Experimental Approaches in Computer Science

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Lecture 8 – More Workloads

Previous lecture:

- Representativeness of workloads
- Workload data and sanitization
- Heavy tails

This lecture:

- Burstiness and self similarity
- Locality of sampling

Burstiness and Self-Similarity

Let's make the following assumptions about how new work (jobs, packets, requests) arrives at a computer system:

- Work items arrive independently of each other
- They can arrive at any instant with uniform probability
- We measure time at fine granularity, so at each instant at most one arrives

This defines a Poisson process

Implications of a Poisson process:

- Work arrives uniformly over time
 - No large bursts of sudden activity
 - No cycles of activity
- Inter-arrival times are exponentially distributed
 - Allows for easy simulation of arrivals without deciding in advance how many will arrive
- Merging multiple Poisson processes is also a Poisson process
- Variability is reduced with aggregation
 - If we look at a longer time, periods with more activity cancel out with periods with less activity

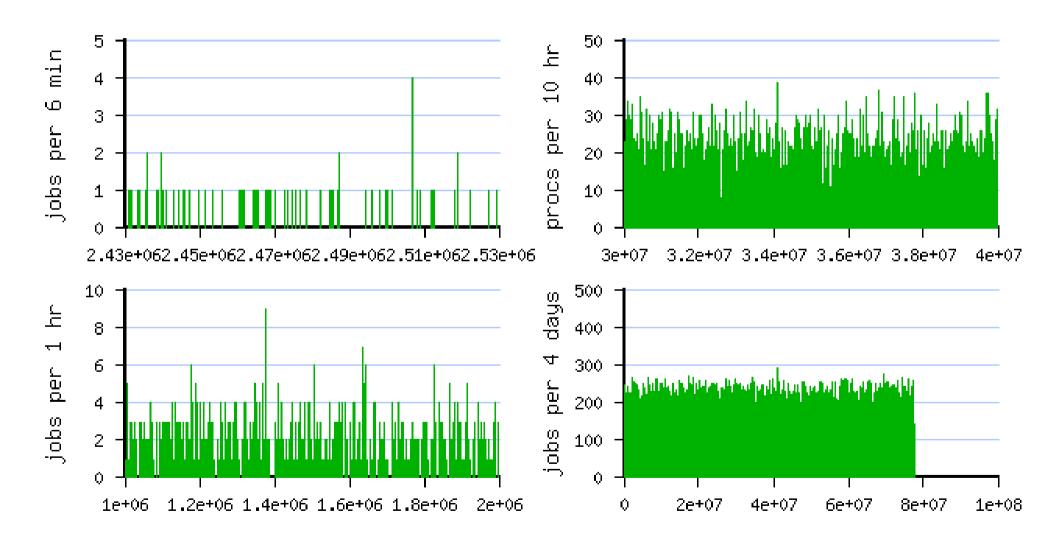
Checking experimentally that arrivals are Poisson:

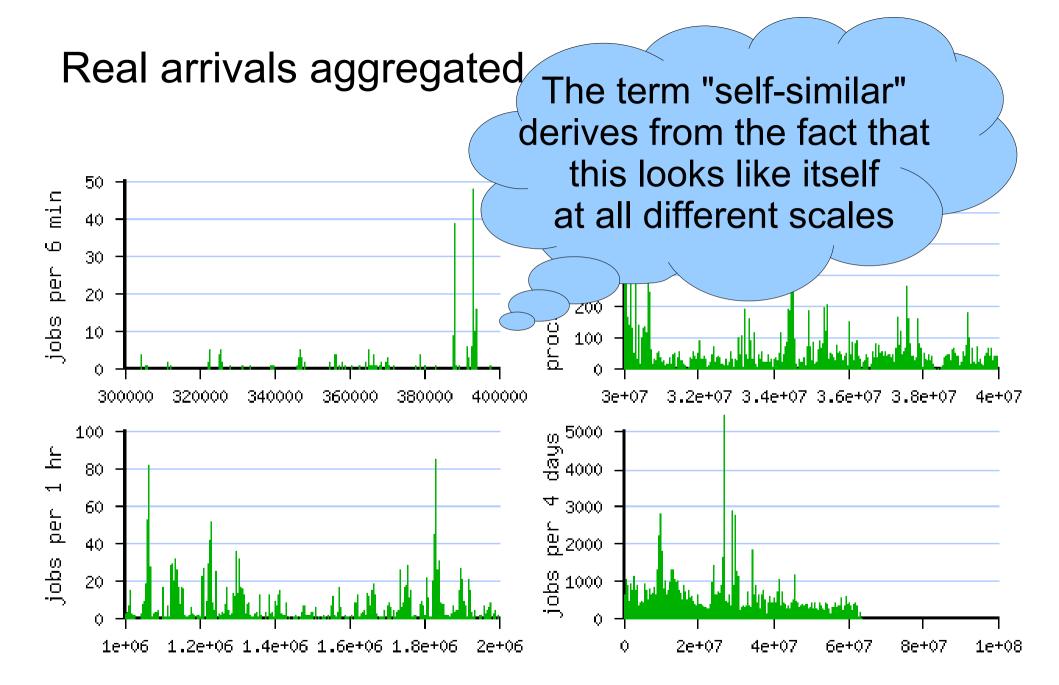
- Verify that distribution of inter-arrivals is indeed exponential
 - Compare to exponential distribution with same average arrival rate
- Verify that successive inter-arrivals are independent of each other

