Energy-efficient acceleration of MapReduce applications using FPGAs

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HIGHLIGHTS

- MapReduce FPGA acceleration reduces performance and power gap between Xeon and Atom.
- Little core servers are more energy-efficient both before and after acceleration.
- FPGA-accelerated Atom server yields execution times comparable to stand-alone Xeon.
- Cost Analysis suggests replacing big-core with accelerated little core servers.
- FPGA acceleration of MapReduce maintains its benefit when scaled to larger clusters.

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ABSTRACT

In this paper, we present a full end-to-end implementation of big data analytics applications in a heterogeneous CPU+FPGA architecture. Selecting the optimal architecture that results in the highest acceleration for big data applications requires an in-depth of each application. Thus, we develop the MapReduce implementation of K-means, K nearest neighbor, support vector machine and naïve Bayes in a Hadoop Streaming environment that allows developing mapper functions in a non-Java based language suited for interfacing with FPGA-based hardware accelerating environment. We further profile various components of Hadoop MapReduce to identify candidates for hardware acceleration. We accelerate the mapper functions through hardware+software (HW+SW) co-design. Moreover, we study how various parameters at the application (size of input data), system (number of mappers running simultaneously per node and data split size), and architecture (choice of CPU core such as big vs little, e.g., Xeon vs Atom) levels affect the performance and power-efficiency benefits of Hadoop streaming hardware acceleration and the overall performance and energy-efficiency of the system. A promising speedup as well as energy-efficiency gains of up to 8.3× and 15× is achieved, respectively, in an end-to-end Hadoop implementation. Our results show that HW+SW acceleration yields significantly higher speedup on Atom server, reducing the performance gap between little and big cores after the acceleration. On the other hand, HW+SW acceleration reduces the power consumption of Xeon server more significantly, reducing the power gap between little and big cores. Our cost Analysis shows that the FPGA-accelerated Atom server yields execution times that are close to or even lower than stand-alone Xeon server for the studied applications, while reducing the server cost by more than 3×. We confirm the scalability of FPGA acceleration of MapReduce by increasing the data size on 12-node Xeon cluster and show that FPGA acceleration maintains its benefit for larger data sizes on a cluster.

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1. Introduction

Emerging big data analytics applications require a significant amount of server computational power. However, these applications share many inherent characteristics that are fundamentally...
different from traditional desktop, parallel, and scale-out applications [11,30,44]. Big data analytics applications heavily rely on specific deep machine learning and data mining algorithms. They run a complex database software stack with various software components (e.g., Hadoop, Spark, MPI, Hbase, Impala, MySQL, Hive, Shark and MangoDB), which are bounded together with a runtime software system and interact significantly with I/O and OS.

This new set of characteristics necessitates a change in the direction of server-class microarchitecture to improve their computational efficiency. However, while demand for data center computational resources continues to grow as the size of data grows, the semiconductor industry has reached scaling limits and is no longer able to reduce power consumption in new chips. Physical design constraints, such as power and density, have therefore become the dominant limiting factors for scaling out data centers [13,14]. Current server designs, based on commodity homogeneous processors, are not the most efficient in terms of performance/watt to process big data applications [19].

In other domains, heterogeneous architectures have emerged as a promising solution to enhance energy efficiency by allowing each application to run on a core that matches resource needs more closely than a one size-fits-all processing node [16,40]. This will be just as true for big data applications, if not more so. A heterogeneous chip architecture integrates cores with various micro-architectures (in-order or little, and out-of-order or big) or even instruction set architectures (e.g., Thumb and x86) with on-chip GPU or FPGA accelerators to provide more opportunities for efficient workload mapping so that the application can find a better match among various components to improve power efficiency. In particular, hardware acceleration through specialization, which is enabled by tight integration of CPU core and FPGA logic has received renewed interest in recent years, partially in response to the dark silicon challenge.

As Hadoop MapReduce is a dominant framework in big data analytics, in this paper, we will mainly focus on applications that are developed in this framework. While hardware acceleration has been applied to software implementation of many widely used applications, MapReduce implementation of such applications requires new techniques, which studies their MapReduce implementation and their bottlenecks, and selects the most efficient functions for acceleration [17]. Also deploying hardware acceleration methods in a complex environment of big data (such as Hadoop) with various phases of execution such as compression, decompression, sorting, mapping, reduction and shuffling is becoming an even more challenging problem.

Most recent work on hardware acceleration have focused on the implementation of an entire particular machine learning application, or offloading an entire phase of MapReduce to the FPGA hardware [17,25,36,7]. While these approaches provide performance benefit, their implementations require excessive hardware resources and extensive design effort. As an alternative, hardware+software (HW+SW) co-design of an algorithm trades some speedup at a benefit of less hardware and design automation using high level synthesis (HLS) tools.

To understand the potential performance gain of using HW+SW co-design to accelerate analytics applications in MapReduce environment, in this paper we present a full end-to-end implementation of big data analytics applications in a heterogeneous CPU+FPGA architecture, taking into account various communication and computation overhead in the system including the hardware communication overhead such as communication with FPGA and communication among various nodes of a cluster, as well as software computation overhead such as various phases of MapReduce. In [32,35], various applications were studied in an FPGA-accelerated framework. In this paper, we carry out extensive analysis on big and little cores, and how they impact the role of FPGA in the acceleration. Specifically, we compare the results for execution time, power consumption and energy-delay-product (EDP) of both big and little core architecture to show how the FPGA acceleration targets the speed in Little core architecture and the power in Big core architectures. Moreover, we carry out simulations on a 12-node cluster on various data sizes to observe the scalability of FPGA-accelerated architectures.

We assume the applications are fully known, therefore we can find the best possible application-to-core+FPGA match. For mapping of big data analytics applications to FPGA, we are performing the following tasks in this paper:

- Mapping hot regions of various data mining and machine learning algorithms to the FPGA.
- Communication cost analysis of moving hotspot functions to the FPGA.
- Evaluation of HW+SW implementation of the algorithms in an end-to-end MapReduce system in terms of performance and energy efficiency.
- Sensitivity analysis based on the number of mapper slots and input data split size.
- A thorough performance and power comparison between Xeon and Atom server.
- Study the scalability of the FPGA accelerated MapReduce on a 12-node cluster for various input data sizes.

