nodes, the dimension B attribute values become the criteria for classification. In general, it is easy to adequate our logical design to a cube compu-

tation algorithm.

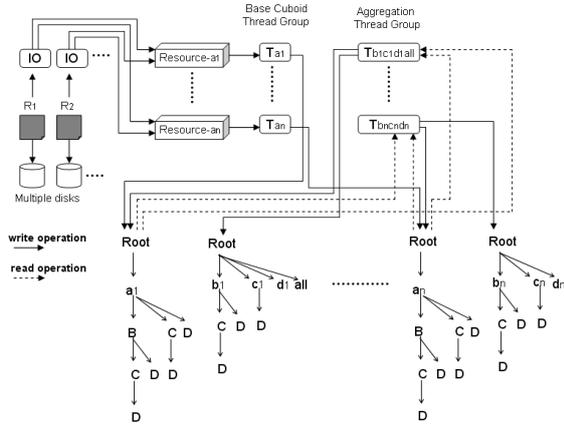


Figure 3: *p*-MDAG logical design.

Figure 3 illustrates the creation of one resource per attribute value of dimension A. The same criterion occurs to the number of threads in groups 1 and 2. The 1-1 relationship is used to facilitate the explanation. The number of IO threads is proportional to both number of disks and processors. The number of resources and threads in group 1 and 2 are proportional to the number of processors. As mentioned before, the number of attribute values that each thread of each group is associated depends on the frequency of each attribute value in the base relation.

We use Figure 3 to simulate a complete example execution. We use a tuple  $t:a_1b_1c_1d_1$  in our execution. First,  $t$  must be stored in one file. Suppose it is stored in  $R_1$ . The IO thread associated to  $R_1$  loads  $t$  and decides which resource  $t$  must be inserted. In our example,  $t$  is inserted in resource $_{a_1}$ . After  $t$  insertion, one thread of group 1 is notified, indicating that there is a resource to be consumed. The threads of group 1 implement the consumer of the producer/consumer model.

In our example, thread  $T_{a_1}$  is notified. It inserts  $t$  on its cube partition. After  $t$  insertion,  $T_{a_1}$  tries to obtain more tuples from its resource. If there is no tuple, the thread waits until a notification occurs. This step continues until there is no more tuples to be loaded from the disks. The IO threads indicate the resources when such a condition occurs.

To complete the explanation, we consider  $t$  as the last tuple to be inserted. After  $T_{a_1}$  inserts  $t$  on its partition, it verifies that there is no more tuples to be inserted in the resource and starts the generation of the aggregations which begins with  $a_1$ . In our example,  $a_1b_1d_1$ ,  $a_1c_1d_1$  and  $a_1d_1$  cells are created. Note that, the remaining aggregated cells  $a_1b_1c_1$ ,  $a_1b_1$

and  $a_1$  have being created during the base cuboid construction.

After the thread group 1 execution, the thread group 2 starts its execution. To continue the explanation, we consider thread  $T_{a_1}$  the last thread that finishes the generation of the aggregations. After  $T_{a_1}$  execution, the threads  $T_{b_1c_1d_1all}$ ,  $T_{b_2c_2d_2}$ , ...  $T_{bncndn}$  start. The thread  $T_{b_1c_1d_1all}$  scans the cube partitions generated previously by thread group 1, identifying sub-structures that begin with  $b_1$ ,  $c_1$  and  $d_1$ . These sub-structures are copied to a new cube partition, maintained by  $T_{b_1c_1d_1all}$ . The *all* node are updated with the measure values of nodes  $a_1 \dots a_n$  during the same scan. The result is another part of a data cube, composed by cells  $b_1, c_1, d_1, b_1c_1, b_1d_1, c_1d_1$  and *all*.

Assuming that thread  $T_{b_1c_1d_1all}$  is the last thread that completes the generation of the remaining aggregations, after its execution, the full data cube is complete, as Figure 3 illustrates.

