### SciPy 2012 - Tutorials

# HDF 3.11 for Workgroups

July 16th, 2012, SciPy, Austin, TX
Anthony Scopatz
The FLASH Center
The University of Chicago
scopatz@gmail.com



### SciPy 2012 - Tutorials

## HDF5 is for Lovers



July 16th, 2012, SciPy, Austin, TX Anthony Scopatz The FLASH Center The University of Chicago scopatz@gmail.com



HDF5 stands for (**H**)eirarchical (**D**)ata (**F**)ormat (**5**)ive.



HDF5 stands for (**H**)eirarchical (**D**)ata (**F**)ormat (**5**)ive.

It is supported by the lovely people at The HDF Group



HDF5 stands for (**H**)eirarchical (**D**)ata (**F**)ormat (**5**)ive.

It is supported by the lovely people at The HDF Group

At its core HDF5 is binary file type specification.



HDF5 stands for (**H**)eirarchical (**D**)ata (**F**)ormat (**5**)ive.

It is supported by the lovely people at The HDF Group

At its core HDF5 is binary file type specification.

However, what makes HDF5 great is the numerous libraries written to interact with files of this type and their *extremely rich* feature set.



HDF5 stands for (**H**)eirarchical (**D**)ata (**F**)ormat (**5**)ive.

It is supported by the lovely people at The HDF Group

At its core HDF5 is binary file type specification.

However, what makes HDF5 great is the numerous libraries written to interact with files of this type and their *extremely rich* feature set.

#### Which you will learn today!



Intermixed, there will be:

- Slides
- Interactive Hacking
- Exercises



#### Intermixed, there will be:

- Slides
- Interactive Hacking
- Exercises

#### Feel free to:

- Ask questions at anytime
- Explore at your own pace.



This tutorial was submitted to the Advanced track.



This tutorial was submitted to the Advanced track.

And this was slated to be after the IPython tutorial. So...



This tutorial was submitted to the *Advanced* track.

And this was slated to be after the IPython tutorial. So...

#### **Get the Program Committee!**







By a show of hands, how many people have used:

• HDF5 before?



- HDF5 before?
- •PyTables?



- HDF5 before?
- •PyTables?
- •h5py?



- HDF5 before?
- •PyTables?
- •h5py?
- the HDF5 C API?



- HDF5 before?
- •PyTables?
- •h5py?
- the HDF5 C API?
- •SQL?



- HDF5 before?
- •PyTables?
- •h5py?
- the HDF5 C API?
- •SQL?
- Other binary data formats?



## Setup

Please clone the repo:

git clone git://github.com/scopatz/scipy2012.git

Or download a tarball from:

https://github.com/scopatz/scipy2012



### Warm up exercise

#### In IPython:

```
import numpy as np
import tables as tb

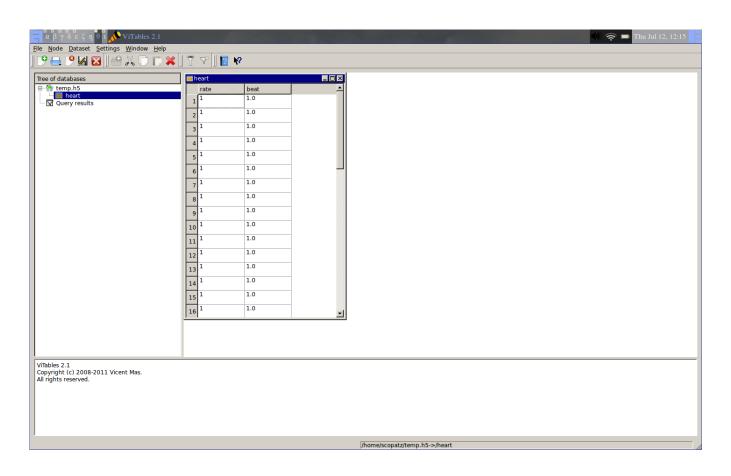
f = tb.openFile('temp.h5', 'a')
heart = np.ones(42, dtype=[('rate', int), ('beat', float)])
f.createTable('/', 'heart', heart)
f.close()
```

Or run python exer/warmup.py



# Warm up exercise

#### You should see in ViTables:





For persisting structured numerical data, binary formats are superior to plaintext.



For persisting structured numerical data, binary formats are superior to plaintext.

For one thing, they are often smaller:



For another, binary formats are often faster for I/O because atoi() and atof() are expensive.



For another, binary formats are often faster for I/O because atoi() and atof() are expensive.

However, you often want some thing more than a binary chunk of data in a file.



For another, binary formats are often faster for I/O because atoi() and atof() are expensive.

However, you often want some thing more than a binary chunk of data in a file.

#### Note

This is the mechanism behind numpy.save() and numpy.savez().



Instead, you want a real *database* with the ability to store many datasets, user-defined metadata, optimized I/O, and the ability to query its contents.



Instead, you want a real *database* with the ability to store many datasets, user-defined metadata, optimized I/O, and the ability to query its contents.

Unlike SQL, where every dataset lives in a flat namespace, HDF allows datasets to live in a nested tree structure.



Instead, you want a real *database* with the ability to store many datasets, user-defined metadata, optimized I/O, and the ability to query its contents.