Look at correlation of successive inter-arrivals

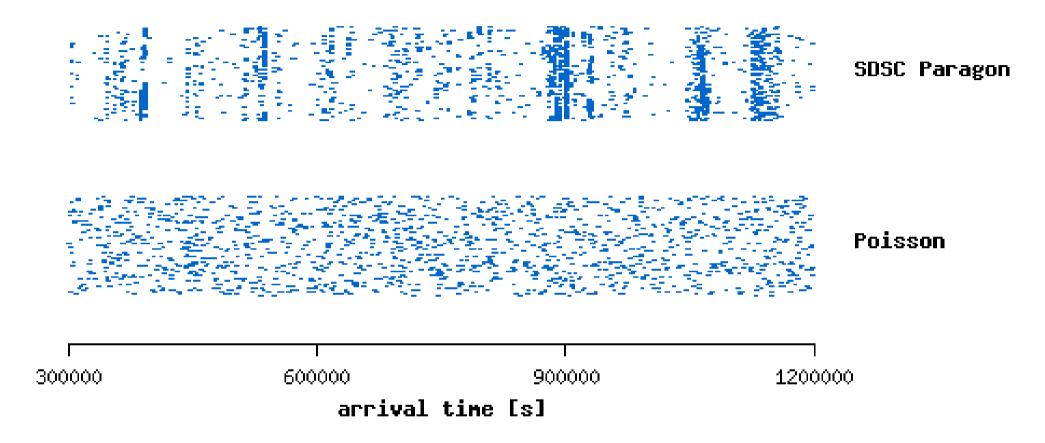
Verify that when aggregated the variance is reduced

Poisson arrivals aggregated





Another visualization using texture plots



This defines a time unit u, and plots each datum at X = t/u and $Y = t \mod u$

- Results: arrivals are often not Poisson
 - Packets in a communication network
 - Jobs to a parallel supercomputer
- But sometimes they are
 - New flows on a network
- This has implications for system capacity
 - Network buffers need to be large enough for bursts of activity
- Also need to consider other effects, e.g. the daily work cycle

The R/S metric and Hurst Parameter

How do you quantify self-similarity?

- Successive items are correlated
- So if you sum them up, you will get large deviations from the average
- Deviations larger than those of random independent items indicate self-similarity

• Start with a time series X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots

For example, X_i can be the number of packets that arrived in second *i*

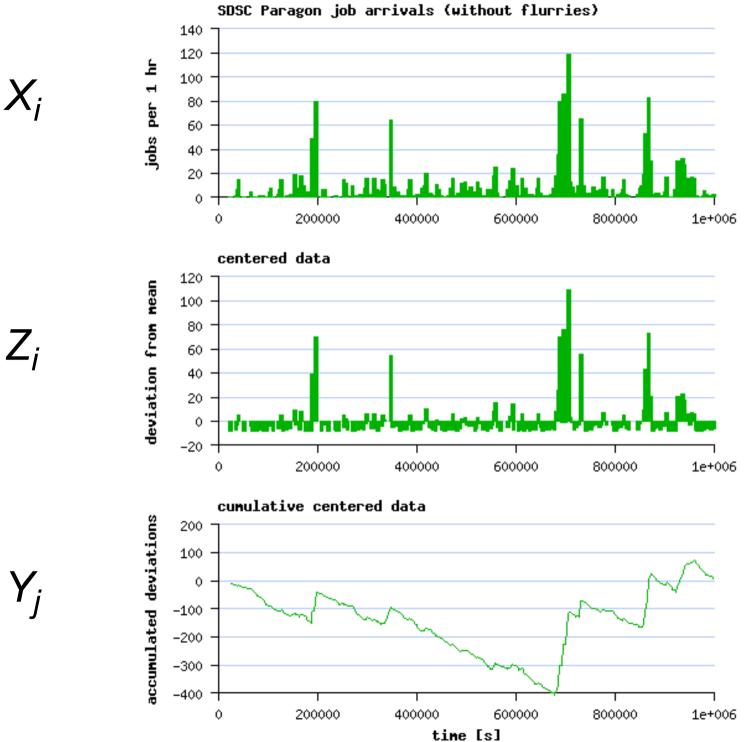
- Center the data by subtracting its average, giving $Z_i = X_i \overline{X}$
- Now create the sum of the first *n* items, for all *n*