### 3.1 Architectures

The abstractions, such as IO thread, resource, threads of group 1 and 2 can be configured in any architecture. Suppose a shared-memory multiprocessor architecture with multiple disks. In such architecture, we instantiate IO threads according to the number of disks and threads of group 1 according to the total number of processors minus the used to IO (suppose there are sufficient processors for IO and group 1). Since the group 2 threads run after IO and group 1 threads, the number of threads of group 2 can be equal the total number of processors. Each thread of group 1 and 2 are associated with different number of attribute values, but there is no restriction to this configuration. If the attribute values are combined according to their frequencies, the system scales well if we consider the hardware limitations described before.

In distributed-memory architecture each processing node can store a part of the base relation, one IO thread, one resource, one thread of group 1 and one of group 2. Each thread of group 1 shares a resource with one IO thread and the group 2 threads must scan all partitions manipulated by group 1 threads. Due to these observations, in a distributed implementation both resources and cube partitions manipulated by group 1 must enable remote access. The remaining producer/consumer ideas can be used without change.

If each processing node is a multiprocessor machine with multiple disks, a similar shared-memory solution can be proposed to each processing

node. The producer/consumer model modifications also occur to enable remote access to some abstractions of  $p$ -MDAG approach.

Due to the limited space in this paper, we compute only full cubes. We run the  $p$ -MDAG approach in a shared-memory multiprocessor machine with multiple disks. In Section 4, we discuss some  $p$ -MDAG extensions to both compute iceberg cubes and run  $p$ -MDAG in distributed-memory or hybrid architectures. In the next section, we describe the main algorithms of  $p$ -MDAG approach.

### 3.2 Algorithms

In this section, we describe some algorithms of  $p$ -MDAG approach. The IO thread and resource algorithms are not detailed due to their simplicity. The first algorithm reads a flat file *tuple-by-tuple*, inserting each *tuple* in a resource. The second algorithm maintains a collection of *tuples*, enabling to insert or remove *tuples* from it. Each insertion causes a notification and if the collection of *tuples* is empty the resource waits until a new insertion occurs.

The thread group 1 algorithm is described as follows:

```

Algorithm 1 Group 1
Input: A resource  $R_i$ 
Output: A cube partition
Call Group1();
procedure Group1() {
var: resource  $R_i$ ;
1: while ( $R_i$  has tuples or  $R_i$  is not
finished) do {
2:   tuple  $t \leftarrow$  one  $R_i$  tuple;
3:   measure  $m \leftarrow t$  measure;
4:   traverse the partition creating
new nodes or updating nodes measure,
according to  $t$  attribute values;
5:   Node  $l \leftarrow$  leaf node of the
traversal;
6:   insert or update  $l$  internal node,
using  $t$  and  $m$ ; } //end while
7: Node  $n \leftarrow$  root node of the partition;
8: for (Node  $d : n$  descendants)
9:   call  $mdagAggreg(null, d)$ ; }

```

Lines 2-5 of procedure Group1 generate part of the base *cuboid* from the *tuples* inserted in  $R_i$ . One dimension is used to form the internal nodes, so the respective  $t$  attribute value and  $m$  measure are used to create such an internal node (line 6). One of the main advantages of MDAG approach is to share internal nodes among non internal nodes. The internal node sharing method is summarized by line

6. A detailed description of how internal nodes can be shared is found in (Lima, 2007).

After generating part of the base *cuboid*, the aggregation process starts. The aggregations must be rooted by the attribute value(s) selected to form the partitions. For example, in Figure 3 the aggregations generated by thread group 1 must be rooted by  $a_1$  in the first partition,  $a_2$  in the second, and so on. In Group1 procedure (lines 7-9), we generate the aggregations of one partition. For each descendant of the partition root node a *mdagAggreg* procedure call is made. In Figure 3, for each B attribute value a *mdagAggreg* call occurs, resulting in  $a_1BD$ ,  $a_1CD$  and  $a_1D$  cells of *cuboids* ABD, ACD and AD, respectively. The second partition produces a second set of cells of ABD, ACD and AD, and so on. The *mdagAggreg* procedure is described in (Lima, 2007).

