Performance Comparison of Big Data Analysis using Hadoop in Physical and Virtual Servers

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Abstract

Recently interest in big data has increased due to new developments in the field of Information Technology from the higher network bandwidth, to increases in storage volume, and affordability. One solution to the problem of big data is available from Apache, and is known as Apache Hadoop. In this paper, we will introduce some of the disaster recovery techniques, explain what big data is, explore Hadoop, and its related benchmarks. We will leverage these observations to evaluate the feasibility of a dynamic Hadoop clusters running on physical machine as opposed to virtual systems.

Keyword: Disaster recovery, Big data, Hadoop, Benchmark, Performance analysis

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1. Introduction

In the field of Information Technology, fault tolerance is requisite for all mission critical systems. One important consideration of fault tolerance is disaster recovery. Having the ability to transfer operations from an operational site to an off-site backup location in response to natural disasters, terroristic threats, or internal disruptive events, can be an arduous task. There are many factors to be taken into consideration including data replication, maintaining identical hardware, as well as business continuity planning decisions such as whether the backup location site will be operated by the organization or contracted to companies specializing in disaster recovery services [Bala13]. Particularly, disaster recovery or more commonly known as backup sites can be segmented into three categories. Those being, cold sites, warm sites, and hot sites.

- Cold sites tend to be the least expensive of all the disaster recovery solutions. It does not include any backup copies of the mission critical data nor other pertinent hardware associated with the operational data center. It is simply a space with adequate power and network connectivity for future usage.
- Hot sites are designed to be a direct mirror of the organizational data center. The off-site location will contain fully operation hardware as well
 as up to date copies of the data proliferated throughout the primary data-center(s). This setup is the optimal choice for rapid disaster recovery
 and consequently the most cost prohibitive, as changes to the primary data center requires updates to the hot site. This requires twice the
 resources for any single requirement in the primary data center.
- Warm sites are the intermediary between cold sites and hot sites These off-site locations have a subset of the hardware, network connectivity of the hot site or primary data center, and a partial backup of the data that may be several days out of sync with the primary data centers.

Many of the disaster recovery methods elucidated are generally in stationary configurations. Furthermore, the alternate site may be within some reasonable radius of the core location. For many critical systems, this topology is sufficient. With recent advances in the modularity of computer systems, mobile systems have been developed to face the more severe disaster scenarios that may make a backup site within some radius of the core location unfeasible. Major computer system manufactures from IBM to Sun Microsystems have developed containerized data centers. There can be many circumstances where the computational power required to process large datasets may not exist at the location where it is required. In these

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instances, the modularity of the data-centers allows the resources to be driven, or flown to the specified site and connected to generators, water supplies, and other containers. These mobile data-centers resemble freight containers often used in the oceanic shipping industry. The compartmentalized data-centers can be operated in tandem with one or more units to meet the particular requirements of the operation.

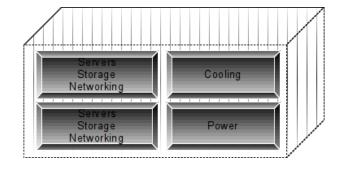


Figure 1: SGI Ice Cube data-center

These containers usually contain all the necessary items such as servers, storage, networking, cooling, and to some extent power as seen in Figure 1. The typical resources allocated to a standard SGI (Ice Cube) compartmentalized data-center can be seen in table 1.

Configuration	Small	Medium	Large
Power	<1MWatt	1-4 Mwatts	>4 Mwatts
Volume	1440 (ft^3)	3000(ft^3)	5643(ft^3)
Max MDC	4	4	3
Racks per MDC	4	10	20
Total Possible Racks	16	40	60
Max Load per Rack (KW)	35	22	35
Input Power Per MDC (KW)	148	233	742
Four-Post Rack Units per MDC	51	51	54
Roll-In Rack Max Height	89.25â€	89.25â€	98
PUE	1.02 to 1.057	1.02 to 1.06	1.02 to 1.06
4-Post Rack Units per MDC	204	510	1080
Total Possible 4-Post Rack Units	816	2040	3280
Max Cores per MDC	4896	12240	24,4880
Max Storage per MDC(PB)	7.168	17.92	35.84
Total Possible Cores	19584	48960	73440
Total Possible Storage (PB)	28.672	71.68	107.52