Unlike SQL, where every dataset lives in a flat namespace, HDF allows datasets to live in a nested tree structure.

In effect, HDF5 is a file system within a file.



Instead, you want a real *database* with the ability to store many datasets, user-defined metadata, optimized I/O, and the ability to query its contents.

Unlike SQL, where every dataset lives in a flat namespace, HDF allows datasets to live in a nested tree structure.

In effect, HDF5 is a file system within a file.

(More on this later.)



Basic dataset classes include:

Array



- Array
- CArray (chunked array)



- Array
- CArray (chunked array)
- EArray (extendable array)



- Array
- CArray (chunked array)
- EArray (extendable array)
- VLArray (variable length array)



- Array
- CArray (chunked array)
- EArray (extendable array)
- VLArray (variable length array)
- Table (structured array w/ named fields)



Basic dataset classes include:

- Array
- CArray (chunked array)
- EArray (extendable array)
- VLArray (variable length array)
- Table (structured array w/ named fields)

All of these must be composed of atomic types.



There are six kinds of types supported by PyTables:

• bool: Boolean (true/false) types. 8 bits.



There are six kinds of types supported by PyTables:

• bool: Boolean (true/false) types. 8 bits.

•int: Signed integer types. 8, 16, 32 (default) and 64 bits.



There are six kinds of types supported by PyTables:

• bool: Boolean (true/false) types. 8 bits.

•int: Signed integer types. 8, 16, 32 (default) and 64 bits.

•uint: Unsigned integers. 8, 16, 32 (default) and 64 bits.



There are six kinds of types supported by PyTables:

- bool: Boolean (true/false) types. 8 bits.
- •int: Signed integer types. 8, 16, 32 (default) and 64 bits.
- •uint: Unsigned integers. 8, 16, 32 (default) and 64 bits.
- •float: Floating point types. 16, 32 and 64 (default) bits.



There are six kinds of types supported by PyTables:

- bool: Boolean (true/false) types. 8 bits.
- •int: Signed integer types. 8, 16, 32 (default) and 64 bits.
- •uint: Unsigned integers. 8, 16, 32 (default) and 64 bits.
- •float: Floating point types. 16, 32 and 64 (default) bits.
- •complex: Complex number. 64 and 128 (default) bits.



There are six kinds of types supported by PyTables:

- bool: Boolean (true/false) types. 8 bits.
- •int: Signed integer types. 8, 16, 32 (default) and 64 bits.
- •uint: Unsigned integers. 8, 16, 32 (default) and 64 bits.
- •float: Floating point types. 16, 32 and 64 (default) bits.
- •complex: Complex number. 64 and 128 (default) bits.
- string: Raw string types. 8-bit positive multiples.



Other elements of the hierarchy may include:

• Groups (dirs)



Other elements of the hierarchy may include:

- Groups (dirs)
- Links



Other elements of the hierarchy may include:

- Groups (dirs)
- Links
- File Nodes



Other elements of the hierarchy may include:

- Groups (dirs)
- Links
- File Nodes
- Hidden Nodes



Other elements of the hierarchy may include:

- Groups (dirs)
- Links
- File Nodes
- Hidden Nodes

PyTables docs may be found at http://pytables.github.com/



# **Opening Files**

```
import tables as tb
f = tb.openFile('/path/to/file', 'a')
```



# **Opening Files**

```
import tables as tb
f = tb.openFile('/path/to/file', 'a')
```

- 'r': Read-only; no data can be modified.
- 'w': Write; a new file is created (an existing file with the same name would be deleted).
- 'a': Append; an existing file is opened for reading and writing, and if the file does not exist it is created.
- 'r+': It is similar to 'a', but the file must already exist.

In HDF5, all nodes stem from a root ("/" or f.root).



In HDF5, all nodes stem from a root ("/" or f.root).

In PyTables, you may access nodes as attributes on a Python object (f.root.a\_group.some\_data).



In HDF5, all nodes stem from a root ("/" or f.root).

In PyTables, you may access nodes as attributes on a Python object (f.root.a\_group.some\_data).

This is known as natural naming.



In HDF5, all nodes stem from a root ("/" or f.root).

In PyTables, you may access nodes as attributes on a Python object (f.root.a\_group.some\_data).

This is known as natural naming.

Creating new nodes must be done on the file handle:

```
f.createGroup('/', 'a_group', "My Group")
f.root.a_group
```



# **Creating Datasets**

The two most common datasets are Tables & Arrays.



# **Creating Datasets**

The two most common datasets are Tables & Arrays.

Appropriate create methods live on the file handle:

```
# integer array
f.createArray('/a_group', 'arthur_count', [1, 2, 5, 3])
```



# **Creating Datasets**

The two most common datasets are Tables & Arrays.

Appropriate create methods live on the file handle:

```
# integer array
f.createArray('/a_group', 'arthur_count', [1, 2, 5, 3])
```

```
# tables, need descriptions
dt = np.dtype([('id', int), ('name', 'S10')])
knights = np.array([(42, 'Lancelot'), (12, 'Bedivere')], dtype=dt)
f.createTable('/', 'knights', dt)
f.root.knights.append(knights)
```



Arrays and Tables try to preserve the original flavor that they were created with.



