

# Performance Evaluation and Optimization of Multi-dimensional Indexes in Hive

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**Abstract**—Apache Hive has been widely used for big data processing over large scale clusters by many companies. It provides a declarative query language called HiveQL. The efficiency of filtering out query-irrelevant data from HDFS closely affects the performance of query processing. This is especially true for multi-dimensional, high-selective, and few columns involving queries, which provides sufficient information to reduce the amount of bytes read. Indexing (Compact Index, Aggregate Index, Bitmap Index, DGFIndex, and the index in ORC file) and columnar storage (RCFile, ORC file, and Parquet) are powerful techniques to achieve this. However, it is not trivial to choosing a suitable index and columnar storage based on data and query features. In this paper, we compare the data filtering performance of the above indexes with different columnar storage formats by conducting comprehensive experiments using uniform and skew TPC-H data sets and various multi-dimensional queries, and suggest the best practices of improving multi-dimensional queries in Hive under different conditions.

**Index Terms**—Hadoop, Hive, multi-dimensional index, performance evaluation.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

FOR today's enterprises, fast and timely analysis on large scale data has become an essential task, since it is the cornerstone of decision-making for managers. Data models that involve multiple dimensions are fairly common, especially for traditional enterprises, for example, Smart Grid applications [23] and retail business analysis [7]. Queries often contain multi-dimensional predicates and analyze data from various perspectives. For these queries, only a subset of data is query-related and it is crucial to filter out irrelevant data, especially for I/O intensive applications.

Because of its flexible scalability, high availability, and cost efficiency, Hadoop is adopted by many enterprises as the underlying system to store various kinds of massive data. Hive [32] is a data warehouse like tool on top of Hadoop, and it provides the declarative query language HiveQL, which empowers analysts to run deep analysis on structured data stored on HDFS. After receiving a query, Hive is responsible for transforming and optimizing it into a directed acyclic graph (DAG) of MapReduce jobs. Compared with other emerging SQL on Hadoop systems, for example Presto, Drill, Pig, and Impala, Hive features the most comprehensive index techniques. Examples of supported indexes are Compact Index [4], Aggregate Index [2], Bitmap

Index [3], index in the ORC file [19], and DGFIndex [23]. In addition, columnar storage is another efficient technique to filter out data, because it can skip query-irrelevant columns, examples of columnar storage in Hive are RCFile [18], ORC file [19], and Parquet [1]. Thus, index and columnar storage are effective techniques to filter query-irrelevant data horizontally and vertically.

However, it is not trivial to choose suitable kind of indexes and columnar storage formats for specific application scenarios, the reasons are as follows: (1) the storage form of index table is different, for example, ORC file embeds index in data file, Compact Index stores its index table as a Hive table. Different storage forms will lead to different reading efficiency of index. (2) the filtering granularity is different, for example, the minimum filtering granularity of ORC file is 10,000 lines, and that of Compact Index is a split. (3) to improve the filtering performance of indexes, sorting table is a frequently used pre-processing method, currently Sort By, Order By and Cluster By are available methods to achieve this. But different sorting methods will lead to different relative order of records and different influence on index performance. (4) these indexes also have different filtering performance on different underlying storage formats. (5) query selectivity, for example, some indexes are applicable for large selectivity query and some are applicable for small selectivity query. (6) there is no comprehensive description and comparison of current indexes in Hive that can be used. Thus, it is challenging problem to choose suitable index technique in different scenarios for Hive users.

In addition, index comparison and selection has been widely studied in traditional RDBMS area [11], [26] and spatial database area [9], [20], [25], but they either focus on one-dimensional indexes, or are mainly suitable for spatial data. Moreover, because the storage and reading model of index table and data table is different between traditional database and Hive: for the former, the data is well-organized as heap file or tree-based file and processed locally in one server.

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However, for the latter, the data is stored in distributed file system (e.g. HDFS), and processed by many servers parallel. Thus, the conclusions of previous work can not be directly reference by Hive user. Besides, in the SQL on Hadoop system area, the existing work [15] only did a simple one-dimensional index benchmark of ORC file, does not yet have comprehensive summary and comparison of various indexes in Hive on multi-dimensional query processing.

To provide guidelines for Hive user and find the best practice of improving the multi-dimensional query processing, we perform a detailed survey and summary on the indexes of Hive. Besides, we use uniform TPC-H [7] and skew TPC-H [31] workload to generate test data, and by doing extensive experiments, to get insights of data filtering characteristics and applicable scenarios of different indexes in Hive. Moreover, we also analyze the influence of the combination of index and columnar storage on reducing redundant data I/O. Because all SQL on Hadoop systems use HDFS as underlying storage and share the same data reading schema, thus the best practice is also applicable to other SQL on Hadoop systems.

Our contributions are three-fold: (1) We perform an extensive survey and comparison of current indexes in Hive, and we also point out their strengths, weaknesses, and applicable scenarios. (2) For comparison fairness, we present two improvements to the original DGFIndex: first, we migrate it to columnar storage, RCFile, and ORC file. Second, we implement a z-order [24] based slice placement method to improve the sequential reading performance. (3) We comprehensively benchmark multiple representative indexes on columnar storage in Hive and evaluate related issues on data reading efficiency via indexes. Based on the results, we present best practices to improve multi-dimensional query performance with indexes and columnar storage. Furthermore, we summarize several important guidelines for index design in SQL on Hadoop systems.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces some background knowledge about Hadoop and Hive. Section 3 surveys current indexes in Hive. Section 4 summarizes the different preprocessing methods to improve Compact Index and ORC file. Section 5 introduces two improvements of DGFIndex. Section 6 summarizes the data filtering process of various indexes in Hive. Section 7 will give a detailed analysis of the experimental results. Section 8 gives a summary of the evaluations results and provides some guidelines for best practices of multi-dimensional query processing in Hive. Section 9 presents related work. Finally, Section 10 concludes the paper.

## 2 HADOOP AND HIVE OVERVIEW

### 2.1 Hadoop

Hadoop consists of Hadoop File System (HDFS) and Hadoop MapReduce. It is a master/slave architecture. The master of HDFS is called NameNode, it stores the meta information of the file system, which is held in memory to accelerate the accessing. The meta information includes the structure of all directories, the file-block mapping, locations of blocks on the DataNodes, etc. The slaves of HDFS are called DataNodes, they store all non meta data. In HDFS, data files are divided into many equal-size chunks (default

is 64MB), we refer to them as a *split* in this paper. The splits that belong to a single file are distributed over DataNodes by default with tripple replications for fault tolerance. The master of MapReduce is called JobTracker, and the slaves are called TaskTrackers. JobTracker is responsible for getting the splits' location of input data file from NameNode and assigning a mapper for each split to process it. Generally, a MapReduce job consists of three phases: Map, Shuffle, Reduce. In the Map phase, each mapper parses and reads every record from a split by iteratively calling the *next* function of a specific *RecordReader*, then applies the map function onto each record. In the Shuffle phase, a *Partitioner* will assign each output record of mappers to some reducer, the assignment method can be specified by user. In the Reduce phase, reducer applies the reduce function to the value list that has the same key.

### 2.2 Hive

Hive is a kind of SQL on Hadoop system, which provides HiveQL, a SQL-like declarative language. Hive can translate each HiveQL program into a DAG of MapReduce jobs. In the Map phase and Reduce phase of each MapReduce job, they consists of various Hive operators. A table in Hive is a directory in HDFS, the files in this directory store the data of this table. The file's storage formats are classified into two categories: row storage (TextFile, SequenceFile, etc.) and columnar storage (RCFile, ORC file, Parquet). The minimum reading unit of row storage is one record, and the minimum reading unit of columnar storage is a row group, whose size is much smaller than split, but much larger than one line. For example, the RCFile [18] stores the data file as a sequence of 4MB row groups, in contrast to that, the ORC file first organizes the data file into stripes and then organizes the records in each stripe into row groups, whose size is 10,000 lines.

## 3 INDEXES IN HIVE

In this part, we survey current indexes in Hive, including partition, Compact Index, the index in ORC file, and DGFIndex. Because Parquet does not support index in latest Hive [1], [6], we do not cover it in this section, but we still use it as a baseline in our experiments.

### 3.1 Partition

Partition horizontally divides a table into several sub-tables based on the value of the partition dimension (usually it is a date or date range), each sub-table is a directory in HDFS. When Hive processes a query with partitions, it can locate relevant partitions as the input of the MapReduce job. Thus, partition can be seen as a coarse-grained index. However, for multi-dimensional queries, partition is not flexible, especially when the cardinality, which represents the number of distinct values, of each dimension is very large. Creating partitions on multiple high-cardinality dimensions will generate too many directories, which will occupy a large amount of memory of the NameNode, because all metadata of HDFS is stored in the NameNode's memory as described in Section 2.1. Besides, when processing query in the case of too many partitions, Hive needs to read lots of meta information about partitions from metastore, which will create substantial overhead. However, partition is a good complement for indexes, because indexes are always created on each partition.

