

Lachesis: A Middleware for Customizing OS Scheduling of Stream Processing Queries

Dimitris Palyvos-Giannas
Chalmers University of Technology
Gothenburg, Sweden
palyvos@chalmers.se

Marina Papatriantafidou
Chalmers University of Technology
ptrianta@chalmers.se

Gabriele Mencagli
University of Pisa
Pisa, Italy
mencagli@di.unipi.it

Vincenzo Gulisano
Chalmers University of Technology
vincenzo.gulisano@chalmers.se

ABSTRACT

Data streaming applications in Cyber-Physical Systems enable high-throughput, low-latency transformations of raw data into value. The performance of such applications, run by Stream Processing Engines (SPEs), can be boosted through custom CPU scheduling. Previous schedulers in the literature require alterations to SPEs to control the scheduling through user-level threads. While such alterations allow for fine-grained control, they hinder the adoption of such schedulers due to the high implementation cost and potential limitations in application semantics (e.g., blocking I/O).

Motivated by the above, we explore the feasibility and benefits of custom scheduling without alterations to SPEs but, instead, by orchestrating the OS scheduler (e.g., using `nice` and `cgroup`) to enforce the scheduling goals. We propose *Lachesis*, a standalone scheduling middleware, decoupled from any specific SPE, that can schedule multiple streaming applications, run in one or many nodes, and possibly multiple SPEs. Our evaluation with real-world and synthetic workloads, several SPEs and hardware setups, shows its benefits over default OS scheduling and other state-of-the-art schedulers: up to 75% higher throughput, and 1130x lower average latency once such SPEs reach their peak processing capacity.

CCS CONCEPTS

• Information systems → Online analytical processing engines; • Software and its engineering → Scheduling.

KEYWORDS

Scheduling, Stream processing, Middleware

ACM Reference Format:

Dimitris Palyvos-Giannas, Gabriele Mencagli, Marina Papatriantafidou, and Vincenzo Gulisano. 2021. Lachesis: A Middleware for Customizing OS Scheduling of Stream Processing Queries. In *22nd International Middleware Conference (Middleware '21)*, December 6–10, 2021, Virtual Event, Canada. ACM, New York, NY, USA, 14 pages. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3464298.3493407>

Permission to make digital or hard copies of all or part of this work for personal or classroom use is granted without fee provided that copies are not made or distributed for profit or commercial advantage and that copies bear this notice and the full citation on the first page. Copyrights for components of this work owned by others than ACM must be honored. Abstracting with credit is permitted. To copy otherwise, or republish, to post on servers or to redistribute to lists, requires prior specific permission and/or a fee. Request permissions from permissions@acm.org.

Middleware '21, December 6–10, 2021, Virtual Event, Canada

© 2021 Association for Computing Machinery.

ACM ISBN 978-1-4503-8534-3/21/12...\$15.00

<https://doi.org/10.1145/3464298.3493407>

1 INTRODUCTION

Cyber-Physical Systems (CPSs) like Smart Grids and Vehicular Networks are undergoing a data-driven digitization transformation to meet new societal/business goals (e.g., higher penetration of renewable energy or better user experience [30]). This transformation is enabled by (1) the large amounts of data sensed in CPSs, (2) the significant computing power spanning from edge devices to higher-end servers, and (3) analysis paradigms, like data stream processing, which generate value from raw data with high throughput and low latency [18]. Stream processing gained popularity thanks to Stream Processing Engines (SPEs) [3, 9, 32] supporting users with simple ways of defining and deploying applications (called *continuous queries*, or simply queries). Such queries are defined as Directed Acyclic Graphs (DAG) of *streams* and *operators* transforming raw inputs to rich outputs delivered to the end users.

Motivation and Challenges. SPEs can be distinguished as either (1) *one at a time*, when they process individual inputs (called *tuples*) as soon as they are available (e.g., Apache Storm [3] and Flink [9]), or (2) *microbatched*, when they discretize streams into contiguous batches, with each batch being processed as a whole (e.g., Apache Spark [60]). While the latter optimize throughput, with the general aim of approaching the peak memory bandwidth of the underlying machines (often high-end servers [21, 54]), the former are oriented to latency-sensitive applications, and their efficient execution has been analyzed across the entire spectrum of devices found in CPSs [15, 20, 42, 45]. In this work, we focus on one-at-a-time SPEs.

One-at-a-time SPEs (or simply SPEs from now on) execute operators on dedicated per-operator user-level threads, which in most current systems are mapped directly to kernel-level threads and

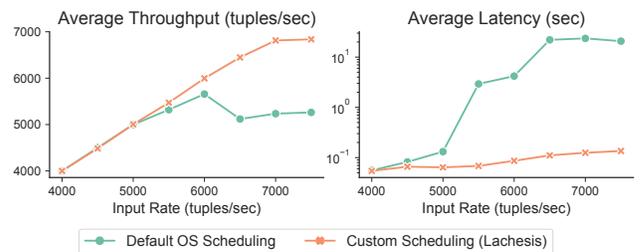


Figure 1: Performance benefits of custom scheduling for a streaming query from the Linear Road [4] benchmark.

are scheduled by the Operating System (OS). While being able to orchestrate many threads concurrently and in parallel, within and across processes [23, 53], OS schedulers are unaware of the specific performance goals of streaming applications. This can lead to sub-optimal query performance, especially when CPU resources are scarce, e.g., in resource-constrained edge devices or in multi-tenant scenarios with servers executing queries of many analysts. *Custom scheduling*, i.e., deciding in which order and for how long operators are executed on the available processors based on SPE-accessible or application-dependent metrics [18, 43, 44, 50], can in such cases significantly improve the performance of queries. Figure 1 outlines the performance benefit of using custom scheduling for a traffic monitoring application from the Linear Road benchmark [4] deployed on edge devices (studied further in §2 and §6). As the input rate increases, custom scheduling significantly improves the average throughput and latency performance of the application in comparison to standard fair scheduling applied by the OS.

To provide custom scheduling, state-of-the-art (SoA) solutions [12, 18, 43] alter the core runtime of SPEs. Instead of having a rigid binding between operators and threads (as in the default runtime of Storm and Flink), they schedule operators entirely in user space as user-level threads. The tight coupling of such *User-Level Streaming Schedulers* (UL-SS) to the SPE allows them to have fine-grained control over the scheduling decisions. However, the same tight coupling and the associated changes to the SPE can bring implementation and compatibility risks, as evident from the lack of adoption of UL-SS in mainstream SPEs [3, 9, 32]. Additionally, UL-SS miss significant advantages offered by the OS scheduler, such as transparent support for blocking operations (which are not scheduled at all in [18]) and the ability to schedule operators of different SPEs in a homogeneous manner.

Contribution. Motivated by the above, we ask: *is it beneficial to implement custom scheduling by assisting the OS instead of altering the SPE to rely on a user-level scheduler?* We answer affirmatively and introduce *Lachesis*,¹ a middleware for streaming applications that offers fine-grained control of the scheduling decisions without altering the implementation of the SPEs or the queries. *Lachesis* combines low-level mechanisms of the SPE and the OS to provide high-level scheduling abstractions. More specifically:

[leftmargin=*]*Lachesis* is decoupled from SPEs and runs as a separate process, orchestrating the OS scheduler through mechanisms like `nice` and `cgroup`. Since it does not rely on user-level threads, *Lachesis* is not affected negatively by blocking operations (that would require ad-hoc solutions otherwise [19]). Accounting for the spectrum of CPSs’ devices, *Lachesis* supports scheduling (1) on low-end devices, scheduling one or more queries running on one device or even distributed by the SPE on more devices, and (2) on higher-end servers, allowing cross-scheduling of multiple different SPEs. To the best of our knowledge, *Lachesis* is the first middleware with the latter capability. We thoroughly evaluate *Lachesis* with real-world and synthetic workloads, three SPEs (Apache Flink [9], Apache Storm [3] and Liebre [52]), and both low- and higher-end devices, showing its benefits over default OS

scheduling and other state-of-the-art schedulers: up to 75% higher throughput, and 1130x lower average latency once such SPEs reach their peak processing capacity.

We describe data streaming and scheduling in §2, our system model and goals in §3, *Lachesis* in §4 and §5, our evaluation in §6, related work in §7 and conclude in §8.

2 PRELIMINARIES

We now overview data streaming, operator scheduling, and some of the features the OS offers to modify the priorities used to allocate resources to running processes/threads.

A *query* is a DAG of *operators* connected by *streams* (i.e., sequences of *tuples* sharing a *schema*). *Data Sources*, external to the query (e.g., publish-subscribe systems like Apache Kafka [16]) generate *ingress tuples* usually at varying rates. These ingress tuples are fed to queries by *Ingress operators* (also called *Sources* or *Spouts* [3, 9, 32]). Tuples are pushed through the query operators, possibly resulting in new tuples, and are eventually delivered as *egress tuples* to *Egress operators* (also called *Sinks* [9]), which forward them to the user or other applications/systems. Each operator is characterized by its *cost*, i.e., the average time to process a tuple, and its *selectivity*, i.e., the average number of output tuples produced per input tuple. Queries are executed by SPEs [3, 9, 32]. During deployment, SPEs transform the DAG defined by a user, which is known as a *logical DAG* (or *topology* [18]) and comprising of *logical operators*, to a *physical DAG*, comprising of *physical operators*, applying optimizations such as operator fission and fusion (usually guided by user-defined configuration parameters) [25]. Physical operators (or simply *operators*, if not otherwise stated) are the minimum query unit executed on the underlying node.

In which ways can operators be scheduled? Our work studies how operators are scheduled inside each node, i.e., which operators are prioritized or given more CPU time.² Since physical operators are the execution units of SPEs, scheduling boils down to deciding which physical operators are assigned to CPU time. Because SPEs rely on the OS itself for scheduling, they spawn one thread per physical operator [3, 9, 56]. Instead, SoA UL-SSs schedule physical operators as user-level threads which are executed on the hardware by a small number of kernel-level threads [18, 43].

Example. Figure 2a shows a simplified view of the traffic monitoring application of Figure 1, illustrating two branches, one computing variable tolls based on the levels of congestion (Branch 1) and one computing a fixed toll (Branch 2) for segments of a set of highways. Assume that branch 1’s operators should have higher priority than those of branch 2 (e.g., to promptly deliver high tolls, indicating congestion, to vehicles approaching busy segments). The logical DAG in Figure 2a could be transformed by the SPE into the physical DAG of figures 2b/c, with operators *C, D, E* being fused into the same physical operator, and operator *F* replicated twice.

Figures 2b/c show the query when *C/D/E, G* and *F₂* have 1, 1, and 4 tuples in their input queues, respectively, and *F₂* is the operator that has waited longer to be scheduled. There, the scheduling

¹In Greek mythology *Lachesis* was one of the three *Moirai* (Fates). She measured the thread of life allotted to each person with her measuring rod.

²The term scheduling is also used sometimes in the literature to refer to the process of deciding where to deploy operators onto distributed nodes [2, 10, 34, 57–59]. Our work is orthogonal to such *job placement* techniques.

