## Host Load Prediction with a Bayesian Model

based on the paper "Host Load Prediction in a Google Compute Cloud with a Bayesian Model" by Sheng Di, Derrick Kondo, Walfredo Cirne INRIA, France, Google Inc., USA sheng.di,derrick.kondo@inria.fr, walfredo@google.com

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## Why do we need host load prediction in the cloud?

- essential for achieving SLA's
- challenging because it fluctuates drastically at small timescales
- prediction of host load enables
  - proactive job scheduling
  - host load balancing decisions
  - improve resource utilization
  - lower data center costs
  - improve job performance



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## Why do not use existing methods for the cloud?

- more challenging than traditional Grids and HPC systems
- differences in the workloads run on top of such platforms
- tasks tend to be shorter and more interactive
- ▶ Google data center compared to AuverGrid cluster has  $\left[\frac{1}{20}, \frac{1}{2}\right]$  task length
- leads to much finer resource allocation on Googles data centers



#### Prior work

- prior prediction work in Grid Computing or HPC systems has focused on
  - using moving averages,
  - auto-regression and
  - noise filters
- applied to bursty Cloud workloads, they have limited accuracy
- does not attempt to predict long-term future load over consecutive time intervals
- filtering the noise of host load in Clouds may remove important and real fluctuations



# The expectations of using host load prediction with bayesian model

- prediction method based on Bayes model to predict
  - mean load over a long-term time interval (up to 16 hours)
  - mean load in consecutive future time intervals (pattern)
- predictive features that capture
  - expectation,
  - predictability,
  - trends and
  - patterns of host load



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# The expectations of using host load prediction with bayesian model

- predict host load over a longterm period up to 16 hours
- two critical metrics:
  - CPU
  - memory
- use a Bayesian model for prediction
- effectively retains the important information about load fluctuation and noise

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# The results of using host load prediction with bayesian model

- evaluated using detailed one-month trace of a Google data center
- method achieves high accuracy with a mean squared error of
  - 0.0014 for a single interval
  - $ightharpoonup \le 10^{-5}$  for a pattern
- improves load prediction accuracy by 5.6-50% compared to other methods



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### Google load measurements, the databasis...

- google data center, production system of 12,000 machines
- ▶ traced over 670,000 jobs and over 40 million task events over one month
- users submit jobs to a batch scheduler
- each job consists of a set of tasks and a set of resource constraints
- batch scheduler allocates those tasks to hosts
- load on the hosts is a function of the incoming workload at the batch scheduler, and its scheduling strategy

- host load at a given time point is the total load of all running tasks on that particular machine
- calculate the relative load values by dividing the absolute load values by the corresponding capacities
- load values range between 0 and 1 for each resource
- discretize all the load values by recomputing each hosts relative load over consecutive fixed-length periods, each having length on the order of a few minutes
- discretized load trace is the basis of the paper

- compute the relative host load at each period for AuverGrid's trace, using the same method applied to the Google trace
- higher noise compared with Auver-Grid
- minimum/mean/maximum noise of CPU load over all hosts computed using a mean filter are for
  - AuverGrid: 0.00008, 0.0011, 0.0026
  - Google: 0.00024, 0.028, 0.081

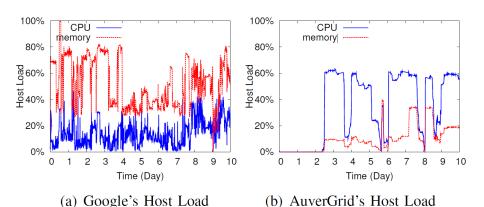


Figure: Load Comparison between Google & AuverGrid

- compare the distributions of host load using a quantile-quantile plot
- equally split the range of load values into five sub-ranges
- load duration is defined to be the length of time where load on a host constantly stays within a single sub-range
- compare the distribution of these load durations
- figure shows the points at which the load durations have the same probability

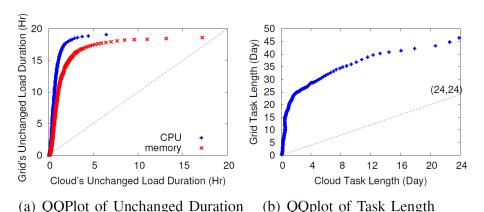


Figure: Quantile-Quantile Plot of Continuous Duration and Task Length

- ightharpoonup predict the mean load over a single interval at a current time point  $t_0$
- predict the mean load over consecutive time intervals
- introduce exponentially segmented pattern (ESP), to characterize the host load fluctuation over a time period
- prediction interval split into a set of consecutive segments, whose lengths increase exponentially
- predict the mean load over each time segment