Table 1: Modular Datacenter Resources

Clearly, the typical SGI container has a configuration that is comparable to other vendors. We observed that this level of hardware and power consumption makes for a rather efficient "datacenter in a box†in you will. However, we have noticed in our research that many of the disaster recovery solutions whether stationary or mobile are ultimately inherently centralized. This is in stark contrast to typical data-center topologies that often extend across cities, states, and countries. Although the physical hardware may be centralized in data centers, the processing and much of the management may be distributed across the range of systems unlike mobile disaster recovery solutions that tend to perform most of the processing and computations on site. The distribution of datacenters across distances allows the management, control, and service planes to be separated from the data, thereby simplifying administration, partitioning, provisioning, and orchestration tasks.

As data-centers have traditionally been used, to allow server farms and server clusters to have dedicated space to coordinate and process large amounts of data, we see this paradigm shifting to virtualized solutions. That is, while continuing to function in the datacenters topology, the developments in computer technology are rapidly shifting to utilized unstructured systems that may not have the same organization as found in the datacenter.

With this paradigm shift, we also see new methods appearing to process larger datasets. The datasets with the largest cardinality are generally

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referred to as big data. This type of data can be structured, unstructured, loosely correlated, or distinctly disjoint. Current solutions attempt to take these large sets of data, which may be unwieldy and create a more malleable form of big data that may be partitioned across numerous systems. By aggregation of the smaller dataset solutions, the new methods allow finding the solutions to the big data problems.

2. Big Data

Typical Big Data is measured by variety, velocity, and volume. These three categories are known in the industry as the \hat{a} cethree V's of big data \hat{e} . As seen in Figure 2, variety can be a disjoint or non-disjoint set of data such as music, video, encryption schemes, or any plethora of data traveling across the Internet [Ivanov13]. Data with variety can be challenging to categorize, as it may not be correlated due to its variability. Velocity on the other hand as the name implies often refers to the speed of the data. There is quite a bit of data that is fixed, such as files on a hard disk, flash drive, or a DVD, are often referred to as batches because it is data that is waiting to be processed and may be processed sequentially or via random access. However, most of the data that proliferates the internet and data centers today tends to be less stationary such as real-time data from sensors, streams of data such as dynamic updates, communications, firewalls, or intrusion detection system messages for instance. Volume refers to the size of the data. This size of big data tends to fluctuate depending on the problem to be assessed [Zikopoulos12].

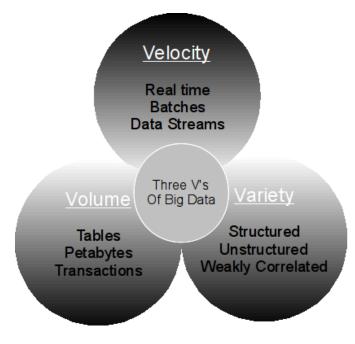


Figure 2: The three Vs of big data

However, the datasets tend to be rather large, such as a database of every employees badge swipe time in a transcontinental corporation, the blood type of every person in North America, or the frequency of Arabic words used across the Internet.

In all cases, Big Data contains at least one element from each sphere. The three V's of big data make it increasingly challenging to process this level of data on a single system. Even if one were to disregard the storage constraints for a single system, and perhaps utilized a storage area network to store the petabytes of incoming data, the bottleneck would be the standalone systems processor. Whether single core or multi-core, all data would have to be processed through a single system that would ultimately take substantially more time than partitioning the data across a large number of systems.