Consequently, we make the following major observations:

- The optimal application, architecture, and system level parameters to maximize the performance and energy-efficiency is different before and after acceleration.
- Performance and power sensitivity to various MapReduce environment system parameters varies significantly before and after acceleration. It also varies across big and little core architectures.
- HW+SW acceleration yields higher speedup on atom server, therefore significantly reducing the performance gap between little and big cores after acceleration.
- HW+SW acceleration yields higher power reduction on Xeon server, therefore significantly reducing the power gap between little and big core architectures after acceleration.
- For some applications (i.e. K-means and KNN) the FPGA accelerated Xeon server yields lower power than stand-alone Atom server.
- Atom server is more energy-efficient both before and after acceleration (exhibits lower EDP).
- FPGA acceleration of MapReduce maintains its benefit when scaled to larger clusters.
- Our cost Analysis shows that the FPGA-accelerated Atom server yields execution times that are close to or even lower than stand-alone Xeon server, while reducing both the server cost and the power consumption significantly.

This paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, a background is provided on big data, MapReduce, and Apache Hadoop. In Section 3, the end-to-end system architecture utilized for implementation and analysis purposes is introduced. In Section 4, the acceleration of studied benchmarks is described. Section 5 introduces the analytical assumptions utilized for evaluation of potential speedup and energy-efficiency gain. In Section 7, the results of profiling and hardware implementation of micro kernels and functions within the studied benchmarks are introduced. Section 6 introduces Zynq as the case study for HW+SW acceleration. Section 10 shows the scalability of the FPGA acceleration on a 12-node cluster. Section 11 discusses the related work and Section 12 sums up the conclusions.
2. Big data and MapReduce framework

The cloud is a new platform that has been used to cost-effectively deploy an increasingly wide variety of applications. Vast amount of data is now stored in a few places rather than distributed across a billion isolated computers, therefore it creates opportunity to learn from the aggregated data. The rise of cloud computing and cloud data storage, therefore, has facilitated the emergence of big data applications. Big data applications are characterized by four critical features, referred as the four V, shown in Fig. 1: volume, velocity, variety, and veracity [1]. Big data is inherently large in volume. Velocity refers to how fast the data is generated and to how fast it should be analyzed. In other words, velocity addresses the challenges related to processing data in real-time. Variety refers to the number and diversity of sources of data and databases, such as sensor data, social media, multimedia, text, and much more. Veracity refers to the level of trust, consistency, and completeness in data.

MapReduce is the programming model developed by Google to handle large-scale data analysis. MapReduce consists of map and reduce functions. The map functions parcel out the work to different nodes in the distributed cluster. They process <key/value> pairs to generate a set of intermediate <key/value> pairs. The reduce functions merge all the intermediate values with the same intermediate key and collate the work to resolve the results.

Apache Hadoop is an open-source Java-based framework of MapReduce implementation. It assists the processing of large datasets in a distributed computing environment and stores data in highly fault-tolerant distributed file system (HDFS). Hadoop runs the job by breaking it into tasks, i.e., map and reduce tasks. The input data is divided into fixed-size pieces called input splits. Each map task processes a logical split of this data that resides on the Hadoop distributed file system (HDFS). Small input splits yield better load balancing among mappers and reducers at the cost of communication overhead. In order to perform data locality optimization, it is best to run the map task on a node where, input data resides in the HDFS. Thus, the optimal split size for data is the size of an HDFS block (Typically 64 MB, 128 MB, etc.) [45].

The Hadoop MapReduce implementation consists of several phases as depicted in Fig. 2. Compression and decompression are optional phases, which can improve the performance of the system especially for large data sizes.

2.1. Timing

In MapReduce a phase cannot complete before it receives all the data from the previous phase. Thus, the job running time depends on the time it takes to complete all the phases, rather than the duration of individual phases comprising it [8].

While the programming model in MapReduce is comprised of two phases, i.e., map and reduce, its execution model has four phases [4]. The first phase is map in which, the map tasks are executed on the entire input data. The map phase is completely parallel. During this phase, the input data is divided into fixed-size pieces called input splits. One map task is created for each input split, on which the user-defined map function is executed and the <key, value> pairs are generated. In the second phase all <key, value> pairs for a particular key are sent to a single reduce task. In [23], this phase is referred to as all-map-to-all-reduce personalized communication. In MapReduce this phase is called shuffle [10]. In the third phase, the <key, value> pairs are sorted based on the key. In this phase, all the values associated with each key are grouped together. The fourth and final phase is the reduce, in which reduce tasks are applied to the <key, value> pairs of the same key and the final output for that key is generated.

Fig. 3 shows the timing diagram of a MapReduce application with 15 map jobs, 4 mapper slots and one reduce job. In [3] a thorough analysis is carried out on the timing of MapReduce phases. Fig. 3 shows only the timings that are relevant to our work and play a part in the timing analysis after HW+SW acceleration.

As shown in Fig. 3, the map phase starts with the start of the first map task and finishes when the last map task completes its execution. Other phases are also shown in Fig. 3. It should be noted that shuffle starts shortly after the first map, and will not complete until all the map tasks are finished. In this example, shuffle finishes shortly after the last map, i.e., a low-volume shuffle. In case of a high-volume shuffle, the shuffle takes longer to finish. The third phase, i.e., sort, finishes after the shuffle. The reduce phase only starts after all the data is sorted. Upon the completion of the reduce phase, the whole MapReduce job is finished.

In the MapReduce platform, a significant portion of the execution time is devoted to the map and reduce phase, as they carry out the computation part. In this paper, we target the map phase for acceleration, as it accounts for a high portion of the execution time across studied machine learning kernels. It should be noted that, even if we are able to accelerate the map phase significantly, still the other phases take up a significant part of the execution time. Thus, they limit the extent to which we are able to accelerate a MapReduce job.
3. System architecture

3.1. Single-node

Fig. 4 shows the system architecture of the single-node, multicore platform studied in this paper. The multi-node architecture will be discussed in the sequel.

A general-purpose CPU comprises of several coherent cores, connected to each other through their shared-memory distributed interconnect. However, for hardware acceleration, we assume each core is extended with a small FPGA fabric. We study how adding on-chip FPGAs to each core would enhance the performance of the multi-core architecture that runs Hadoop MapReduce. While in a general purpose multi-core CPU, mapper/reducer slots are mapped to a single node, in the heterogeneous architecture depicted in Fig. 4, each mapper/reducer slot is mapped to a core that is integrated with the FPGA. Given the tight integration between FPGA and CPU, the interconnection interface between the two is the main overhead that is accounted for in this work. Thus, each mapper and reducer is accelerated with the FPGA, without any high off-chip data transfer overhead.