Arrays and Tables try to preserve the original flavor that they were created with.

```
>>> print f.root.a_group.arthur_count[:]
[1, 2, 5, 3]
>>> type(f.root.a_group.arthur_count[:])
list
>>> type(f.root.a_group.arthur_count)
tables.array.Array
```

So if they come from NumPy arrays, they may be accessed in a numpy-like fashion (slicing, fancy indexing, masking).



So if they come from NumPy arrays, they may be accessed in a numpy-like fashion (slicing, fancy indexing, masking).

```
>>> f.root.knights[1]
(12, 'Bedivere')
>>> f.root.knights[:1]
array([(42, 'Lancelot')], dtype=[('id', '<i8'), ('name', 'S10')])
>>> mask = (f.root.knights.cols.id[:] < 28)
>>> f.root.knights[mask]
array([(12, 'Bedivere')], dtype=[('id', '<i8'), ('name', 'S10')])
>>> f.root.knights[([1, 0],)]
array([(12, 'Bedivere'), (42, 'Lancelot')], dtype=[('id', '<i8'), ('name', 'S10')])</pre>
```



So if they come from NumPy arrays, they may be accessed in a numpy-like fashion (slicing, fancy indexing, masking).

```
>>> f.root.knights[1]
(12, 'Bedivere')
>>> f.root.knights[:1]
array([(42, 'Lancelot')], dtype=[('id', '<i8'), ('name', 'S10')])
>>> mask = (f.root.knights.cols.id[:] < 28)
>>> f.root.knights[mask]
array([(12, 'Bedivere')], dtype=[('id', '<i8'), ('name', 'S10')])
>>> f.root.knights[([1, 0],)]
array([(12, 'Bedivere'), (42, 'Lancelot')], dtype=[('id', '<i8'), ('name', 'S10')])</pre>
```

Data accessed in this way is memory mapped.



# **Exercise**

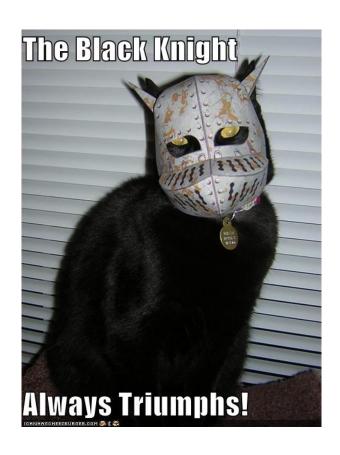
#### exer/peaks\_of\_kilimanjaro.py





### **Exercise**

#### sol/peaks\_of\_kilimanjaro.py





Suppose there is a big table of like-things:



Suppose there is a big table of like-things:

It is tempting to throw everyone into a big people table.



However, a search over a class of people can be eliminated by splitting these tables up:



The profession column is now redundant:



Information can be embedded implicitly in the hierarchy as well:

```
root
    - England
         | - knight
          - others
      France
           - knight
           - others
```

Why bother pivoting the data like this at all?



Why bother pivoting the data like this at all?

• Fewer rows to search over.



Why bother pivoting the data like this at all?

- Fewer rows to search over.
- Fewer rows to pull from disk.



Why bother pivoting the data like this at all?

- Fewer rows to search over.
- Fewer rows to pull from disk.
- Fewer columns in description.



### **Hierarchy Layout**

Why bother pivoting the data like this at all?

- Fewer rows to search over.
- Fewer rows to pull from disk.
- Fewer columns in description.

Ultimately, it is all about *speed*, especially for big tables.



If a processor's access of L1 cache is analogous to you finding a word on a computer screen (3 seconds), then



If a processor's access of L1 cache is analogous to you finding a word on a computer screen (3 seconds), then

Accessing L2 cache is getting a book from a bookshelf (15 s).



If a processor's access of L1 cache is analogous to you finding a word on a computer screen (3 seconds), then

Accessing L2 cache is getting a book from a bookshelf (15 s).

Accessing main memory is going to the break room, get a candy bar, and chatting with your co-worker (4 min).



If a processor's access of L1 cache is analogous to you finding a word on a computer screen (3 seconds), then

Accessing L2 cache is getting a book from a bookshelf (15 s).

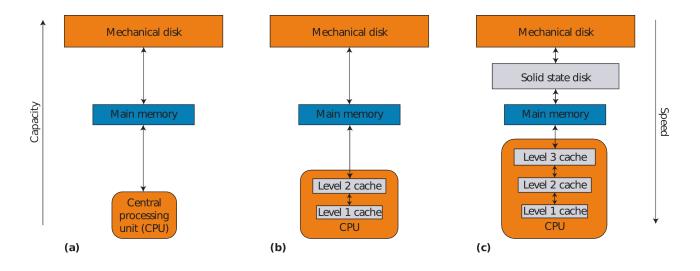
Accessing main memory is going to the break room, get a candy bar, and chatting with your co-worker (4 min).

Accessing a (mechanical) HDD is leaving your office, leaving your building, wandering the planet for a year and four months to return to your desk with the information finally made available.

Thanks K. Smith & http://duartes.org/gustavo/blog/post/what-your-computer-does-while-you-wait

### **Starving CPU Problem**

Waiting around for access times prior to computation is known as the *Starving CPU Problem*.



Francesc Alted. 2010. Why Modern CPUs Are Starving and What Can Be Done about It. IEEE Des. Test 12, 2 (March 2010), 68-71. DOI=10.1109/MCSE.2010.51 http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/MCSE.2010.51

Tables are a high-level interface to extendable arrays of structs.