$$Y_j = \sum_{i=1}^j Z_i$$

Note that $Y_n = 0$

• Finally, look at the range covered by these

$$R_n = max_j Y_j - min_j Y_j$$



 Z_i

 Y_j

- The magnitude of R_n is related to
 - The number of consecutive steps in each direction
 - The size of each step
- To remove the second effect and focus on the first one, we divide by the standard deviation
- The model is that this grow as a power law $\left(\frac{R}{S}\right)_n = C n^H$ $0 \le H \le 1$
- By taking the log, we get $\log\left(\frac{R}{S}\right)_n \propto H\log n$

What happens for a random walk?

- Each step is $X_i = +1$ or $X_i = -1$
- The expected distance squared is

$$\begin{split} E[(Y_{j})^{2}] &= E[(Y_{j-1} + X_{j})^{2}] \\ &= E[Y_{j-1}^{2}] + 2E[Y_{j-1}X_{j}] + E[X_{j}^{2}] \\ &= E[Y_{j-1}^{2}] + 1 \\ &= j \end{split}$$

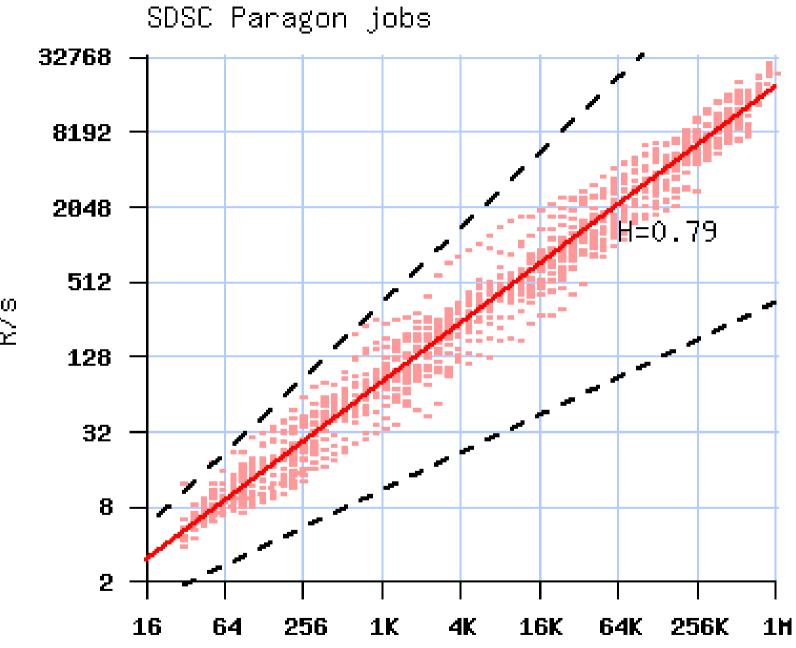
So the root-mean-square distance is

$$RMS(Y_n) = n^{0.5}$$

• And indeed we get H = 0.5