3.Hadoop

To solve some aforementioned issues dealing with Big Data, the Apache Foundation is helping development of Apache Hadoop. This solution is a Distributed File System designed to run on commodity hardware as well as higher profile hardware. The Hadoop Distributed File System (HDFS) shares many attributes with other distributed file systems [Borthakur07]. However, Hadoop has implemented many features which allow the file system to be significantly more fault tolerant than utilizing typical hardware solutions such as Redundant Array of Inexpensive Disks (RAID) or Data Replication alone [Chang08]. In this section, we will explore some of the reasons Hadoop is considered a viable solution for big data problems

3.1. Why Use Hadoop

Hadoop provides performance enhancements allowing for high throughput access to application data, as well as streaming access to file system resources, which is becoming increasingly challenging to manipulate for larger datasets, [Borthakur07]. Many of the design considerations can be subdivided into the following categories:

3.1.1. Computational Costs

In the most general sense, applications which request computations from nodes which are within some small radius of the application are significantly more efficient and cost effective than computational requests which encompass greater distances, particularly as the size of data sets increases. Requesting computational results closer to applications also decreases network congestion as requests are answered more efficiently. Consequently, the HDFS provides extensions, which allow the applications to relocate themselves to the vicinity of the processing nodes for greater efficiency.

3.1.2. Hardware Failure

In this topology, hardware failure is simply an unpleasant fact in data processing. Since the HDFS may be partitioned across hundreds if not thousands of devices, with each node storing some portion of the file system, there is a significant probability that some node or component in the HDFS may become non-functional. In those instances, one goal of the HDFS is to provide quick automatic recovery, and reliable fault detections throughout the topology.

3.1.3. Large Data Sets

All applications utilizing the HDFS tend to have large datasets in ranges from gigabytes to petabytes. The HDFS has been calibrated to adjust to these large volumes of data. By providing substantial aggregated data bandwidth, the HDFS should be able to scale to tens of hundreds of nodes per cluster.

3.1.4. Data Stream Access

As the applications, which run on the HDFS, are more specialized instead of general purpose, many of these applications require streaming access to the datasets. Therefore, the HDFS is geared more towards batch processing in contrast to interactive processing[<u>Ghemawat03</u>]. This also allows for higher throughput data access instead of the traditional low latency that is often one of the primary goals in traditional general-purpose file systems.

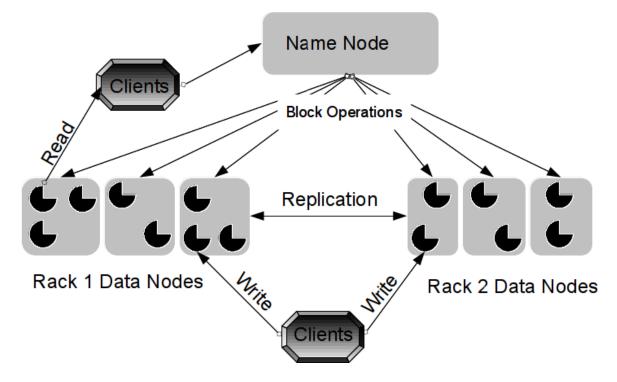


Figure 3: Hadoop Filesystem Topology

The HDFS utilizes master/slave architecture as seen in Figure 3. A typical HDFS cluster contains a Name node, that is, a master server that manages the names and access to the file system by the Data nodes [Garlasu13]. There are typically a number of Data nodes consisting roughly of one per node per cluster that regulates the attached storage of the hardware/virtual devices they run on. The master node exposes the file system namespace and enables Data nodes to store data on the HDFS. Internally, the files are split into blocks that are stored and distributed to the Data nodes within the cluster. The Name node performs operations such as opening, renaming, and closing directories and files in the file system, as well as creating mappings between the Data nodes and data blocks. The Data nodes have a similar function but their operations refer to blocks. In that respect, they are responsible for the creation, replication, and deletion of data blocks when requested by the Name node [White12].

3.2. Hadoop Benchmarking

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Benchmarks are the standard used to compare the performance between systems to differentiate between possible alternatives. In terms of Big Data, performance is an integral part of storage and retrieval within Hadoop.

When setting up a Hadoop cluster we would like to know if a cluster is correctly configure and this can accomplish by running a tasks and checking the results [White12]. In order to measure the performance of our cluster, our best choice would be to isolate a cluster and execute benchmarks so we can determine the resources utilization and the cluster processing speed.