For implementation purposes, we compare two types of core architectures: little core Intel Atom C2758, and big core Intel Xeon E5. These two types of servers represent two schools of thought in server architecture design: using big Xeon server, which is a conventional approach to designing a high-performance server, and Atom, which is a new trajectory in server design that advocates the use of a low-power core to address the silicon challenge facing servers [14,29].

Intel Atom C2758 server deploys 8 processor cores, a two-level cache hierarchy (L1 and L2 cache sizes of 24 KB and 1024 KB, respectively), and an operating frequency of 2.4 GHz with Turbo Boost. Intel Xeon has two socket of six aggressive processor cores per node, three levels of cache hierarchy, private L1 and L2 cache and shared L3 cache. L1, L2 and L3 cache sizes are 32 KB, 256 KB and 15 MB, respectively.

Moreover, each FPGA in Fig. 4 is a low cost Xilinx Artix-7 with 85 KB logic cells and 560 KB block RAM. The integration between the core and the FPGA is established through the Advanced eXtensible Interface (AXI)-interconnect.

AXI is an interface standard through which, different components communicate with each other. The AXI link contains an AXI master, which initiates transactions, and the AXI slave, which responds to the transactions initiated by the master. The data that is transferred between the core and the FPGA, is rearranged to create transfer streams. A direct memory access (DMA) engine is used to move streams in and out of the memory that is shared between the FPGA and the core. The DMA provides high-bandwidth direct memory access between the AXI-stream and the IP interfaces that are implemented on the FPGA.

3.2. Multi-node

Fig. 5 shows the system architecture of the proposed multi-node cluster. The architecture consists of a homogeneous CPU as the NameNode, which is connected to several DataNodes with a heterogeneous architecture. The architecture of each DataNode is similar to the architecture in Fig. 4.

The NameNode runs the JobTracker and is responsible for the job scheduling between all the DataNodes. It is configured to distribute the computation workloads among the DataNodes. Each DataNode has several mapper and reducer slots. The number of mapper and reducer slots on each DataNode is based on its number of cores. The interconnection between the NameNode and DataNodes is established through a multi channel Gigabit switch to allow high data transfer rates.

4. Benchmark acceleration

Acceleration of the applications through HW+SW co-design is a complex problem, particularly because different phases of the same application often prefer different configurations and, thus, it requires specific scheduling and mapping to find the best match. Making wrong scheduling decisions leads to suboptimal performance and negatively impacts power and energy consumption [42].

The primary step to deal with these problems is a comprehensive workload analysis and performance monitoring when running an end-to-end or full system benchmark. To this end, we introduce the architecture of an end-to-end MapReduce implementation.

It is worth noting that MapReduce is best suited for classic machine-learning applications including classification and clustering. For instance, Google Maps utilizes MapReduce to find all roads connecting to a specific intersection, or finding the nearest feature to a given address or current location. Thus, we select four widely used machine-learning application for HW+SW co-design namely, K-means, KNN, Naive Bayes and SVM. It should be noted that few works have focused on implementation of neural networks in the MapReduce [26,27]. However, since GPUs are ideal for situations involving applying the same vector/matrix operation across a large number of datasets, most recently they are mainly being used for neural networks. Thus, we limit our experiments to classic machine-learning applications. Subsequently, We characterize each application in order to find out which kernels are the best candidates to be offloaded to the hardware for acceleration.

4.1. Profiling

As a first step, a comprehensive workload analysis and performance monitoring is done for four widely used machine learning kernels. We profile each application using the GNU profiler. We execute the profiling for various input data sizes and different parameters. Table 1 shows the profiling results for selected examples for each application. A detailed description of the results for each application comes in the sequel.

4.1.1. K-means

K-means is a partitioning-based clustering application that partitions n observations into k clusters such that each observation is mapped to the cluster with the closest mean based on specific features. In this paper, the K-means application from NU-MineBench [31] is studied.

K-means comprises several kernels. Three dominant ones, which account for a considerable portion of the execution time are kmeans_clustering, find_nearest_point and euclid_dist_2. Kmean_clustering is the top function, which calls find_nearest_point, which in turn calls euclid_dist_2. The timing behavior of the application is highly dependent on input parameters including number of points (N), number of clusters (k), and the feature size (f). Based on Table 1, the time spent in all of the functions increases with the number of points and feature size. Note, that since the functions are nested, the percentage numbers are not adding up to 100%.

4.1.2. KNN

KNN is a pattern recognition algorithm, which finds the k nearest neighbors of a vector among N training vectors based on f features. In order to profile the KNN algorithm, a C-based implementation of KNN is profiled. Table 1 shows the profiling results of KNN classifier for two functions that dominate the execution time, i.e. KNN_classify and sq_euclid_dist. The results show that the time per call increases with the feature size.
4.1.3. SVM

SVM is a machine learning algorithm, that is used extensively in data analysis and pattern recognition as non-probabilistic binary linear classifier. We utilize SVM-light C-based code [21] for different datasets. Sprod_ns, sprod_ss and solve_dual are three independent functions, which take up most of the SVM-learn execution time. The first two compute the inner product of sparse vectors, and the latter solves dual problems. Based on the results in Table 1, the number of training documents (N), support vectors (M) and feature size (f) are important factors that influence the execution time.

4.1.4. Naive Bayes

Bayes classifier is another machine learning algorithm, which is used as a probabilistic classifier using strong independent feature model and the Bayesian theorem. A C-based implementation of
the Naive Bayes was profiled for several examples. \textit{Nb.classify}, \textit{Lin.length}, \textit{Area.Under.Curve}, \textit{norm.Decay} are a number of functions that carry out mathematical operations on the data and \textit{abs} is another function that is called within these functions.

4.2. High-level synthesis of hotspot functions

While a hardware equivalent of a C or C++ function can be realized manually with optimal performance, it can be extremely time consuming for complex functions. In order to speedup this process, high-level synthesis (HLS) is used. HLS is the automated process of transforming a C or C++ code into a register transfer level (RTL) description. The C/C++ language provides constructs to directly access memory. However the synthesis of such structures is a big challenge for HLS tools.

Recent works have addressed the problem of the implementation of dynamic, pointer-based structures [39,46]. Xilinx Vivado HLS tool supports pointer arrays, provided each pointer points to a scalar or an array of scalars. It also supports pointer casting between native C type. However, it does not support array of pointers pointing to additional pointers or general pointer castings [43]. Recent works have addressed the problem of the implementation of dynamic, pointer-based structures [39,46]. Thus, a number of changes were made to the functions that were selected for hardware implementations to synthesize them, while maintaining their functionality.