TABLE 1  
Schema of a 3-dimensional Compact Index

Column Name	Type
index dimension 1	type in base table
index dimension 2	type in base table
index dimension 3	type in base table
_bucketname	string
_offset	array<bigint>

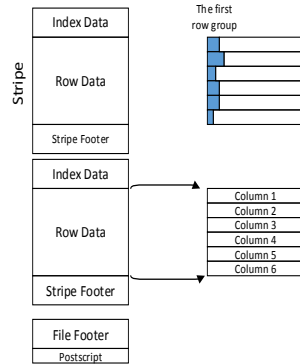


Fig. 1. ORC file structure

### 3.2 Compact Index

Compact Index [4], Aggregate Index [2], and Bitmap Index [3] are the first kind of indexes that were developed for Hive. Because Compact Index is the basis of the other two indexes, we mainly focus on Compact Index. Compact Index can only filter unrelated data in split granularity. The index table is stored in a separate table of Hive, its schema is shown in Table 1. The *\_bucketname* represents the data file name, and the *\_offset* stores all the offsets in *\_bucketname* of the corresponding combination of index dimensions. Thus, the Compact Index table stores all the combinations of multiple index dimensions that appear in the table and the corresponding position information in different data files.

When processing queries with Compact Index, Hive first runs a query with the same predicate of the original query on the index table to get the relevant position information, and then uses it to filter irrelevant splits. However, for the index dimensions with high cardinality, the Compact Index table will be very large, because the number of the combinations of multiple index dimensions is extremely large. Moreover, for queries with high-selectivity, Compact Index will easily result in a memory overflow of the JobTracker, because it needs to load the relevant position information into memory and to filter unrelated splits before starting the MapReduce job. Besides, the filtering performance of Compact Index is sensitive to the relative order of records. Thus, to improve Compact Index, users need to choose suitable sorting methods to preprocess the table before creating Compact Index.

### 3.3 ORC File and Its Index

ORC (Optimized Row Columnar) file is a kind of columnar storage format in Hive, and it supports a lightweight index. Next, we will describe ORC file in the perspective of indexing and query processing with an index. As shown in Figure 1, an ORC file consists of a sequence of stripes, each stripe is composed of *index data*, *row data*, and the *stripe footer*. The default size of stripe is 64MB, and the default

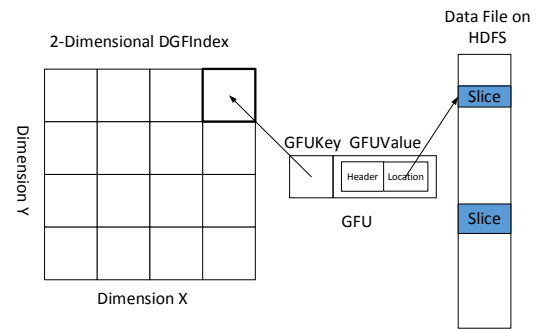


Fig. 2. DGFIIndex architecture

block size for ORC file is 256MB, so each block contains 4 stripes. In a stripe, the *index data* records the min and max value of each column for every 10,000 rows (a row group) as an index entry. The *row data* stores the real data in columnar style. The *stripe footer* records the location of *index data* and *row data*, and the encoding method of each column. The *file footer* records the min and max value of each column for every stripe (stripe statistics). When reading an ORC file, unrelated stripes can be filtered based on the predicate and the stripe statistics in the *file footer*. Thus, splits that contain no query-related stripes will be filtered out. Besides, unrelated row groups of query-relevant columns in each stripe can also be filtered out based on the *index data*. That means, ORC file can filter data in row group granularity. Because the index in ORC file is based on min and max value of a column, it is sensitive to the relative order of records in the data file, and users need to choose a suitable sorting method to preprocess an ORC file to improve the filtering performance.

### 3.4 DGFIIndex

DGFIIndex [23] is a multi-dimensional index that we proposed for the case that some (or all) index dimensions have a high cardinality, which will lead to extremely large index table sizes for the Compact Index. Figure 2 shows a 2-dimensional DGFIIndex, dimension X and Y can be any two index dimensions of the base table. DGFIIndex splits the data space into small units with a grid file-like splitting policy. The split unit is named as grid file unit (GFU). It is stored as GFUKey/GFUValue. GFUKey is the left lower coordinate of each GFU in the data space. GFUValue consists of two parts: the header and the location of the data slice stored in HDFS. All records located in the same GFU are stored as a continuous segment of a file in HDFS, which is called a *Slice*. The header in GFUValue contains pre-computed aggregations of numerical dimensions, which can be any user defined function (UDF) supported by Hive. The location in GFUValue contains the offset information of the corresponding slice. All records in a slice belong to the same GFU. In DGFIIndex, the GFUKey/GFUValue pairs are stored in HBase, which accelerates the reading speed of the index with key-based and columnar reading style.

When creating a DGFIIndex in Hive, the data in the base table has to be reorganized to store the records in the same GFU as a slice. Furthermore, the user has to specify the splitting policy, i.e., the minimum value and interval size of each index dimension and the aggregations that need to be pre-computed. On the other hand, when querying

with DGFIndex, Hive first retrieves all related GFUKeys from the DGFIndex based on the predicates of the query, and retrieves all location information from HBase based on the GFUKeys. Then Hive filters out unrelated splits based on the location information. Third, each mapper can skip unrelated slices when processing each split based on the location information. However, for aggregation queries, Hive only needs to process the data located in the boundary GFUs (partially in the query region), then combine the sub result with the result that is computed via reading the pre-computed aggregations from HBase.

## 4 PREPROCESSING–SORTING

### 4.1 Sorting Methods

From the description in Section 3.2 and 3.3, the data filtering performance of Compact Index and the ORC file is closely related to the relative order of records in data files. In Compact Index, if query-related records are clustered in few splits, it will filter out more irrelevant splits, and because the index table does not need to record multiple locations for each combination of index dimensions, the index table will become smaller. Similarly, in ORC file, if the query-related records are clustered in few stripes and few row groups in these stripes, it will filter out more irrelevant stripes and row groups. Otherwise, if the query-related records are evenly distributed in data files, Compact Index and ORC file will not filter out much data. Thus, changing the relative order of records becomes crucial for improving the filtering performance of Compact Index and the index in ORC file.

In practice, sorting is a common and efficient method to change the relative order of records in Hive. Usually, users need to sort base tables by index dimensions beforehand. Currently, there are three kinds of sorting methods in Hive: *Sort By*, *Cluster By*, and *Order By*. In the sorting process, MapReduce first assigns each record to some reducer with specific *Partitioner*, then each reducer sorts all records that it receives based on the index dimensions: (1) *Sort By* assigns each record to reducers based on the hash value that is computed on the whole record. Records that have the same key may be distributed in multiple reducers. Therefore, *Sort By* can only guarantee the order of each reducer’s output file, and it will not result in a global order. (2) *Cluster By* assigns each record to reducers based on the values of the index dimensions, so it can distribute the records that have the same key into the same reducer. However, it also does not result in a global order. Because it can not guarantee the order between the output file of reducers. (3) *Order By* uses the same way to assign records to reducers like *Cluster By*, and it can produce a global order. Besides, it has two implementations: the first one is serial *Order By*, it only uses one reducer, which is very inefficient on large input data and makes the time required for sorting unacceptable. The second one is parallel *Order By* [5], which first samples some data and decides the key range of each reducer to achieve a global order.

Table 2 shows the cost time of different sorting methods to preprocess base table and the influence on the query performance, *STime* represents the cost time of sorting, *data actually read* represents the amount of data that actually read after being filtered by index, *QTime* represents the query

TABLE 2  
Comparison of Sorting Methods

Method	STime(s)	Data actually read(MB)	QTime(s)
sort by	6890	7039	157
cluster by	7231	6878	156
order by	8366	1944	122

processing time, we use parallel *Order By* here. For fairness, we set the same number of reducers for all three methods. In this experiment, we use the cluster setup in Section 7.1 and Uniform500 data set in Section 7.2, which is stored as ORC file and Q6 of TPC-H. From the result, we can see that *Order By* has the best query performance, it is 22% faster than *Sort By* and *Cluster By*. Furthermore, it can filter much more data than other two methods. However, because *Order By* requires an extra sampling procedure before sorting the base table, it costs more time than other two methods. Because parallel *Order By* has the best query performance, we will use it to preprocess the RCFile (Compact Index) and the ORC file in our benchmarks of Section 7.

