Adaptive Scheduling in Spark

by

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Abstract

Because most data processing systems are distributed in nature, data must be transferred between these machines. Currently, Spark, a prominent such system, predetermines the strategies for how this data is to be shuffled but in certain situations, perfomance may be improved by not performing the typical strategy. We add functionality to track metrics about the data during the job and appropriately adapt our shuffle strategy. We show improvements in regular shuffle performance, joins using Spark's RDD interface, and joins in Spark SQl.

Acknowledgments

First, I would like to thank my parents Umesh Mahajan and Manjula Mahajan for their enduring support and love throughout my time at MIT.

I would like to thank Professor Matei Zaharia for his guidance, patience, and support while advising me throughout this project. I learned a lot throughout this project and am extremely grately for the support.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Spark and MapReduce

New data processing systems such as Spark and MapReduce have been designed to help process the increasing amount of data. Instead of relying on just one powerful computer, these systems use many computers due to lower costs, increased scalability, and improved fault tolerance. Because these systems are distributed in nature, they have stages (shuffle stages) where they transfer information between computers.

1.2 Shuffle

We will use MapReduce to explain the shuffle in more detail, but the main concepts still apply to Spark.

1.2.1 Shuffle Introduction

In the first stage of MapReduce, the map phase, the data is loaded onto different computers and computation is performed on it that results in a group of key-value pairs. The final phase of MapReduce,the reduce phase, assumes that all key-value pairs with the same key are grouped together onto the same machine. We call this property the shuffle guarentee. Thus, the shuffle phase, an intermediate phase that the system handles internally, transfers

key-value pairs between machines to satisfy the shuffle guarentee.

Figure 1-1 display the inner workings of the shuffle phase in MapReduce. For instance, a programmer may want to count the number of letters in a distributed file. The mappers will each load part of the distributed file and count the number of letters in their part. However, the systems needs to aggregate the count for each letter and thus all the counts for letter a will be sent to worker1, letter b will be sent to worker 2, letter c will be sent to worker c. These reducers will then promptly aggregate the counts that they receive from the mappers.

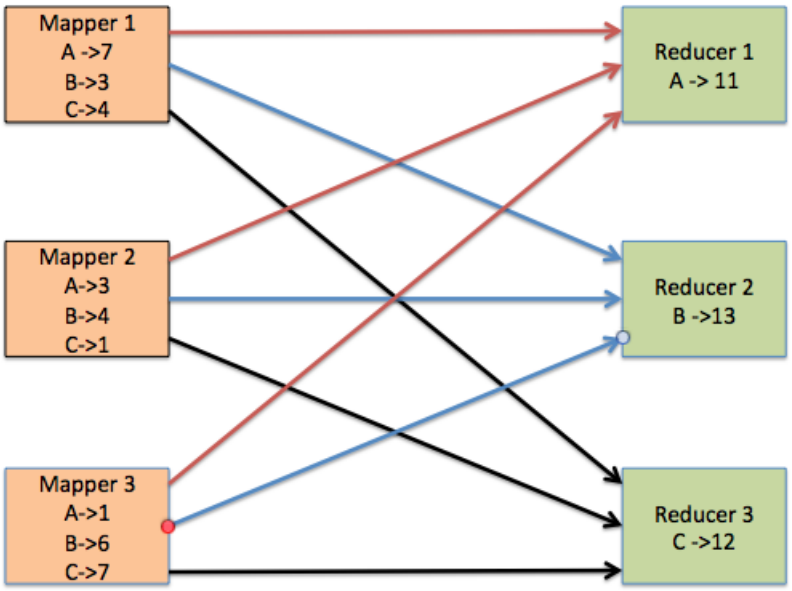

Figure 1-1: Shuffle for Letter Count in MapReduce

This figures demonstrates a basic shuffle in MapReduce. Each mapper sends its letter counts to different reducers such that each reducer gets the total letter count for a specific letter.

Due to the huge amounts of keys, these systems do not transfer data on the granurality of keys. Instead, they use partitions, which contain key-value pairs with different keys. Programmers can pick different partitioning functions such as hash partitiong and range partitiong to map keys to partitions. Two identical keys are guarenteed to be in the same partition. As long as all the mappers partition their data in the same way and send each partition with the same index to the same reducer, the system satisfies the shuffle guarentee.