It should be noted that the hardware implementations of some of the selected functions are dependent on input parameters, which is specific to each example. For the $K$-means applications for instance, the RTL equivalent of the \textit{find.nearest_point} function is highly dependent on the number of points.

Exploration of the dependencies in the code are of high importance for optimization purposes. The dependencies could be at fine granularity, i.e., the dependencies between each iteration of the loops within each function, which can limit the performance benefit gained through pipelining and loop unrolling, given availability of unlimited hardware resources. At a coarse granularity, multiple execution of the same function may be explored for parallelism.

If the result of each call of the hotspot function is independent from the result of the previous call, multiple instances of the same function may be instantiated to speed up the overall execution time; however, FPGA transfer bandwidth capacity and hardware resources may become a bottleneck.

Exploitation of parallelism at these levels requires an in-depth analysis of the code, function calls and timing diagram of each application for various inputs. In this paper, we aim to optimize each function exploiting various design techniques such as pipelining and loop unrolling. Further incorporation of inter-function parallelization will be the focus of future work.

Table 2 shows the HLS implementation results of the studied functions on the ZedBoard. All designs are pipelined in order to get the best results. The latency values show the number of clock cycles it takes to produce an output value, which shows the delay of the circuit. The interval values show the number of clock cycles between when the task starts to accept new input data, which is an indicator of the speedup the function can achieve. It should be noted that loop un-rolling and pipelining significantly reduces the interval and thus increases the speed of the accelerated functions. Without them, the throughput of the accelerated functions would have been comparable to the software version.

5. Hardware+software speedup calculation

In case of acceleration of applications in the MapReduce platform, what needs to be taken into account is the highly parallel nature of the map functions, which allows higher acceleration by concurrent processing of multiple computations that have no data dependencies. Most efforts for modeling of the hardware+software co-design have found data dependencies to be an important barrier in the extent to which a function is accelerated [5,9,47], however this is not the case for MapReduce. In the map phase of most machine-learning applications a small function, i.e., an inner product or a Euclidean distance calculation is the most time-consuming part of the code, where multiple instances of a small function can be executed in parallel with no data dependencies.
This significantly increases the benefit of hardware acceleration for MapReduce.

While a thorough investigation of the codes and timing diagrams will help resolve the dependencies and add more parallelism to the implementation, in this paper for the purpose of a general model applicable to all applications, a worse case scenario is considered in which, it is assumed that various functions implemented in the hardware may incur dependencies, thus they are not called simultaneously.

Firstly, we drive the speedup ignoring the overhead. While this is not a realistic assumption given the communication latency in ZedBoard, it provides us with an estimate of the upper-bound speedup that can be achieved. Subsequently, a basic estimation for the transfer time is also incorporated into the calculations for deriving the overall execution time.

5.1. Zero-overhead communication

In Section 4 we derived the amount of time spent in each function in the software implementations. Here, for the purpose of a general model applicable to all applications, it is assumed that various functions implemented in the hardware may not be called simultaneously. The amount of time spent in each function is therefore deducted from the overall execution time to find the time spent in the software. Then, for each function implemented in the hardware, the hardware time per call for each function is calculated as the interval cycles multiplied by the clock period. For each function, the number of times that function is called is multiplied by the hardware time per call to find the hardware time for that function. If more than one function is implemented in the hardware, the total hardware times for all the functions will be added together to get the total hardware times. The final accelerated execution time will be the total software time plus the total hardware time.

Eq. (1) shows the equation used to derive the accelerated time.

\[ T_{\text{acc}} = T_{\text{orig}} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} SW_{i,PC} \times C_i + \sum_{i=1}^{n} HW_{i,PC} \times C_i, \]  

where \( T_{\text{acc}} \) and \( T_{\text{orig}} \) show the total execution time in the accelerated design and the purely software implementations, respectively. \( n \) is the number of accelerated functions, \( SW_{i,PC} \) and \( HW_{i,PC} \) are the software and hardware time per call for function \( i \), and \( C_i \) is the number of calls to function \( i \).  

5.2. Modeling the overhead

The assumptions for the calculation of the overhead due to PS–PL communication are described in the sequel; however, these assumptions are used for a first order assessment. Network queuing depth, latency, contention in larger networks and the switching network will have to be addressed for a more detailed assessment.

5.2.1. The PL–PS data transfer overhead

In order to calculate the transfer time, we add the time for communication of the core with the FPGA. Note that the transfer time is device-dependent. Moreover, the size of data that is communicated between the core and the hardware should be compared to the bus bandwidth of the board that is being used. Thus, if the size of transfer data is large, the communication bandwidth between the software and hardware may be potential bottlenecks.

The accelerated time calculated in (1) is modified in (2) to estimate the new accelerated times with the communication overhead.

\[ T'_{\text{acc}} = T_{\text{acc}} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} T_{i,TR} \times C_i, \]  

where, \( T'_{\text{acc}} \) is the total accelerated time and \( T_{i,TR} \) is the transmission time for each call of function \( i \). \( T_{i,TR} \) is calculated as:

\[ T_{i,TR} = \frac{D_i}{BW_{PS}}. \]  

where \( D_i \) is the size of data being transferred between the PL and PS through each call of the accelerated function, and \( BW_{PS} \) is the bandwidth of the data transfer between the PL and PS.

Considering the Zynq architecture, data transfer is done using AXI interconnect. Direct memory access (DMA) is mostly used for larger amount of data to improve the efficiency and reduce CPU intervention. Thus, the contention and the cache misses eventually reduces the effective communication bandwidth.

It should be noted that (2) considers a worse case scenario; however, we are able to reduce the accelerated time by overlapping communication and computation on accelerators.

5.2.2. Communication overhead in Hadoop environment

PCI-Express is used for the communication between the nodes in the system. Based on the number of nodes, the data is transferred...
among the various nodes in the system. In this paper, we assume that the entire input data is passed from the master to the slave nodes. Thus, the communication overhead is calculated as follows.

\[ T_{\text{int}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} D_i \cdot w_i}{BW_{\text{PCI}}} \]

where \( D_i \cdot w_i \) is the size of data transferred from the master node to node \( i \), \( BW_{\text{PCI}} \) is bandwidth of the PCI-Express bus and \( N \) is the number of nodes.