It is important to stress that the direct aggregation method, proposed in (Lima, 2007), can also be used by Group1 procedure to avoid the creation of some aggregated nodes. The direct aggregation method is an alternative to the single path compression method, proposed in (Xin, 2007). The direct aggregation method maintains the single path nodes with no new nodes to represent their aggregations. The presence of such single path nodes guarantees the group 2 partitions integrity, since a single descendant node in group 1 partition can become a multiple descendant node in group 2 partition.

The thread group 2 algorithm is described as follows:

```

Algorithm 2 Group 2
Input: Partitions of group 1
Output: A cube partition
For (partition  $f$ : partitions of group
1)
  Call Group2( $f$  root);
procedure Group2(Node  $n$ ) {
var map of attribute values  $M$ ;
1: for (Node  $d$ :  $n$  descendants)
2:   for (Node  $d'$ :  $d$  descendants)
3:     if ( $M$  contains  $d'$  attribute
value) copy  $d'$ , including  $d'$  sub-
structure, to the current partition;}

```

The procedure Group2 scans all partitions generated by group 1 and copies them to its partition. The copy is filtered by the attribute values contained in a map. Only sub-structures rooted by attribute values contained in such a map are copied. The map is generated by a main application which executes a sampling algorithm to identify the attribute values approximate frequencies. The investigation of the best sampling techniques is out of the scope of this work. In  $p$ -MDAG, we

implement a version of the simple random sampling, proposed in (Olken, 1990).

The main application also starts the IO threads, group 1 and 2 threads. It controls the start of thread group 2 after the last thread of group 1 has finished.

In this section, we present the main algorithms contained in  $p$ -MDAG approach. The algorithms guarantee a unique point of synchronization. Only the simple *getTuple* and *putTuple* methods of the resource are synchronized. Moreover, the attribute-based data cube decomposition strategy gives flexibility to specify the number of threads according to the hardware. In the next section, we present the  $p$ -MDAG approach performance analysis.

### 3.3 Performance Analysis

A comprehensive performance study is conducted to check the efficiency and the scalability of the proposed algorithms. All the algorithms are coded in Java 64 bits (JRE 6.0 update 7). We run the algorithms in a dual Intel Xeon E5405 with 16GB of RAM. Each Intel Xeon E5405 is a quad-core processor, so we have a total of 8 processors (2 GHz each) in the machine. The 16GB of RAM is shared among the 8 processors. There are 4 SATAII disks (7200rpm). The system runs Windows Server 2003 R2 64 bits. All base relations can fit in the main memory.

For the remaining of this section,  $D$  is the number of dimensions,  $C$  the cardinality of each dimension,  $T$  the number of *tuples* in a base relation, and  $S$  the skew of the data. When  $S$  is equal to 0, the data is uniform; as  $S$  increases, the data is more skewed.

The first set of experiments test all abstractions, illustrated in Figure 3, running together. We fix the number of IO threads to two, i.e., each base relation is divided and stored into two disks. The number of resources varies from one to six. The number of threads of group 1 and 2 also varies from one to six. The number of threads on both groups is always identical.

The runtimes are compared with respect to the cardinality (Figure 4), *tuple* size (Figure 5), dimension (Figure 6) and skew (Figure 7). In all scenarios, the runtime decreases almost linear from experiment with one thread (one thread of group 1 and one of group 2) to two threads (two threads of group 1 and two of group 2). After two threads, the runtime decreases slowly, almost stopping after five threads running simultaneously.

We accomplish an experiment without the IO threads, i.e., assuming the resources with all *tuples* of the base relation. The runtime decreases, but the curves continue similar, so due to the limited space we omit the graphics in this paper.

This behaviour is justified by the contention on the bus system. The cube partitions are shared nothing, but the architecture is shared-memory. With one thread, the cube partitions manipulated by group 1 and 2 are created/updated with no concurrence. As the number of threads increases, the number of simultaneous operations also increases and the bus system becomes the bottleneck of the execution.