Tables are a high-level interface to extendable arrays of structs.

Sort-of.



Tables are a high-level interface to extendable arrays of structs.

Sort-of.

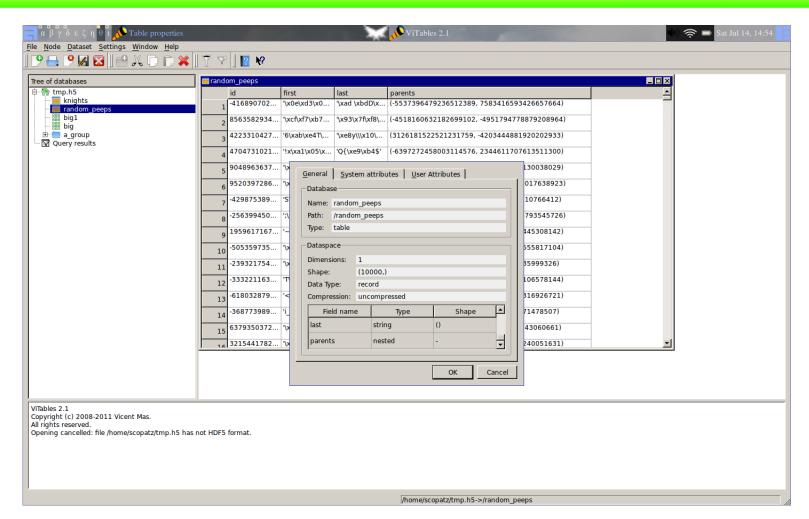
In fact, the struct / dtype / description concept is only a convenient way to assign meaning to bytes:

-	ids	3		first										last									
		- – –	-										-   .										-



Data types may be nested (though they are stored in flattened way).







Python already has the ability to dynamically declare the size of descriptions.



Python already has the ability to dynamically declare the size of descriptions.

This is accomplished in compiled languages through normal memory allocation and careful byte counting:

```
typedef struct mat {
  double mass;
  int atoms_per_mol;
  double comp [];
} mat;
```



```
typedef struct mat {
 double mass:
 int atoms_per_mol;
 double comp [];
} mat;
size t mat size = sizeof(mat) + sizeof(double)*comp size;
hid_t desc = H5Tcreate(H5T_COMPOUND, mat_size);
hid t comptype = H5Tarray_create2(H5T_NATIVE_DOUBLE, 1, nuc_dims);
// make the data table type
H5Tinsert(desc, "mass", H0FFSET(mat, mass), H5T_NATIVE_DOUBLE);
H5Tinsert(desc, "atoms per mol", HOFFSET(mat, atoms per mol), H5T NATIVE DOUBLE);
H5Tinsert(desc, "comp", HOFFSET(mat, comp), comp type);
// make the data array for a single row, have to over-allocate
mat * mat data = new mat[mat size];
// ...fill in data array...
// Write the row
H5Dwrite(data_set, desc, mem_space, data_hyperslab, H5P_DEFAULT, mat_data);
```

## **Exercise**

### exer/boatload.py





## **Exercise**

#### sol/boatload.py





Chunking is a feature with no direct analogy in NumPy.



Chunking is a feature with no direct analogy in NumPy.

Chunking is the ability to split up a dataset into smaller blocks of equal or lesser rank.



Chunking is a feature with no direct analogy in NumPy.

Chunking is the ability to split up a dataset into smaller blocks of equal or lesser rank.

Extra metadata pointing to the location of the chunk in the file and in dataspace must be stored.



Chunking is a feature with no direct analogy in NumPy.

Chunking is the ability to split up a dataset into smaller blocks of equal or lesser rank.

Extra metadata pointing to the location of the chunk in the file and in dataspace must be stored.

By chunking, sparse data may be stored efficiently and datasets may extend infinitely in all dimensions.



Chunking is a feature with no direct analogy in NumPy.

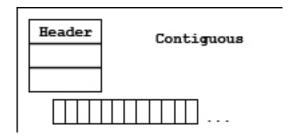
Chunking is the ability to split up a dataset into smaller blocks of equal or lesser rank.

Extra metadata pointing to the location of the chunk in the file and in dataspace must be stored.

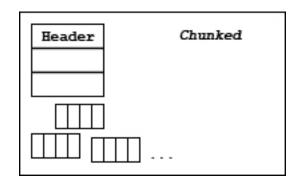
By chunking, sparse data may be stored efficiently and datasets may extend infinitely in all dimensions.

Note: Currently, PyTables only allows one extendable dim.





Contiguous Dataset



Chunked Dataset



All I/O happens by chunk. This is important for:

• edge chunks may extend beyond the dataset



- edge chunks may extend beyond the dataset
- default fill values are set in unallocated space



- edge chunks may extend beyond the dataset
- default fill values are set in unallocated space
- reading and writing in parallel



- edge chunks may extend beyond the dataset
- default fill values are set in unallocated space
- reading and writing in parallel
- small chunks are good for accessing some of data



- edge chunks may extend beyond the dataset
- default fill values are set in unallocated space
- reading and writing in parallel
- small chunks are good for accessing some of data
- large chunks are good for accessing lots of data



Any chunked dataset allows you to set the chunksize.

```
f.createTable('/', 'omnomnom', data, chunkshape=(42,42))
```



Any chunked dataset allows you to set the chunksize.

```
f.createTable('/', 'omnomnom', data, chunkshape=(42,42))
```

For example, a 4x4 chunked array could have a 3x3 chunksize.