6. Case study for ZedBoard

AXI is an interface standard through which, different components communicate with each other. The AXI link contains an AXI master, which initiates transactions, and the AXI slave, which responds to the transactions initiated by the master. The are two types of AXI interfaces, AXI memory mapped interface and AXI stream interface.

AXI4 is for memory mapped interfaces and allows burst of up to 256 data transfer cycles with just a single address phase. AXI4-Stream removes the requirement for an address phase altogether and allows unlimited data burst size. AXI4-Stream interfaces and transfers do not have address phases and are therefore not considered to be memory-mapped. Another approach is to build systems that combine AXI4-Stream and AXI memory mapped IP together. Often a DMA engine can be used to move streams in and out of the shared memory. To this end AXI Direct Memory Access (DMA) IPs are utilized in this paper, which provide high-bandwidth direct memory access between the AXI4 memory mapped and AXI4-Stream IP interfaces.

At a 100 MHz clock frequency, data transitions may be realized from AXI4 master to AXI stream slave and AXI stream slave to AXI4 master at data-rates of 400 MBps and 300 MBps, respectively, which are 99.76% and 74.64% of the theoretical bandwidths [28]. These numbers are utilized to find the data transfer overhead between the PL and PS in the Zynq devices.

7. Implementation results

7.1. Acceleration results on the zedboard

Table 3 shows the results of the overall speedup. For each application, various functions were selected for acceleration. The first set of reported speedups is derived based on (1), with zero-overhead. The second set of results includes the overhead. The overhead-included speedup is considerably lower than the zero-overhead speedup, only if the size of data being transferred is large, or the accelerated function is called many times.

For each application, various functions were selected for acceleration. For the K-means application, implementing the top module yields a noticeably high speedup. Table 3 shows that when we select lower-level functions such as find_nearest_point and euclid_dist_2, the resulting speedup is becoming significantly lower. That is to be expected, since utilization of a dedicated hardware optimized for a specific function will result in a faster design.

Implementation of the sprod_ns and sprod_SS function for SVM showed that the hardware time for these functions is higher than the software time, which precludes them for being accelerated through hardware. The solve_dual function however resulted in lower hardware time, which is thus the only results reported for SVM in Table 3.

For the Naive Bayes algorithm, various functions were selected for hardware implementation. The first results are derived for when only one of the functions were selected and the last result is derived for the case where several functions were selected. The results show that by increasing the number of functions that are moved to the hardware, the speedup increases; however the amount of available hardware should also be considered.

In Table 3, the size of data being transferred during each call of the k_means_clustering is considerably high, thus the overhead of the data transmission results in a significant drop in the speedup (64% and 54% drop for feature sizes of 10 and 18, respectively). When the find_nearest_point function is accelerated, the size of transferred data during each call is much lower; however, since the number of function calls is higher, we still observe some drop in the speedup (3.2% and 3.6% drop for feature sizes of 10 and 18, respectively).

Table 3 shows that selection of the functions for acceleration is not only concluded based on the implementation on the hardware, but also on the data transfer overhead.

7.2. Acceleration results in Hadoop environment

In this section, we present the speedup results in an end-to-end Hadoop system for offloading time-intensive functions of the studied machine learning kernels to FPGA accelerator. We use Intel Vtune for hotspot analysis of Hadoop MapReduce. Intel VTune is a performance-profiling tool that provides an interface to the processor performance counters [18]. Using Vtune, we analyze the contribution of kernel execution time over the total execution time when running Hadoop.

Fig. 6 shows the common hotspot modules of big data applications on both Intel Atom C2758 and Xeon E5, for different number of mappers. Application kernel represents the computation part to perform the task such as K-means, KNN, etc. Libz performs the data compression and decompression tasks for the Hadoop workload.

Amdahl’s law is used to calculate the overall speedup on an end-to-end Hadoop system, based on the speedup results from Table 3 and Hadoop hotspot analysis in Fig. 6.

Fig. 7 shows the achievable acceleration of the Hadoop system for selected examples in Table 3 for an architecture with four mapper slots. Results show that the speedup of each application through HW+SW acceleration is translated into a lower speedup on the end-to-end Hadoop system. For instance, while the acceleration of the K-means yields a speedup of the order of 312× with zero overhead, the speedup drops to 146× with the data transfer overhead, and 2.78× and 2.29× on Hadoop platform with Atom and Xeon, respectively. The final speedup is greatly affected by the fraction of time the kernel execution takes to run in the Hadoop environment. In other words, even if we are able to significantly accelerate the kernel through HW+SW co-design, the overall acceleration on the Hadoop platform is insignificant if most of the time is spent on operations other than the kernel, including data compression and transfers.

7.3. Power and energy-delay product

An important benefit of offloading applications to dedicated hardware is enhancing power efficiency. General-purpose CPUs such as Atom and Xeon are not designed to provide maximum efficiency for every application. Accelerators can help improve the efficiency by not only speeding up execution time, but also executing the task with just enough required hardware resources.

The power values were calculated with the same methodology as the one used to calculate the execution time in Section 5. Power measurement for each application is done using picoscope, digital oscilloscope for the ARM and FPGA board (the board idle power was deducted from the power readings value when running application to estimate core power). We measured the power by measuring the current flowing to core and multiplying that by the core voltage. To measure the current, we measured the voltage
Table 3
HLS implementation results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Application</th>
<th>Accelerated function</th>
<th>Zero-overhead Speedup</th>
<th>Overhead-included Speedup</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>K-means</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$N = 100, k = 13, f = 10$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>k_means_clustering</td>
<td>181.5</td>
<td>65.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>find_nearest_point</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>3.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>euclid_disc_2</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>1.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$N = 17,695, k = 13, f = 18$</td>
<td>312.5</td>
<td>146.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>k_means_clustering</td>
<td>5.89</td>
<td>5.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>euclid_disc_2</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>3.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>KNN</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$f = 5$</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>1.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sq_euclid_dist</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>2.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$f = 10$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SVM</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$N = 2000, M = 879, f = 9947$</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>4.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>solve_dual</td>
<td>8.23</td>
<td>8.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Naive Bayes</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lineLength</td>
<td>1.126</td>
<td>1.126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>areaUnderCurve</td>
<td>1.138</td>
<td>1.138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>normDecay</td>
<td>1.091</td>
<td>1.091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>nb_classify</td>
<td>1.093</td>
<td>1.093</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mh_abs</td>
<td>1.0071</td>
<td>1.0071</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(lineLength,</td>
<td>1.629</td>
<td>1.629</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>areaUnderCurve,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>normDecay, nb_classify)</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 6. Hotspot analysis before acceleration.