### 4.2 Sorting Order

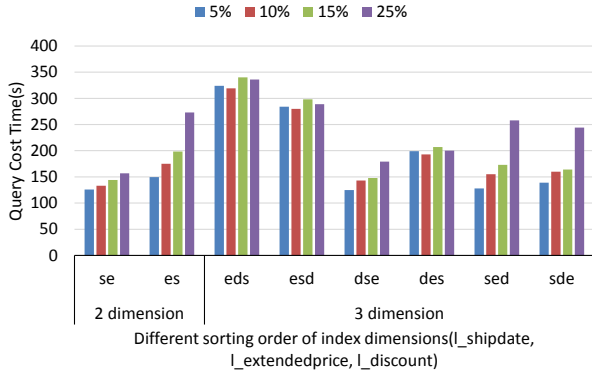
In addition, the different order of index dimensions will lead to different relative order of records, which will also influence the filtering performance of indexes. Because the cardinality of index dimensions may vary, different sorting order will place records into different row groups, which causes different content of row groups. Figure 3 shows the influence of different sorting orders on the query processing time and filtering performance. We use the acronyms to represent the combination of  $l\_discount(d, \text{cardinality is } 11)$ ,  $l\_shipdate(s, \text{cardinality is } 2,526)$ ,  $l\_extendedprice(e, \text{cardinality is } 3,791,046)$ . In this experiment, we use the cluster setup described in Section 7.1 and Uniform500 data set stored as ORC file and the queries with different number of index dimension and different selectivity in Section 7.2. From the results, we can see that *se* has the best query performance in 2-dimensional scenario, and *dse* has the best query performance in 3-dimensional scenario. That is, sorting the base table in the order of ascending cardinality will lead to better query efficiency. The reason is that putting the low-cardinality dimension to the front will lead to more clustered data file, so the index can filter more query-irrelevant data based on the min and max value. In our benchmarks of Section 7, we will use this guideline to preprocess base table for ORC file and RCFile (for Compact Index).

## 5 IMPROVED DGFINDEX

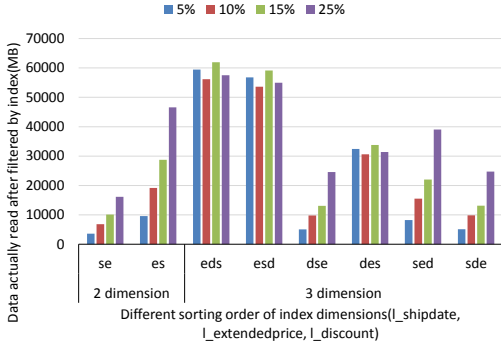
In this part, for comparison fairness, we propose two improvements of DGFIndex.

### 5.1 Storage Format

Original DGFIndex only supports TextFile format, which is a raw row storage format that is inefficient on encoding and decoding records compared to binary storage formats [12]. Moreover, it cannot decrease data I/O for queries that do not read all columns of a table. Columnar storage formats are efficient for OLAP query processing [30]. Currently, there are several kinds of columnar storage formats in Hive, for example, RCFile, ORC file, and Parquet. As an improvement



(a) Query cost time



(b) Amount of bytes actually read after index

Fig. 3. Query cost time, and amount of bytes actually read after being filtered by index for different sorting order of index dimensions

to the original DFGIndex, we have migrated DGFIndex to RCFile and ORC file.

**RCFile:** RCFile is a widely used binary columnar storage format. To enhance the limitation of row storage formats, we have migrated DGFIndex to RCFile. In the original RCFile, the table is horizontally split into many row groups, the default size of a row group is 4MB. Each row group is stored as a *key/value* pair, the *value* part stores the real data in column-wise fashion, and the *key* part records the metadata of each column, for example, the number of rows, the length of each column and the length of each value in each column. The row group is the minimum reading unit in RCFile. When migrating DGFIndex to RCFile, we store each slice as a row group, thus the size of row groups in RCFile may be different.

**ORC file:** We use the reorganization method of DGFIndex to create a row group in each stripe of a ORC file. In this case, DGFIndex becomes very similar with the index of the ORC file, so we do not store the index in HBase any more and directly use the index of the ORC file to filter slices. Besides, the original index in ORC file on other dimensions are not influenced. The reorganization method of DGFIndex is a kind of multi-dimensional hashing method, which is different with the sorting preprocessing method of ORC file. This is because multi-dimensional hashing methods treat each index dimension equally, while sorting method needs to decide the importance of multiple index dimensions.

For DGFIndex users, it is hard to choose an optimal splitting policy based on the file storage format and the features of an application. According to our experiments, 32MB and 16MB are empirical better slice sizes for DGFIndex on RCFile and DGFIndex on ORC file. Therefore, a user only

TABLE 3  
Performance of DGFIndex Optimizations

Item	#Mapper	#GB to read	#QTime(s)
TextFile	382	13.1	123.6
TextFile_zorder	95	13.1	107.3
RCFile	369	4.5	99.1
RCFile_zorder	91	4.5	79.7
ORC	1159	2.6	109.1
ORC_zorder	1163	2.6	93.6

needs to specify the min value and interval size for each index dimension, and makes Equation 1 equals this slice size. We will use these two slice size in our experiments.

$$\prod_{i=1}^{\#dimension} \frac{\max(d_i) - \min(d_i)}{interval(d_i)} \quad (1)$$

## 5.2 Slice Placement Method

In the construction of the original DGFIndex, each mapper calculates the GFUKey for every record and the partitioner randomly assign each GFUKey to a reducer based on the default hash function of the MapReduce framework. In each reducer, the slices are sorted by the GFUKey. This can be seen as a random slice placement method. The random slice placement method may occupy too many mapper slots when processing a query and each mapper reads only few slices or frequently skips unrelated slices, which causes inefficient batch data reading. To overcome this, we implement a z-order-based slice placement method. Z-order [24] is a kind of space filling curve, whose purpose is mapping multi-dimensional data to one-dimensional data while maintaining the data locality in the data space. In the partitioner, it divides the whole z-order value range into several ranges, where the number of ranges is same as the number of reducers. In each reducer, the slices are sorted by the z-order value of each slice. By doing this, we can significantly decrease the number of occupied mapper slots and increase the efficiency of batch data reading.

Table 3 shows the influence of different DGFIndex improvements on the number of mappers, the amount of data actually read after being filtered by index and query cost time. This experiment uses the cluster setup in Section 7.1 and Uniform500 data set in Section 7.2, and Q6 in TPC-H. From the results, We can see that when using the z-order based slice placement method, the number of mappers and the query processing time both decrease. The reason is that it puts slices in less splits, which are processed by less mappers and also improve the sequential reading efficiency of each mapper. When migrating DGFIndex to the RCFile and ORC file, which are both columnar storage, the number of bytes that need to read considerably decrease in comparison to the TextFile format because both can filter out query-irrelevant columns when reading each row group. Moreover, ORC file has an efficient data type-based encoding method, so it can further reduce the amount of data read compared to RCFile. For ORC file, discontinuous stripes in the same split will use individual mappers for processing, so the number of mappers is bigger than for TextFile and RCFile, even when using the z-order-based slice placement method.

## 6 DATA FILTERING PROCESS SUMMARY

In this part, we summarize the index and columnar storage based data filtering process in Hive, it is divided into 4 steps:



TABLE 4  
Summary of Index Size and Reading Method

Name	Size	Read
Compact	$\sum num(row\ groups) * c$	scan
ORC file	$(\frac{ table }{ stripe } * o_1 + \frac{ table }{ row\ group } * o_2) * colNum$	scan
DGFIIndex	$\prod_{i=1}^{#dimension} \frac{max(d_i) - min(d_i)}{interval(d_i)} * d$	key-based

(1) searching the index, (2) filtering irrelevant splits, (3) filtering irrelevant row groups in each split, (4) filtering irrelevant columns in each row group.

### 6.1 Searching the Index

Searching the index is formalized as Equation 2, that is, getting the offsets of query-related data(row groups or stripes). The performance of searching index is related with two factors: the index size and reading method, which is summarized in Table 4.

$$offsets_{query} = search(index, predicate) \quad (2)$$

For Compact Index, the index size is proportional to the product of the number of index dimensions combinations and the number of corresponding row groups.  $c$  is a constant representing the size of each index entry. For a base table, the number of index dimensions combinations is fixed, and it is proportional to the cardinality of index dimensions. The number of row groups that some combination locate in depends on the relative order of records in data files. Sorting can cluster these records with same combination in less row groups. Thus, sorting can decrease greatly the index size of Compact Index. The reading method of Compact Index is MapReduce-based full table scan.