This section explore the benchmarks used to test the performance of Hadoop clusters, some of the benchmarks listed are used to test Hadoop cluster performance in real world scenarios. Hadoop contains many benchmarks packages encapsulated in Java Archive JAR files [White12] as follows:

- TestDFSIO benchmark: Tests the Distributed File System I/O performance of Hadoop Distributed File System by creating MapReduce jobs to read and write parallel or separate map task. The output of the map is used to obtain statistics and the map output is collected and placed onto the reducer to produce a summary of the MapReduce job [White12].
- MapReduce sort benchmark: This is used to test the MapReduce system in Hadoop by creating MapReduce jobs to perform partial sorting of input and transfer the input by the shuffle. This test is three steps: generate random data, sort the data, and validate the result [White12].
- Gridmix benchmark suit: Gridmix submits a mix of synthetic jobs, and models realistic cluster workloads by simulating data-access pattern as seen on real time systems [Gridmix].

4. Hadoop Performance Evaluation

Performance is critical when discussing Hadoop clusters. These clusters may run on bare-metal, virtualized environment or both. A performance analysis of individual clusters in each environment may determine the best alternative to obtain the expected performance. In this section, we explore the setup of our clusters, what factors affect Hadoop and the results of our test.

4.1. Method and Setup

After reviewing numerous scenarios for feasible disaster recovery solutions, we would like to leverage some of the fundamental paradigms of disaster recovery to develop some measure of performance agility in Big Data solutions. As we have mentioned previously many of the disaster recovery solutions are stationary. We have endeavored to develop a Big Data topology that incorporates balance, speed, and endurance. Most solutions in big data are installed either on physical systems or in virtual machines. We have developed an implementation of a Hadoop map reduce cluster that runs entirely in memory. This will allow us to obtain significant performance benefits, as the input/output (I/O) throughput of random access memory (RAM) is inherently faster than conventional systems. We utilized four Intel eight Core i7-2600 3.4 GHz servers with eight gigabytes (GB) of ram for physical clusters. For the four virtual machines, we utilized four 2 GHz Intel Core i7 server with eight GBs of ram. We executed the TestDFSIO benchmarks on these systems to give us data to compare and contrast the feasibility of a dynamic Hadoop cluster on commodity hardware.

4.2. Factors Affecting the Performance

Different factors may affect the performance of the cluster; some of those factors may reside in the Hadoop architecture while the others may be external factors. Table 2 lists some of the factors affecting Hadoop cluster performance [White12].

Performance optimization parameters	External factors
Number of maps	Environment
Number of reducers	Number of cores
Combiner	Memory size
Custom serialization	The Network
Shuffle tweaks	
Intermediate compression	

Table 2: factors affecting Hadoop cluster performance

Hadoop internal factors (also called parameters) can be set by the user on demand to optimize the performance of the cluster.

In our Hadoop cluster experiments, we will study the environment (Physical and Virtual); particularly the environment where Hadoop cluster runs will be the primary factor on performance due to the overhead of virtualization on the system performance.

4.3. Conducting the Experiment

In this test, we are running two data nodes and one name node on different system utilizing a hypervisor. We used 10x the number of slaves for the number of maps as well as 2x the number of slave for reducer. We executed the TestDFSIO benchmark to test the I/O performance of HDFS, and the response variable in this experiment was the elapse time (in seconds). The results, which follow after presented after applying logarithmic transformations to reflect the variety of the data [Jain91]:

Table 3: Benchmark elapse time

Benchmark	Physical		Virtual	
	2 nodes	4 nodes	2 nodes	4 nodes
TestDFSIO write	(16, 13, 13)	(16, 16, 15)	(61, 79, 51)	(139, 215, 241)
TestDFSIO read	(13, 13, 13)	(13, 14, 14)	(27, 27, 24)	(58, 47, 61)

In our experiment we analyzed the results using the $(2^3)^*3$ factorial design to determine the effects of factors under study on the cluster performance, Y is the average of the elapse time from table 3 [Jain91].