To prove our assumption that the bus system becomes the bottleneck of the execution, we run only one thread per time, collecting the worst time of thread group 1 and 2. We consider all *tuples* in their resources. We instantiate all threads to consider the main application controls in our results. In Figure 8, we present the result when computing a base relation with 8 dimensions, cardinality 10 on each dimension, skew 0 and 1M *tuples*. In Figure 9, we present the result when computing a base relation with 6 dimensions, cardinality 100 on each dimension, skew 1.5 and 1M *tuples*. Due to the similarity in the results, we omit the graphics where we change the cardinality and number of *tuples*.

The speedup, illustrated in Figures 8 and 9, is one of the key metrics for the evaluation of parallel database systems (DeWitt, 1992). It indicates the degree to which adding processors decreases the runtime. In our context, the relative speedup for  $p$  threads is defined as  $S_p = RT_1 / RT_p$ , where  $RT_1$  is the runtime with one thread and  $RT_p$  is the runtime with  $p$  threads. An ideal  $S_p$  is equal to  $p$ . That is, the curve of an ideal  $S_p$  is a linear diagonal line.

Figures 8 and 9 illustrate an almost linear curve for  $p$ -MDAG approach. There are some points in the curve where the  $p$ -MDAG runtime is below the linear. The attribute-based data cube decomposition strategy associates a set of attribute values to group 1 and 2. Sometimes, each thread is associated to more attribute values than others. In our example, when we run three threads one thread of group 1 is associated to four attribute values and the other two threads are associated to three attribute values of dimension A. The same occur to group 2 threads, i.e., B, C and D cardinalities have no exact division by three. Besides unbalanced attribute values association, the skew can be high and the sampling method can output incorrect approximate frequencies, as illustrated in Figure 9. The skew affects the sampling methods results and all other data cube decomposition strategies of the literature.

In the second set of experiments, we present the runtime and memory consumption of each thread of groups 1 and 2. We use the same base relation with 8 dimensions, cardinality 10 on each dimension, skew 0 and 1M tuples. Due to the similarity in the load balance results, we omit the graphics where we change the skew, cardinality and number of tuples. Figures 10 and 11 illustrate the runtime when we increase the number of threads from one to six. In Figure 12 and 13, we present the memory consumption for the same experiment.

In Figures 10-13, we consider T11, T12, ... T16 threads of group 1 and T21, T22, ... T26 threads of group 2. In general, the p-MDAG has a good load balance, since group 1 and 2 are not executed simultaneously. Groups 1 and 2 must be analysed separately.

In Figure 14, we test the IO thread scalability. We simulate a base relation with 5 dimensions, skew 0, cardinality 30 on each dimension and 5M tuples. The base relation is divided into 2, 3 and 4 equal size files. Each IO thread reads its file and inserts the tuples in the resources according to the attribute values of one dimension. In general, the IO threads scale well, since we have a synchronized point in the resources and a contention on the bus system to consider.

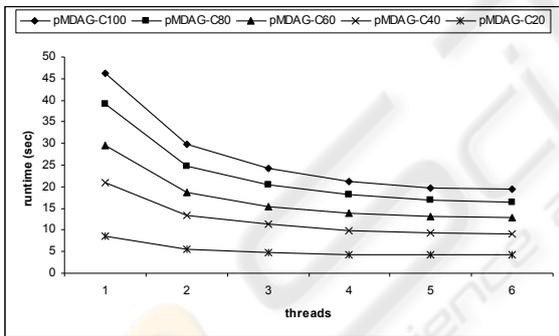


Figure 4: Cardinality D=5, T=1M, S=0.

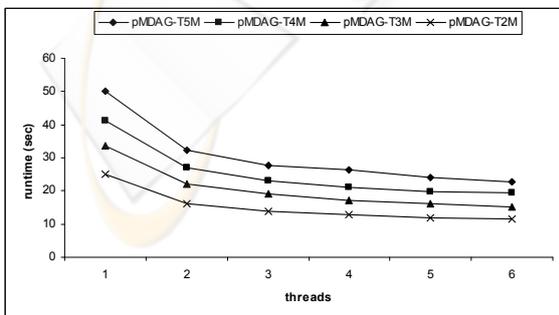


Figure 5: Tuples D=5, C=30, S=0.