For the index in ORC file, its index size is proportional to the table size and column number. Compared with Compact Index, its index size is not related with records order in data file, but the filtering performance is. Actually, the index in ORC file is 2-level index, first it records the min and max value for each column of stripe, which is coarse-grained. Second, in each stripe, it records the min and max value for each row group, which is fine-grained. In this step, ORC file only needs to read the first level index.  $o_1$  and  $o_2$  represent the size of index entry in different levels. The first level index reading is scan-based, and the second level index reading is also scan-based, but only read the index entry chosen by first level.

For DGFIIndex, its index size is proportional to the number of GFU, which is decided by the splitting policy specified by user. Similar with the index in ORC file, its size is not related with the records orders in row group and the row groups order in data files. The reading method is key-based, only reading the query related GFUKeys.

### 6.2 Filtering Irrelevant Splits

After index reading, the data filtering process in Hive is showed in Figure 4. This step happens in the InputFormat.getSplit(). Filtering irrelevant splits is formalized as Equation 3. The number of chosen splits represents the parallelism of query processing and the computing resource( for example, the mapper slot) occupation.

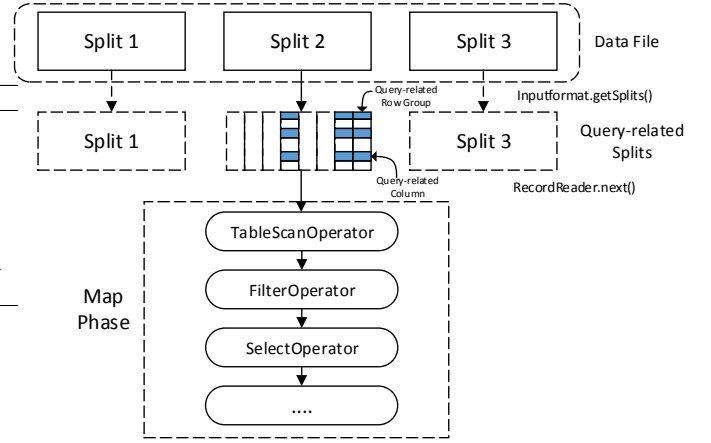


Fig. 4. Index-based Data Flow

$$Splits_{query} = getSplits(offsets_{query}, Splits_{all}) \quad (3)$$

For Compact Index, the number of chosen splits is related with records order in data file. We can find that sorting not only decreases the index size, but also reduces the number of chosen splits, thus sorting is crucial to improve the performance of Compact Index.

For ORC file, the number of chosen splits is also related with records order in data file. Besides, the adjacent query-related stripes in each HDFS block are seen as one split, the nonadjacent query related stripes in each HDFS block are seen as different split.

For DGFIIndex, the number of chosen splits is not related with the records order in row group, but related with the relative order of row groups in data file. That is, the query-related row groups are fixed, different row group placement methods will influence the number of chosen splits and the query-related data amount in each split.

### 6.3 Filtering Irrelevant Row Groups in Each Split

This step happens in the RecordReader.next() of Figure 4, it is formalized as Equation 4. This step helps Hive skip query-irrelevant row groups. The data filtering process of Compact Index does not include this step, because it only can filter data in split granularity.

$$rowgroups_{query} = next(offsets_{query}, rowgroups_{all}) \quad (4)$$

For the index in ORC file, it will read the second level index to get the offsets of query-related row group in each stripe. The number of chosen row groups is related with records order in each stripe. We can find that sorting not only decrease the number of chosen splits, but also the number of chosen row groups. Thus, sorting is crucial for ORC file to improve the index performance.

For DGFIIndex, it still uses the offsets in step 1 to get the chosen row groups. The number of chosen row groups in each split is related with row groups order in data files. We can find that z-order based slice placement method can decrease the number of chosen splits and increase the number of chosen row groups in each split, but the total number of chosen row groups does not change.

### 6.4 Filtering Irrelevant Columns in Each Row Group

Index only affect the first three steps. In this step, columnar storage helps Hive only read the query-related columns in

TABLE 5  
Data Sets

Name	Size(GB)				SkewFactor
	TextFile	RCFile	ORC	Parquet	
Uniform250	263	244	149	135	0
Uniform500	529	488	299	270	0
LowSkew250	263	243	139	94	1
LowSkew500	529	483	276	188	1
HighSkew250	264	243	136	76	2

each row group. Which is showed in Figure 4 and formalized as Equation 5.

$$columns_{query} = read(columns_{all}) \quad (5)$$

The cost of reading each column is related with the encoding method of different columnar storage, ORC file and Parquet use more encoding methods than RCFile, we expect they will have better reading efficiency than RCFile. Besides, the above indexes in Hive only influence the single table reading process, the data reading-related operators in the Map phase are showed in Figure 4. The *TableScanOperator* is responsible for gathering statistics when needed, it has no effect in index-based data reading. The *FilterOperator* is responsible for filtering records with query predicate. The *SelectOperator* is responsible for selecting query-related columns. From the process, we can find that no matter which kind of index we use, the number of records after *FilterOperator* is the same. Moreover, for current SQL on Hadoop (or Spark) systems, they all use HDFS as the main underlying storage system, and they also use the same columnar storage(RCFile, ORC file and Parquet) and corresponding InputFormats with Hive. Thus, the conclusions and best practice are also applicable for these systems, they are independent with computation framework.

## 7 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

### 7.1 Cluster Setup

We conduct the experiments on a cluster of 32 virtual machine nodes, each one has 12 cores CPU, 26GB memory and 600GB disk. These nodes are hosted on 8 physical servers which are connected with Gigabit Ethernet. One node is used for the JobTracker, one for the Namenode and Hive, one for the HMaster, all other nodes are worker nodes of Hadoop and HBase. All nodes run CentOS 7.0, Java 1.7.0\_65 64bit, Hadoop-1.2.1, and HBase-0.94.23 (stores the DGFIndex table). DGFIndex is implemented in Hive-0.14.0, we also use other indexes and columnar file formats in Hive-0.14.0. Every worker node in Hadoop is configured with 6 mappers and 2 reducer. The block size of HDFS is set to 256MB, which is consistent with the default block size of the ORC file. The *io.sort.mb* is set to 400MB, and *mapred.child.java.opts* is set to *-Dchild -Xmx1000m -Xmx 3000m*. All other configurations of Hadoop, HBase, and Hive are default values. Before each experiment, we free the OS cache to make each query read from disk, not from memory. Each experiment runs three times and the average result is reported.

### 7.2 Workloads

**Datasets:** In real applications, the distribution of index dimension may be uniform, with low skew, or with high skew. Thus, in our experiments, we use uniform [7] and skewed [31] TPC-H data generators to generate uniform

TABLE 6  
Cardinality of Index Dimensions

Dimension(abbreviation)	Cardinality	Data Set
<i>l_discount</i> (d)	11	all
<i>l_quantity</i> (q)	50	all
<i>l_shipdate</i> (s)	2, 526	all
<i>l_extendedprice</i> (e)	82, 561	HighSkew250
<i>l_extendedprice</i> (e)	3, 790, 000	others
<i>l_orderkey</i> (o)	525, 000, 000	250GB dataset
<i>l_orderkey</i> (o)	1, 050, 000, 000	500GB dataset

data and skewed data. Skewed TPC-H can generate skewed data with *Zipf* distribution. We use the *lineitem* table which is the largest table in TPC-H. Table 5 shows the data sets that are used in the following experiments. The LowSkew data sets are generated by setting skew factor  $z=1$  and the HighSkew data sets are generated by setting  $z=2$ . For example, the percentage of records with *l\_discount*(0.04) is 9% for Uniform data set, 13% for LowSkew data set, and 62% for HighSkew data set. RCFile and Parquet do not use any compression by default, while ORC file uses compression by default. For fairness, we do not enable the default compression of the ORC file. In addition, because the performance of Compact Index is related to the cardinality of index dimension, we summarize the cardinalities in Table 6, which also shows the abbreviation of each dimension.

```
SELECT SUM(l_extendedprice*l_discount)
      AS revenue
FROM lineitem WHERE <predicate>
```

Listing 1. SQL template

**Queries:** The queries are shown in Table 7. The abbreviation in parentheses represent the query dimensions or index dimensions. For example, *2-d index(q,s)* means we create index on dimension *l\_quantity* and *l\_shipdate*, and *2-d query(q,s)* means the query predicate contains *l\_quantity* and *l\_shipdate*. The query identifier pattern is *Q-query dimensions-index dimensions*. These queries are designed on the consideration of two common query parttern: (1) the query dimensions are fixed, we can create index on these dimensions to improve query performance. That is, the query dimensions are same with index dimensions. The corresponding queries are the first four ones in Table 7, they are 1-dimensional, 2-dimensional and 3-dimensional query respectively. For 3-dimensional query, we add a high-cardinality dimensions query (*Q-dse-dse*) to show the its influence on index performance. (2) the query dimensions are always changing. That is, the query dimensions may only part of index dimensions. The corresponding queries are the rest queries in Table 7. Besides, querying different dimension in the sorting order may have different index performance, so we query any one or two dimensions of the three index dimensions. At last, We design the queries with the SQL template( Q6 in TPC-H) in Listing 1 by changing the dimensions in *predicate*. Besides, we generate point, 5%, 10%, 15% and 25% (approximate value) query selectivity for each query type by altering the query dimension range in *predicate*. Because of the limitation of space, all detailed query forms are listed at the website given in Section 10.