1.2.2 Shuffle Analysis

MapReduce is constrained by the slowest worker; therefore, minimizing the latency of the slowest worker should improve imperformance. Balancing the amount of data sent to each reducer helps achieve this by reducing both network latency and also the execution time for the slowest worker. Figure 1-2, depicts a shuffle scenario that results in unbalanced paritions. A basic heuristic is used with each reducer getting half of the mapper output pations. In theory, this protocol in theory should generally result in balanced reducers, but as seen, Reducer 2 receives twice the amount of data as Reducer 1. However, if the system knew the sizes of the map output partitions, it could more intelligently balance the reducers. As seen in Figure 1-3, with the same map output partitions, the system could attain complete balance of 60MB for each reducer.

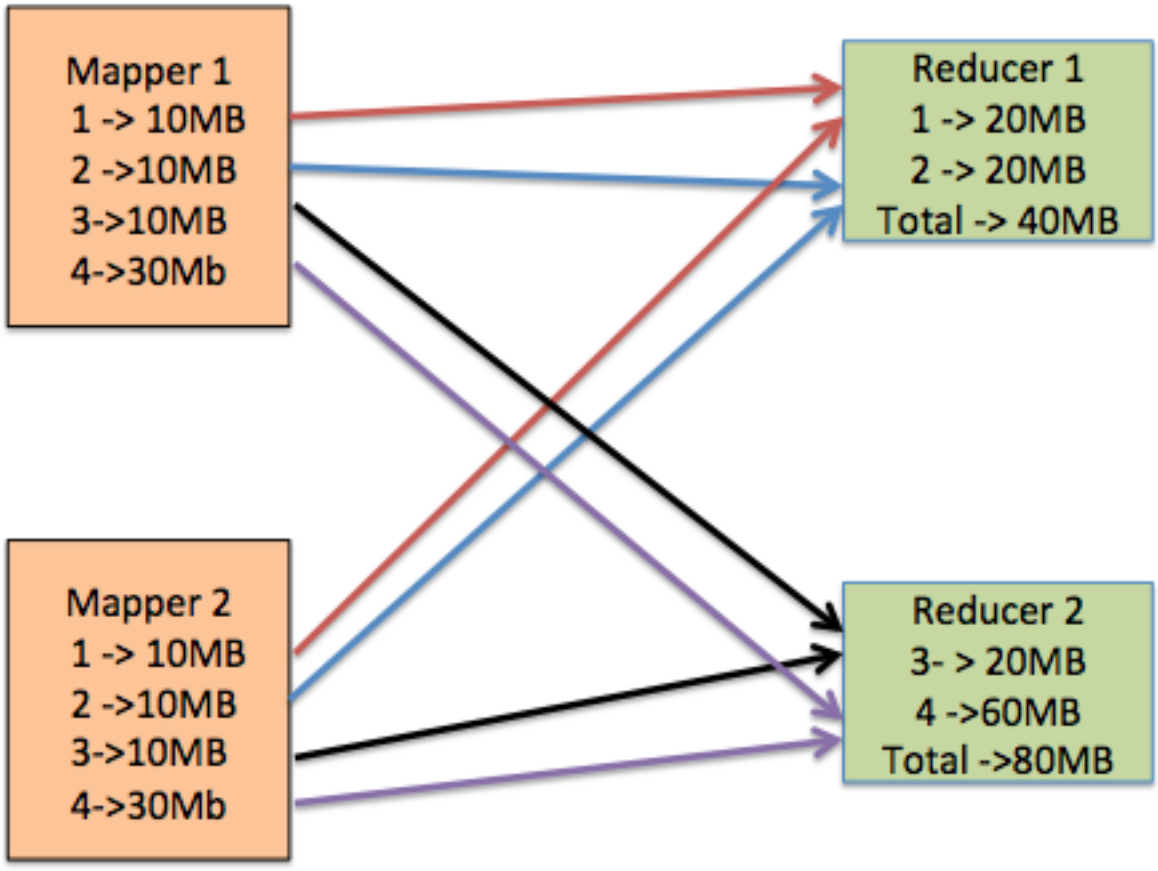

Figure 1-2: Unbalanced Shuffle

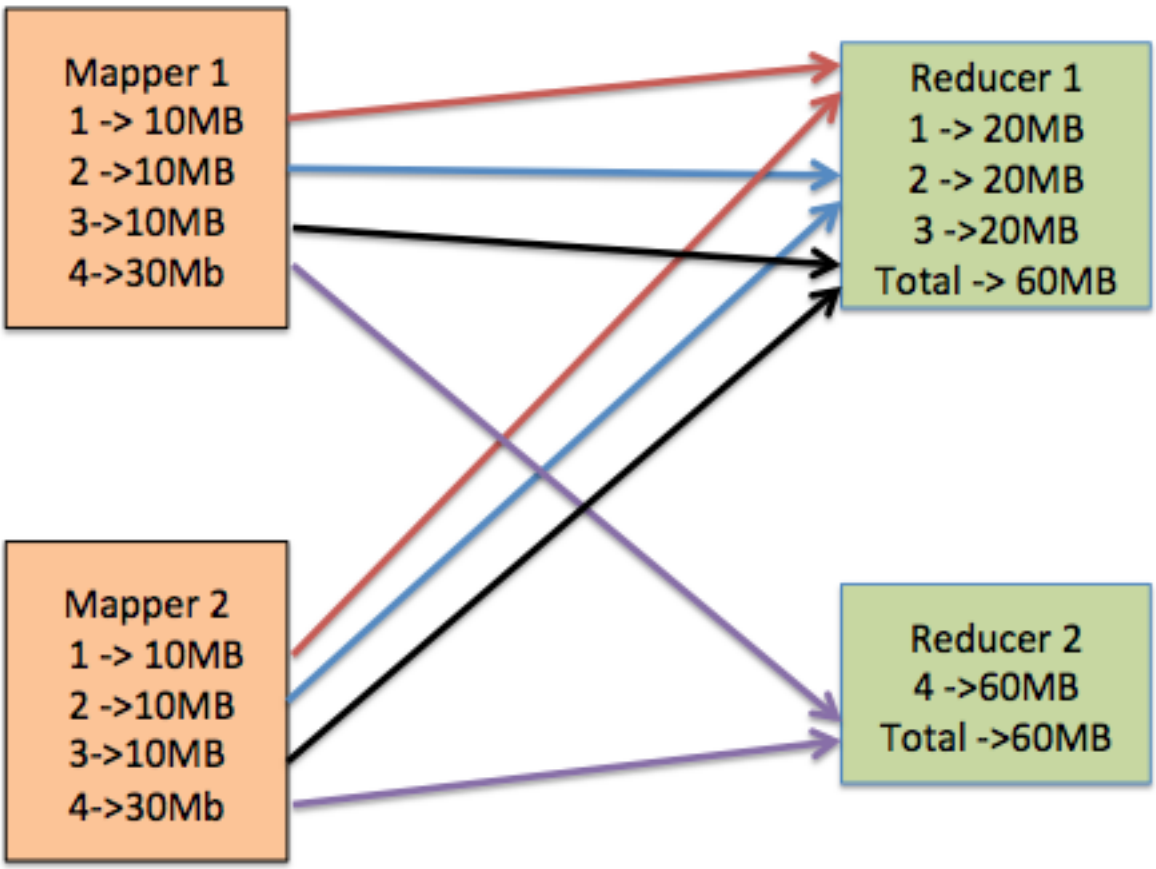

Figure 1-3: Balanced Shuffle

1.3 Adaptive Scheduling of Joins

1.3.1 Join Basics

A common operation in these data processing environments is a join. A join basically combines two tables by finding intersections between keys in respective columns. For instance, if we have Table 1.1 and Table 1.2 that we are trying to join based on the intersection of key1 and key2, the resulting output is Table 1.3

Key1	Value1
a	1
a	1
b	3
c	4

Table 1.1: Table for Dataset 1

Key2	Value2
a	5
c	7

Table 1.2: Table for dataset 2

Key1	Value1	Value2
a	1	5
a	2	5
c	4	7

Table 1.3: Table of Joined Data

1.3.2 Shuffle Join

The actual implementation of joins in MapReduce is very similar to the shuffle scenario presented above. Instead of just having output partitions for one dataset, the mappers have output partitions for two datasets and ensure that all partitions for both datasets with the same index are sent to the same reducer. Figure 1-4 details a shuffle join. For both datasets, all of the keys that mapped to partition 1 were sent Reducer 1 and this happens respectively for the rest of the partitions. Because all identical keys are in the same partition and each partition with the same index is sent to the same reducer, the system is guarenteed to find all intersections required for the join.