Any chunked dataset allows you to set the chunksize.

```
f.createTable('/', 'omnomnom', data, chunkshape=(42,42))
```

For example, a 4x4 chunked array could have a 3x3 chunksize.

However, it could not have a 12x12 chunksize, since the ranks must be less than or equal to that of the array.



Any chunked dataset allows you to set the chunksize.

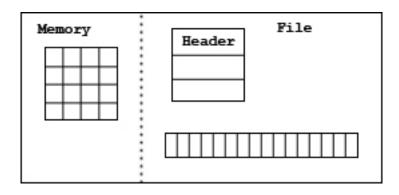
```
f.createTable('/', 'omnomnom', data, chunkshape=(42,42))
```

For example, a 4x4 chunked array could have a 3x3 chunksize.

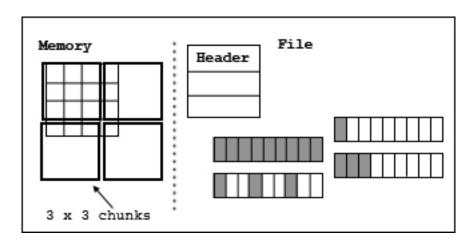
However, it could not have a 12x12 chunksize, since the ranks must be less than or equal to that of the array.

Manipulating the chunksize is a great way to fine-tune an application.





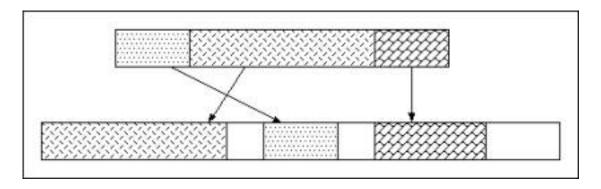
Contiguous 4x4 Dataset



Chunked 4x4 Dataset



Note that the addresses of chunks in dataspace (memory) has no bearing on their arrangement in the actual file.



Dataspace (top) vs File (bottom) Chunk Locations



### **In-Core vs Out-of-Core**

Calculations depend on the current memory layout.



### **In-Core vs Out-of-Core**

Calculations depend on the current memory layout.

Recall access time analogy (wander Earth for 16 months).



### **In-Core vs Out-of-Core**

Calculations depend on the current memory layout.

Recall access time analogy (wander Earth for 16 months).

#### **Definitions:**



#### **In-Core vs Out-of-Core**

Calculations depend on the current memory layout.

Recall access time analogy (wander Earth for 16 months).

#### **Definitions:**

• Operations which require all data to be in memory are *in-core* and may be memory bound (NumPy).



#### **In-Core vs Out-of-Core**

Calculations depend on the current memory layout.

Recall access time analogy (wander Earth for 16 months).

#### **Definitions:**

- Operations which require all data to be in memory are *in-core* and may be memory bound (NumPy).
- Operations where the dataset is external to memory are *out-of-core* (or *in-kernel*) and may be CPU bound.



Say, a and b are arrays sitting in memory:

```
a = np.array(...)
b = np.array(...)
c = 42 * a + 28 * b + 6
```



Say, a and b are arrays sitting in memory:

```
a = np.array(...)
b = np.array(...)
c = 42 * a + 28 * b + 6
```

The expression for c creates three temporary arrays!



Say, a and b are arrays sitting in memory:

```
a = np.array(...)
b = np.array(...)
c = 42 * a + 28 * b + 6
```

The expression for c creates three temporary arrays!

For N operations, N-1 temporaries are made.



Say, a and b are arrays sitting in memory:

```
a = np.array(...)
b = np.array(...)
c = 42 * a + 28 * b + 6
```

The expression for c creates three temporary arrays!

For N operations, N-1 temporaries are made.

Wastes memory and is slow. Pulling from disk is slower.



A less memory intensive implementation would be an element-wise evaluation:

```
c = np.empty(...)
for i in range(len(c)):
    c[i] = 42 * a[i] + 28 * b[i] + 6
```



A less memory intensive implementation would be an element-wise evaluation:

```
c = np.empty(...)
for i in range(len(c)):
    c[i] = 42 * a[i] + 28 * b[i] + 6
```

But if a and b were HDF5 arrays on disk, individual element access time would kill you.



A less memory intensive implementation would be an element-wise evaluation:

```
c = np.empty(...)
for i in range(len(c)):
   c[i] = 42 * a[i] + 28 * b[i] + 6
```

But if a and b were HDF5 arrays on disk, individual element access time would kill you.

Even with in memory NumPy arrays, there are problems with gratuitous Python type checking.



Say there was a virtual machine (or kernel) which could be fed arrays and perform specified operations.



Say there was a virtual machine (or kernel) which could be fed arrays and perform specified operations.

Giving this machine only chunks of data at a time, it could function on infinite-length data using only finite memory.



Say there was a virtual machine (or kernel) which could be fed arrays and perform specified operations.