A: the environment effect B: workload C: number of nodes

	Effects								Measured response
	Ι	A	В	C	AB	AC	BC	ABC	Y
	1	-1	-1	-1	1	1	1	-1	1.14
	1	1	-1	-1	-1	-1	1	1	1.79
	1	-1	1	-1	-1	1	-1	1	1.11
	1	1	1	-1	1	-1	-1	-1	1.413
	1	-1	-1	1	1	-1	-1	1	1.19
	1	1	-1	1	-1	1	-1	-1	2.283
	1	-1	1	1	-1	-1	1	-1	1.13
	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1.736
Total	11.79	2.65	-1.01	0.88	-0.83	0.74	-0.2	-0.14	
Effect(Total/8)	1.47	0.33	-0.12	0.11	-0.10	0.09	-0.02	-0.01	

Table 4: analysis of (2^3)*3 design

Table 4 shows the effects of each factor and factors interaction at the effect row.

Next we calculated the errors in our model as shown in table 5:

Table 5: model errors

Estimated Response	Errors		
	E1	E2	E3
1.14	0.06	-0.03	-0.03
1.79	-0.01	0.1	-0.09
1.11	0	0	0
1.413	0.016666667	0.016666667	-0.03333333

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1.19	0.01	0.01	0.02
2.283	-0.14333333	3 0.046666667	0.096666667
1.13	-0.02	0.01	0.01
1.736	0.023333333	-0.06666666	0.043333333

The sum of model errors should equal zero, because errors are the difference between measured response and estimated response [Jain91]. After calculating the errors we calculate the allocation of variation to estimate the effect of each factor in our experiment. The results are shown in table 6.

Table 6: Allocation of Variation

SSY	56.0332		
SS0	52.15601667		
SSA	2.640066667	68%	The environment is the main factor affecting the performance
SSB	0.385066667	9%	9% of the performance affected by the workload
SSC	0.294816667	7%	7% affected by the number of nodes
SSAB	0.260416667	6%	
SSAC	0.209066667	5%	
SSBC	0.015	0.3%	Effect is negligible
SSABC	0.00735	0.7%	Effect is negligible
SSE	0.0654	1.6%	Errors in the model affecting the performance are small percentage

Next we calculated the confidence interval for the effects to make sure our calculation is significant. We selected the value 1.746 from the t-value table for 90% confidence interval and the results are shown in table 7 below [Jain91].

Effect	Confidence Intervals	
q0	1.454166667	1.494166667
qA	0.311666667	0.351666667
qB	-0.146666667	-0.106666667
qC	0.090833333	0.130833333
qAB	-0.124166667	-0.084166667
qAC	0.073333333	0.113333333
qBC	-0.045	-0.005
qABC	-0.0375	0.0025

Table 7: confidence intervals of the Q effects

All affect are statically significant except the interaction between A, B and C effect because it includes zero. Finally, we will use the virtual test to validate our model and we will assume that errors are statically independent and normally distributed [Jain91].

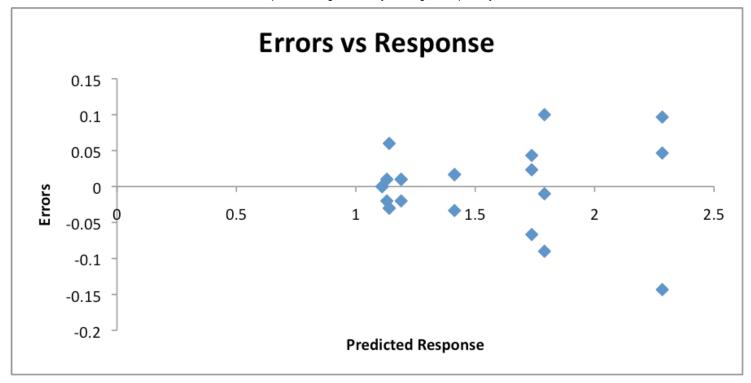


Figure 4: Errors vs. Response

In figure 4 itâ€[™]s hard to tell if there is a pattern in the chart, which means errors are independent.