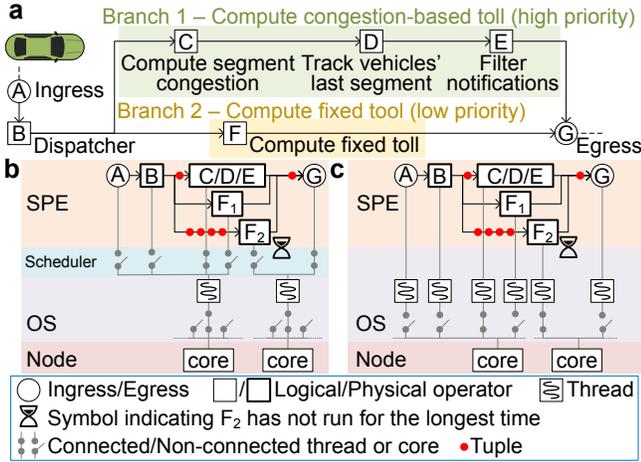


Figure 2: Simplified overview of the monitoring query from §1 (a), deployed with/without a custom scheduler (b/c).

decision that prioritizes branch 1 is to schedule $C/D/E$ and G . A UL-SS, able to observe the internal state of each queue and aware of the scheduling goal [18], can dispatch $C/D/E$ and G ignoring that F_2 has not run for longer (2b). In that case, while the OS chooses the kernel-level thread that is given access to the CPU (bottom row of switches in the figure), the UL-SS decides which operator (i.e., user-level thread) should be executed (top row of switches). On the other hand, if scheduling is left to the OS, its common fairness goal [35] and its lack of awareness of the user’s scheduling preferences can result in higher chances of running F_2 (2c).

How can the OS scheduling be customized? Modern OSs offer mechanisms to customize their internal scheduling but lack easy ways for users to express arbitrary, fine-grained scheduling policies. Here, we focus on Linux, whose open-source APIs and widespread use in edge CPSs’ devices and higher-end servers make it an ideal candidate for scheduling customizations. While not aiming at providing an exhaustive discussion about all such mechanisms of Linux, we focus on two that, together, as we show in this work, can be used in a complementary fashion to enable *Lachesis*.

Thread Niceness. The Linux scheduler maintains a list of queues, one for each priority value. Normally, all threads belong to the queue with priority zero (the lowest, of normal, non-real-time threads). Within this queue, threads are kept ordered based on the `vruntime` parameter, which represents the actual time spent in execution by the thread, weighted by the whole load of the queue. The OS continuously updates the `vruntime` on a per-thread basis and schedules threads with minimum `vruntime` by preempting running ones if needed. This ordering can be partially controlled with the `nice` command, which assigns an integer in the interval $[-20, 19]$ to a thread. Each `nice` value n is statically mapped to a constant weight $w(n) = \frac{1024}{1.25^n}$. Thus, the ratio between the weights of two threads with `nice` of n_1 and n_2 is computed as $1.25^{n_2-n_1}$. At a high level, an increase in the `nice` value reflects in an increase of the `vruntime` parameter, decreasing the probability for a thread to run (and vice-versa). Although `nice` can effectively control thread

(and thus operator) priorities, it only supports 40 distinct values, indicating a need for additional mechanisms in multi-query setups.

Control Groups. Control groups [22] (cgroups) are an alternative way to control resources such as CPU time (the focus of this work). They are groups of threads constructed as hierarchies rooted at one or more *resource controllers* (also called *subsystems*). The scheduling of threads in each cgroup is based on their relative `nice` values in that group (i.e., the whole range of `nice` can be used in each cgroup without interference from other processes). The *CPU controller* allows the control of the CPU time allocated to the threads of each cgroup through the `cpu.shares` parameter, which defines the relative share of CPU time for all the threads in that cgroup. For example, if we split the threads running a set of physical operators evenly into two cgroups with equal `cpu.shares`, we can ensure that the processing power available to the two subsets will be balanced. In the extreme case, it is possible to assign each thread to a dedicated cgroup to gain further control of their runtime.

3 SYSTEM MODEL AND GOALS

We study how to schedule a set of operators, from one or more queries, executed in one or several nodes and with possibly multiple, different SPEs, without modifications to the runtime system of such SPEs. Each query is run in one SPE that can be composed of one or more processes distributed on the underlying nodes, which are dedicated to stream processing queries. We consider one-at-a-time SPEs like Storm [3], Flink [9], and Liebre [52], where each physical operator is executed by a dedicated thread. We study the main-stream scenario where each SPE exposes quantitative information about the running queries and operators through public APIs (e.g., for debugging and monitoring purposes). Furthermore, we assume that each SPE process is running on a machine equipped with a Linux distribution offering thread `nice` and cgroup mechanisms. Below we define auxiliary terms, relevant to our problem statement.

The term *entity* refers to logical/physical operators/threads when discussing aspects that apply to all such concepts.

DEFINITION 3.1 (METRIC). A metric is a triplet $(\tau, e, value)$ providing quantitative information about entity e at time τ .

Metrics can be primitive or derived as transformations on primitive metrics on which they depend.

DEFINITION 3.2 (SCHEDULING POLICY). A scheduling policy is an algorithm receiving a set of metrics (sharing time τ) and outputting priority values for a set of physical operators.³

The priority given to a physical operator must be translated into an input for the scheduling mechanism of the underlying OS, which is handled by a translation policy.

DEFINITION 3.3 (TRANSLATION POLICY). A translation policy is a strategy to translate priority values obtained from a scheduling policy into OS-related parameters (i.e., `nice` or `cpu.shares` of cgroup) associated with the corresponding threads.

³SPEs can spawn additional helper threads e.g., in charge of copying/serializing tuples [3, 9]. *Lachesis* can control their priority similarly to physical operators, so, for brevity, we do not discuss them as separate entities.

3.1 Problem Definition and Goals

We want to define a middleware that runs separately from the SPEs and uses *metrics* to apply a broad spectrum of *scheduling policies* by tuning the behavior of the Linux scheduler without changing the implementation of the SPEs or the queries. To have real-world value, that middleware should be able to:

[leftmargin=*, align=parleft, left=0pt..1.75em]Enforce arbitrary, user-defined scheduling policies, taking advantage of appropriate OS scheduling mechanisms. Enforce such policies on different SPEs without alteration. Schedule multiple queries at a time, possibly optimizing different goals for each query. Schedule queries deployed in different SPE processes running on multiple nodes. Achieve G3 also for queries running on different SPEs.

3.2 Performance Metrics

Here, we introduce in more detail common metrics used to evaluate the performance of streaming queries [18, 43, 51]:

[leftmargin=*]*Throughput*: #tuples ingested by an operator per time unit. *Processing Latency* (or simply latency): time interval between the output of an egress tuple t and the time when all the ingress tuples that contribute to t were ingested by the Ingress operator(s). *End-to-end Latency*, time interval between the output of an egress tuple t at the sink and the time when all the ingress tuples that contribute to t were produced by the Data Source(s). *CPU Utilization*, the percentage of the total CPU physical operators utilize, across all available processors (0-100%).

When the SPE comes close to saturation, an increase in the end-to-end latency (rather than the processing latency) is often beneficial for Data Sources to adapt their rates (e.g., through *back-pressure*) [45, 51]. For measuring latencies in distributed setups, we assume synchronized clocks (e.g., using NTP [37] or PTP [17]).

4 ARCHITECTURE

In this section, we describe *Lachesis*' architecture, outlined in Figure 3, in relation to the goals of §3.1. Users configure *Lachesis* through the *Scheduler UI*, choosing the scheduling and translation policies. During *Lachesis*' main loop, shown in Algorithm 1 and explained in the following, the policies are executed at regular *scheduling periods*, retrieving runtime information from the *SPE drivers* and the *metric provider*, computing a new *schedule* (i.e., priorities of the physical operators) and applying it with translators. The latter implement translation policies using specific OS mechanisms. Below, we describe each component in more detail.

SPE Drivers. An SPE driver acts as a bridge between the SPE process(es) and *Lachesis* by pulling runtime information from public APIs of the SPEs (cf. §3) without altering any part of the SPE implementation. To enable transparent support for multiple SPEs (G2, §3.1), drivers convert low-level runtime data to information about *entities* (physical operators, logical operators, and threads), hiding SPE-specific details and allowing the other components of *Lachesis* to work at an abstract level. Drivers are also responsible for exposing raw metric data retrieved by SPEs and other external systems to the metric provider. The use of public APIs simplifies driver

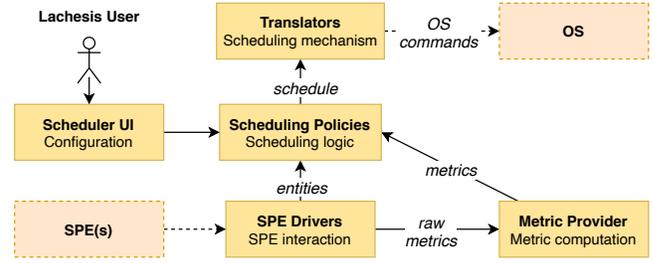


Figure 3: The architecture of *Lachesis*.

implementation and lowers the adoption risk of custom scheduling. Such external drivers allow *Lachesis* to run as a separate process without the potential to introduce bugs into the SPE. Furthermore, the drivers reduce the maintenance effort of custom scheduling since public APIs evolve slowly and maintain backward compatibility. For example, in §6 *Lachesis* uses the same driver to schedule different versions of Storm, while a UL-SS would require a manual port to the newer version. *Lachesis* provides drivers for various SPEs and can be extended with additional ones. *Lachesis* can use the available drivers, evaluated in §6, to schedule operators of different queries that may even run simultaneously in different SPEs (G5, §3.1), a feature unsupported by UL-SS, which are tightly coupled to a specific SPE [18, 43].

Metric Provider. *Lachesis* comes with an extensible set of *metrics*, each of which defines (1) its dependencies on other metrics and (2) a function to compute its value from those dependencies. The metric provider is the single entity responsible for computing the metrics requested by the policies by fetching and transforming raw metrics provided by each SPE driver (Algorithm 1 L1, L4) and exposing them to the policies (L7). Different SPEs expose different raw metrics, and the metric provider is tasked with using the dependency information to compute the requested values (as discussed in §5.2).

Translators. *Lachesis*' policies compute a schedule as priorities of the (physical) operators. A translator uses an OS scheduling mechanism to apply that schedule after converting it to a format appropriate for that mechanism (Algorithm 1, L8). Since translators are orthogonal to the policies, it is possible to change the translator (and thus the underlying OS mechanism) without changing the

Algorithm 1: Main loop of *Lachesis*.

```

User Input:  $\mathbb{P}[K]$ :  $K$  user-selected scheduling policies
                $\mathbb{T}[K]$ : User-selected translators (one for each policy)
Lachesis Data:  $\mathbb{D}[N]$ : SPE Drivers (for  $N$  distinct SPEs)
                   $\mathbb{M}$ : Metric provider

// Each policy has its own period and required metrics
1  $\mathbb{M}.\text{register}(\bigcup_{p \in \mathbb{P}} p.\text{metrics})$  // Register required metrics
2 while True do // Main loop start
3   if  $\exists p \in \mathbb{P} : p.\text{timeToRun}()$  then // Run scheduler
4      $\mathbb{M}.\text{update}(\mathbb{D})$  // Compute metrics, Algorithm 3
5     for  $i \in [0, K)$  do // Each policy and translator
6       if  $\mathbb{P}[i].\text{timeToRun}()$  then
7          $\text{schedule} \leftarrow \mathbb{P}[i].\text{schedule}(\mathbb{M}, \mathbb{D})$ 
8          $\mathbb{T}[i].\text{apply}(\text{schedule})$  // OS mechanism
9    $\text{sleep}(\text{GCD}(\bigcup_{p \in \mathbb{P}} p.\text{period}))$  // Until time to check again

```

policy itself. For example, *Lachesis* could switch from using nice to using other OS mechanisms (e.g., `cpu.shares`, used in §5 and §6).