The reasons of using Q6 and the *lineitem* table of TPC-H are as follows: First, the benchmark workload TPC-H is widely used. Second, after searching the index, Q6 can be

TABLE 7  
Workloads

Identifier	Query Type	Index Type
Q-o-o	1-d query(o)	1-d index(o)
Q-qs-qs	2-d query(qs)	2-d index(qs)
Q-qds-qds	3-d query(qds)	3-d index-1(qds)
Q-dse-dse	3-d query(dse)	3-d index-2(dse)
Q-q-qds	1-d partial query(q)	3-d index-1(qds)
Q-d-qds	1-d partial query(d)	3-d index-1(qds)
Q-s-qds	1-d partial query(s)	3-d index-1(qds)
Q-e-dse	1-d partial query(e)	3-d index-2(dse)
Q-qd-qds	2-d partial query(qd)	3-d index-1(qds)
Q-qs-qds	2-d partial query(qs)	3-d index-1(qds)
Q-ds-qds	2-d partial query(ds)	3-d index-1(qds)

processed in one MapReduce job, which is easy to analyze and compare the influence of indexes on query cost time, query-irrelevant data filtering performance. Besides, since the indexes in Hive only affect the data reading action of single table as described in Section 6, even for complex queries that contain multiple tables joining, the indexes only work for each individual table, so it is sufficient to choose Q6, an aggregation query on a single table to benchmark the filtering performance of indexes in Hive. Third, Q6 is a typical representative of multi-dimensional query in TPC-H.

In our experiments, the index benchmark candidates are: Compact Index on sorted RCFile, sorted ORC file, DGFIndex on RCFile, and DGFIndex on ORC file. The sorted RCFile and sorted ORC file mean the base table is preprocessed with the guidelines driven in Section 4. Besides, we use the z-order based slice placement method for DGFIndex on RCFile and DGFIndex on ORC file. For fairness, we do not use the pre-computation technique of DGFIndex. In addition, because partition has similar effect on the different indexing techniques, we do not partition the base table.

### 7.3 Metrics

In practice, the data that needs to be analyzed is usually first stored as TextFile, for example, collected log files. Then, for efficient storage and query performance, the data is converted into other storage formats, and preprocessed to create an index on it. In our experiments, we model similar data workflow: first we suppose that there is a *lineitem* table stored as TextFile, then we convert it into RCFile or ORC file with the SQL in Listing 2, which can sort the data in the meantime. Third, we create Compact Index or DGFIndex on it. At last, we run various kinds of query on the base table. In the experiments, we mainly focus on the below metrics:

(1) **Index creation time** means the cost time to make base table ready for efficient query, including the time on storage format converting and creating index. For instance, for Compact Index on RCFile, the time includes the time of converting (sorting is also done in this step) *lineitem* table from TextFile into RCFile and the time of creating Compact Index. For sorted ORC file, the time only includes the time of converting *lineitem* table from TextFile into ORC file, because the sorting is done during the conversion.

(2) **Storage efficiency** includes base table storage efficiency and index table storage efficiency. Because different file storage formats have different data encoding methods, the table size will be different. Besides, Compact Index and DGFIndex store the index table as a separate table, the size of index table will affect the reading efficiency of index, so we also treat it as a metric.

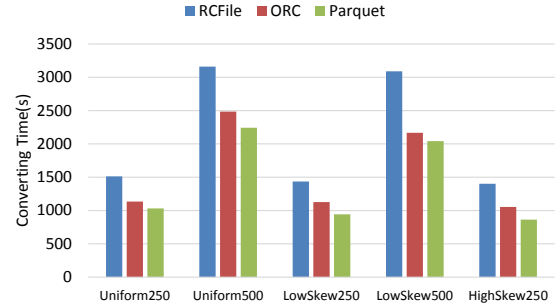


Fig. 6. Converting time from TextFile to other format

(3) **Query efficiency** includes four metrics: (1) the time to process a query, which represents the elapsed time from emitting the query to getting the result. (2) The number of mappers used, which represents the computing resources usage, it may affect the concurrent throughput of the SQL on Hadoop systems. (3) The number of records actually read after being filtered by index, which represents the accuracy of index. (4) The amount of bytes actually read after being filtered by index, which represents the encoding efficiency of corresponding storage file format and accuracy of index. We use the Counter *Map input records* and *HDFS\_BYTES\_READ* to get the value of (3) and (4).

```
INSERT OVERWRITE TABLE lineitem_rc/orc
SELECT *
FROM lineitem_textfile
[ORDER BY <index dimensions>]
```

Listing 2. Storage format converting SQL

### 7.4 Baseline

We use various columnar storage formats (RCFile, ORC file, Parquet) without index as the baseline to highlight the efficiency of index in the following parts. Figure 6 shows the converting time from TextFile to RCFile, ORC file, and Parquet. From the results, we can see that because Parquet has smallest file size as shown in Table 7, it takes minimum converting time for different data sets. ORC file is 6%-22% slower than Parquet, RCFile is 27%-42% slower than ORC file, and 40%-60% slower than Parquet. The query efficiency results will be shown and analyzed with formal index benchmark results in Section 7.7.

### 7.5 Index Creation Time

In this part, we analyze the index creation time of various indexes in Hive. The cost time of converting file format and creating index of Uniform250, Uniform500, LowSkew250 and LowSkew500 are shown in Figure 5. Because the result (index creation time and query efficiency) of HighSkew250 is very different from the other results, we will discuss it in Section 7.8. For *3-d index-2(dse)*, to avoid the extreme big index table of Compact Index, we only create 2-dimensional index on low-cardinality dimensions (*ds*). For instance, the index size reaches 186GB for Uniform250 on *dse*.

From the results, we can see that (1) for Compact Index, the index creation time increases with the increasing of cardinality, for example, for each data set, the cost time of 1-d index cost more time than others. Besides, the converting and sorting take the majority of time, because we limit the cardinality of the index dimensions, thus the index



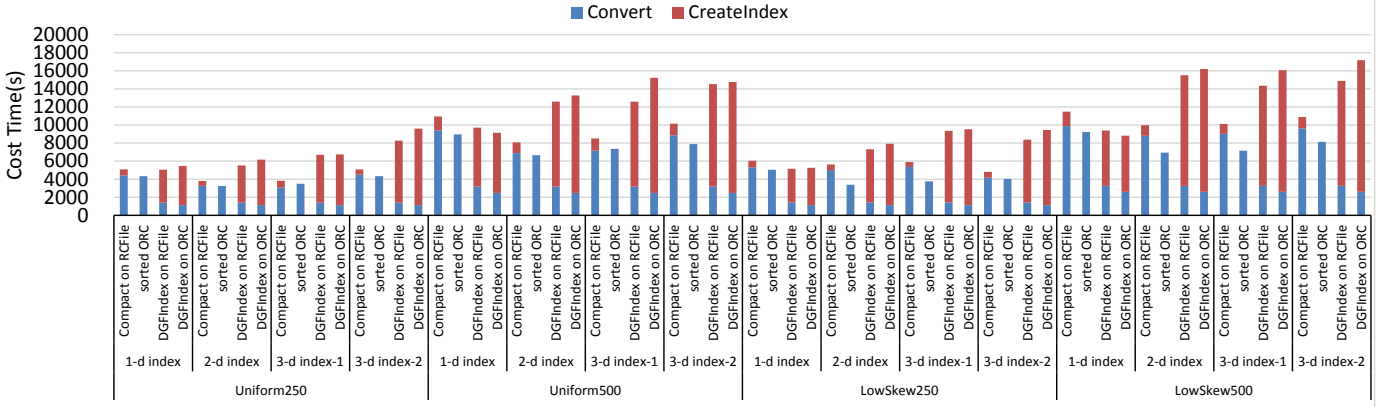


Fig. 5. Cost time of converting and creating index

creation does not cost too much time. (2) For sorted ORC file, compared with original ORC, the sorting takes 1.6-3.4 times more time than converting, but it takes 16%-120% less time than DGFindex. (3) For DGFindex on RCFile and DGFindex on ORC file, they cost the maximum time among all indexes, and the index creating cost the majority time. Besides, compared with the results of Uniform250 and Uniform500, we can find that the index creation time of LowSkew250 and LowSkew500 cost more time for all indexes. The reason is that sorting and the creation of DGFindex both rely on the value of index dimension to assign to some reducer. When the data is skewed, some reducers may receive much more data than others. As a result, these reducers will take more time to sort the received records, and slow down the process. In summary, sorted ORC file cost the least time for index creation, DGFindex cost the most. The index creation time of Compact Index is acceptable for low-cardinality index dimensions. Moreover, the skew of index dimension will increase the index creation time.