To check if the errors were normally distributed we created Q-Q plot to verify that, as shown in figure 5

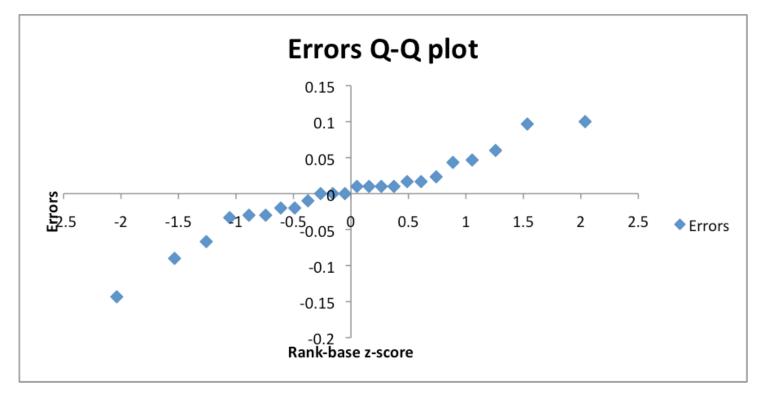


Figure 5: Q-Q plot of errors

From figure 5 we can observe that errors are normally distributed and from both figure 4 and 5 we can say that our experiment results reflect the real performance of our system.

After analyzing the results of our experiment, calculate the errors in the model; calculate the allocating of variation and the confidence intervals for the effects we can say with confidence that the environment is the main factor that affect the performance.

In our experiment we found that Hadoop cluster running in virtual environment is significantly perform low than the one running is physical environment (physical machine), and other factor might affect the performance but in our study we focused on the environment effect which is 68% affecting the performance of the Hadoop cluster.

We prepared a comparison chart between the performances of the Hadoop cluster in both environments. Figure 6 represents the performance difference between the clusters running in different environments.

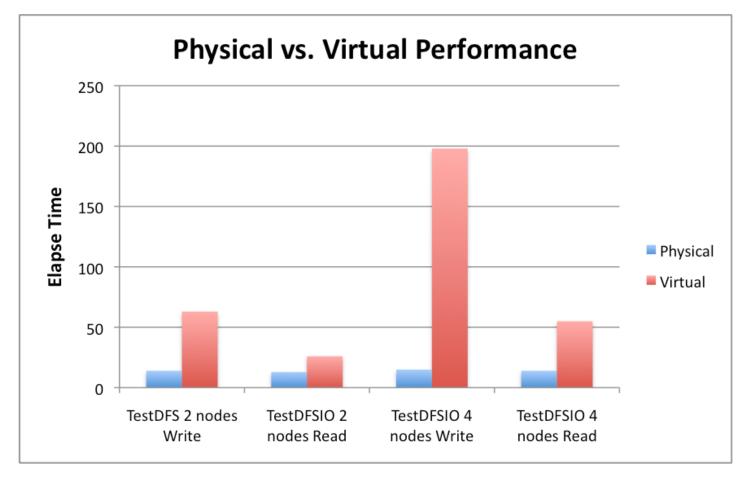


Figure 6: Performance comparison

From these results, we observe that Hadoop performance, confirmed that the virtual Hadoop cluster performance is significantly lower than the cluster running on physical machine due to the overhead of the virtualization on the CPU of the physical host. The factors, which affect the performance (RAM size, network bandwidth), were considered in our experiment. However, our study was directed towards the effect of environmental factors on the performance.

5. Summary

During the course of our investigation, we have explored some of the solutions to problems such Disaster Recovery, Big Data processing, and Distributed File Systems. After looking at those solutions, we developed a means to leverage the benefits of each category and created a dynamic Hadoop cluster that operates entirely in Random Access Memory. We found that the commodity systems, while both antiquated and less responsive performed significantly better using our implementation than standard Virtual Machine implementations utilizing standard hypervisors.

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List of Acronyms

- IBM International Business Machine
- SGI Silicon Graphic International
- MDC Mobile Data Center
- KW Kilo Watt
- PB PetaByte
- HDFS Hadoop Distributed File System
- RAID Redundant Array of Inexpensive Disks
- JAR Java ARchive
- RAM Random Access Memory
- Giga Byte Giga Byte

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