Giving this machine only chunks of data at a time, it could function on infinite-length data using only finite memory.

```
for i in range(0, len(a), 256):
    r0, r1 = a[i:i+256], b[i:i+256]
    multiply(r0, 42, r2)
    multiply(r1, 28, r3)
    add(r2, r3, r2); add(r2, 6, r2)
    c[i:i+256] = r2
```

This is the basic idea behind numexpr, which provides a general virtual machine for NumPy arrays.



This is the basic idea behind numexpr, which provides a general virtual machine for NumPy arrays.

This problem lends itself nicely to parallelism.



This is the basic idea behind numexpr, which provides a general virtual machine for NumPy arrays.

This problem lends itself nicely to parallelism.

Numexpr has low-level multithreading, avoiding the GIL.



This is the basic idea behind numexpr, which provides a general virtual machine for NumPy arrays.

This problem lends itself nicely to parallelism.

Numexpr has low-level multithreading, avoiding the GIL.

PyTables implements a tb.Expr class which backends to the numexpr VM but has additional optimizations for disk reading and writing.



This is the basic idea behind numexpr, which provides a general virtual machine for NumPy arrays.

This problem lends itself nicely to parallelism.

Numexpr has low-level multithreading, avoiding the GIL.

PyTables implements a tb.Expr class which backends to the numexpr VM but has additional optimizations for disk reading and writing.

The full array need never be in memory.



Fully out-of-core expression example:

```
shape = (10, 10000)
f = tb.openFile("/tmp/expression.h5", "w")
a = f.createCArray(f.root, 'a', tb.Float32Atom(dflt=1.), shape)
b = f.createCArray(f.root, 'b', tb.Float32Atom(dflt=2.), shape)
c = f.createCArray(f.root, 'c', tb.Float32Atom(dflt=3.), shape)
out = f.createCArray(f.root, 'out', tb.Float32Atom(dflt=3.), shape)
expr = tb.Expr("a*b+c")
expr.setOutput(out)
d = expr.eval()
print "returned-->", repr(d)
f.close()
```



The most common operation is asking an existing dataset whether its elements satisfy some criteria. This is known as *querying*.



The most common operation is asking an existing dataset whether its elements satisfy some criteria. This is known as *querying*.

Because querying is so common PyTables defines special methods on Tables.



The most common operation is asking an existing dataset whether its elements satisfy some criteria. This is known as *querying*.

Because querying is so common PyTables defines special methods on Tables.

```
tb.Table.where(cond)
tb.Table.getWhereList(cond)
tb.Table.readWhere(cond)
tb.Table.whereAppend(dest, cond)
```



The conditions used in where () calls are strings which are evaluated by numexpr. These expressions must return boolean values.



The conditions used in where () calls are strings which are evaluated by numexpr. These expressions must return boolean values.

They are executed in the context of table itself combined with locals() and globals().



The conditions used in where () calls are strings which are evaluated by numexpr. These expressions must return boolean values.

They are executed in the context of table itself combined with locals() and globals().

The where () method itself returns an iterator over all matched (hit) rows:

```
for row in table.where('(col1 < 42) & (col2 == col3)'):
    # do something with row</pre>
```



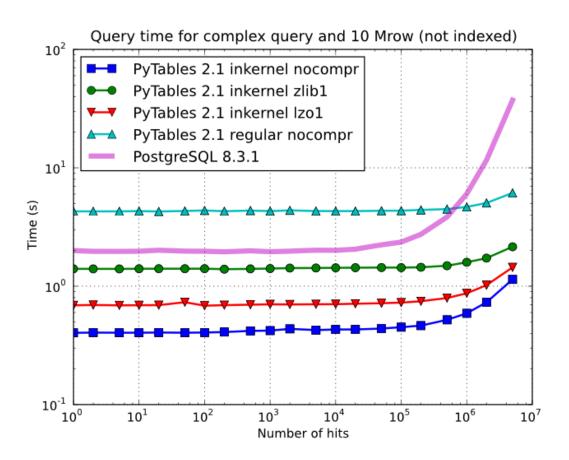
For a speed comparison, here is a complex query using regular Python:



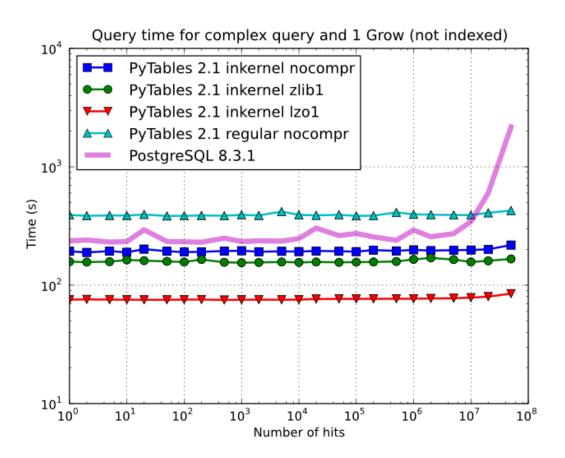
For a speed comparison, here is a complex query using regular Python:

And this is the equivalent out-of-core search:





Complex query with 10 million rows. Data fits in memory.



Complex query with 1 billion rows. Too big for memory.

# Exercise

#### exer/crono.py





#### **Exercise**

#### sol/crono.py





A more general way to solve the starving CPU problem is through *compression*.