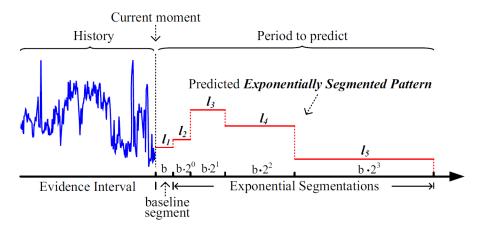


Figure: Illustration of Exponentially Segmented Pattern



- total prediction interval length s
- ▶ first segment  $(s_1)$  is called baseline segment with length b, starts from the current time point  $t_0$  and ends at  $t_0 + b$
- ▶ length of each following segment  $(s_i)$  is  $b*2^{i-2}|i=2,3,4,...$
- if b is set to 1 hour, the entire prediction interval length s is 16 (=1+1+2+4+8) hours
- predict mean host load for each segment
- ▶ mean values are denoted by  $I_i | i = 1, 2, 3, ...$
- prediction granularity is finer in the short-term than in the long-term



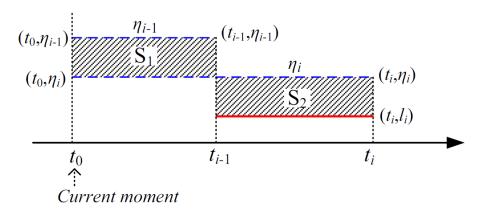


Figure: Induction of Segmented Host Load



- ▶ predict the vector of load values  $(I = (I_1, I_2, ..., I_n)^T)$  where each value represents the mean load value over a particular segment
- a predictor often uses recent load samples
- interval that encloses the recent samples is called evidence interval or evidence window
- prediction of each segmented mean load is the key step

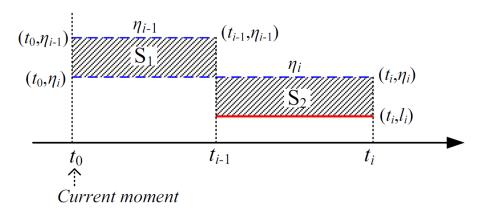


Figure: Induction of Segmented Host Load



- host load has high correlation between adjacent short-term intervals but not for the non-adjacent ones
- it is straight-forward to predict the load in the successive intervals based on the evidence window
- convert the segment representation into another one, in which each interval to be predicted is adjacent to the evidence window
- need to predict a set of mean host loads for different lengths of future intervals, each starting from the current time t<sub>0</sub>
- ▶ mean load levels of the prediction intervals as  $\eta_1, \eta_2, ..., \eta_n | \eta_{i+1} = 2\eta_i$
- ▶ target is to predict such a vector,  $\eta = (\eta_1, \eta_2, ..., \eta_n)^T$ , rather than the vector I



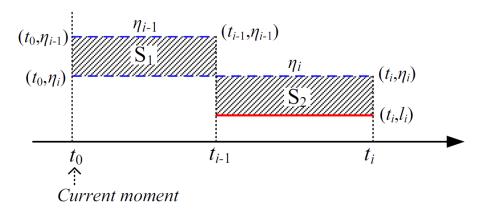


Figure: Induction of Segmented Host Load



- vector I can be converted from η through the following induction
- current moment is t<sub>0</sub>
- ▶ already predicted two mean load values  $(\eta_{i-1} \text{ and } \eta_i)$  over two intervals,  $[t_0, t_{i-1}]$  and  $[t_0, t_i]$
- ▶ making the areas of the two shaded squares ( $S_1$  and  $S_2$ ) equal to each other
- derive the mean load value in  $[t_{i-1}, t_i]$
- ▶  $l_i$  is the predicted mean load in the new segment  $[t_{i-1}, t_i]$ , corresponding to the red solid-line segment

$$I_i = \eta_i + \frac{t_{i-1} - t_0}{t_i - t_{i-1}} (\eta_i - \eta_{i-1})$$
 (1)



