



On Data Skewness, Stragglers, and MapReduce Progress Indicators

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Progress analysis helps users understand the program execution and can shed light on abnormal behaviors:

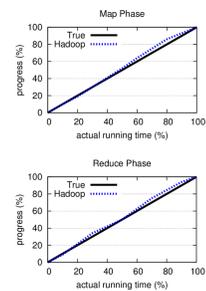
- remaining time? - slow/stalled computations?
- load unbalancing? - algorithmic inefficiencies?

Example: Apache Hadoop progress indicator

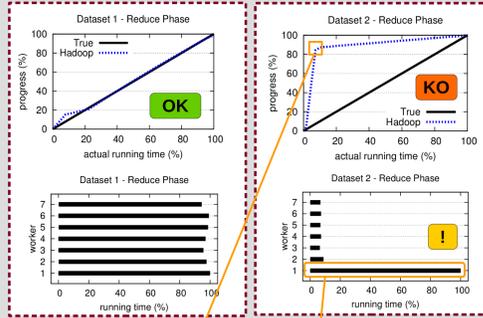
Benchmark: WordCount
Dataset: Wikipedia dump

Map: ~20mins
Reduce: ~10mins

```
[...]
11:30:01: Running job: job_201503151102_0002
11:30:02: map 0% reduce 0%
11:32:26: map 10% reduce 0%
11:34:48: map 19% reduce 0%
11:36:32: map 30% reduce 0%
11:38:26: map 41% reduce 0%
11:40:08: map 52% reduce 0%
11:42:39: map 64% reduce 0%
11:44:14: map 75% reduce 0%
11:46:25: map 86% reduce 0%
11:50:01: map 100% reduce 0%
11:51:01: map 100% reduce 10%
11:52:57: map 100% reduce 34%
11:55:02: map 100% reduce 52%
11:57:07: map 100% reduce 73%
11:58:49: map 100% reduce 91%
11:59:54: map 100% reduce 100%
13:59:59: Job complete: job_201503151102_0002
[...]
```



Another example: MatMul - a sparse matrix multiplication library



After ~4 mins:
- true progress: 10%
- true remaining time: 36 mins
- estimated progress: 85%
- estimated remaining time: ~1 min

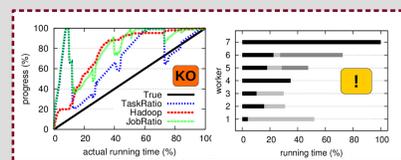
Straggler: a task which takes much longer to complete than the other ones

Same benchmark, different datasets:
very different progress prediction accuracy. Why?

Skewness and stragglers in MapReduce

- **Partitioning skewness:** keys unfairly partitioned among tasks
- **Shuffle data skewness:** few key groups much larger than others
- **Computational skewness:** data skewness + superlinear reduce functions

State-of-art progress indicators do not deal with computational skewness



Linear progress assumption: running time depends linearly on the input size

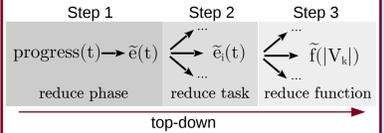
Computational skewness common in practice: e.g., computing clustering coefficients in social networks (power-law degree distribution)

Our contribution

Design and implementation of **NearestFit**, a novel progress indicator especially well-suited for long-running applications.

- no linear progress assumption
- predictions based on dynamically collected fine-grained profile data
- exploit machine learning techniques to predict remaining running time
- efficient implementation based on data streaming algorithms

Bird's eye view of our prediction model

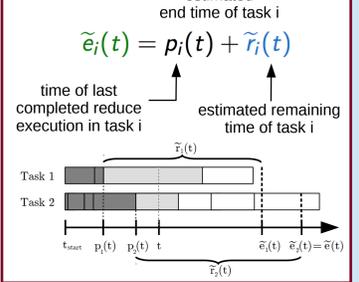


(Step 1) Reduce progress at time t

$$progress(t) = \frac{t - t_{start}}{\tilde{e}(t) - t_{start}} \times 100$$

(Step 2) Estimated end time

$$\tilde{e}(t) = \max_{\text{reduce tasks } i} \tilde{e}_i(t)$$



(Step 3) Remaining time of task i

$$r_i(t) = \sum_{\text{unprocessed key } k} f(k, V_k)$$

exact cost model for the running time of reduce functions: unknown in general

k: any unprocessed key assigned to task i
V_k: set of values associated with k

Our assumption: running time function of input size
 $|V_{k_1}| \approx |V_{k_2}| \Rightarrow f(k_1, V_{k_1}) \approx f(k_2, V_{k_2})$

Then:
$$\tilde{r}_i(t) = \sum_{\text{unprocessed key } k} \tilde{f}(|V_k|)$$

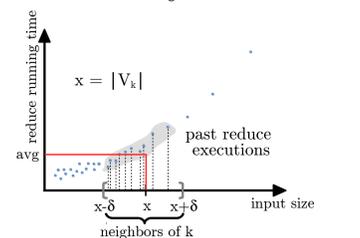
approximate cost model for the running time of reduce functions

How to predict reduce running time for key group (k, V_k)?