### 7.6 Storage Efficiency

**Table size.** From Table 5, we can see that compared with RCFile and ORC file, Parquet has the best storage efficiency and it has the minimum file size for the same data set. The more skewed the data set is, the smaller the data size is. The reason is that when the data is more skewed, there are more repeated records and the encoding efficiency turns better, for example, the run length encoding technique.

**Index size.** Because the results of Uniform data and LowSkew data are similar, we only show the results of Uniform data sets, as shown in Figure 9. Since the index in ORC file is embedded in file, it is difficult to get its index size, we skip it here. As described in Section 6.1, the size of the Compact Index is proportional to the cardinality of index dimension and not related with data size. When creating 1-dimensional Compact Index on  $l\_orderkey$ , the size of index table is 41GB (for Uniform250) and 82GB (for Uniform500). The reason is that the cardinality of  $l\_orderkey$  of Uniform500 is two times of that of Uniform250. Besides, since the cardinality of other index dimensions does not change for different data sets, so the index size of Compact Index does not change. For DGFindex, it divides the high-cardinality dimension into many intervals, and its size is proportional to the number of intervals of index dimensions and, therefore, is much smaller than Compact Index.

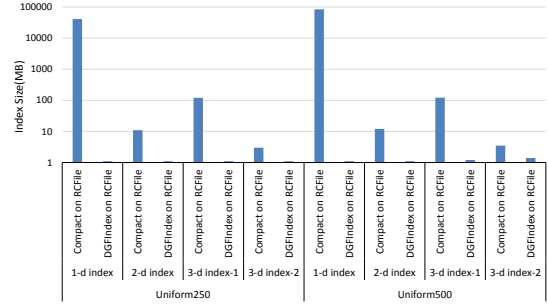


Fig. 9. Index size of Compact Index and DGFindex

### 7.7 Query Efficiency

Because the results of Uniform250 and Uniform500, LowSkew250 and LowSkew500 have similar tendency, here we only analyze the results of Uniform500 and LowSkew500, the results of Uniform250 and LowSkew250 are shown in the website given at the end of this paper. Figure 7 and Figure 8 show the results of Uniform500 and LowSkew500, including query cost time, mapper number that is used to process the query(skip similar LowSkew500 result), number of records, and amount of data actually read after being filtered by index. The baseline results are represented with a dotted line, the results of various indexes are represented with solid lines. From the results, we can make the following observations:

For the baseline: RCFile, ORC file, and Parquet, on Uniform500, the query performance of ORC file is 1.5-2.6 times faster than RCFile, and Parquet is 30%-80% faster than ORC file. The reason is that Parquet has smaller data size than RCFile and ORC file for the same data set. The different amount of data reading for different queries in Figure 7(d) shows the data size of different query-related column set. As shown in Figure 7(c)(d), for each query except  $Q-o-o$ , RCFile, ORC file and Parquet read all the records from base table, but they read different amount of data, which shows the encoding efficiency of corresponding columnar storage. Moreover, from Figure 7(a)(d), we can find that, the amount of data reading of Parquet is 1.5-2.5 times smaller than ORC file, but the query cost time only 60% faster than ORC file, it is not proportional. The reason is that more efficient encoding methods lead to smaller data size, but it needs more CPU times to decode data. For example, the cumulative CPU time of  $Q-qds-qds$ (25% selectivity) on Uniform500 for Parquet is

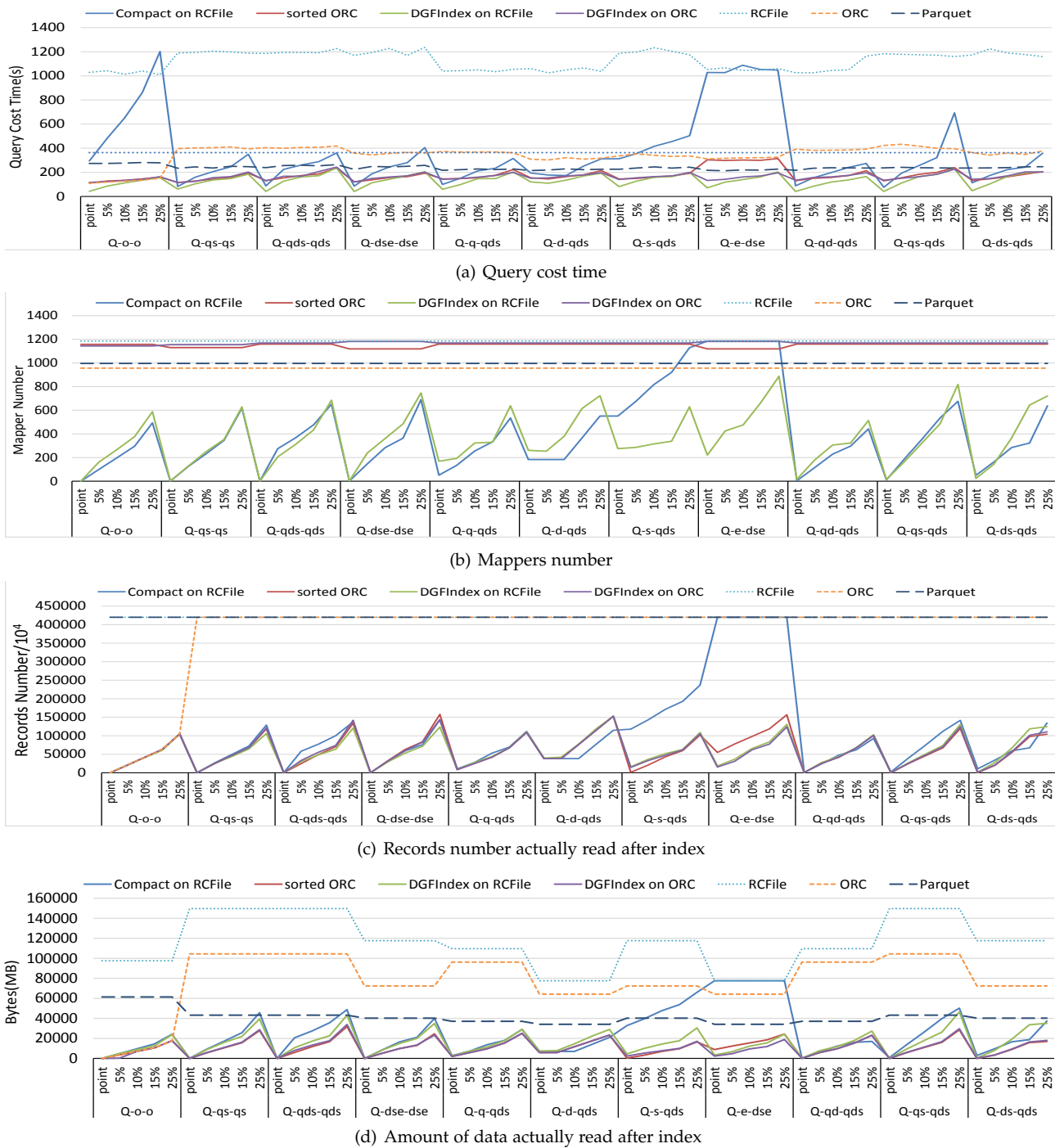


Fig. 7. Query cost time, Mapper number, records number and amount of data actually read after being filtered by index on Uniform500

47,600s, for ORC file is 33,751s. Besides, as shown in Figure 7(c), the index in ORC file does not filter any records, since the query-related records evenly distributed in every row group, in this situation, even only one record in a row group is query-related, the whole row group needs to be read. On LowSkew500, the query performance of ORC file is 2.3-3.8 times faster than RCFile, and Parquet is 37%-88% faster than ORC file. We can see that when the data becomes skewed, the query performance of ORC file and Parquet gets better. The reason for ORC file is that, for skewed data, the records are more clustered than uniform data for some values, for example  $l\_discount(0.04)$ , thus ORC file can filter out more query-irrelevant row groups than Uniform500, which leads to the reduction of records and data reading as shown in