Scheduling Policies. A scheduling policy computes a schedule using a set of entities from the SPE drivers and a set of metrics from the metric provider (L7). To schedule multiple queries, possibly with different strategies, potentially executed by different SPEs (G3 and G5, §3.1), *Lachesis* can use multiple policies (e.g., one policy per query), each with its own *period* (L3, L6). This, combined with each policy being able to use a different translator (i.e., OS mechanism), makes it possible to have fine-grained, multi-dimensional scheduling decisions, as we show in §6. Furthermore, it allows *Lachesis* to switch scheduling policies at runtime (by enabling one policy and disabling another), with the conditions of this switch programmed by the user. To account for policies with different periods, *Lachesis* wakes up at the minimum time interval between policy invocations (L9) but only runs if there is at least one policy to execute.

The decoupled architecture of *Lachesis* allows policies to be abstract without the need to consider the characteristics of a certain SPE or OS mechanism. Consequently, users can develop implementations of arbitrary policies only once and then reuse them to schedule operators in any SPE supported by *Lachesis*, as further discussed in §5 and §6.

5 DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION

5.1 Specifying User-Defined Scheduling Goals

SPEs convert the logical DAGs to physical ones during query deployment (cf. §2). Even though scheduling policies refer to physical operators (Definition 3.2), users might want to express their scheduling preferences independently of how DAGs are converted from logical to physical, i.e., in terms of logical operators. Such policy definitions can enable policy reuse in different deployments and SPEs (G2 and G3, §3.1). With this consideration, *Lachesis* allows users to either (1) define a policy directly for physical operators, (when they know the structure of the physical query DAG), or (2) define a policy in a decoupled fashion, combining a *high-level policy* that refers to logical operators and a reusable *transformation rule* that converts the logical schedule to a physical one.

A sample transformation rule is shown in Algorithm 2. This rule takes the schedule of a high-level policy as input and produces a physical schedule where the priority of fused physical operators is the highest priority of the logical operators that comprise them. *Lachesis* already comes with such basic transformation rules which are used in our evaluation.

To show that *Lachesis* can accommodate various high-level scheduling policies, we present (and evaluate in §6) four such policies, commonly used in the literature [18, 43]:

[leftmargin=*]**Queue Size (QS)** [18] prioritizes operators with more input tuples in their queues, balancing such queues’ size and, in turn, the operators’ effective utilization, to achieve higher throughput at the Egresses and to lower latency. **Highest Rate (HR)** [50] prioritizes “operator paths” (branches of a DAG ending at a sink) that are both productive (i.e., with operators having high selectivity) and inexpensive (low cost) with the goal of minimizing the average processing

Algorithm 2: Example policy transformation rule.

```

1 Function transform(LogicalSchedule input)
2   out ← EMPTY // Physical Schedule
3   for l ∈ input do // Each logical operator
4     ps ← getPhysical(l) // > 1 if fission applied
5     for p ∈ ps do // Each associated physical op
6       if |getLogical(p)| > 1 then // Fusion applied
7         // Set priority of physical to the max
8         // priority of the associated logical
9         out[p] ← max(out[p], input[l])
10      else
11        out[p] ← input[l]
12   return out

```

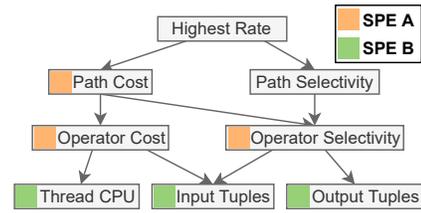


Figure 4: Example of the metric dependencies for policy HR. *Lachesis*’ metric provider traverses the graph from the root until it finds enough metrics to satisfy all the dependencies.

latency of all the tuples in the system. **First-Come-First-Serve (FCFS)** [7] prioritizes those operators whose input tuples have spent more time in the system, with the goal of minimizing the maximum latency. **RANDOM** gives operators uniformly random priorities.

5.2 Offering SPE-Agnostic Metrics

As mentioned in §4, each metric in *Lachesis* declares its dependencies, forming a directed, acyclic *dependency graph* rooted at that metric. Note that different SPEs might have only some parts of such a graph available. For example, Figure 4 shows an example graph for the goal of the HR policy, expressed as a metric. Notice that none of the two example SPEs exposes the desired metric directly. Hence, to keep scheduling policies independent of SPE-specific details (G2, §3.1), the metric provider needs to compute the metric based on its dependencies using a separate strategy for each SPE.

Algorithm 3 shows how *Lachesis* achieves the above. In the update method, called at each scheduling period, the metric provider iterates through all drivers (i.e., for the SPEs being scheduled) and uses `compute` (L6) to compute all registered metrics for each SPE. The `compute` method relies on a per-driver cache (L4, L10-11) to prevent duplicate computations of the same metric in each period. If the metric has not been computed yet, *Lachesis* first tries to fetch it directly from the SPE driver (L12-13). If that fails, then the metric provider calls `compute` recursively to traverse the dependency graph (L16) before computing the metric from its dependencies, saving it in the cache, and returning it (L17-18). Looking back at the example of Figure 4, for SPE A, *Lachesis* would compute the “Path Selectivity” using the “Operator Selectivity”, and then combine the former with the “Path Cost” to compute the “Highest Rate”. For

SPE B, it would use the metrics found at the leaves of the graph to compute all intermediate metrics required for “Highest Rate”.

5.3 Enforcing Policy Priorities

Lachesis’ translators control the OS mechanisms that enforce the user-defined schedule. One such mechanism is *nice*, which offers thread-specific priorities but, as discussed in §2, offers only one scheduling dimension and allows for limited control (i.e., only 40 distinct priority values). To overcome this limitation, *Lachesis* also takes advantage of the *cgroup* mechanism, since it allows for sets of threads/operators to be given different priorities using features such as `cpu.shares`. Furthermore, when threads are placed in a *cgroup*, their *nice* values affect only threads in the same *cgroup*, opening up the possibility for effective multi-dimensional scheduling (e.g., for multiple queries or multiple branches of a single query, G3 in §3.1). *Lachesis* accounts for these aspects by defining two complementary formats for schedules:

[leftmargin=“]The *single-priority schedule* gives a numerical priority to each (physical) operator. It is defined as a dictionary $\{\text{tid}\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ from thread IDs to real-numbered priorities. The *grouping schedule* describes how to assign operators to groups and the priority of each group. It is a dictionary $\{\text{gid}\} \rightarrow \{(\mathbb{R}, \{\text{tid}\})\}$, mapping the group IDs to tuples containing the group priority and a set of thread IDs that belong to that group.

According to these two formats, *Lachesis* defines a *nice* translator for single-priority schedules, controlling the niceness of threads based on the schedule’s priorities, and a `cpu.shares` translator for grouping schedules, assigning each group of threads to a *cgroup* and controlling the relative share of CPU time given to each *cgroup* based on the schedule’s priorities. These translators can be used on their own or combined to offer more scheduling dimensions. For example, in the query of Figure 2, the operators of each branch could be split into two groups, with the `cpu.shares` translator controlling the relative CPU time available to each branch and the *nice* translator prioritizing operators inside each group.

Algorithm 3: Metric provider computation.

```

1 Function update(Driver[] D) // Call from Algorithm 1, L4
2   metricValues ← EMPTY // To be used by policies
3   for d ∈ D do // For all drivers
4     cache ← EMPTY // Per-driver cache
5     for m ∈ registeredMetrics do // Compute all metrics
6       v ← compute(m, d)
7       metricValues.add(v)
8   save(metricValues)
9 Function compute(Metric m, Driver d)
10  if m ∈ cache then // Already computed in this period
11    return cache[m]
12  if d.provides(m) then // Available from driver
13    return d.get(m)
14  else if |m.deps| = 0 then // Primitive metric missing
15    throw Exception() // Wrong configuration
16  // Compute recursively all dependencies of m
17  v ← ∪_{r ∈ m.deps} compute(r, d)
18  cache[m] ← m.computeFromDependencies(v)
19  return cache[m]

```

While schedule priorities are real numbers, the OS usually expects discrete priorities in specific ranges, e.g., integers in $[-20, +19]$ for *nice*. To hide such details from the policies, keeping them general and independent of the OS mechanism (G1, §3.1), *Lachesis*’ translators perform *priority normalization*, converting the policy priorities to the appropriate numerical units. This is done by a *normalization function* F , whose type depends on the combination of used policy and translator. For example, a policy that produces integer priorities in the range $[-20, +19]$ might not need special normalization when used with *nice* but will need one when used with `cpu.shares`. For policies with linear priorities (e.g., QS), *Lachesis* uses min-max normalization and discretizes priorities to the required interval. For logarithmically-spaced priorities (e.g., in HR [50]) *Lachesis* uses min-max normalization on the logarithms of the priorities. For *nice*, the interpretation of the OS priorities is known and equal to $p_1/p_2 = 1.25^{n_2-n_1}$ (see §2). Since n_{max} is also known (e.g., -20), we set $p_1 = p_{max} = \max(p_i)$ and compute all other *nice* values as $F(x) = n_{max} + \frac{\log(p_{max}) - \log(x)}{\log(1.25)}$. As *nice* values are bounded in the range $[-20, +19]$, an additional min-max normalization might still be required if the relative difference between p_{min} and p_{max} is too big to fit in the range.

6 EVALUATION

In this section, we illustrate *Lachesis*’ performance benefits compared to SoA UL-SSs and the default OS scheduling (or simply OS) in various streaming application deployments. As previously discussed, CPS can utilize both resource constrained edge devices but also more powerful servers. Following this spectrum, we evaluate *Lachesis* both in lower-power devices, comparing with the SoA in single-query (§6.2, §6.3), multi-query (§6.4), and distributed scale-out deployments (§6.5), and in a multi-tenancy scenario, with a higher-end server running multiple queries and SPEs concurrently (§6.6). Table 1 outlines all experiment configurations (made available at [40, 41]) and the performance highlights of *Lachesis*.

6.1 Evaluation Setup

Hardware and Software. We use (1) Odroid-XU4 [24] devices (or simply *Odroid*), similar in power to edge CPS devices [18, 43], mounting Samsung Exynos5422 Cortex-A15 2Ghz and Cortex-A7 Octa core CPUs, 2 GB RAM and (2) a higher-end server, mounting Intel Xeon E5-2637 v4 @ 3.50GHz (4 cores, 8 threads), 64 GB RAM. All devices run Ubuntu 18.04 and OpenJDK 1.8.0. Node clocks are synchronized with NTP [37] in the local network.⁴ *Lachesis* retrieves SPE metrics from Graphite [13], which is supported by all evaluated SPEs. Graphite allows *Lachesis* to collect metrics with a minimum time resolution of one second. Thus, in this evaluation, *Lachesis*’ scheduling period is set to one second (i.e., metrics are fetched and decisions are recomputed with this period) and is sufficient, in most cases, to outperform SoA while allowing *Lachesis* to keep a low resource footprint (discussed in the last part of the evaluation). Except for §6.5 and §6.6, all processes run in a single Odroid, with the SPEs running on the big cores. Experiments are at least 10 minutes long and repeated at least 5 times, similarly to [18, 43]. The data is averaged after discarding the warmup and cooldown.