▶ Taking into account  $t_i = 2t_{i-1}$  and  $t_0 = 0$  the formula simplifies to

$$I_i = 2\eta_i - \eta_{i-1} \tag{2}$$

- simplifies and generalizes predictor implementation as any predictor that can predict load over a single load interval can be converted to predict a load pattern
- gives the option of predicting different load intervals starting at the current time point, or consecutive load intervals, without any additional overheads

- 2 key steps
  - mean load prediction (lines 1-5)
  - segment transformation (line 6)
- each prediction interval always starts from the current moment, unlike the segments defined in the first representation /

# **Algorithm 1** Pattern Prediction Algorithm

**Input**: baseline interval (b); length of prediction interval  $(s = b \cdot 2^{n-1})$ , where n is the number of segments to be split in the pattern prediction); **Output**: mean load vector l of Exponentially Segmented Pattern (ESP)

- 1: **for**  $(i = 0 \rightarrow n-1)$  **do**
- $2: z_i = b \cdot 2^i;$
- 3:  $\varpi_i = \frac{z_i}{2}$ ; /\* $\varpi_i$  is the length of the evidence window\*/
- 4: Predict the mean load  $\eta_i$ , whose prediction length is equal to  $z_i$ , based on a predictor PREDICTOR( $\varpi_i, z_i$ );
- 5: end for
- 6: Segment transformation based on Equation (2):  $\eta \rightarrow l$ ;

Figure: pseudo-code of Cloud load pattern prediction method

- shortterm prediction error always lags behind long-term error
- short-term prediction error almost always lags behind the long-length prediction error
- lag time is close to the interval length



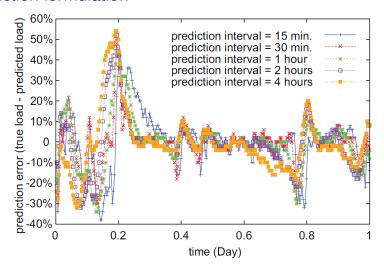


Figure: Prediction Errors in Different Prediction Lengths

- generate
  - the posterior probability from the prior probability distribution
  - the run-time evidence of the recent load fluctuations
- according to a Bayes Classifier
- bayes classifier is a classic supervised learning classifier used in data mining

Bayesian classification consists of five main steps:

- 1.  $\blacktriangleright$  determine the set of target states  $(W = (\omega_1, \omega_2, ..., \omega_m)^T$ , where m is the number of states)
- evidence vector with h mutually-independent features  $(\chi = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_h)^T)$
- 2. compute the prior probability distribution for the target states,  $P(\omega_i)$ , based on the samples
- 3. compute the joint probability distribution  $p(\chi|\omega_i)$  for each state  $\omega_i$
- compute the posterior probability based on some evidence

$$P(\omega_i|x_j) = \frac{p(x_j|\omega_i)P(\omega_i)}{\sum_{k=1}^m p(x_j|\omega_k)P(\omega_k)}$$
(3)

5. make the decision based on a risk function  $\lambda(\hat{\omega}_i, \dot{\omega}_i)$ , where  $\hat{\omega}_i$  and  $\dot{\omega}_i$  indicate the true value and predicted value of the state



- Based on different risk functions, there are two main ways for making decisions
  - Naive Bayes Classifier (N-BC)
  - Minimized MSE (MMSE) based Bayes Classifier (MMSE-BC)
- ▶ Their corresponding risk functions are:

$$\lambda(\dot{\omega}_{i}, \hat{\omega}_{i}) = \begin{cases} 0 & |\dot{\omega}_{i} - \hat{\omega}_{i}| < \delta \\ 1 & |\dot{\omega}_{i} - \hat{\omega}_{i}| \ge \delta \end{cases} \tag{4}$$

$$\lambda(\dot{\omega}_i, \hat{\omega}_i) = (\dot{\omega}_i - \hat{\omega}_i)^2 \tag{5}$$



predicted value of the state (ô<sub>i</sub>) is determined by: minimal error:

$$\hat{\omega}_i = \operatorname{arg\,max} p(\omega_i | x_j) \tag{6}$$

MSE:

$$\hat{\omega}_i = \sum_{i=1}^m \omega_i \rho(\omega_i | x_j) \tag{7}$$

- the target state vector and the evidence feature vector are the most critical for accurate prediction
- split the range of host load values into small intervals, and each interval corresponds to a usage level
- number of intervals in the load range [0,1] is denoted by r
- ► 50 load states in total, [0,0.02), [0.02,0.04),...,[0.98,1]