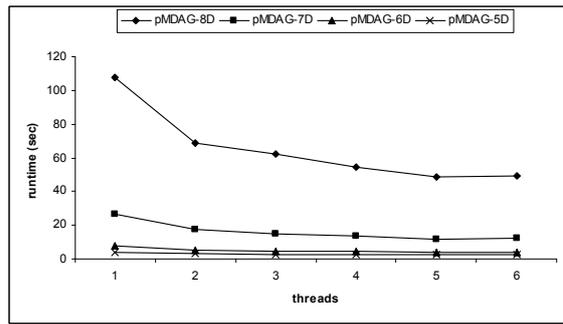


Figure 6: Dimension C=10, T=1M, S=0.

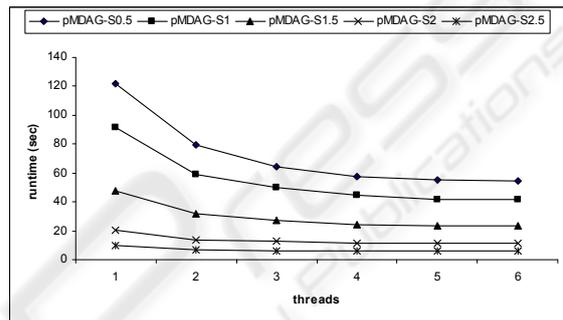


Figure 7: Skew D=6, T=1M, C=100.

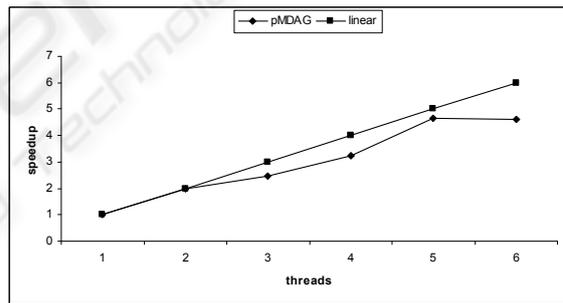


Figure 8: p-MDAG dimension speedup.

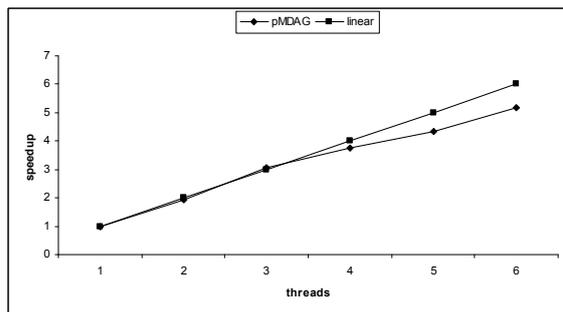


Figure 9: p-MDAG skew speedup.

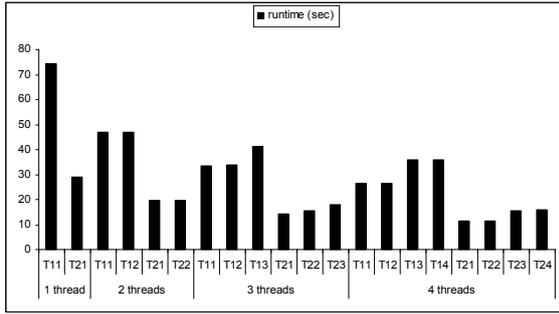


Figure 10: Threads runtime from 1-4.

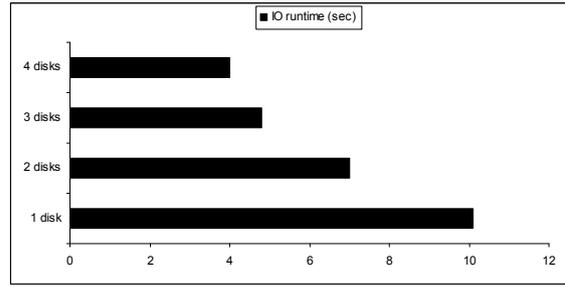


Figure 14: IO threads scalability.