1.3.3 Broadcast Join

The diagram above may seem to imply that mappers and reducers are different machines. However, this distinction is artificial and there are no seperate machines for mappers and reducers. Therefore, not all data in the shuffle stage is transferred over the network. In Figure 1-1, if Mapper 1 and Reducer 1 were the same machine, the key value pair A=7 would be read locally and not have to be received over the network.

Because transferring data over the network could be a bottleneck, the broadcast join tries to increase the amount of data being read locally.For instance, in Figure 1-4, Dataset 1 is drastically bigger than Dataset 2. As seen in Figure 1-5, the broadcast join keeps the

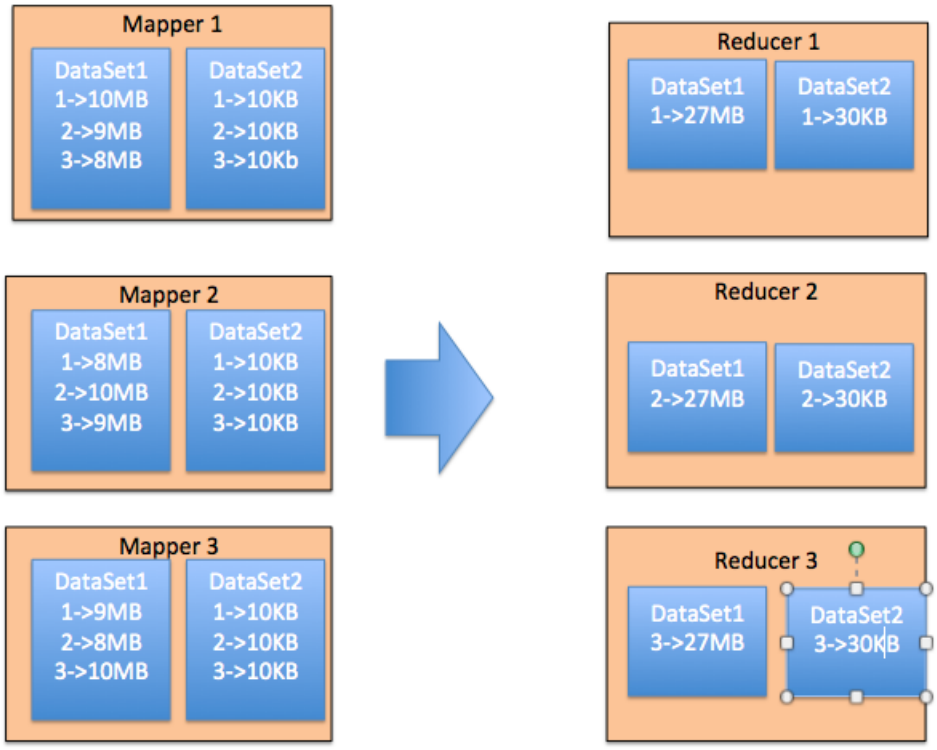

Figure 1-4: Typical Shuffle Join

This figure depicts a typical shuffle join. The mappers have output partitions for two different datasets. They ensure that all the partitions with the same index get sent to the same reducer. Reducer 1 received partition 1, Reducer 2 received partition 2, and reducer 3 received partition 3.

bigger dataset in place and sends the entirety of Dataset 2 to every reducer. Even though all of Dataset 1 stays in place, this method will still find all intersections beteen the datasets because all partitions of Dataset 2 are sent to every reducer. The diagram shows that only Dataset 2 is transferred and thus the network traffic is reduced from megabytes to kilobytes.

Broadcast Join is not always the optimal strategy. Because the entirety of the smaller dataset is sent to every partitions, the amount of total computation time increases. Additionally, if the datasets are approximately the same size, network traffic will actually increase. Each join strategy is the optimal strategy in different situations. Thus, it becomes imperative to pick the strategy after the mappers have run and the size of the map output partitions is known.