Figure 8(b)(c). For Parquet, the reason is that more repetitive records improve the efficiency of encoding method, which causes the data size of LowSkew500 is much smaller than Uniform500. Thus, compared with 7(d), Parquet read much less data than Uniform500, so the query performance is better. However,  $Q-o-o$  is an exception, in this case, ORC file is 0.8-1.5 times faster than Parquet on Uniform500, and 0.4-1 times on LowSkew500. Because  $l\_orderkey$  is originally sorted in TPC-H, the index in ORC file can help it filter lots of query-irrelevant data. In summary, unless the data is original sorted by query dimensions, Parquet has the best query performance among all widely used columnar storage formats in Hive. Surprisingly, for LowSkew500 data set, Parquet's query performance is almost same with all

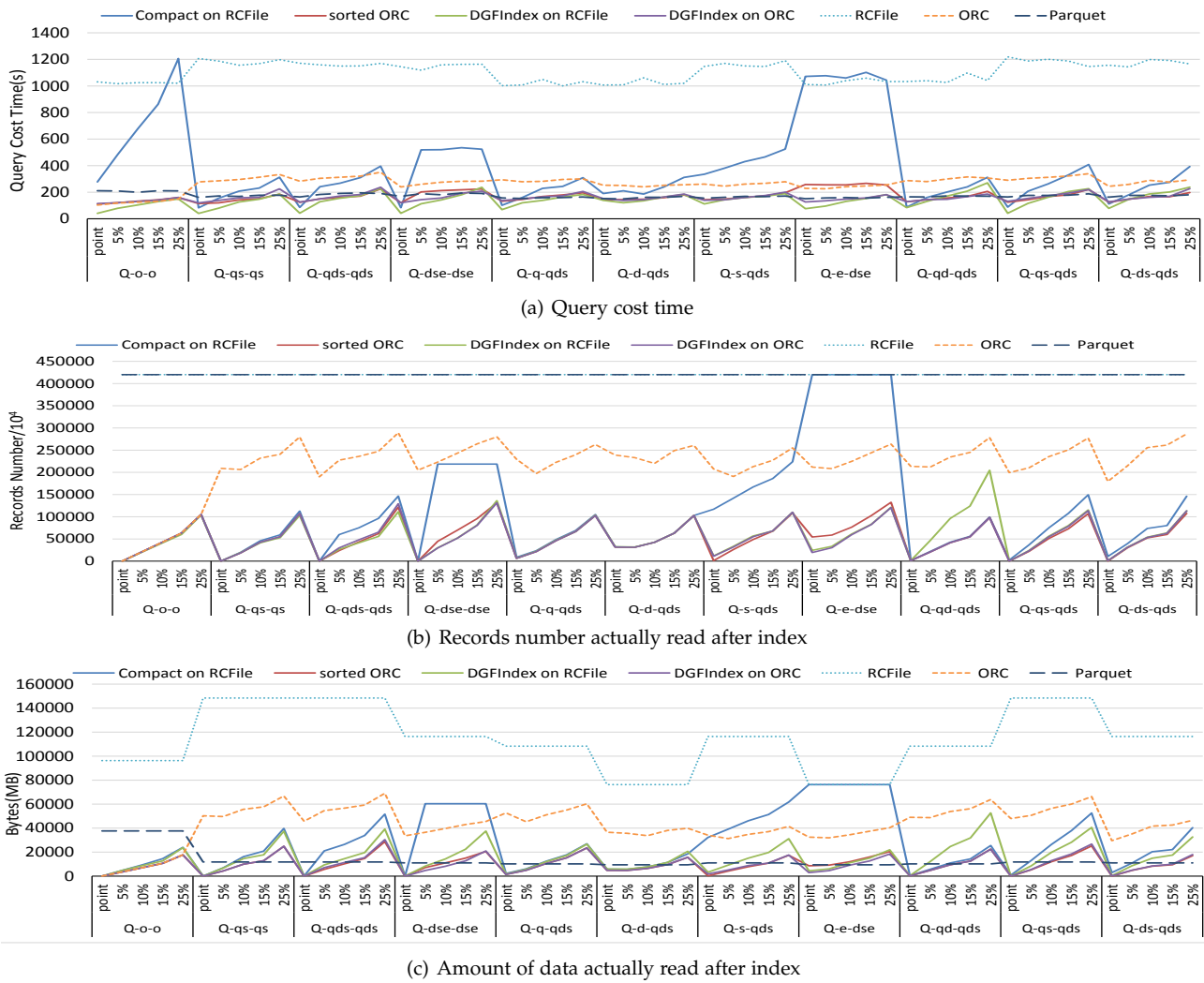


Fig. 8. Query cost time, records number and amount of data actually read after being filtered by index on LowSkew500

indexes when the query selectivity is over 15%.

For Compact Index on RCFile, as shown in Figure 7(a) and 8(a), sorting the base table by index dimensions and creating proper Compact Index can improve query performance 2-13 times over the original RCFile. However, the limitation is that we only can create Compact Index on low cardinality dimensions, otherwise, the large index table will reduce the query performance, like *Q-o-o* with 25% selectivity. For *Q-e-dse*, because we only create index on *l\_discount* and *l\_shipdate*, the query will not use the index. Among four kinds of indexes, Compact Index on RCFile has the worst query performance. However, Compact Index on RCFile uses much less mappers than sorted ORC file and DGFIndex on ORC file as shown in 7(b). In addition, because the RCFile is sorted by the index dimensions, when querying the latter dimensions in the sorting order, data filtering performance of Compact Index becomes worse. For example, *Q-s-qds*, we sort RCFile in the order of increasing cardinality: *dqs*, which causes that the value of *l\_shipdate* is more scattered than *l\_discount* and *l\_quantity*, causing more redundant data reading. In summary, if the data is stored as RCFile, and the index dimensions do not have large-cardinality, then Compact Index is suitable candidate index to improve multi-dimensional query performance. For sorted ORC file, sorting can improve query performance

1-2.4 times over the original ORC file. In addition, because the ORC file can filter out data in row group granularity, it has better performance than Compact Index, especially for high-selectivity queries. The sorted ORC file has similar query performance as DGFIndex on ORC file, but *Q-e-dse* is an exception, for this query, the sorted ORC file's query performance is about 2 times worse than DGFIndex on RCFile. The reason is same with *Q-s-qds* of Compact Index on RCFile. But for DGFIndex on ORCFile, its data reorganization method is based on multi-dimensional hash, all index dimensions are treated equally, thus it will not have the problem like sorted ORC file. Furthermore, when the query selectivity is over 15%, sorted ORC file has similar query performance as DGFIndex on RCFile and DGFIndex on ORC file. However, ORC based indexes, for example ORC file, sorted ORC file, and DGFIndex on ORC file, use much more mappers than DGFIndex on RCFile and Compact Index on RCFile, which may influence the concurrent throughput of Hive. In summary, if the user does not care about the concurrent throughput, and the multi-dimensional query always has high selectivity, for example over 15%, then sorted ORC file is a suitable candidate index.

DGFIndex on RCFile has similar query performance with sorted ORC file, and better query performance when the query selectivity is equal or less than 15%. Besides,

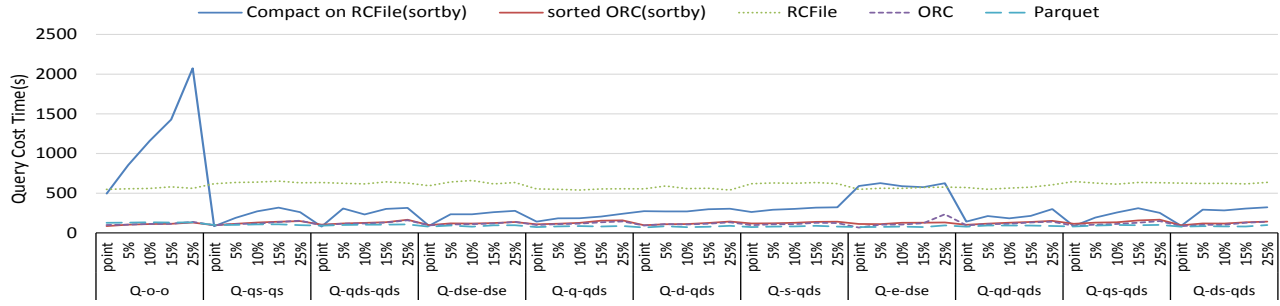


Fig. 10. Query Cost Time of HighSkew250

DGFIIndex on RCFile occupies much less mapper slots than sorted ORC file and DGFIIndex on ORC file, which can improve the concurrent throughput and computation resource utilization of clusters. We also find that although DGFIIndex on RCFile reads more amount of data than sorted ORC file as shown in Figure 7(d) and Figure 8(c), it has better query performance. The reason is that processing sorted ORC file uses many mappers, which needs to run in multiple waves. In other hand, for DGFIIndex on ORC file, it has almost the same query performance with sorted ORC file, but it does not have the drawback of sorted ORC file, for example *Q-e-dse*. In summary, if the user cares about the concurrent throughput and computation resource utilization and the query selectivity is not very large, then DGFIIndex on RCFile is a suitable candidate index. DGFIIndex on ORC file is a better fit if the query selectivity is large and user is not sensitive to the concurrent throughput.