⁴NTP is adequate for the evaluated setups, as the latency differences are in the magnitude of tens of milliseconds or more, i.e., an order of magnitude higher than any clock skew.

Table 1: Summary of the configurations explored in the evaluation.

Experiment	Baseline	Goals (see §3.1)	Queries	SPEs	Policies (see §5.1)	Translators (see §5.3)	Figures	Highlights [*] (compared to the baseline)
Single-Query (Odroid) - §6.2	EdgeWise [18]	G1	ETL, STATS	Storm [3]	QS	nice	5, 6, 7, 8	+ 8% throughput - 133x end-to-end latency
Single-Query (Odroid) - §6.3	OS	G1, G2	LR, VS	Storm, Flink [9]	QS, RANDOM	nice	9, 10, 11, 12	+ 75% throughput - 1130x latency
Multiple Queries (Odroid) - §6.4	Haren [43]	G3	SYN	Liebre [52]	QS, FCFS, HR	cpu.shares	14, 15, 16	+ 43% throughput - 331x end-to-end latency
Scale-Out (1-4 Odroids) - §6.5	OS	G4	LR	Storm, Flink	QS	nice	17	+ 31% throughput - 12x end-to-end latency
Multiple Queries & SPEs (Server) - §6.6	OS	G5	VS + LR + SYN	Storm + Flink + Liebre	QS	nice + cpu.shares	18	+ 60% throughput - 498x latency

^{*} Average values. As shown in the relevant figures, in some comparisons the baseline has saturated whereas *Lachesis* has not, amplifying the latency improvement.

Queries. We use five different queries in this evaluation:

[leftmargin=*]An **Extract-Transform-Load (ETL)** query, part of the RIoTbench suite [51], which reads a stream of IoT sensor data, filters outliers, interpolates missing values, and adds extra annotations to the data; used previously to evaluate EdgeWise [18]; composed of 10 operators. **STATS**, another query from RIoTbench that performs three kinds of statistical analytics; also used previously to evaluate EdgeWise; composed of 10 operators. We refer the reader to [51] for more details on ETL and STATS. **Linear Road (LR)**, which includes queries adapted from the Linear Road benchmark in [61, 62], an established streaming benchmark simulating a tolling system for motor vehicle expressways, introduced in [4]. Composed of 9 operators. A simplified DAG of LR is shown in Figure 2. **VoipStream (VS)**, a query from the DSPBench benchmark [8] that analyzes call detail records to detect telemarketing users using Bloom filters. Composed of 15 operators making intensive use of group-by distributions. A set of 20 **Synthetic (SYN)** queries, each a pipeline of 5 operators generating a synthetic CPU load per tuple. Each query has a uniformly random cost and selectivity, as in [43, 49]; used previously to evaluate Haren [43]; can simulate blocking operations to assess the impact of I/O.

ETL, STATS use the input data from the EdgeWise paper [18]. Input data for LR, VS is generated with the corresponding benchmark suites. SYN inputs are generated on the fly.

Baselines, Scheduling Policies, and Translators. In all experiments, we evaluate the default OS scheduling (OS) and *Lachesis*. Our query setups and baseline UL-SSs are chosen to match the ones evaluated in related works, considering only OS in the absence of such a UL-SS. Our baseline for ETL and STATS is the UL-SS EdgeWise [18], for LR and VS the OS, and for SYN the UL-SS Haren [43]. Unless otherwise stated, both EdgeWise and Haren use the best configuration described in their publications [18, 43]. For *Lachesis*, we evaluate the policies of §5, ranging between 15 (FCFS) to 150 (HR) lines of code and applied using the nice and cpu.shares translators. To ensure access to a common set of resources in all experiments, *Lachesis* nests the SPE threads under a custom root cgroup.

SPEs. We evaluate *Lachesis* in three SPEs: ETL and STATS queries on Apache Storm 1.1.0 (the version compatible with EdgeWise),

LR and VS on Storm 1.2.3 (the latest version that runs out-of-the-box on Odroids) and Apache Flink 1.11.2 [9], and SYN on Liebre 0.1.2 [52]. We had to write approximately 350, 220, and 250 lines of code for the SPE Drivers of Flink, Storm, and Liebre, respectively.

Data Sources. The Data Sources replay existing input traces, allowing to run experiments with increasing input rates (until queries saturate) similarly to previous work [18]. The Data Sources are Kafka producers on a different device than the queries. The only exceptions are the ETL and STATS queries, where we generate data in a separate thread exactly as in the original EdgeWise evaluation [18], to have a fair comparison.

Metrics and Performance Behavior. We evaluate using metrics from §3.2 and, more specifically, the sum of throughputs of all Ingress operators, as well as the average latency and end-to-end latency over all Egress operators. We also present the values of the goal for each evaluated scheduling policy. Unless otherwise stated, the metric values are averages over time. We study the whole latency distribution separately (cf. § 6.3.1). In any SPE, as input rates (and thus the load) increase, throughput increases accordingly until a *saturation point*, at which it plateaus (and possibly decreases). End-to-end latency gradually increases until the saturation point. For higher rates, it explodes and keeps growing, as the queue of tuples from the data source to the Ingress grows unbounded [18]. Better system behavior results in saturation at a higher input rate. The behavior of the processing latency depends on intra-query queuing delays which in turn depend on the scheduling decisions.

6.2 Can *Lachesis* Perform Better than the SoA in Single-Query Scheduling?

Here, we compare *Lachesis* to EdgeWise in single-query scheduling, the scenario evaluated in the original publication [18]. Figure 5 shows the performance of ETL when scheduled either with the default OS scheduling (OS), *Lachesis* with the QS policy, or EdgeWise with the same policy. Each line shows the mean metric values for each experiment and input rate, with shaded areas (for all the graphs in this section) representing the 95% confidence interval across repetitions. As shown, *Lachesis* outperforms in throughput both OS (+18%) and EdgeWise (+8%), keeping up with the external rate up to 1625 t/s, in contrast with 1375 t/s for OS and 1500 t/s for EdgeWise. Just before saturation (1625 t/s), *Lachesis* achieves 50x lower latency than OS and 92x lower latency than EdgeWise as well

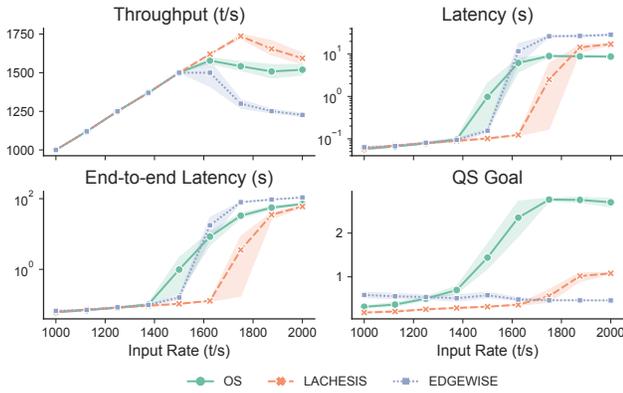


Figure 5: Performance comparison of ETL in Storm.

as 65x and 133x lower end-to-end latency, respectively. The QS policy goal (i.e., minimization of the variance in the sizes of the input queues) is optimized by *Lachesis* significantly better than OS and similarly to *EdgeWise*, up to the saturation point. Figure 6 shows the distribution of queue sizes for the three scheduling methods. *Lachesis* achieves small, homogeneous input queue sizes until the saturation point, in contrast with OS, which allows some queues to grow even for low input rates, leading to performance degradation. *EdgeWise* keeps the queues more homogeneous than OS but leads to all queues settling to a higher size for input rates above 1625 t/s, explaining the worse performance compared to *Lachesis* in these cases, even when the policy goal is adequately optimized.

The trend is similar for STATS as illustrated in Figure 7. STATS has a high selectivity, producing approximately 15 egress tuples for every ingress tuple. Thus, small steps in the input rate cause big jumps in the computational load. *Lachesis* achieves 3% higher throughput (340 t/s vs 330 t/s for OS and *EdgeWise*), and its throughput degrades more gracefully for increasing input rates, maintaining 15-20% higher throughput than OS for input rates > 360 t/s. Before saturation, *Lachesis* also leads to a 17x lower latency than OS and 9x lower latency than *EdgeWise* at 340 t/s. The scheduling goal is only slightly better than *EdgeWise* and OS before saturation, which explains the smaller performance gain compared to ETL. This high variance in queue sizes is due to a single *bottleneck operator* which, as the load increases, is unable to keep up with its input even when utilizing 100% of a CPU core. This is seen in Figure 8 as the single outlier appearing when the input rate increases, reaching an

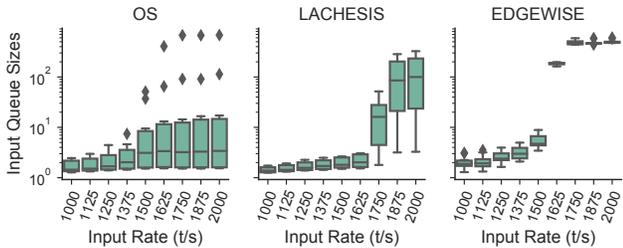


Figure 6: Distributions of input queue sizes in ETL.

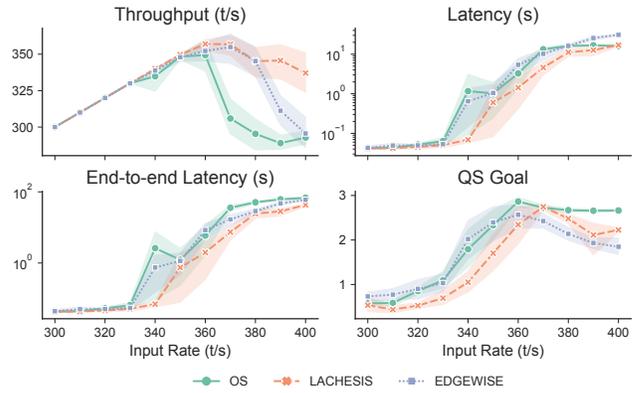


Figure 7: Performance comparison of STATS in Storm.

input queue size of up to 1000 tuples (represented by the “diamond” symbol in the plots). This bottleneck requires replication through operator fission (§2), which, however, is orthogonal to scheduling and can be used in synergy with both UL-SS and *Lachesis*.

6.3 Can *Lachesis* Perform Better than the OS in Single-Query Scheduling for Other SPEs?

Here, we compare OS and *Lachesis*’ performance in a more recent version of Storm (v1.2.3), and Flink for LR and VS. Since no UL-SS exists for such SPEs,⁵ we include the RANDOM policy, similarly to [18], to show that the performance improvements of *Lachesis* are not just a consequence of altering OS thread priorities arbitrarily.