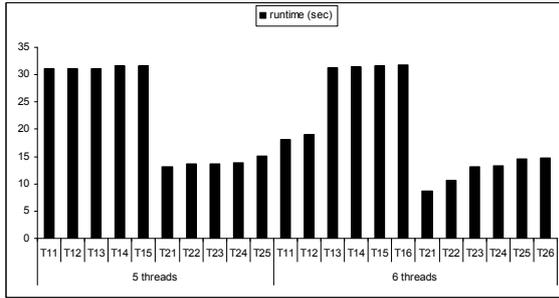


Figure 11: Threads runtime from 5-6.

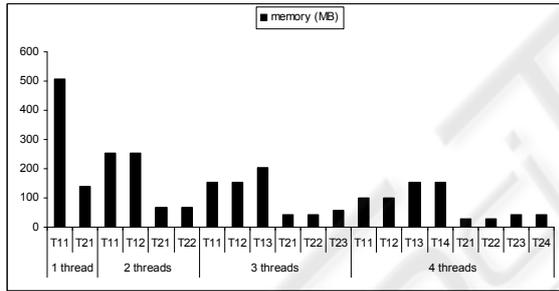


Figure 12: Threads memory consumption from 1-4.

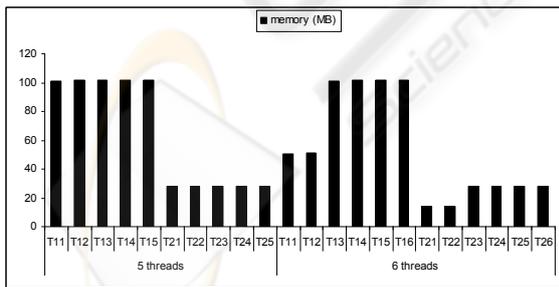


Figure 13: Threads memory consumption from 5-6.

## 4 DISCUSSION

In this section, we discuss a few issues related to  $p$ -MDAG and point out some research directions.

There is vulnerability in  $p$ -MDAG design, illustrated in Figure 3. The MDAG sequential approach can compute full or iceberg cubes. Iceberg cubes cannot be computed efficiently using thread group 1 and 2. Unfortunately, the hybrid iceberg computation of MDAG (top-down computation with bottom-up pruning) cannot prune infrequent nodes of group 1 partitions, since these infrequent nodes can become frequent when aggregated in group 2 partitions. An alternative to solve the iceberg cube problem is illustrated in Figure 15.

In the second design, the resources and the threads of group are associated to one or more attribute values of each dimension of a data cube. We use a simple association  $a_1b_1c_1d_1 \dots a_nb_nc_nd_n$  to facilitate the explanation. For each *tuple* the IO thread inserts, in the worst case,  $D$  different *tuples* in  $D$  different resources, where  $D$  is the number of dimensions in a data cube. For example, if the resources are configured using the attribute values of Figure 15, a *tuple*  $a_1b_2c_3d_4$  will demand  $a_1b_2c_3d_4$  insertion on resource $_{a_1b_1c_1d_1a_1}$ ,  $b_2c_3d_4$  insertion on resource $_{a_2b_2c_2d_2}$ ,  $c_3d_4$  insertion on resource $_{a_3b_3c_3d_3}$  and  $d_4$  insertion on resource $_{a_4b_4c_4d_4}$ . The same example using the logical design presented in Figure 3 demands one insertion of  $a_1b_2c_3d_4$  on resource $_{a_1}$ .

The original thread group 1 generates part of the base *cuboid* during the *tuples* insertion. Only after the complete *tuples* insertion the threads of group 1 start the generation of the aggregations. Using the logical design illustrated in Figure 14, each thread of group 1 generates part of both base *cuboid* and each aggregated *cuboid*, i.e., it generates, for example,  $a_1BCD$ ,  $b_1CD$ ,  $c_1D$  and  $d_1$  cells instead of only  $a_1BCD$  cells.

In summary, each thread of group 1, illustrated in Figure 15, will demand longer time to insert the

same number of *tuples* when compared to each thread of group 1, illustrated in Figure 3.