A more general way to solve the starving CPU problem is through *compression*.

Compression is when the dataset is piped through a zipping algorithm on write and the inverse unzipping algorithm on read.



A more general way to solve the starving CPU problem is through *compression*.

Compression is when the dataset is piped through a zipping algorithm on write and the inverse unzipping algorithm on read.

Each chunk is compressed independently, so chunks end up with a varying number bytes.



A more general way to solve the starving CPU problem is through *compression*.

Compression is when the dataset is piped through a zipping algorithm on write and the inverse unzipping algorithm on read.

Each chunk is compressed independently, so chunks end up with a varying number bytes.

Has some storage overhead, but may drastically reduce file sizes for very regular data.

At first glance this is counter-intuitive. (Why?)



At first glance this is counter-intuitive. (Why?)

Compression/Decompression is clearly more CPU intensive than simply blitting an array into memory.



At first glance this is counter-intuitive. (Why?)

Compression/Decompression is clearly more CPU intensive than simply blitting an array into memory.

However, because there is *less total information* to transfer, the time spent unpacking the array can be far less than moving the array around wholesale.



At first glance this is counter-intuitive. (Why?)

Compression/Decompression is clearly more CPU intensive than simply blitting an array into memory.

However, because there is *less total information* to transfer, the time spent unpacking the array can be far less than moving the array around wholesale.

This is kind of like power steering, you can either tell wheels how to turn manually or you can tell the car how you want the wheels turned.

Compression is a guaranteed feature of HDF5 itself.



Compression is a guaranteed feature of HDF5 itself.

At minimum, HDF5 requires zlib.



Compression is a guaranteed feature of HDF5 itself.

At minimum, HDF5 requires zlib.

The compression capabilities feature a plugin architecture which allow for a variety of different algorithms, including user defined ones!



Compression is a guaranteed feature of HDF5 itself.

At minimum, HDF5 requires zlib.

The compression capabilities feature a plugin architecture which allow for a variety of different algorithms, including user defined ones!

PyTables supports:

• zlib (default), • lzo, • bzip2, and • blosc.





```
# complevel goes from [0,9]
filters = tb.Filters(complevel=5, complib='blosc', ...)
```



```
# complevel goes from [0,9]
filters = tb.Filters(complevel=5, complib='blosc', ...)
# filters may be set on the whole file,
f = tb.openFile('/path/to/file', 'a', filters=filters)
f.filters = filters
```



```
# complevel goes from [0,9]
filters = tb.Filters(complevel=5, complib='blosc', ...)

# filters may be set on the whole file,
f = tb.openFile('/path/to/file', 'a', filters=filters)
f.filters = filters

# filters may also be set on most other nodes
f.createTable('/', 'table', desc, filters=filters)
f.root.group._v_filters = filters
```



Compression is enabled in PyTables through *filters*.

```
# complevel goes from [0,9]
filters = tb.Filters(complevel=5, complib='blosc', ...)
# filters may be set on the whole file,
f = tb.openFile('/path/to/file', 'a', filters=filters)
f.filters = filters
# filters may also be set on most other nodes
f.createTable('/', 'table', desc, filters=filters)
f.root.group._v_filters = filters
```

Filters only act on chunked datasets.



Tips for choosing compression parameters:



Tips for choosing compression parameters:

• A mid-level (5) compression is sufficient. No need to go all the way up (9).



Tips for choosing compression parameters:

- A mid-level (5) compression is sufficient. No need to go all the way up (9).
- Use zlib if you must guarantee complete portability.



Tips for choosing compression parameters:

- A mid-level (5) compression is sufficient. No need to go all the way up (9).
- Use zlib if you must guarantee complete portability.
- Use blosc all other times. It is optimized for HDF5.

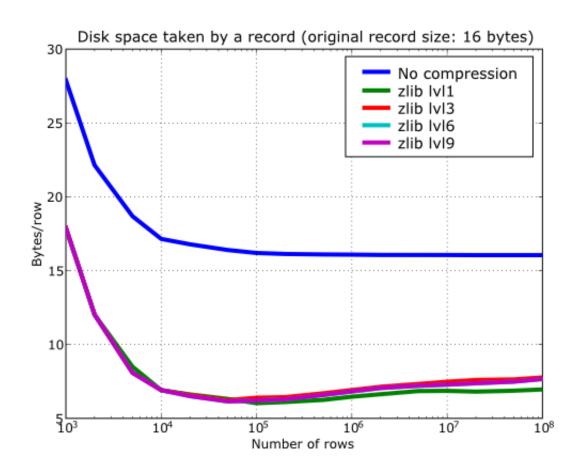


Tips for choosing compression parameters:

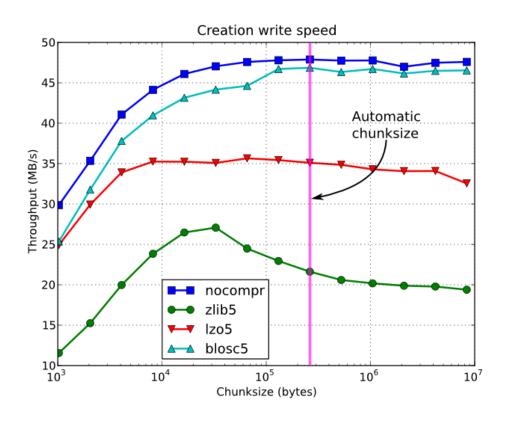
- A mid-level (5) compression is sufficient. No need to go all the way up (9).
- Use zlib if you must guarantee complete portability.
- Use blosc all other times. It is optimized for HDF5.