- the length of the evidence window is set equal to half of the prediction interval length
- maximizes accuracy, based on experimental results
- evidence window will also be split into a set of equally-size segments
- if prediction interval length is 8 hours, the evidence window length will be set to the recent past 4 hours
- ▶ 48 (=  $\frac{4*60}{5}$ ) successive load values (sample interval 5 minutes) in this period will serve as the fundamental evidence
- prediction interval length is 4 hours, evidence window length is 2 hours and there are 24 load values in the evidence window



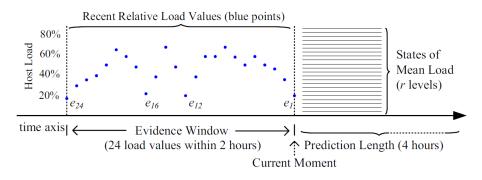


Figure: Illustration of Evidence Window and Target Load States

#### Features of Load Fluctuation

- 9 candidate features to be used as the evidence
- load vector in the evidence window  $e = (e_1, e_2, ..., e_d)^T$  where d is the number of the samples in the evidence window, also known as window size
- elements in the vector are organized from the most recent one to the oldest one

# mean load $(F_{ml}(e))$

mean load is the mean value of the load vector e

$$F_{ml}(e) = \frac{1}{d} \sum_{i=1}^{d} e_i$$
 (8)

- ▶ the value range of the mean load is [0,1] in principle
- split this range into r even fractions each corresponding to a load level
- this features value must be one of the 50 levels

# weighted mean load $(F_{wml}(e))$

weighted mean load refers to the linear weighted mean value of the load vector e

$$F_{wml}(e) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{d} (d-i+1)e_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{d} i} = \frac{2}{d(d+1)} \sum_{i=1}^{d} (d-i+1)e_i$$
 (9)

- the weighted mean load weights the recent load values more heavily than older ones
- this feature is also within [0,1], which will also be split into 50 levels to choose



## fairness index $(F_{fi}(e))$

The fairness index is used to characterize the degree of the load fluctuation in the evidence window

$$F_{fi}(e) = \frac{(\sum_{i=1}^{d} e_i)^2}{d\sum_{i=1}^{d} e_i^2}$$
 (10)

- Its value is normalized in [0,1]
- a higher value indicates more stable load fluctuation
- Its value is equal to 1 if and only if all the load values are equal to each other
- Since the target state in our model is the mean load value of the future prediction interval, the mean load feature seems more important than the fairness index
- when the load in the prediction interval changes with the similar fluctuation rule to the statistics, fairness index could effectively improve the prediction effect



## noise-decreased fairness index $(F_{ndfi}(e))$

- also computed using fairness index formula
- if there exist one or two load values (load outliers) that may significantly degrade the whole fairness index, they would not be counted in
- such load outliers are likely supposed to be considered noise or irregular iitters

# type state $(F_{ts}(e))$

- The type state feature is used to characterize the load range in the evidence window and the degree of jitter
- ▶ defined as a two-tuple,  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , where  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  refer to the number of types involved and the number of state changes
- ▶ if the window vector is (0.023,0.042,0.032,0.045,0.056,0.036)
- ► then there are only two types (or levels) involved, [0.02,0.04) and [0.04,0.06)
- ▶ there are four state changes:  $0.023 \rightarrow 0.042, 0.042 \rightarrow 0.032, 0.032 \rightarrow 0.045, 0.056 \rightarrow 0.036$
- 0.056 is not a state change since its preceding state is at the same level

## first-last load $(F_{fll}(e))$

- The first-last load feature is used to roughly characterize the changing trend of the host load in the recent past
- defined as a two-tuple,  $\tau, \upsilon$  indicating the first load value and the last one recorded in the evidence window
- rough feature which needs to be combined with other features in practice

# N-segment pattern $(F_{N-sp}(e))$

- characterize the segment patterns based on the evidence window
- evidence window is evenly split into several segments, each of which is reflected by the mean load value
- if the window length is 4 hours (i.e., the window size is 48), then the 4-segment pattern is a fourtuple, whose elements are the means of the following load values respectively, [e₁, e₁₂], [e₁₃, e₂₄], [e₂₅, e₃₆], [e₃ȝ, e₄₆]
- ► N is set to 2, 3, and 4 respectively, so there are actually three features w.r.t the N-segment pattern