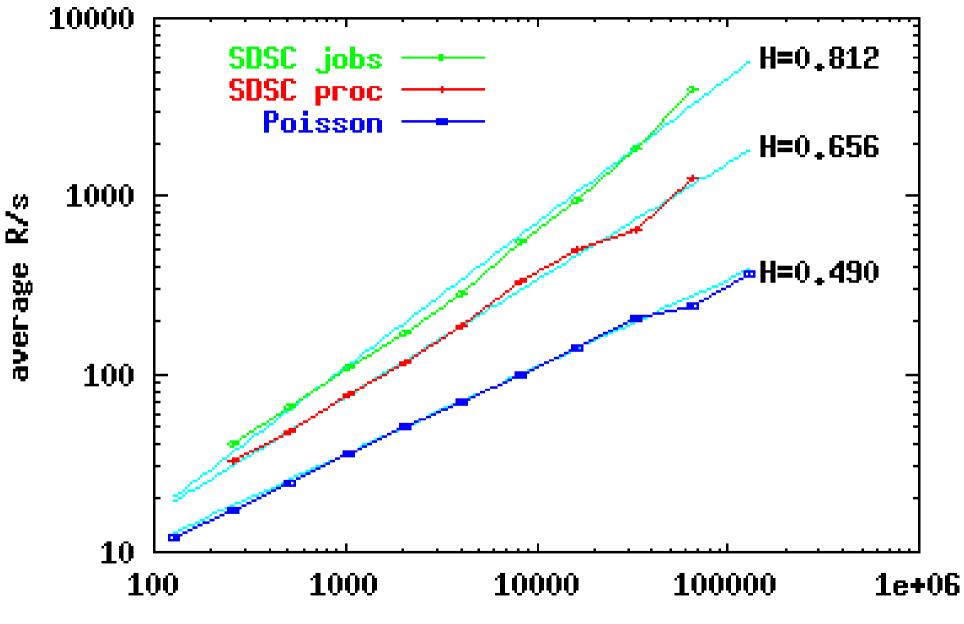
For self-similar data:

- Collect data for many different sizes *n*
- For each one, look at many different subsets of this length
- Calculate (R/S)_n for each one
- Draw a pox-plot: the measured (R/S)_n as a function of *n* on log-log axes
- Expect to get a straight line, with slope proportional to the Hurst parameter *H*



R/s

n



Π

Locality of Sampling

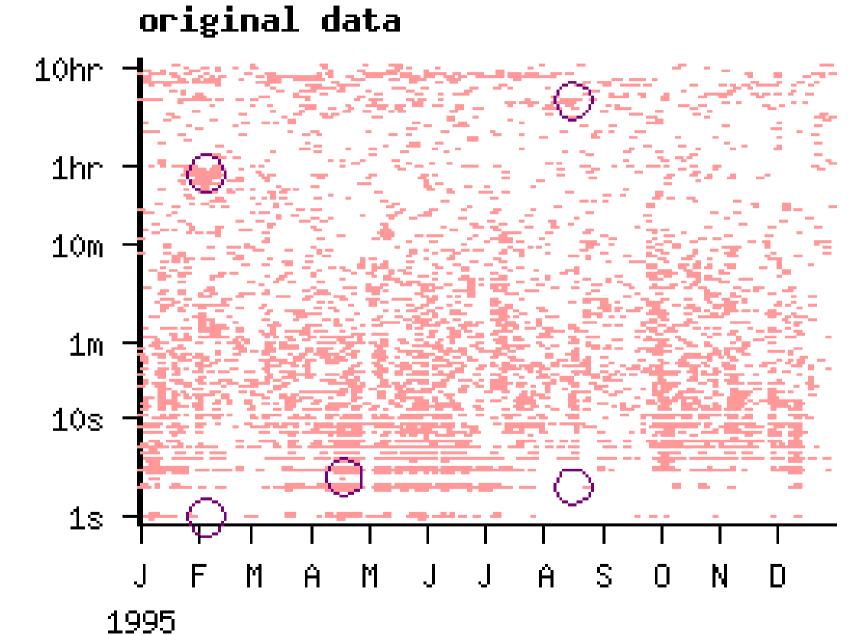
- Common model of workload generation is sampling from a distribution
 - Implied in fitting distributions to data and random variate generation in simulations
 - Implied in definition of arrival and service distributions in queueing analysis
- This requires a stationarity assumption
- But real workloads are non-stationary
 - Daily/weekly cycles
 - Workload evolution as usage changes
 - Locality in user behavior: repeated activity + shifting focus with time