But why? (I don't have time to go into the details of blosc. However here are some justifications...)

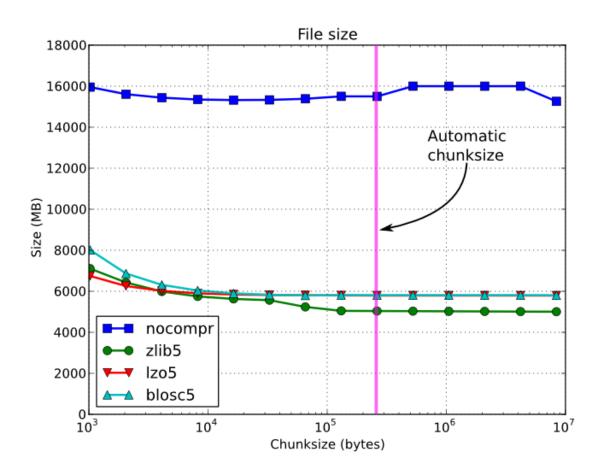




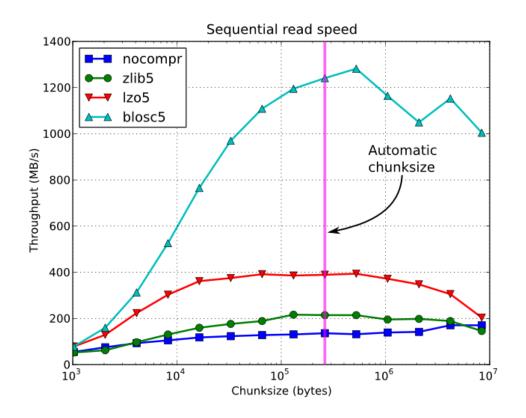
Comparison of different compression levels of zlib.



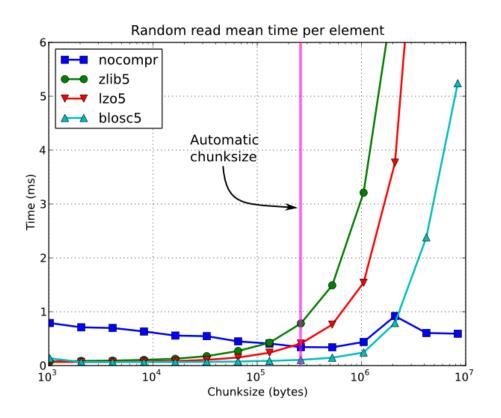
Creation time per element for a 15 GB EArray and different chunksizes.



File sizes for a 15 GB EArray and different chunksizes.



Sequential access time per element for a 15 GB EArray and different chunksizes.



Random access time per element for a 15 GB EArray and different chunksizes.

# **Exercise**

#### exer/spam\_filter.py





### **Exercise**

#### sol/spam\_filter.py





Overwhelmingly, numpy arrays have been the in-memory data structure of choice.



Overwhelmingly, numpy arrays have been the in-memory data structure of choice.

Using lists or tuples instead of arrays follows analogously.



Overwhelmingly, numpy arrays have been the in-memory data structure of choice.

Using lists or tuples instead of arrays follows analogously.

It is data structures like sets and dictionaries which do not quite map.



Overwhelmingly, numpy arrays have been the in-memory data structure of choice.

Using lists or tuples instead of arrays follows analogously.

It is data structures like sets and dictionaries which do not quite map.

However, as long as all elements may be cast into the same atomic type, these structures can be stored in HDF5 with relative ease.



#### Sets

Example of serializing and deserializing sets:

```
>>> s = \{1.0, 42, 77.7, 6E+01, True\}
>>> f.createArray('/', 's', [float(x) for x in s])
/s (Array(4,)) ''
  atom := Float64Atom(shape=(), dflt=0.0)
  maindim := 0
  flavor := 'python'
  byteorder := 'little'
  chunkshape := None
>>> set(f.root.s)
set([1.0, 42.0, 77.7, 60.0])
```

## Exercise

#### exer/dict\_table.py





## **Exercise**

#### sol/dict\_table.py





#### What Was Missed

- Walking Nodes
- File Nodes
- Indexing
- Migrating to / from SQL
- HDF5 in other database formats
- Other Databases in HDF5
- HDF5 as a File System



Many thanks to everyone who made this possible!



Many thanks to everyone who made this possible!

• The HDF Group



Many thanks to everyone who made this possible!

- The HDF Group
- The PyTables Governance Team:
  - Josh Moore, Antonio Valentino, Josh Ayers



(Cont.)

• The NumPy Developers



(Cont.)

- The NumPy Developers
- •h5py, the symbiotic project



(Cont.)

- The NumPy Developers
- •h5py, the symbiotic project
- Francesc Alted



(Cont.)

- The NumPy Developers
- •h5py, the symbiotic project
- Francesc Alted

**Shameless Plug:** We are always looking for more hands. Join Now!



#### Questions