#### feature correlation

- some of the features are mutually correlated, which violates the assumption of feature independence in Bayes theorem
- features used in Formula (3) should be mutually independent
- the fairness index feature and the noise-decreased fairness index feature could be closely correlated
- list of linear correlation coefficients and Spearmans rank correlation coefficients

#### feature correlation

	$F_{ml}$	$F_{wml}$	$F_{fi}$	$F_{ndfi}$	$F_{ts}$	$F_{fll}$	$F_{N-sp}$
$F_{ml}$	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
$F_{wml}$	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	N
$F_{fi}$	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y
$F_{ndfi}$	Y	Y	N	N	Y	Y	Y
$F_{ts}$	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y
$F_{fll}$	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y
$F_{N-sp}$	N	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	N

Figure: compatibility of the features

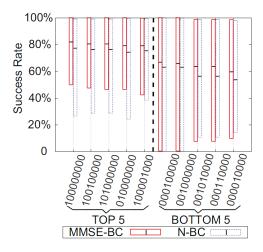
#### feature correlation

- ▶ Since there are 9 features ( $F_{ml}$ ,  $F_{wml}$ ,  $F_{fi}$ ,  $F_{ndfi}$ ,  $F_{ts}$ ,  $F_{fll}$ ,  $F_{2-sp}$ ,  $F_{3-sp}$ ,  $F_{4-sp}$ ) in total, the number of their combinations is at most  $2^9$
- ▶ classified into 4 groups,  $\{F_{ml}, F_{wml}, F_{2-sp}, F_{3-sp}, F_{4-sp}\}, \{F_{ndfi}, F_{fi}\}, \{F_{ts}\}, \{F_{fll}\}$
- elements in the same group cannot be used meanwhile in one combination
- numbers of compatible combinations (NCC) are 6, 3, 2, 2
- NCC(9 features) = NCC(Group 1) \* NCC(Group 2) \* NCC(Group 3) \* NCC(Group 4) = 6 \* 3 \* 2 \* 2 = 72
- excluding the case where no feature is selected
- 71 viable combinations of the features



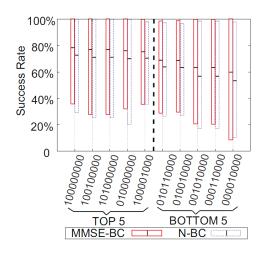
- split one-month trace data into two durations:
  - training period (beginning 25th day)
  - test period (26th day end)
- ▶ training period is used to fit the models, e.g. for computing the prior probability  $P(\omega_i)$  and the conditional probability  $p(x_i|\omega_k)$

- ▶ best feature combination is always 100000000  $F_{ml}$ , worst one is always 000010000  $F_{ts}$  regardless of the prediction interval length
- prediction of MMSE-BC is always more accurate than that of N-BC
- MMSE-BC adopts the mathematically expected value of the predicted load, which has the highest probability of being located in the real load level
- N-BC selects the level with the highest posterior probability as the prediction result



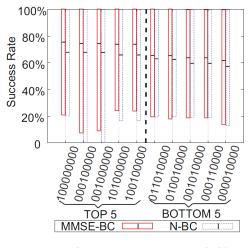
(a) Success Rate (s=3.2h)





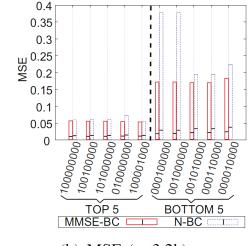
(c) Success Rate (s=6.4h)





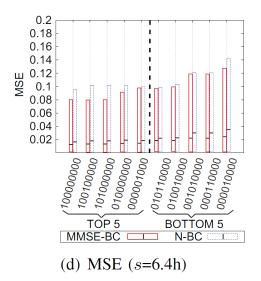
(e) Success Rate (s=12.8h)

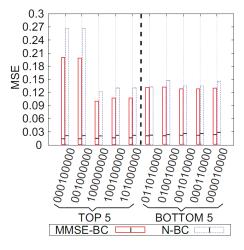




(b) MSE (s=3.2h)







(f) MSE (s=12.8h)



end

Thank you for your attention

#### Referenced paper:

Host Load Prediction in a Google Compute Cloud with a Bayesian Model SC12, November 10-16, 2012, Salt Lake City, Utah, USA 978-1-4673-0806-9/12/\$31.00 © 2012 IEEE by Sheng Di, Derrick Kondo, Walfredo Cirne INRIA, France, Google Inc., US

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