Locality reduces randomness

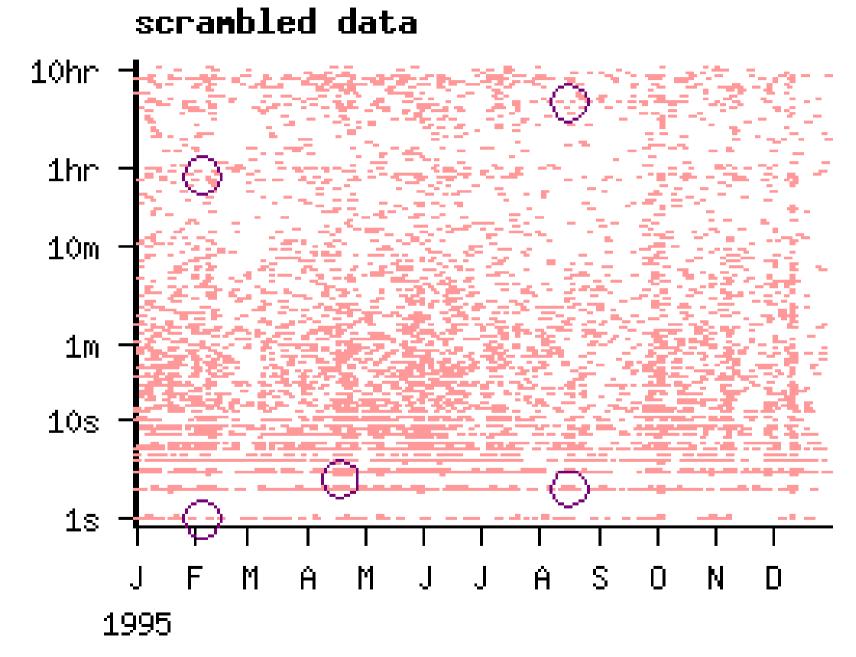
- Important for adaptive systems
 - Can learn about the workload
 - Can make predictions for the future
- Important for performance evaluations
 - Randomness is good because things tend to average out
 - Lack of randomness is harder to handle

"Locality of sampling"

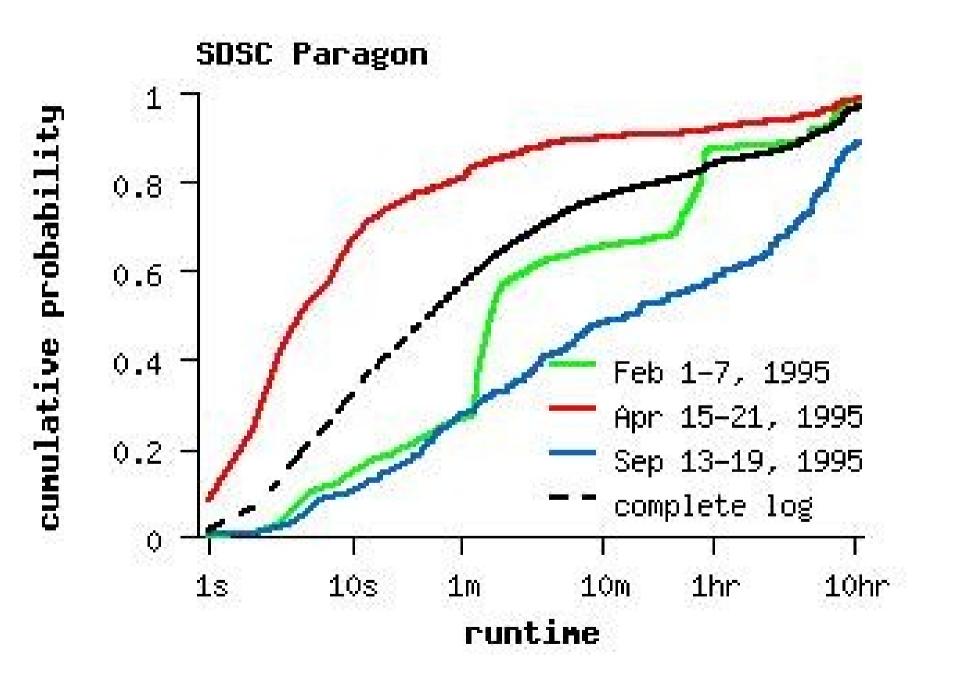
- Assume an underlying stationary distribution
 - e.g. empirical distribution from a long data log
- Workload is generated by a 2-level sampling process
 - Select a location within the distribution
 - Sample multiple items from this location
- Generative model of user behavior
 - At a given time, users focus on a certain project
 - While working on this project they repeatedly to the same thing