### 7.8 HighSkew250

As described in Section 4.1 and 5.2, *Cluster By*, *parallel Order By*, and the *z-order* based slice placement method of DGFIIndex all rely on the value of the index dimension to assign records to reducers. Thus, for the HighSkew250 data set, when sorting or creating DGFIIndex on base table, few reducers will receive the majority of the data and the index creation time becomes unacceptably long. Therefore, DGFIIndex on RCFile and DGFIIndex on ORC file are not suitable for high skew data. For sorted ORC file and Compact Index on RCFile, we use *Sort By* to sort the base table. The query cost time is shown in Figure 10. Because *Sort By* can not make the base table as clustered as *parallel Order By*, the query performance of sorted ORC file is not better than original ORC file, but even worse. Although Compact Index still improves the query performance on RCFile 1-7 times, it is much worse than sorted ORC file, ORC file, and Parquet. Since Parquet has the minimum file size, its query performance is faster 10%-150% than ORC file and sorted ORC file. In Summary, for high skew data, original ORC file or Parquet is more suitable than other file formats and indexes, sorting does not improve the query performance.

## 8 BEST PRACTICE AND DISCUSSION

With our extensive summary and comprehensive experiments of current indexes and columnar storage formats in Hive, we suggest the best practice to improve the multi-dimensional indexes: (1) Choosing low-cardinality partition dimensions. Usually, date or enumeration dimension are good candidates, under the assumption that they do not

generate too many partitions. (2) Choosing query dimensions always used by user as index dimensions, then follow the steps in Figure 11 to choose a suitable indexing technique: (a) whether users require good concurrent throughput or computation resource occupation ratio, if yes, the user needs to use DGFIIndex on RCFile or Compact Index on RCFile. (b) Using *group by* to analyze data distribution, if it is high skew, Parquet is the best indexing technique. (c) Analyzing the user’s queries, if the query selectivity is small, for example less than 15%, DGFIIndex on RCFile is suitable. (d) At last, whether there is an index dimension with extremely large cardinality and corresponding partial query, if yes, DGFIIndex on ORC file should be chosen, if no, sorted ORC file should be chosen. After choosing a suitable index based on the features of the application, the index performance can be optimized as follows: (1) for sorted ORC file and Compact Index on RCFile, the data needs to be sorted in the base table by the order of increasing cardinality of the index dimensions with *parallel Order By*. (2) for DGFIIndex on RCFile and DGFIIndex on ORC file, the *z-order*-based slice placement method should be used, and choose empirical 32MB and 16MB slice size respectively.

From the experimental results, we find that each index or columnar storage format still has some limitations: Sorted ORC file occupies too many mapper slots, even if the query-relevant amount of data is small. The creation of DGFIIndex costs too much time. Parquet still has no index support (the index is under development). A Compact Index’ index table becomes too large for high cardinality dimensions. However, each index has its sweet spot and no one fits all use cases. Furthermore, based on our experiments, we summarize some important index design guidelines: (1) **Two-level indexes are more efficient than one-level indexes.** Two-level indexes mean first filtering data in coarse-grained level (split or stripe), then filtering data in fine-grained level (slice or row group), like DGFIIndex and sorted ORC file. This way, the indexes can filter large amount of irrelevant data. (2) **Clustering frequently used records always is crucial to improve index performance.** Like sorting in sorted ORC file and reorganization in DGFIIndex, storing the records that frequently are read together can greatly improve the sequential reading efficiency and reduce the amount of unnecessary data reads (3) **Considering data skew.** Less or high data skew may reduce the index performance or even fail the index design.

## 9 RELATED WORK

In this paper, we analyzed various indexes on columnar storage, which can eliminate query-irrelevant I/O greatly.

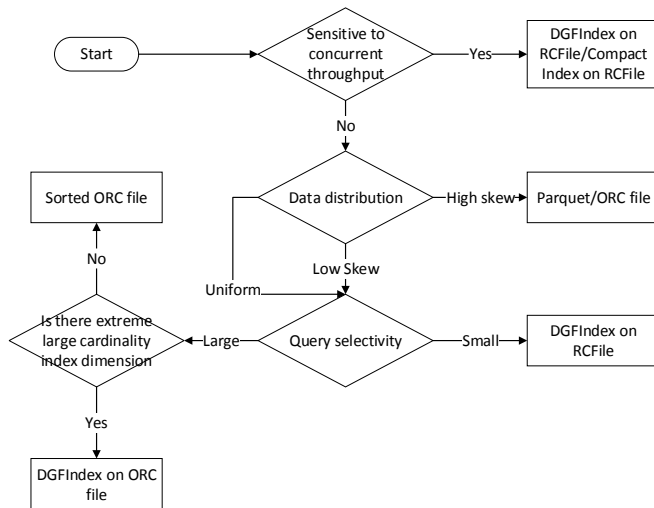


Fig. 11. Best practice of improving multi-dimensional query in Hive

In recent years, many excellent columnar storage file formats have been proposed for Hadoop and Hive, such as CFile [22], Column Format [16], Record Columnar File [18], Optimized Record Columnar File (ORC file) [19] and Parquet [1]. They all provide a way to filter data vertically and can be improved with efficient index techniques.

In the context of index in Hadoop and Hive, HadoopDB [8] uses the index data engine of relational databases to accelerate the query processing on Hadoop, we have compare it with DGFIindex in [23]. [21] proposes a 1-dimensional index on sorted files of HDFS, each index entry records the location information of the corresponding data slice. [13] proposes the Trojan index and the Trojan join index, the Trojan index records the first key, end key, and the number of records in each split, and the Trojan join index is used to co-partition two tables that are joined and improves the join performance. [14] proposes a range index, that creates an inverted index for string type dimensions. [28] proposes a zero-overhead static and adaptive index for Hadoop. The above works either focus on one-dimensional indexing, or only can filter unrelated data in a coarse-grained manner. Also, they can not be used in Hive directly.

In the context of benchmark in Hadoop and Hive. [27] and [29] compare the performance of Hadoop and parallel relational databases. In recent years, the industry hopes to analyze big data using SQL in high speed, which has resulted in the development of many SQL on Hadoop systems, examples are Hive, Impala, Shark, Presto, and Tajo. [15] benchmarks the performance of Hive and Impala, and tests the efficiency of the range index in the ORC file on processing one-dimensional queries. The authors do not benchmark multi-dimensional query performance. [10] compares the query performance of several SQL on Hadoop systems. [17] compares the performance of MongoDB, SQL Server, Hive and parallel databases with TPC-H. All of the above work either does not test the efficiency of indexes on improving query processing performance, or only test the simple one-dimensional case.

In the context of index benchmark in spatial database and traditional RDBMS, [20] characterizes the spatial-temporal indexing problem and proposes a benchmark for

the performance comparison of spatial indexes. [9] mainly focus on moving-object indexes, and propose a benchmark for the comparison of existing and future indexing techniques. [25] propose a performance benchmark for Location-Based Services(LBS) related dynamic spatial indexing. The three work mainly focus on spatial data processing, not traditional data processing like ours. [26] proposes a star schema benchmark for the index comparison of RDBMS, but no detailed comparison. [11] proposes several kinds of B-Tree index, but no experimental evaluations on them. Moreover, because the cost model and computation model of these work are different with Hive, thus user can not directly use these conclusions. As far as we know, our work is the first work on comparison of multi-dimensional indexes in Hadoop and Hive area.

## 10 CONCLUSION

In this paper, we benchmark the efficiency of various indexes and columnar storage formats in Hive on processing multi-dimensional queries. Based on the experimental results, we provide the best practices of improving multi-dimensional query processing based on the requirements of applications. Furthermore, we also summarize the important design guidelines of future index design in SQL on Hadoop systems. The source code of DGFIindex, detailed query forms and the results of Uniform250 and LowSkew250 are available online<sup>1</sup>.

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