Storm. Figure 9 outlines the performance of *Lachesis* for the LR query. *Lachesis* achieves 30% higher throughput than OS (6500 t/s compared to 5000 t/s for OS) and to 200x lower latency (at 6500 t/s). *Lachesis* also leads to much lower end-to-end latency, up to 34x lower than OS (at 6500 t/s). As expected, RANDOM behaves equally bad to OS. This is also illustrated when observing the scheduling goal of QS, which is consistently lower for *Lachesis*. Figure 10 shows the performance of the VS query for the same setup. *Lachesis* manages to sustain a rate up to 3500 t/s, in contrast with OS that can sustain only up to 2000 t/s (+75% improvement). Furthermore,

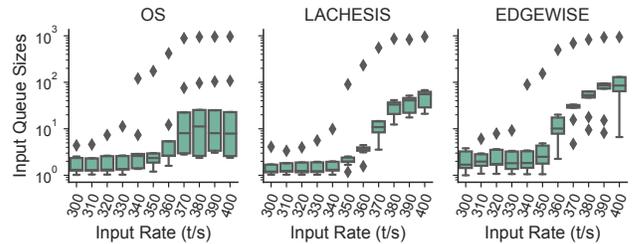


Figure 8: Distributions of input queue sizes in STATS.

⁵EdgeWise is bound to an old version of Storm, 1.1.0.

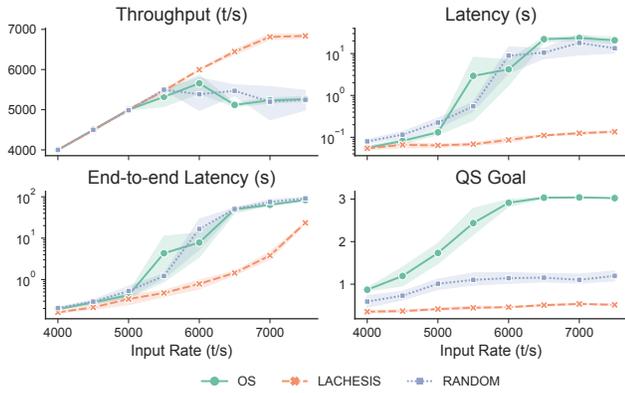


Figure 9: Performance of LR in Storm.

Lachesis attains up to 1130x lower latency and up to 923x lower end-to-end latency (at 3500 t/s). When *Lachesis* is used, the scheduling goal remains low for all experiments.

Flink. We begin with LR,⁶ shown in Figure 11. *Lachesis* achieves slightly higher throughput than OS, along with up to 9x lower latency and 6x lower end-to-end latency (at 5500 t/s). The goal is optimized by *Lachesis* until the saturation point where a bottleneck operator prevents custom scheduling from minimizing the queue sizes, similarly to STATS (§6.2). As in LR, the performance of VS in Flink, shown in Figure 12, is lower than in Storm. Although the query quickly saturates, *Lachesis* improves the scheduling goal and attains up to 38% lower latency than OS. In contrast to Storm, Flink keeps operator queues bounded, regardless of the scheduling. Flink’s effective backpressure results in a smaller variance of queue sizes (reflected by smaller values of the QS goal for the same queries compared to Storm), and thus a smaller potential for the QS policy to further improve the query performance in this SPE.

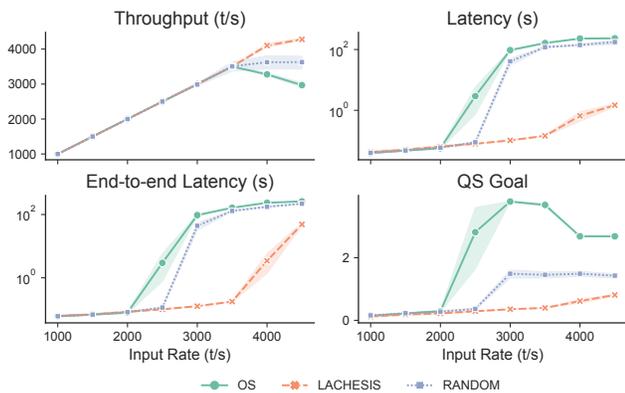


Figure 10: Performance of VS in Storm.

⁶Chaining (i.e., fusion) is disabled in Flink to have the same physical DAGs as in Storm, but the performance trends are similar when chaining is active.

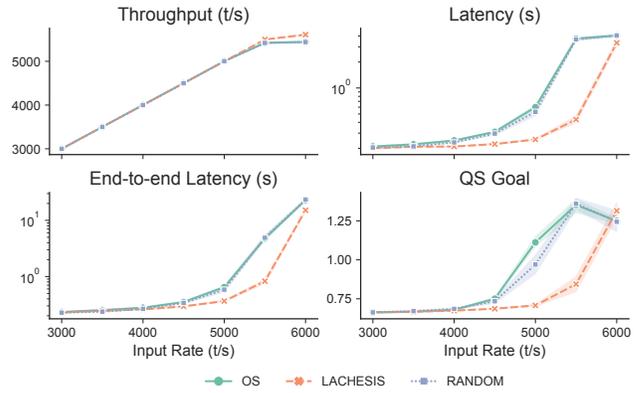


Figure 11: Performance of LR in Flink.

6.3.1 *Does Lachesis improve the tail latency?* As shown above, *Lachesis* can significantly improve average query latency. Although related works focus on such average [18], *tail latency* can also be important, especially in interactive or large-scale streaming applications where even short-term latency spikes can severely affect the performance of a whole system [14, 33]. For this reason, we study here the whole latency distributions of the query setups of §6.3. We visualize these distributions as *letter-value* (or *boxen*) plots, an extension of boxplots that includes more information about the tails of distributions [26]. Letter-value plots replace boxplot whiskers with a variable number of *letter-values* (LVs), which represent quantiles. The number of displayed LVs depends on the input data. An LV plot begins with the median line (first LV), expanding upward and downward with a pair of boxes that contain 25% of the data each (second LV), identically to a boxplot. Each consecutive LV contains half the data of the previous one (i.e., 12.5% of the data, 6.25% of the data, etc.) and the corresponding boxes have decreasing widths.

Figure 13 shows the letter-value plots for the latencies of the four queries studied above.⁷ As seen in the plots, *Lachesis*’s scheduling generally improves not only the average but also the tail

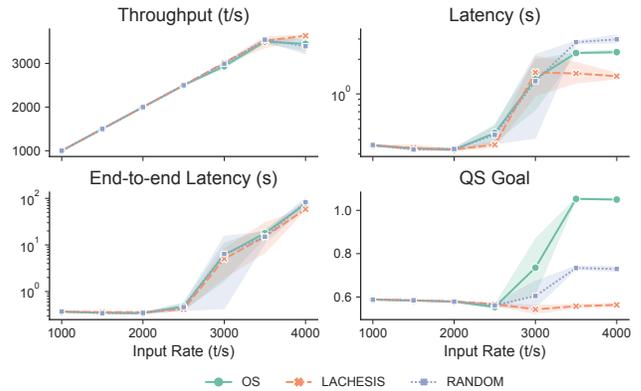


Figure 12: Performance of VS in Flink.

⁷The end-to-end latency distributions, not shown here, follow similar trends.

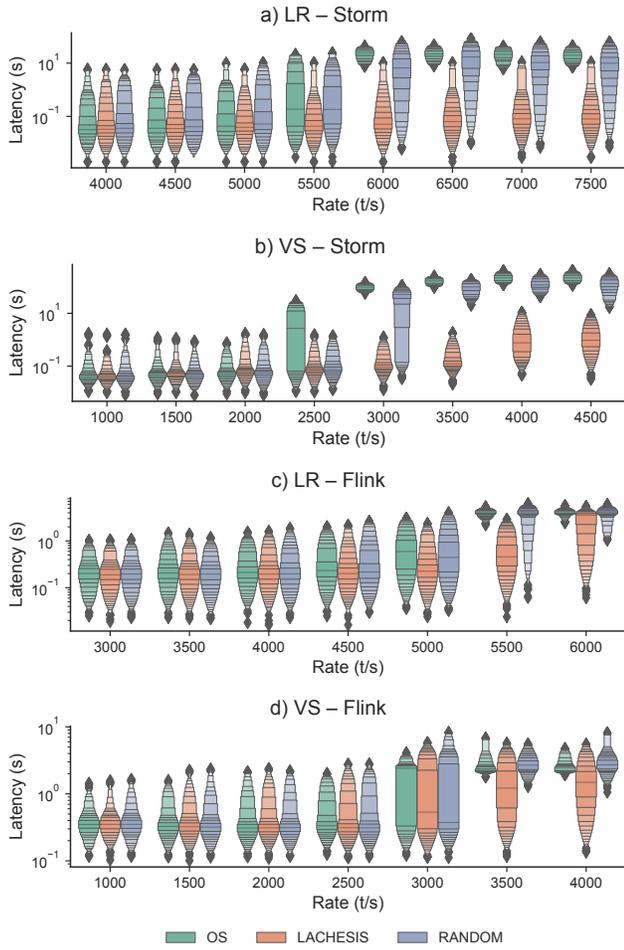


Figure 13: Letter-value (boxen) plots of the latency distributions of LR/VS in Storm/Flink.

latency, compared to OS. More specifically, for LR in Storm, *Lachesis* achieves 79x lower 99th percentile latency and 44x lower 99.9th percentile latency compared to the OS (at 6500 t/s). Similarly, for VS in Storm, *Lachesis* reduces the 99th percentile latency by up to 358x and the 99.9th percentile by 215x (at 3500 t/s), following the trend of the average latency seen in Figure 10. For LR in Flink, *Lachesis* reduces the 99th and 99.9th latency percentiles by approximately 2x (at 5500 t/s). Lastly, for VS in Flink, though *Lachesis* pulls the latency distribution downwards, it leads to slightly higher values in the upper percentiles, at worst increasing the values of the 99th and 99.9th latency percentiles by approximately 39% (at 3000 t/s).

6.4 Can *Lachesis* Perform Better than the SoA When Scheduling Multiple Queries, Possibly with Blocking Operators?

We now evaluate SYN queries in Liebre [52] using three scheduling policies, comparing *Lachesis* and the UL-SS Haren, as in the latter’s original evaluation [43]. This experiment deploys 100 operators, but

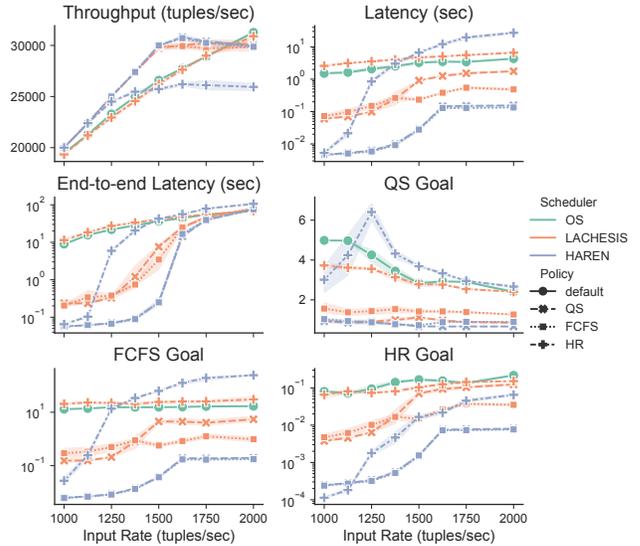


Figure 14: Multi-query scheduling of SYN in Liebre.

nice has only 40 distinct priorities (cf. §2), so we use `cpu.shares` translation, assigning each operator to its own `cgroup`.