Fig. 7. Acceleration on a full-blown system with four mapper slots.
drop across the test points provided on the board divided by the
resistance around those points.

Assuming a uniform distribution of energy over the execution
time, the energy dissipation of the accelerated regions was re-
placed with that of the FPGA to get the energy of the accelerated
kernel. Wattsup pro meter was used for power reading on the
end-to-end Hadoop system running on Xeon and Atom servers;
however, only a fraction of the total energy is due to the kernel,
which is substituted with the energy of accelerated kernel. By
averaging the resulting Hadoop energy over the new execution
time, the power consumption values were calculated.

Table 4 shows the power and energy-delay-product (EDP) re-
sults for four mappers on Xeon and Atom. The initial power num-
bers refer to the power values on Hadoop before acceleration and
the accelerated power refer to power number after acceleration.
Power ratio shows the ratio of power before the acceleration to
the power after the acceleration. EDP shows the energy delay product.

Based on Table 4, power is reduced by up to 3.7× in the studied
applications. Moreover, since both the execution time and the
power has been reduced through the acceleration, EDP is signifi-
cantly reduced by up to 15.21×.

8. Sensitivity analysis

8.1. Number of mapper slots

An important factor in determining the performance of an an-
alytics application running in Hadoop MapReduce environment is
the number of mapper and reducer slots. The optimal number of mappers and reducers aims to create a balance among the CPU
computing power and the amount of data that is transported across
nodes. In this section, we evaluate FPGA acceleration results using
different number of mappers for running the Hadoop with 1, 4 and
8 mapper slots.

Fig. 6 shows the results of the hotspot analysis for different
number of mappers. Fig. 8 shows the FPGA acceleration results
using different number of mapper slots.

Results show that for Atom, K-means, KNN and SVM yield
almost the same execution time for different number of mapper
slots and for the Naive Bayes, four mapper slots yield the best
results. When Xeon server runs the master node, for KNN and SVM,
four mapper slots yield the best results.

While increasing the number of mapper slots in the architecture
allows the exploitation of more levels of parallelism, the com-
communication overhead limits the range of achievable speedup. For instance, Fig. 8 shows that increasing the number of mapper slots
to four enhances the performance; however, further increase has
no or negative effect on the execution time. However, the optimal
configuration is highly dependent on the application type, the
architecture of the master node, the hotspot characteristics of the
application on the Hadoop framework, size of input data splits and
the implementation.

8.2. Size of data

In the MapReduce platform, the input data is split into a number
of input splits. Each map task processes a logical split of data. The
splits of data go to the kernel. Thus, the size of the data that goes
to the accelerated kernels is the size of the input splits (not to be
confused with the size of input data).

It should be noted that the number of times each function is
called within each run of the algorithm, and the fraction of the
execution time devoted to that function is dependent on the size
of input data. Thus, we conducted the data size sensitivity analysis
of studied machine learning applications on the Zynq platform to
find out the trend of speedup changes with respect to the input
data size. For each application, the profiler calculated the fraction
of time spent for each accelerated function and the corresponding
speedup was calculated.

Table 5 shows the execution time after acceleration and the
speedup for different data sizes for all applications. Table 5 shows
that as expected, the execution time increases with the increase in
data size. Moreover, the data size has little impact on the achiev-
able speedup, which is due to the overhead for the transfer of data
through the switching network and PCI-express.

Fig. 9 shows the speedup results for a studied range of data
sizes. Since the execution of some of the applications including
the Naive Bayes on small data sizes resulted in very low execution
times, (less than 0.1 s), the profiling results were not reliable and
thus not reported.

As the results show, the input data size have a significant effect
on the speedup in some applications. In case of the K-means al-
gorithm, the speedup increases significantly with the size of input
data. The size of data does not have much effect on the speedup
of Naive Bayes and KNN. Finally, the speedup of the SVM algorithm
decreases as the data size increases in the SVM algorithm. The
different trend observed in these applications for small sizes is due
to both the PS–PL overhead and change in the fraction of execution
time devoted to different accelerated functions. However, as input
data size increases (beyond 10 MB for these applications), the
speedup values start to converge.

9. Performance and cost analysis

9.1. Power and performance comparison of big and little core archi-
tecture

We studied two very distinct server microarchitectures; a high
performance big Xeon core and a low power embedded-like little
Atom core. These two types of servers represent two schools of
thought on server architecture design: using big core like Xeon,
which is a conventional approach to designing a high-performance
server, and the Atom, which is a new trajectory in server design
that advocates the use of a low-power core to address the dark
silicon challenge facing servers.

Based on the results from Fig. 7, the range of speedup achieved
through HW+SW co-design is the higher for Atom considering all
the applications. This is due to the fact that for the Atom server,
a larger part the application is being accelerated at a higher rate.
To compare the overall execution time, Fig. 10 shows the execu-
tion time before and after the acceleration for Atom and Xeon.
The figure shows that the overall execution time is lower on the
architecture in which, HDFS runs on the high-end cores (Xeon).
However the acceleration reduces the execution time of Atom at a
higher rate. Thus FPGA acceleration, reduces the performance gap
between Atom and Xeon.

The results show that the FPGA-accelerated Atom server out-
perform the non-accelerated Xeon server for most of the appli-
cations. This is due to the fact that on the one hand, for these
applications the map phase accounts for a higher portion of the
execution time on Atom, and on the other hand, the map functions
on slower Atom server are accelerated at a higher rate.

Fig. 11 shows the power consumption of Atom and Xeon server
before and after the acceleration. The results show that while the
power consumption is higher on the Xeon server, the rate of power
reduction due to FPGA acceleration is higher on the Xeon server
too, thus reducing the power gap between Atom and Xeon. For
some applications (i.e. K-means and KNN) the power consumption
of FPGA-accelerated Xeon server is lower that the non-accelerates
Atom server. This is to be expected, as Atom uses small cores,
designed to consume low power. However, the power reduction
through hardware acceleration is lower for the low-end server
(Atom), since it already consumes lower power.
Fig. 8. Execution time after acceleration for various number of mapper slots on Atom (a) and Xeon (b).

Fig. 9. Kernel acceleration for different input data sizes.

Fig. 10. Execution time comparison of Atom and Xeon.