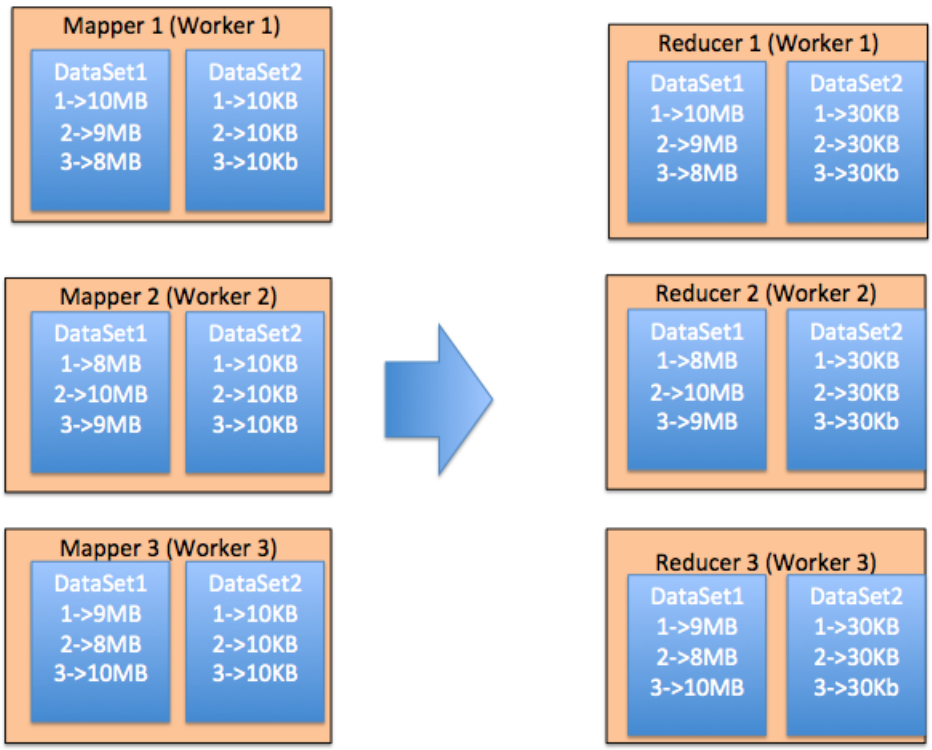

Figure 1-5: Broadcast Join

This figure depicts a Broadcast Join. As evidenced, the bigger dataset stays entirely in place but the entirety of the smaller dataset is sent to the each reducer. This cuts network traffic from megabytes to kilobytes.

Chapter 2

Implementation

2.1 Spark

All of the code was implemented in Spark. Although the code was implemented in Spark, it could also be implemented in MapReduce to achieve similar performance improvement. The Resilient Distributed Dataset(RDD) is the main interface within Spark. The RDD can be created from data or from another RDD. The key attributes of an RDD are its inputs, the number of partitions, and how each of its partitions is computed based on its inputs.

Profressor Matei Zaharia added code that allowed the tracking of sizes of map output partitions.

2.2 ShuffledRDD

The RDD we developed is a new version of ShuffledRDD, ShuffledRDD2. Its inputs are first a shuffle dependency, which is basically a bunch of map output partitions, and second, a number of reducers, or equivalentally the number of partitions for ShuffledRDD2. In the regular ShuffledRDD, each of its partition naively requests a segment of map output partitions as depicted in Figure 1-2. ShuffledRDD2 implements the more complicated scheme seen in Figure **??** The current Spark API only allows reducer partitions to request consecutive map partitions. In other words, it is impossible for a ShuffledRDD2 partition to have map output partitions 1 and 3, without having 2. For this constraint and the given number

of reducer partitions , ShuffleRDD2 assigns map output partitions to optimally balance its reduce partitions.

2.3 Joins

2.3.1 ShuffleReader Changes

As mentioned in the broadcast join section, the bigger RDD must stay in place. The current interface only allows a reducer to request a specific map output partition from all of the mappers. For the bigger RDD, the system would then have to request map output partitions from other machines, which defeats the purpose of the broadcast join. Thus, we added the capability of requesting a specific partition from just one mapper.

2.3.2 ShuffleJoinRDD and BroadcastJoin RDD

We implement two different type of RDDs, the ShuffledJoinRDD and the BroadcastJoinRDD. Both of these RDD's take two shuffle dependencies, which remember are basically the outputs of map stages, partitioned in a certain way. These dependencies must be partitioned in the same way; otherwise, two identical keys would not map to the same partition index.

The ShuffleJoinRDD implementation is very similar to ShuffledRDD. Instead of fetching map output partitions from just one dependency, it fetches the corresponding map output partitions from both dependencies. The user specificies the number of ShuffleJoinRDD partitions and each paritition request a corresponding fraction of the map output partitions. For instance, ShuffledJoinRDD partition 1 will fetch Dataset1 Partition 1 and Dataset2 Partition 1 from all of the workers. Once these partitions are fetched, its create a map with the key-value pairs of the smaller partition. It iterate through the keys of the bigger partition, seeing if they are present in this map, and if so, adding the intersection to the ourput.