The results, in Figure 14, include the scheduling goals of all policies we evaluate. The color of each line represents the scheduler, and the line style the scheduling policy. As shown, *Lachesis*’ performance is between Haren and the OS for most of the metrics. Comparing *Lachesis* with OS, we observe that QS and FCFS succeed in keeping the queue sizes small and thus improve the overall system throughput (up to 12%). The latency is significantly reduced (up to 25x at 1000 t/s) and the end-to-end latency exhibits a big drop (up to 66x at 1250 t/s). The HR policy mostly achieves its goal, albeit with a smaller improvement over the OS (up to 42% lower average tuple latency). Note that HR is the only evaluated policy that does not react directly to the metric it tries to optimize (average tuple latency), but instead attempts to optimize it indirectly based on the operator cost and selectivity. While outperforming EdgeWise (§6.2),

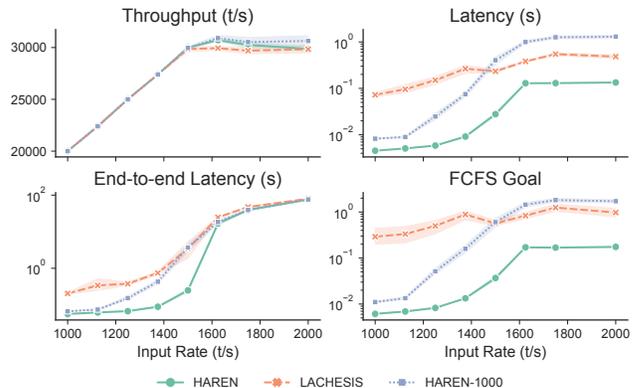


Figure 15: The effect of scheduling granularity on Haren.

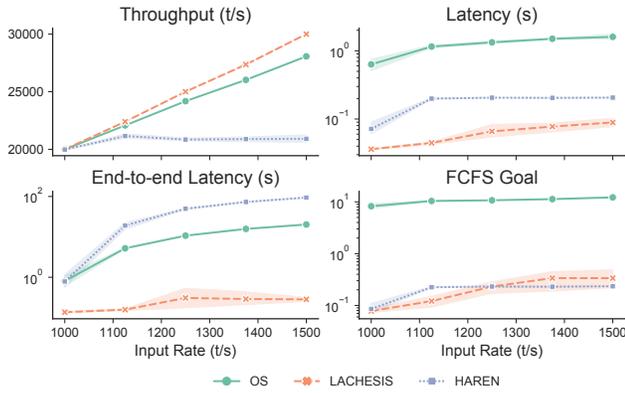


Figure 16: The effect of blocking operations on SYN.

we see here that *Lachesis* performs worse than Haren. It should be noted, though, that in this setup Haren takes 20x more scheduling decisions than *Lachesis* (every 50 ms rather than every 1 s), with finer-grained access to fresh, accurate metrics from within the (coupled) SPE runtime itself. In fact, as shown in Figure 15, when using the same scheduling period of *Lachesis* (HAREN-1000), Haren’s performance becomes comparable (Throughput and End-to-end Latency) or worse (Latency and FCFS goal) than *Lachesis*’.

How does Lachesis deal with blocking? As discussed in §1, a drawback of UL-SS is that they cannot transparently handle operators that block (i.e., for I/O). Since *Lachesis* relies on the OS scheduling mechanisms, it is unaffected by this issue. This is shown in Figure 16, with the same setup as Figure 14 (picking only FCFS) but with a random set of 10% of the operators having at 0.1% chance to block for up to 200 ms every time they process a tuple (i.e., simulating an I/O operation such as committing to a remote system). In this case, *Lachesis* outperforms Haren with up to 43% higher throughput, up to 4.5x lower latency (at 1125 t/s) and up to 331x lower end-to-end latency, while it achieves similar values for the policy goal.

6.5 Is *Lachesis* Beneficial When Scaling Out?

In this experiment, we explore whether *Lachesis* can work equally well in scale-out, distributed query deployments. We run LR either in Storm or Flink (not concurrently), increasing the fission degree (parallelism) of all operators of the query from 1 to 2 and 4 and deploying the operators to an equal number of Odroids, each of which runs a separate instance of *Lachesis*. The different instances of *Lachesis* run independently, without communicating with each other. The results are shown in Figure 17 for the QS policy. *Lachesis* follows the same trend as in the non-distributed experiments, illustrating that, in this case, even isolated scheduler instances without global knowledge can bring significant performance benefits. In Storm, *Lachesis* attains higher throughput (up to 31% at input rate 25000 t/s) and up to 12x lower latency and end-to-end latency (at 11000 t/s). In Flink, *Lachesis* reaches 10x lower latency (at 11000 t/s) and 7x lower end-to-end latency (at 11000 t/s).

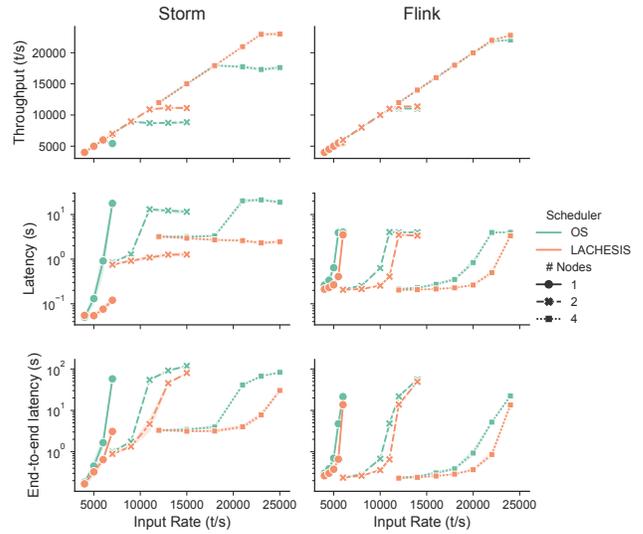


Figure 17: Scalability study of LR in Storm/Flink.

6.6 Is *Lachesis*’ Multi-SPE Scheduling Beneficial?

Lachesis is the first middleware, to the best of our knowledge, that can concurrently schedule entities from multiple, different SPEs. Such scheduling can be useful when analysts deploy their queries in shared, central CPS devices, using multiple SPEs e.g., due to specific performance or compatibility requirements. To evaluate this scenario, we deploy VS, LR, and SYN on Storm, Flink, and Liebre in the Xeon server (23 queries total). The queries receive their inputs from separate Data Sources and at different rates, at a certain percentage of the empirically determined maximum rate each query can sustain in this setup. *Lachesis* enforces a multi-dimensional schedule, where each query is assigned to a cgroup, and given an equal part of the total CPU, using `cpu.shares`, whereas each operator is scheduled using the QS policy and `nice`. Figure 18 illustrates

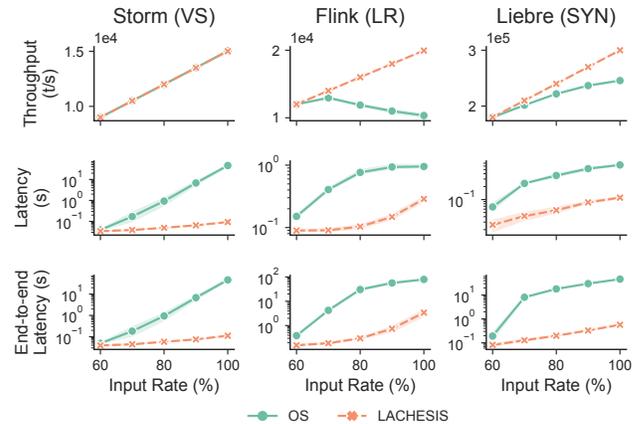


Figure 18: Multi-SPE/query scheduling of LR, VS, SYN.

the performance of the OS and *Lachesis* with the QS policy. As shown, the benefits of *Lachesis* are consistent with the previous experiments on Odroids. All queries perform significantly better with *Lachesis*, which outperforms OS by up to 40% in throughput in the case of Liebre - SYN (60% of max rate for the OS 100% for *Lachesis*), up to 498x lower latency and 414x lower end-to-end latency in the case of Storm - VS (at input rate 100%).

6.7 Evaluation Summary

Our evaluation shows that *Lachesis* achieves the goals from §3.1, being able to use arbitrary scheduling policies to schedule one or more queries running possibly in multiple SPEs and nodes in both low- and high-end devices. Compared to OS, *Lachesis* helped queries attain significant performance improvements (up to 75% higher throughput, three orders of magnitude lower average latency, as well as two orders of magnitude lower average end-to-end latency and 99.9th percentile latency) while it also performed better than state-of-the-art UL-SS in a variety of experimental setups.

In all our experiments, the *CPU utilization* of *Lachesis* was very low (in most cases, around 1% of the total CPU and always less than 5%). *Lachesis* resulted in a slight increase in the CPU usage of Graphite (1-10%) due to the increased requests, but this did not negatively affect query performance.

7 RELATED WORK

As mentioned in §2, *operator scheduling* is sometimes used as a synonym for *operator placement* [2, 10, 34, 57–59]. Noting again that these are complementary techniques, we now further cover works about operator scheduling in line with *Lachesis*.

Scheduling in one-at-a-time SPEs. Haren [43] is a customizable UL-SS based on Liebre [52], which suffers from the drawbacks outlined in §1 and, in contrast to *Lachesis*, cannot be used with production-ready systems without significant changes. EdgeWise adopts a similar model for Storm [3, 18]. In contrast to *Lachesis*, it has a fixed policy (QS) and is only evaluated in single-query experiments. Being a UL-SS, EdgeWise cannot be added to different SPEs (or different versions of Storm) without changes to the SPE.

Lachesis applies custom scheduling through Linux mechanisms such as nice and cgroup [23]. cgroups are used in Storm [3] for coarse-grained control of resource allocation, and in resource controllers [27, 28], to adjust the computational capacity of each application in a shared platform and reduce QoS violations. In contrast to our work, such techniques are coarse-grained, cannot schedule individual operators nor support user-defined scheduling policies. Docker [29] uses cgroups to enforce resource limits for its containers. *Lachesis* can be adjusted to schedule queries deployed in docker by identifying the relevant cgroups and changing the scheduling attributes of operator threads according to the policy (e.g., updating their nice or altering relevant cgroup attributes).

Researchers have proposed diverse operator scheduling policies that *Lachesis* can support for arbitrary SPEs, i.e., Queue-Size (QS) [18], Highest-Rate (HR) [50], and FCFS [7] (cf. §6). Other existing policies are superseded by the above, i.e., the *Rate-Based (RB)* [55] policy, which minimizes the average latency of a single query (while the *HR* does the same for multiple queries [48]). The *Chain* policy [6] minimizes the memory usage of multiple queries

and can take maximum query latency into account [5]. Other interesting policies optimize average query throughput (*Min-Cost*), average latency (*Min-Latency*, similar to HR and RB), available memory (*Min-Memory*) or the total QoS of the system [11, 12].

In executions of multiple heterogeneous queries, *fairness* can be important, i.e., minimizing the variation in query slowdown, measured by the *slowdown* or *stretch* [1, 39] metrics. Translating fairness-based policies for *Lachesis* can be an interesting future direction. The *Longest Stretch First* [1] policy minimizes the maximum slowdown, while other policies [49, 50] balance fairness and overall latency. *Multi-class* scheduling approaches [38] assign different QoS-requirements to queries and also explore how scheduling and load management can work in synergy to honor priority classes [46, 47].