Fig. 11. Power comparison of Atom and Xeon.
Table 4
Power and energy analysis for four mapperslots.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Xeon</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K-means</td>
<td>15.88</td>
<td>7.45</td>
<td>2429.52</td>
<td>2823.1</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>15.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KNN</td>
<td>18.59</td>
<td>9.07</td>
<td>9112.68</td>
<td>2230.06</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>5.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVM</td>
<td>17.37</td>
<td>12.24</td>
<td>13615.73</td>
<td>4601.9</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>2.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NB</td>
<td>32.26</td>
<td>8.72</td>
<td>18580.43</td>
<td>2316.3</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>8.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atom</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K-means</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>5412.17</td>
<td>680.84</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>7.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KNN</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>14912.68</td>
<td>4283.73</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>3.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVM</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>5062.68</td>
<td>862.09</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>5.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NB</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>5103.49</td>
<td>2242.03</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>2.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5
Execution time for different data sizes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data input</th>
<th>Execution time [s]</th>
<th>Speedup</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>K-means</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data input</td>
<td>128 MB</td>
<td>2 GB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data input</td>
<td>4 MB</td>
<td>16 MB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data input</td>
<td>2 GB</td>
<td>10 GB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data input</td>
<td>7 GB</td>
<td>10 GB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data input</td>
<td>2 GB</td>
<td>2 GB</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 12. EDP time comparison of Atom and Xeon.

Fig. 11 shows the EDP of Atom and Xeon server before and after the acceleration. The results show that while the energy efficiency is enhanced more significantly for the high-end server (Xeon), both stand-alone Atom server and FPGA-accelerated Atom server still yield lower EDP and exhibit enhanced energy-efficiency (see Fig. 12).

The comparison of Intel Atom and Xeon shows how the FPGA acceleration targets the speed in Little core architecture and the power in Big core architectures. Moreover, the FPGA-accelerated little core architecture is the most energy-efficient choice for MapReduce acceleration, with its execution time comparable to (and sometimes even lower than) that of Xeon. This finding is significant in making architectural decisions while designing an efficient platform for MapReduce.

9.2. Cost analysis

Fig. 13 shows the capital cost of studied architectures normalized to the cost of Atom server. We utilize conventional costs for various components with Xeon and a low-end FPGA (Artrix-7) having 4.1× and 30% of the cost of an Atom server. The figure shows that while execution time of applications on the — Xeon+FPGA platform is the lowest, it is not the most cost-efficient solution. On the other hand, adding FPGAs to Atom server is a cost effective solution to get enhanced performance without having to move to expensive servers like Xeon. The FPGA-accelerated Atom server yields execution times that are close to or lower than stand-alone Xeon server for the studied applications, while reducing the server cost by more than 3×. However, if the main optimization goal is the execution time, accelerating Xeon server is the best solution, albeit not cost-efficient.
10. Scalability in a multi-node architecture

In order to understand the scalability of the acceleration method presented in this paper, in this section we study HW acceleration in a multi-node cluster and across a large range of input data size. We use a 12-node (1 NameNode and 11 DataNodes) cluster, each with dual Intel Xeon E5-2670 (2.60 GHz) 8 core CPUs allowing up to 176 mapper/reducer slots. We execute the applications for various data sizes. The HDFS block size is set to 128 MB. Thus, based on the input data size, the number of data splits vary (i.e., 8, 40, 80, 160 and 800 for input data of 1, 5, 10, 20 and 100Gb, respectively). Table 6 shows the result collected on the cluster, where mapper shows the number of occupied mapper slots among the available slots. The rest of the slots are utilized for other tasks, including reduce. Table 6 shows that the HW+SW acceleration of mapper functions, accelerates the MapReduce applications running on a cluster, with a speedup comparable to that on a single-node.

Moreover, as shown in Table 6, the execution times before and after the acceleration change semi-logarithmically with the size of input data. Also note that while in some cases the overall speed up after acceleration increases as the size of data increases (e.g., in K-means), in other cases the speed up reduces as the size of data grows. In fact changing the size of data changes the amount of intra-node communication, which is the contribution of map time to the total time.

Moreover, it is interesting to observe the speedup for various input data sizes. Fig. 15 shows the speedup for the studied data sizes. The results shows variation of up to 40% in the speedup for the some applications, (i.e., SVM and KNN), and monotonic changes in the speedup for others (i.e., Naive Bayes and K-means). Regardless, all the applications benefit from the FPGA acceleration for large data sizes.

Fig. 14 shows the execution time both before and after the acceleration for the studied applications, which shows that on the 12-node cluster, the gap between the execution time of the acceleration applications, and the non-accelerated ones does not change significantly over various range of data. By extending the results from one server to a multi-node cluster and experimenting with large data size, we show that for some applications, the FPGA acceleration of MapReduce is more significant, when the size of data increases. This is due the data parallel nature of the MapReduce applications and promise extensive benefits in the world of Big Data, with its ever-increasing demand for processing large data sizes.

11. Related work

The performance and bottlenecks of Hadoop MapReduce have been extensively studied in recent work [17,20,41,49]. To enhance the performance of MapReduce and based on the bottlenecks found for various applications, hardware accelerators are finding their ways in system architectures [15,38].

In MARS [15], a MapReduce framework on an NVIDIA G80 GPU was developed in which the GPU's computational power was harnessed for the MapReduce. In this platform the programming complexity of the GPU was hidden beyond the simple and familiar MapReduce interface. The results yield a 16× faster speed than a quad-core CPU-based implementation for six common web applications. In [38], GPU MapReduce (GPMR) is presented as a stand-alone MapReduce library that modifies the typical MapReduce tasks to fit into GPMR and leverage the power of GPU clusters for large-scale computing. While the GPU-based platforms have achieved significant speedup across a wide range of benchmarks, their high power demands preclude them for energy-efficient computing [37]. Alternatively, FPGAs have shown to be more energy efficient, specifically for handheld devices where prolonged battery life is one of the most important design goals [12,37].

Given the industry trend (e.g., Microsoft Catapult) it seems GPU is not the accelerator of choice for cloud scale computing running diverse type of workloads. For domain specific applications such as neural network, however, GPU remains a competitive choice. It should be noted that current deep Neural Networks rely heavily on dense floating-point matrix multiplication, which maps well to GPUs. While current FPGAs offer superior energy efficiency, but they do not offer the performance of todays GPUs on DNNs. However, advances in the FPGA technology, suggest that new generation of FPGAs will outperform GPUs. In [34] the authors compare two generations of Intel FPGAs (Arria 10, Stratix10) against the latest highest performance Titan X Pascal GPU. For a ResNet case study, their results show that for Tenary ResNet [24], the Stratix 10 FPGA can deliver 60% better performance over Titan X Pascal GPU, while being 2.3× better in performance/watt showing that FPGAs may become the platform of choice for accelerating next-generation DNNs.