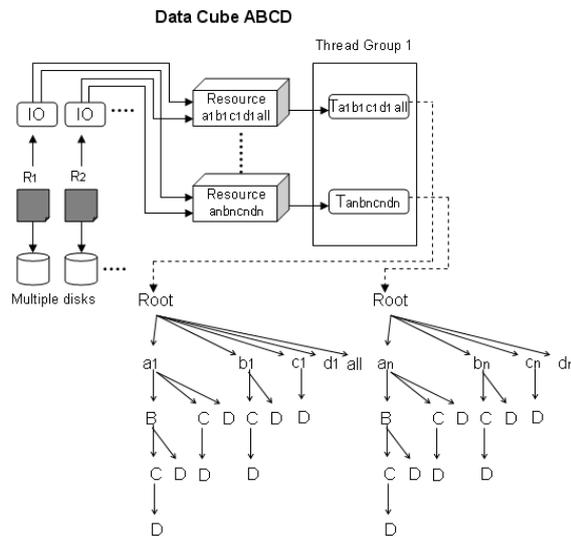


Figure 15:  $p$ -MDAG logical design II.

On the other hand, after the base and some aggregated *cuboids* generation by thread group 1, the same group can perform the generation of the remaining aggregations, pruning infrequent nodes efficiently, as (Lima, 2007) (Xin, 2007) do sequentially. The *all* node can be generated by one of the resources. After a *tuple* insertion in the resource the IO thread also updates the *all* node in the same resource. After the last *tuple* insertion in the last file, a specific thread is notified to insert the *all* node on its cube partition.

The logical design illustrated in Figure 15 increases the number of *tuples* on each resource and the number of initial insertions of thread group 1, so it must be studied carefully.

The advantage of a distributed-memory or shared-nothing architecture is that accesses to local data can be quite fast. On the other hand, accesses to remote memories require much more effort. In general, data placement is important to reduce the number of data references, since any data reference requires communication. (Dongarra, 2003)

The logical design proposed in Figure 3 requires remote access to resources and partitions manipulated by thread group 1. Each partition can have million of nodes and each thread of group 2 must scan all partitions of group 1, so there is a communication overhead. The logical design, illustrated in Figure 15, requires remote access to resources only, but additional *tuples* can increase the communication overhead. In summary, we have to accomplish some experiments with different

architectures and both logical designs presented in this paper, since distributed-memory architecture introduces communication overhead and shared-memory architecture introduces contentions on the bus system.

The utilization of secondary memory is another aspect to be considered. Parallel approaches partition the data cubes. Each partition can be stored to disk, enabling one partition per time in main memory. One may also consider the case that even a specific partition may not fit in memory. For this situation, occurred specially in distributed-memory architectures where each processing node has only one cube partition, the projection-based pre-processing, proposed in (Han, 2001), can be an interesting solution.

Finally, we must consider how queries can be designed. We believe that any cube query method, including iceberg, top- $k$ , point, inquired and rank query methods, can be easily integrated with  $p$ -MDAG approach.

## 5 CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we present a novel parallel cube computation and representation approach, named  $p$ -MDAG. The  $p$ -MDAG approach proposes an attribute-based data cube decomposition strategy which combines both task and data parallelism. The  $p$ -MDAG approach uses the dimensions attribute values to partition the data cube. It also redesigns the two phase (base and aggregation phases) MDAG sequential algorithms to run in parallel. In general,  $p$ -MDAG approach has both good load balance and similar memory consumption among its threads, as our experiments demonstrate. Its logical design can be implemented in shared-memory, distributed-memory and hybrid architectures with minimal adaptation.

The logical design has vulnerability in computing iceberg-cubes. We propose an alternative design to solve the problem. The iceberg logical design, illustrated in Figure 15, must be tested in shared-memory architecture. Moreover, both designs must be tested in distributed-memory and hybrid architectures. Finally, an interesting study is the development of some extensions to enable  $p$ -MDAG to use efficiently secondary memory during the cube computation.

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