Scheduling for microbatched SPEs. Microbatched SPEs (cf. §1) are specifically optimized for throughput, and recent prototypes following this model have tried to exploit at best the computing power of single scale-up machines. For them, scheduling is referred to the logic behind the dynamic assignment of tasks to a pool of threads, where each task executes a chain of operators over the inputs of a batch (often in the order of thousands to amortize the scheduling overhead). Systems of this kind are StreamBox [36], based on a centralized scheduler, and LightSaber and Grizzly [21, 54]. The latter adopt a code generation approach where the task code is a tight loop generated and compiled from a SQL-like representation of the query, while tasks are scheduled using concurrent lock-free queues. Scheduling in those systems has a different goal than the one of one-at-a-time SPEs, often designed to balance the load among the threads in the pool rather than optimizing application-specific QoS requirements (e.g., average or maximum latency).

8 CONCLUSIONS

We presented *Lachesis*, a middleware for streaming applications that can enforce custom scheduling policies on streaming queries running in one or multiple nodes, using one or more SPEs. In contrast to previously proposed custom scheduling solutions, which required tight integration into the SPEs to schedule operators as user-level threads, *Lachesis* runs as a standalone process, using OS mechanisms such as nice and cgroup to guide the decisions of the OS scheduler, without altering SPEs or query implementations, or requiring query redeployment. *Lachesis*' design is modular and can be extended to support new SPEs, policies, and OS mechanisms. We extensively evaluated *Lachesis* and showed that it can significantly outperform both the default OS scheduling adopted by SPEs as well as the SoA. Future work directions can include (1) the exploration of additional OS mechanisms, such as real-time threads and CPU quotas (available at *Lachesis*' repository [41]), (2) global coordination for distributed *Lachesis* instances, (3) the usage of learning techniques to guide *Lachesis*' scheduling, and (4) further exploration of query bottlenecks using pressure stall information [31].

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank the shepherd, Aniruddha Gokhale, and the anonymous reviewers. Work supported by the Swedish Government Agency for Innovation Systems VINNOVA, project "AutoSPADA" grant nr. DNR 2019-05884 in the funding program FFI: Strategic Vehicle Research and Innovation, the Swedish Foundation for Strategic Research,

project “FiC” grant nr. GMT14-0032, the Swedish Research Council (Vetenskapsrådet) project “HARE” grant nr. 2016-03800, Chalmers Energy AoA framework projects INDEED and STAMINA and by the European H2020 project TEACHING, grant 871385.

REFERENCES

- [1] Swarup Acharya and S. Muthukrishnan. 1998. Scheduling On-Demand Broadcasts: New Metrics and Algorithms. In *Proceedings of the 4th Annual ACM/IEEE International Conference on Mobile Computing and Networking (MobiCom '98)*. ACM, New York, NY, USA, 43–54. <https://doi.org/10.1145/288235.288248>
- [2] Leonardo Aniello, Roberto Baldoni, and Leonardo Querzoni. 2013. Adaptive Online Scheduling in Storm. In *Proceedings of the 7th ACM International Conference on Distributed Event-based Systems (Arlington, Texas, USA) (DEBS '13)*. ACM, New York, NY, USA, 207–218. <https://doi.org/10.1145/2488222.2488267>
- [3] Apache. 2020. Storm. Retrieved March 11, 2021 from <https://storm.apache.org/>
- [4] Arvind Arasu, Mitch Cherniack, Eduardo Galvez, David Maier, Anurag S. Maskey, Esther Ryykka, Michael Stonebraker, and Richard Tibbetts. 2004. Linear Road: A Stream Data Management Benchmark. In *Proceedings of the Thirtieth International Conference on Very Large Data Bases - Volume 30 (Toronto, Canada) (VLDB '04)*. VLDB Endowment, Toronto, Canada, 480–491. <http://dl.acm.org/citation.cfm?id=1316689.1316732>
- [5] Brian Babcock, Shivnath Babu, Mayur Datar, Rajeev Motwani, and Dilys Thomas. 2004. Operator Scheduling in Data Stream Systems. *The VLDB Journal* 13, 4 (Dec. 2004), 333–353. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00778-004-0132-6>
- [6] Brian Babcock, Shivnath Babu, Rajeev Motwani, and Mayur Datar. 2003. Chain: Operator Scheduling for Memory Minimization in Data Stream Systems. In *Proceedings of the 2003 ACM SIGMOD International Conference on Management of Data (SIGMOD '03)*. ACM, New York, NY, USA, 253–264. <https://doi.org/10.1145/872757.872789>
- [7] Michael A. Bender, Soumen Chakrabarti, and S. Muthukrishnan. 1998. Flow and Stretch Metrics for Scheduling Continuous Job Streams. In *Proceedings of the Ninth Annual ACM-SIAM Symposium on Discrete Algorithms (SODA '98)*. Society for Industrial and Applied Mathematics, Philadelphia, PA, USA, 270–279.
- [8] Maycon V. Bordin, Dalvan Griebler, Gabriele Mencagli, Cláudio F. R. Geyer, and Luiz Gustavo L. Fernandes. 2020. DSPBench: A Suite of Benchmark Applications for Distributed Data Stream Processing Systems. *IEEE Access* 8 (2020), 222900–222917. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2020.3043948>
- [9] Paris Carbone, Asterios Katsifodimos, Stephan Ewen, Volker Markl, Seif Haridi, and Kostas Tzoumas. 2015. Apache Flink: Stream and batch processing in a single engine. *Bulletin of the IEEE Computer Society Technical Committee on Data Engineering* 36, 4 (2015), 28–38.
- [10] Valeria Cardellini, Vincenzo Grassi, Francesco Lo Presti, and Matteo Nardelli. 2015. On QoS-Aware Scheduling of Data Stream Applications over Fog Computing Infrastructures. In *2015 IEEE Symposium on Computers and Communication (ISCC)*. IEEE, Larnaca, 271–276. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ISCC.2015.7405527>
- [11] Don Carney, Ügur Çetintemel, Mitch Cherniack, Christian Convey, Sangdon Lee, Greg Seidman, Michael Stonebraker, Nesime Tatbul, and Stan Zdonik. 2002. Monitoring Streams: A New Class of Data Management Applications. In *Proceedings of the 28th International Conference on Very Large Data Bases (Hong Kong, China) (VLDB '02)*. VLDB Endowment, New York, NY, USA, 215–226.
- [12] Don Carney, Ügur Çetintemel, Alex Rasin, Stan Zdonik, Mitch Cherniack, and Mike Stonebraker. 2003. Operator Scheduling in a Data Stream Manager. In *Proceedings of the 29th International Conference on Very Large Data Bases (VLDB '03, Vol. 29)*. VLDB Endowment, Berlin, Germany, 838–849.
- [13] Chris Davis et al. 2021. Graphite. Retrieved March 8, 2021 from <https://graphiteapp.org/>
- [14] Jeffrey Dean and Luiz André Barroso. 2013. The Tail at Scale. *Commun. ACM* 56, 2 (Feb. 2013), 74–80. <https://doi.org/10.1145/2408776.2408794>
- [15] Marcos Dias de Assunção, Alexandre da Silva Veith, and Rajkumar Buyya. 2018. Distributed data stream processing and edge computing: A survey on resource elasticity and future directions. *Journal of Network and Computer Applications* 103 (2018), 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnca.2017.12.001>
- [16] Philippe Dobbelaere and Kyumars Sheykh Esmaili. 2017. Kafka versus RabbitMQ: A Comparative Study of Two Industry Reference Publish/Subscribe Implementations: Industry Paper. In *Proceedings of the 11th ACM International Conference on Distributed and Event-Based Systems (Barcelona, Spain) (DEBS '17)*. Association for Computing Machinery, New York, NY, USA, 227–238. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3093742.3093908>
- [17] John C. Eidson, Mike Fischer, and Joe White. 2002. IEEE-1588 Standard for a precision clock synchronization protocol for networked measurement and control systems. In *Proceedings of the 34th Annual Precise Time and Time Interval Systems and Applications Meeting*, 243–254.
- [18] Xinwei Fu, Talha Ghaffar, James C Davis, and Dongyoon Lee. 2019. Edgewise: A Better Stream Processing Engine for the Edge. In *USENIX Annual Technical Conference (ATC) 19*. USENIX, WA, USA, 929–946.
- [19] Panagiotis Garefalakis, Konstantinos Karanasos, and Peter Pietzuch. 2019. Neptune: Scheduling Suspendable Tasks for Unified Stream/Batch Applications. In *Proceedings of the ACM Symposium on Cloud Computing (Santa Cruz, CA, USA) (SoCC '19)*. Association for Computing Machinery, New York, NY, USA, 233–245. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3357223.3362724>
- [20] Prajith Ramakrishnan Geethakumari, Vincenzo Gulisano, Bo Joel Svensson, Pedro Trancoso, and Ioannis Sourdis. 2017. Single window stream aggregation using reconfigurable hardware. In *2017 International Conference on Field Programmable Technology (ICFPT)*. IEEE, 112–119.
- [21] Philipp M. Grulich, Breß Sebastian, Steffen Zeuch, Jonas Traub, Janis von Bleichert, Zongxiang Chen, Tilmann Rabl, and Volker Markl. 2020. Grizzly: Efficient Stream Processing Through Adaptive Query Compilation. In *Proceedings of the 2020 ACM SIGMOD International Conference on Management of Data (Portland, OR, USA) (SIGMOD '20)*. Association for Computing Machinery, New York, NY, USA, 2487–2503. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3318464.3389739>
- [22] Serge Hallyn and Michael Kerrisk. 2020. *cgroups(7) Linux Programmers's Manual* (5.10 ed.).
- [23] Serge Hallyn, Peter Zijlstra, Juri Lelli, Michael Kerrisk, Carsten Emde, Tom Bjorkholm, Markus Kuhn, and David Wheeler. 2020. *sched(7) Linux Programmers's Manual* (5.10 ed.).
- [24] HardKernel. 2020. Odroid-XU4. Retrieved November 12, 2020 from <http://www.hardkernel.com>
- [25] Martin Hirzel, Robert Soulé, Scott Schneider, Buğra Gedik, and Robert Grimm. 2014. A Catalog of Stream Processing Optimizations. *ACM Computing Surveys (CSUR)* 46, 4 (2014), 1–34. <https://doi.org/10.1145/2528412>
- [26] Heike Hofmann, Hadley Wickham, and Karen Kafadar. 2017. Letter-Value Plots: Boxplots for Large Data. *Journal of Computational and Graphical Statistics* 26, 3 (2017), 469–477. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10618600.2017.1305277> arXiv:<https://doi.org/10.1080/10618600.2017.1305277>
- [27] M. Reza HoseinyFarahabady, Ali Jannesar, Javid Taheri, Wei Bao, Albert Y. Zomaya, and Zahir Tari. 2020. Q-Flink: A QoS-Aware Controller for Apache Flink. In *2020 20th IEEE/ACM International Symposium on Cluster, Cloud and Internet Computing (CCGRID)*. IEEE, Melbourne, VIC, Australia, 629–638. <https://doi.org/10.1109/CCGrid49817.2020.00-30>
- [28] M. Reza HoseinyFarahabady, Javid Taheri, Albert Y. Zomaya, and Zahir Tari. 2020. A Dynamic Resource Controller for Resolving Quality of Service Issues in Modern Streaming Processing Engines. In *2020 IEEE 19th International Symposium on Network Computing and Applications (NCA)*. IEEE, Cambridge, MA, USA, 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1109/NCA51143.2020.9306697>
- [29] Docker Inc. 2021. Docker. Retrieved March 23, 2021 from <https://www.docker.com/>
- [30] Henning Kagermann. 2015. Change through Digitization—Value Creation in the Age of Industry 4.0. In *Management of Permanent Change*, Horst Albach, Heribert Meffert, Andreas Pinkwart, and Ralf Reichwald (Eds.). Springer Fachmedien Wiesbaden, Wiesbaden, 23–45. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-658-05014-6_2
- [31] Linux Kernel. 2021. Pressure Stall Information. Retrieved September 6, 2021 from <https://www.kernel.org/doc/html/latest/accounting/psi.html>
- [32] Sanjeev Kulkarni, Nikunj Bhagat, Maosong Fu, Vikas Kedigehalli, Christopher Kellogg, Sailesh Mittal, Jignesh M. Patel, Karthik Ramasamy, and Siddarth Taneja. 2015. Twitter Heron: Stream Processing at Scale. In *Proceedings of the 2015 ACM SIGMOD International Conference on Management of Data (Melbourne, Victoria, Australia) (SIGMOD '15)*. ACM, New York, NY, USA, 239–250. <https://doi.org/10.1145/2723372.2742788>
- [33] Jialin Li, Naveen Kr. Sharma, Dan R. K. Ports, and Steven D. Gribble. 2014. Tales of the Tail: Hardware, OS, and Application-Level Sources of Tail Latency. In *Proceedings of the ACM Symposium on Cloud Computing (SOCC '14)*. Association for Computing Machinery, New York, NY, USA, 1–14. <https://doi.org/10.1145/2670979.2670988>
- [34] Teng Li, Zhiyuan Xu, Jian Tang, and Yanzhi Wang. 2018. Model-Free Control for Distributed Stream Data Processing Using Deep Reinforcement Learning. *Proc. VLDB Endow.* 11, 6 (Feb. 2018), 705–718. <https://doi.org/10.14778/3199517.3199521>
- [35] Robert Love. 2010. *Linux Kernel Development* (3rd ed.). Addison-Wesley Professional, Boston, MA, United States.
- [36] Hongyu Miao, Heejin Park, Myeongjae Jeon, Gennady Pekhimenko, Kathryn S. McKinley, and Felix Xiaozhu Lin. 2017. StreamBox: Modern Stream Processing on a Multicore Machine. In *Proceedings of the 2017 USENIX Conference on Usenix Annual Technical Conference (Santa Clara, CA, USA) (USENIX ATC '17)*. USENIX Association, USA, 617–629.
- [37] D. L. Mills, Martin J., Burbank J., and Kasc W. others. 1985. *RFC0958: Network Time Protocol (NTP)*. Technical Report. Internet Engineering Task Force (IETF), USA.
- [38] Lory Al Moakar, Thao N. Pham, Panayiotis Neophytou, Panos K. Chrysanthis, Alexandros Labrinidis, and Mohamed Sharaf. 2009. Class-Based Continuous Query Scheduling for Data Streams. In *Proceedings of the Sixth International Workshop on Data Management for Sensor Networks (DMSN '09)*. ACM, Arlington, VA, USA, Article 9, 6 pages. <https://doi.org/10.1145/1594187.1594199>
- [39] S. Muthukrishnan, Rajmohan Rajaraman, Anthony Shaheen, and Johannes E. Gehrke. 1999. Online Scheduling to Minimize Average Stretch. In *Proceedings of*