Various platforms have been deployed to leverage the power of FPGA for acceleration and energy-efficiency purposes. Microsoft Catapult has built a composable, reconfigurable fabric to accelerate portions of large-scale software services, which consists of 6 × 8 2-D torus of high-end Stratix V FPGAs embedded into a half-rack of 48 machines. One FPGA is placed into each server, accessible through PCIe, and wired directly to other FPGAs with pairs of 10 Gb SAS cables [35]. Alternatively, hybrid chips that integrate FPGAs with processors reduce the overhead of data transfers, allowing low-cost on-chip communication between the two. Heterogeneous architecture research platform (HARP), is one such platform that integrates Intel CPU with Altera FPGAs. Another example is Zynq-7000 SoC platform, which integrates ARM cores with Xilinx FPGAs. In [36], a MapReduce framework on FPGA (FPMR) is described in which programming abstraction, hardware architecture and basic building blocks are introduced for RankBoost application along with an on-chip processor scheduler that maximizes the utilization of computation resources and enhances the load balancing. This platform is utilized to compare the performance of RankBoost application with respect to its full software implementation. In [48], a MapReduce framework on FPGA accelerated commodity hardware is presented, which consists of FPGA-based worker nodes operating extended MapReduce tasks to speed up the computation process, and CPU-based worker nodes, which run the major communications with other worker nodes. The FPGA-based workers are shown to offer ×10 faster task processing. In [5], a MapReduce programming model is evaluated that exploits the computing capacity present in a cluster of nodes equipped with hardware accelerators. They use the cluster of Cell BE processors to accelerate mapper functions for the AES encryption as a data-intensive application and Pi number estimator as a CPU-intensive application. They show that benefits for CPU-intensive applications are remarkable; however, the communication and synchronization overheads can significantly degrade the performance benefits of hardware accelerators in data-intensive applications.

In [17], a hardware accelerated MapReduce implementation of Terasort is proposed on Tilera’s many core processor board. In this architecture, data mapping, data merging and data reducing are offloaded to the accelerators. The Terasort benchmark is utilized to evaluate the proposed architecture. In Zcluster [25], hardware acceleration of FIR is explored through an eight-salve Zynq-based MapReduce architecture. Zcluster is implemented for a standard
Table 6
Results for various input data sizes on a 12-node cluster.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Input (GB)</th>
<th>mappers</th>
<th>total_time (s)</th>
<th>map_time (%)</th>
<th>accelerated_time (s)</th>
<th>speedup</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Naive Bayes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>63.44</td>
<td>70.19</td>
<td>1.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>401</td>
<td>52.62</td>
<td>319.45</td>
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<td>K-means</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>8</td>
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<td>87.35</td>
<td>57.42</td>
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Fig. 14. Execution time before and after the acceleration on a 12-node cluster for (a) Naive Bayes, (b) K-means, (c) KNN and (d) SVM.

FIR filter to show the benefits gained through hardware acceleration in the MapReduce framework, where the entire low-pass filter is implemented on the FPGA. In [22], a configurable hardware accelerator is used to speed up the processing of reduce tasks in cloud computing applications on the MapReduce framework. The accelerator is utilized to carry out the reduce tasks. The MapReduce accelerator has been implemented and mapped to a multi-core FPGA with embedded ARM processors. They showed up to 1.8× system speedup of the MapReduce applications. In [7], a detailed MapReduce implementation of the K-means application is presented. Which was shown to enhance the speedup of software implementation of K-means.

In recent years, several FPGA-based heterogeneous accelerators, have been proposed for big data analytics and cloud computing and in particular for MapReduce programming model. However, these efforts mainly attempt to accelerate a particular MapReduce application and deploy it on a specific architecture that fits well the performance and power requirements of the
application. Given the diversity of architectures presented, the important research question is which architecture is better suited and more cost-efficient to meet the performance, power and energy-efficiency requirements of a wide and diverse range of MapReduce applications. There has been no prior effort on performing design space exploration to find the choice of hardware accelerator architecture that can be deployed in cloud for MapReduce analytics applications. Our experiments answer the questions of what is the role of processor after acceleration in a heterogeneous architecture; whether a high-end server is most suited to run big data applications or a low-end server equipped with FPGA provides sufficient performance with lower power consumption and capital cost?

12. Conclusions

In this paper we presented an end-to-end implementation of big data analytics applications in a heterogeneous CPU+FPGA architecture. We developed the MapReduce parallel implementation of K-means, KNN, SVM and naive Bayes in a Hadoop MapReduce environment and profiled various phases of Hadoop execution on Atom and Xeon architectures to understand the breakdown of execution time on various microarchitectures. We accelerated the mapper functions through HW+SW co-design on the Zynq FPGA platform. The results show promising speedups as well as energy-efficiency gains of up to 8.2× and 15×, respectively for large data sizes. We further studied how application, system, and architecture level parameters such as the choice of CPU (big vs little), the number of mapper slots, and the data split size affect the performance and power-efficiency benefits of Hadoop Streaming hardware acceleration. Our analysis concluded that power and performance sensitivity to various MapReduce environment system parameters vary significantly before and after acceleration. They also vary across big and little core architectures. The results show that HW+SW acceleration yields higher speedup on Atom server, therefore significantly reducing the performance gap between little and big cores after acceleration. The results show that the FPGA-accelerated Atom server outperforms the non-accelerated Xeon server for most of the applications. Moreover the results show that while the power consumption is higher on the Xeon server too, thus reducing the power gap between Atom and Xeon. For some applications. (i.e., K-means and KNN) the power consumption of FPGA-accelerated Xeon server is lower that the non-accelerates Atom server. Based on the results and capital cost analysis, when the main optimization goal is the execution time, accelerating Xeon server is the best solution, albeit not cost-efficient, since FPGA-accelerated Atom server yields execution times that are close to or lower than stand-alone Xeon server for the studied applications, while reducing the server cost by more than 3×. To confirm the scalability of FPGA acceleration for MapReduce, we study a 12-node Xeon cluster and increase the size of data to observer the range of speedup. While a small variation is observed in the speedup of some applications, all the applications benefit from FPGA acceleration at large data sizes. Moreover, for some applications, the speedup is higher for larger data sizes.

References

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