runtine



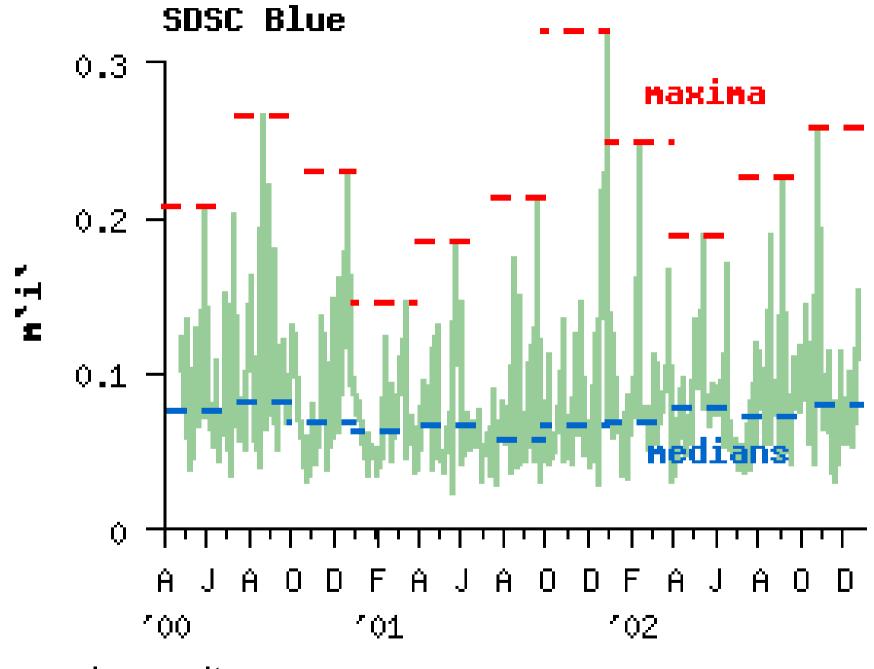
runtine



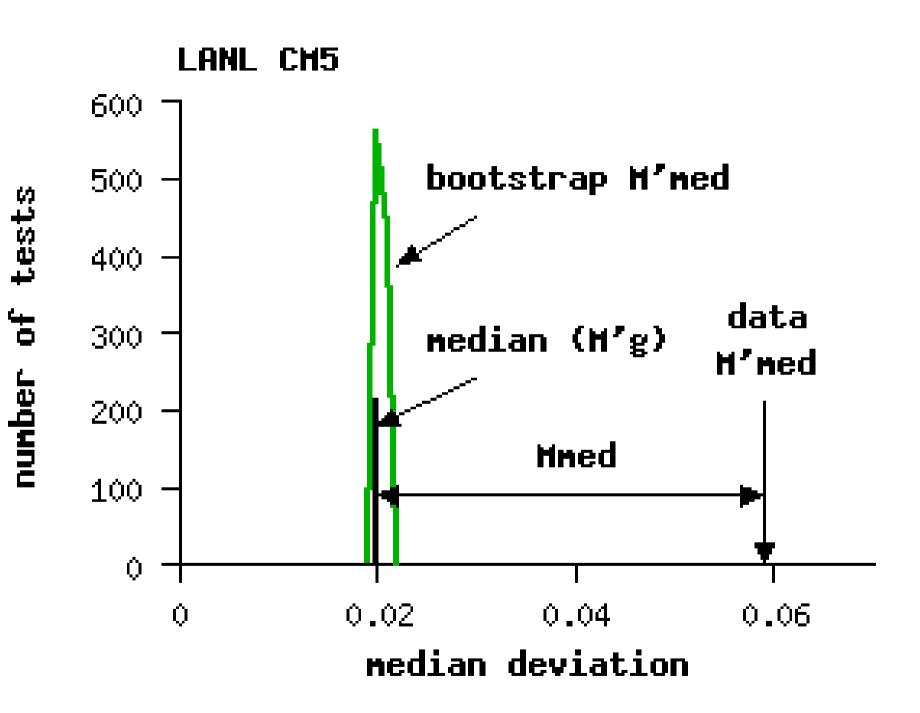
Quantifying locality of sampling:

- 1.Create histogram of global data, and partition into *r* equally likely ranges
- 2.Partition the log into slices that are long enough to contain sufficient data (>5*r* items)
- 3.For each slice *i* find number of items in each range o_j , and compute $m_i = \frac{max_j\{|o_j e_i|\}}{N_i e_i}$
- 4. Find median of all the m_i

The idea: quantify concentration of values in one range of the global distribution



Example results



Significance of results

Modeling locality of sampling:

- Empirical data: job repetitions are heavy tailed
- Top level of model: choose a job
- Bottom level: repeat it according to Zipf distribution
- Tail parameter of distribution allows control over the level of locality