The BroadcastJoinRDD implements the broadcast shuffle. For each BroadcasstJoinRDD partition, it requests one local map output partition from the bigger RDD using the

new request capability and all of the paritions from the smaller RDD. The number of partitions is equal to the number of partitions of the bigger input RDD. The system use the same strategy with the map and the iteration as the ShuffledJoinRDD to then find the intersections.

2.3.3 Joins in Spark SQL

Many programmers and data analysts prefer not to use the RDD interface and are more familiar with the sql; thus, Spark offers a sql like interface or SparkSql. One popular operation within sql is join. Although the user still writes in sql, Spark still executes the code using RDDs.

Because we are not just using the RDD interface and Spark automatically converts the sql query into a query plan, the implementation is much more complicated and thus we only implement our optimization for sort merge join. Although the exact semantics for how a sort merge join can be found here,the sort merge join still uses the shuffle and requires that every key that could intersect should be sent to the same reducer. To help achieve this, the sort merge join applies an exchange operator on each of the mapoutputs. These exchange operators produce ShuffleRowRDDS, which for our purposes are equivalent to ShuffledRDDS. In the next stage, each partition in the first ShuffledRowRDD is compared to the partition with the same index in the second ShuffledRowRDD. The only difference between this and how the join RDDs work is pretty semantic in that instead of one RDD requesting partitions from multiple mappers, two RDD's repartition their data and then another one compared partition by partion. By default, the code performs a shuffle join almost exactly in a manner with how the ShuffleJoinRDD works. One ShuffleRowRDD requests the corresponding partitions from its mapoutput just like Figure 1-2 and the other ShuffleRowRDD does the exact same but with its dataset.

However, if only one input RDD is smaller then a user-configured threshold, the system uses the broadcast join optimization. The bigger ShuffledRowRDD will be exactly like its parent. The other ShuffledRowRDD will have the same number of partitions as the bigger ShuffledRowRDD with each partition containing the entirety of the smaller input RDD.

The correctness guarentees is the same as the BroadcastJoinRDDs.

Chapter 3

Experiment

3.1 Setup

All jobs were run using the spark/ec2 launch scripts. They were run on four aws m1.large machines. They were run ten times, with the last times being average.

3.2 Regular Shuffle

3.3 Broadcast and ShuffleJoinRDD

3.4 Spark SQL join

Chapter 4

Future Research and Conclusion

4.1 Future Research

4.1.1 Extension of Shuffle

ShuffledRDD2 is limited in a couple ways. First, each reducer can only fetch partitions consecutively, but these partitions are fetched individually. Batching these partition request together could help reduce overhead. Second, the current version only supports inputing the number of reducers. Users could prefer an interface where they input the maximum number of bytes a reducer can have and the system automatically determines the number of reducers.

4.1.2 Extension to Join

First, we implement our changes in the exchange framework to make the easiest possible change to allow for our optmization, but we could conceivably do this in a cleaner manner.

Second, users have to statically pass in thresholds that determine when to switch between broadcast and shuffle joins. The system should automatically determine this based on factors such as the size of the RDDs as well as additional info such as the network bandwith and memory of each machine.

Third, we either broadcast an entire RDD or default to the shuffle pattern. However, if RDD1 has a big partition 1 and a small partition2 and RDD2 has a small partition 1 and big

partition 2, the systems performs a shuffle. However, the system could save time by having RDD1 broadcast its partition 1 and RDD2 broadcast its partition 2.

Fourth, in the broadcast join in Spark SQL, each ShuffleJoinRDD partition requests the entirety of its input. This request is made over the network for each partition, but generally multiple ShuffleJoinRDD partitions are on the same machine. Thus, a request should be made once per machine and stored in memory for the other partitions to use.

4.2 Conclusion

In conclusion, we show that improvements can be made to shuffle stage of Spark. Instead of predetermining our shuffle strategy, we can adapt it based on the output of the mappers. We show that these stategies improve the regular shuffle rdd , joins with rdds, and joins in Spark Sql. Although we have shown improvements, the work can be extended with simple changes to further improve performance.

Bibliography