Two complementary techniques

Technique 1: δ-nearest neighbor regression

$\tilde{f}(|V_k|)$ = average of the running times observed in the δ-neighborhood of k

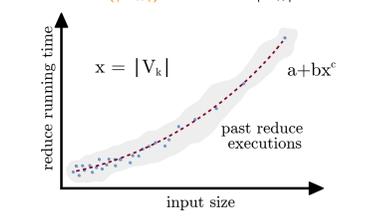


Rather accurate, but δ-neighborhood could be empty (especially for stragglers)

Technique 2: curve fitting

Find a mathematical model (parameters a, b, and c):

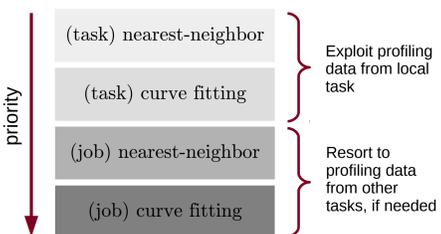
$$\tilde{f}(|V_k|) = a + b \cdot |V_k|^c$$



Potentially always applicable, but hard to tune in practice (unstable, noisy profiles)

Combining nearest neighbors and curve fitting

Combination of the two techniques overcomes their drawbacks while retaining their advantages:



- Key insights:
- nearest neighbor, if applicable, more accurate than curve fitting
 - prioritize task-local profiling data: VMs can exhibit vastly different performance even on homogeneous clusters
 - if not enough profiling data available from task i, resort to profiles from other tasks (job-level profiles)

Implementation ingredients

- Characterization of reduce task inputs
Which is the distribution of key group sizes for a given task?
Obtained by profiling map tasks
- Information about past executions of reduce functions:
Which are the input sizes and running times of terminated executions?
Obtained by profiling reduce tasks

Massive amounts of fine-grained profile data: non negligible time and space overheads!

NearestFit exploits space and time efficient data streaming algorithms to approximate some of the quantities required by the theoretical model

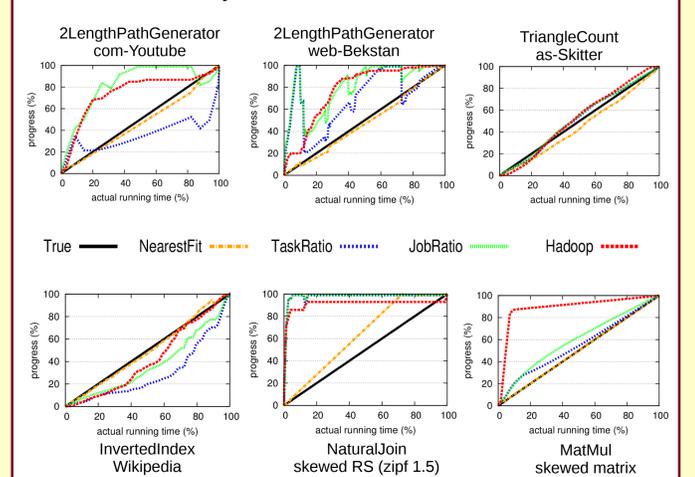
Experimental results

Applications: text processing (WordCount, InvertedIndex), graph computations (2LengthPathGenerator, TriangleCount), numerical analysis (MatrixMultiplication), database processing (NaturalJoin).

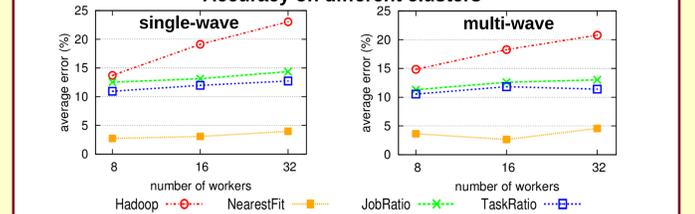
Datasets: Wikipedia dump, 6 social networks (SNAP project), 2 sparse matrices (uniform/skewed value distribution), and 5 skewed relations (zipf distribution).

Platform: 8/16/32 m1.xlarge instances from Amazon Web Services

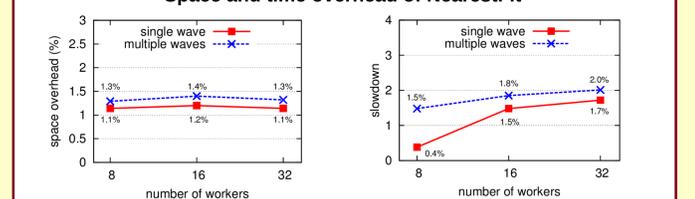
Accuracy: NearestFit vs state-of-art indicators



Accuracy on different clusters

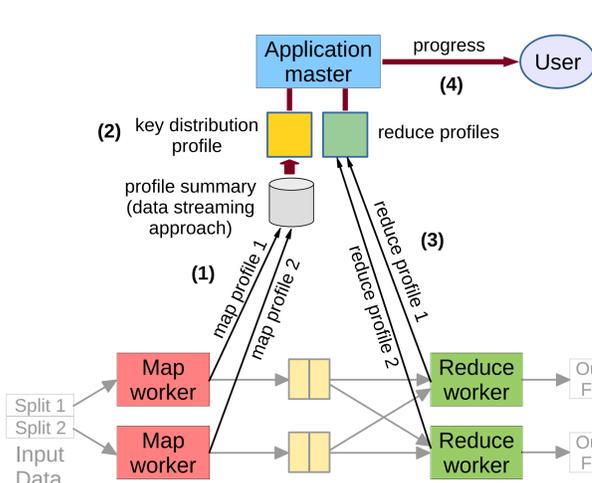


Space and time overhead of NearestFit



An operational view of NearestFit

- Map workers send *map profiles* to application master
- Using map profiles, application master builds a *key distribution profile*
- Reduce workers periodically send *reduce profiles* to application master
- Using key distribution and reduce profiles, application master estimates progress



- Map profiles:** top-k keys with largest sets of values + cumulative summary of remaining keys and their sizes
- Key distribution profile:** approximate top-k keys with largest set of values among all reduce tasks + cumulative summary of remaining keys and their sizes
- Reduce profiles:** Running times and key group sizes of past executions of the reduce function

Implemented on top of Hadoop 2.6.0