- the 40th Annual Symposium on Foundations of Computer Science (FOCS '99). IEEE Computer Society, Washington, DC, USA, 433–. <http://dl.acm.org/citation.cfm?id=795665.796508>
- [40] Online. 2021. Lachesis' evaluation artifacts. Retrieved October 4, 2021 from <https://github.com/dmpalyvos/lachesis-evaluation>
- [41] Online. 2021. Lachesis' implementation. Retrieved October 4, 2021 from <https://github.com/dmpalyvos/lachesis>
- [42] Dimitris Palyvos-Giannas, Vincenzo Gulisano, and Marina Papatriantafilou. 2019. GeneaLog: Fine-grained data streaming provenance in cyber-physical systems. *Parallel Comput.* 89 (2019), 102552.
- [43] Dimitris Palyvos-Giannas, Vincenzo Gulisano, and Marina Papatriantafilou. 2019. Haren: A Framework for Ad-Hoc Thread Scheduling Policies for Data Streaming Applications. In *Proceedings of the 13th ACM International Conference on Distributed and Event-Based Systems (DEBS '19)*. ACM, Darmstadt, Germany, 19–30. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3328905.3329505>
- [44] Dimitris Palyvos-Giannas, Vincenzo Gulisano, and Marina Papatriantafilou. 2019. Haren: A Middleware for Ad-Hoc Thread Scheduling Policies in Data Streaming. In *Proceedings of the 20th International Middleware Conference Demos and Posters*. 19–20.
- [45] Dimitris Palyvos-Giannas, Bastian Havers, Marina Papatriantafilou, and Vincenzo Gulisano. 2020. Ananke: A Streaming Framework for Live Forward Provenance. *Proceedings of the VLDB Endowment* 14, 3 (2020), 391–403.
- [46] Thao N. Pham, Panos K. Chrysanthis, and Alexandros Labrinidis. 2016. Avoiding Class Warfare: Managing Continuous Queries with Differentiated Classes of Service. *The VLDB Journal* 25, 2 (April 2016), 197–221. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00778-015-0411-4>
- [47] Thao N. Pham, Lory A. Moakar, Panos K. Chrysanthis, and Alexandros Labrinidis. 2011. DiLoS: A Dynamic Integrated Load Manager and Scheduler for Continuous Queries. In *2011 IEEE 27th International Conference on Data Engineering Workshops*. IEEE, USA, 10–15. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICDEW.2011.5767652>
- [48] Mohamed A. Sharaf, Panos K. Chrysanthis, and Alexandros Labrinidis. 2005. Preemptive Rate-Based Operator Scheduling in a Data Stream Management System. In *Proceedings of the ACS/IEEE 2005 International Conference on Computer Systems and Applications (AICCSA '05)*. IEEE Computer Society, USA, 46–I.
- [49] Mohamed A. Sharaf, Panos K. Chrysanthis, Alexandros Labrinidis, and Kirk Pruhs. 2006. Efficient Scheduling of Heterogeneous Continuous Queries. In *Proceedings of the 32nd International Conference on Very Large Data Bases (VLDB '06)*. VLDB Endowment, Seoul, Korea, 511–522. <http://dl.acm.org/citation.cfm?id=1182635.1164172>
- [50] Mohamed A. Sharaf, Panos K. Chrysanthis, Alexandros Labrinidis, and Kirk Pruhs. 2008. Algorithms and Metrics for Processing Multiple Heterogeneous Continuous Queries. *ACM Transactions on Database Systems* 33, 1 (March 2008), 1–44. <https://doi.org/10.1145/1331904.1331909>
- [51] Anshu Shukla, Shilpa Chaturvedi, and Yogesh Simmhan. 2017. RIOTBench: An IoT Benchmark for Distributed Stream Processing Systems. *Concurrency and Computation: Practice and Experience* 29, 21 (2017), e4257. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cpe.4257> [arXiv:https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/pdf/10.1002/cpe.4257](https://arxiv.org/abs/1708.04257)
- [52] Open Source. 2021. Liebre SPE. Retrieved March 11, 2021 from <https://github.com/vincenzo-gulisano/Liebre>
- [53] Andrew S Tanenbaum and Herbert Bos. 2015. *Modern Operating Systems*. Pearson.
- [54] Georgios Theodorakis, Alexandros Koliouisis, Peter R. Pietzuch, and Holger Pirk. 2020. LightSaber: Efficient Window Aggregation on Multi-core Processors. In *Proceedings of the 2020 ACM SIGMOD International Conference on Management of Data (SIGMOD '20)*. ACM, Portland, OR, USA.
- [55] Tolga Urhan and Michael J. Franklin. 2001. Dynamic Pipeline Scheduling for Improving Interactive Query Performance. In *Proceedings of the 27th International Conference on Very Large Data Bases (VLDB '01)*. Morgan Kaufmann Publishers Inc., San Francisco, CA, USA, 501–510. <http://dl.acm.org/citation.cfm?id=645927.672188>
- [56] Ivan Walulya, Dimitris Palyvos-Giannas, Yiannis Nikolakopoulos, Vincenzo Gulisano, Marina Papatriantafilou, and Philippas Tsigas. 2018. Viper: A Module for Communication-Layer Determinism and Scaling in Low-Latency Stream Processing. *Future Generation Computer Systems* 88 (2018), 297–308. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.future.2018.05.067>
- [57] Joel Wolf, Nikhil Bansal, Kirsten Hildrum, Sujay Parekh, Deepak Rajan, Rohit Wagle, Kun-Lung Wu, and Lisa Fleischer. 2008. SODA: An Optimizing Scheduler for Large-Scale Stream-Based Distributed Computer Systems. In *Middleware 2008*, Valérie Issarny and Richard Schantz (Eds.). Springer Berlin Heidelberg, Berlin, Heidelberg, 306–325.
- [58] Y. Xing, S. Zdonik, and J. -. Hwang. 2005. Dynamic Load Distribution in the Borealis Stream Processor. In *21st International Conference on Data Engineering (ICDE '05)*. IEEE, Tokyo, Japan, 791–802. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICDE.2005.53>
- [59] J. Xu, Z. Chen, J. Tang, and S. Su. 2014. T-Storm: Traffic-Aware Online Scheduling in Storm. In *2014 IEEE 34th International Conference on Distributed Computing Systems*. IEEE, USA, 535–544. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICDCS.2014.61>
- [60] Matei Zaharia, Reynold S. Xin, Patrick Wendell, Tathagata Das, Michael Armbrust, Ankur Dave, Xiangrui Meng, Josh Rosen, Shivaram Venkataraman, Michael J. Franklin, Ali Ghodsi, Joseph Gonzalez, Scott Shenker, and Ion Stoica. 2016. Apache Spark: A Unified Engine for Big Data Processing. *Commun. ACM* 59, 11 (Oct. 2016), 56–65. <https://doi.org/10.1145/2934664>
- [61] Shuhao Zhang, Jiong He, Chi (Amelie) Zhou, and Bingsheng He. 2019. BriskStream: Scaling Stream Processing on Multicore Architectures. In *Proceedings of the 2019 International Conference on Management of Data (SIGMOD '19)*. Association for Computing Machinery, New York, NY, USA, 705–722. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3299869.3300067>
- [62] Shuhao Zhang, Yingjun Wu, Feng Zhang, and Bingsheng He. 2020. Towards Concurrent Stateful Stream Processing on Multicore Processors. In *2020 IEEE 36th International Conference on Data Engineering (ICDE)*. IEEE, Dallas, TX, USA, 1537–1548. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICDE48307.2020.00136>