

# CS265 Midway Check-in

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## 1 Introduction

Tuning data systems is hard. Even for systems like key-value stores that only support the most minimal API (`put` and `get`), the possibilities are often overwhelming. The developers of RocksDB [Facebook, 2017], a popular and powerful key-value store, freely admit [Guide, 2017] that “configuring RocksDB optimally is not trivial,” and that “even [they] as RocksDB developers don’t fully understand the effect of each configuration change.” Configurations must be optimized with respect to a given *workload*, which is rarely known in advance, although it is sometimes roughly characterizable. There has been recent work [Dayan *et al.*, 2017] in determining the optimal memory allocation for bloom filters in terms of worst-case analysis and with respect to a number of basic workloads, but realistic key-value store workloads, which have been analyzed e.g. for Facebook [Xu *et al.*, 2014], exhibit enormous complexity with respect to time, skewness, and key repeatability.

Our goal is somewhat ambitious – we seek to optimize not just bloom filter memory allocation but memory allocation across the entire key-value store (to cache, memtable, bloom filters, and possibly even fence pointers), and to do it with respect to workloads we model as stochastic processes.

## 2 Workloads

Here are a number of basic workloads we will use to generate queries to benchmark our key-value store, both in RocksDB and in Python simulations. For the simpler ones, we will also attempt to predict performance and derive optimal parameters analytically.

**Uniform** queries will be drawn uniformly from keys  $k \in \{0, 1, \dots, K\}$ , where  $K$  is a maximum key (that we explore varying). When we draw a particular key  $k_i$  for the first time, we will insert it into the database as a

write, and subsequently we will treat it as a lookup. Later we will explore making a certain fraction of these queries into updates. The case of uniformly distributed queries is often one in which the cache is unhelpful, but in practice is highly unrealistic. Nevertheless, this is the scenario that many analyses assume for calculations of big O complexity.

**Round-Robin** queries are drawn deterministically using  $k_i = (i \bmod K)$ , i.e. we iteratively draw each key in sequence, then repeat. This is also a bad case for our key-value store in its default configuration; the fact that a key has been recently written or read is actually a contraindication we will access it again.

**80-20** queries (which are considered in Dayan *et al.* [2017]) are drawn such that 20% of the most recently inserted keys constitute 80% of the lookups. This is a simple model we will be able to analyze analytically that exhibits more realistic skew.

**Zipf** queries are distributed according to a Zipf or zeta distribution, where the probability of a given key  $k$  is  $\propto \frac{1}{k^s}$ , where  $s \in (1, \infty)$  describes the skewness of the distribution; in the limit  $s = 1$ , it is uniform with  $K = \infty$ . Zipf-distributed queries are considered in Leis *et al.* [2013] as another simple proxy for realistically skewed queries.

**Discover-Decay** queries are distributed according to the following stochastic process, inspired by the Chinese Restaurant process Aldous [1985] but with time decay: with every passing time increment  $\Delta t \sim \text{Expo}(\lambda_t)$ ,  $n \sim \text{Pois}(\lambda_n)$  new keys are written to the key-value store, which each have an inherent popularity  $\theta_i \sim \text{Beta}(a_\theta, b_\theta)$  with a random decay rate  $\gamma_i \sim \text{Beta}(a_\gamma, b_\gamma)$  that determines the exponential rate at which they decay. The unnormalized probability of drawing each  $k_i$  is given by  $p(k_i, t) \propto \theta_i \gamma_i^{t-t_i}$ , where  $t$  is the current time and  $t_i$  is when the key was inserted. At each time step we sample  $N$  keys from  $\text{Mult}(\{p(k_i, t)\})$ . This stochastic process is somewhat arbitrary and we hope to make it more realistic, but it does capture many of the essential behaviors we know characterize key-value stores: new keys are constantly inserted, some keys are much more popular than others, and the popularity of most keys decays over time. The nonparametric nature of this stochastic process may make inference difficult, and we also hope to enhance it to make it more well-suited to realistic workloads (e.g. that exhibit daily periodicity), but it seems much more able to simulate the richness of realistic queries than many of the other models.

### 3 Simulations

We implemented a basic simulator of an LSM tree in Python [Hilgard *et al.*, 2017], which simulates how an LSM tree with a variably sized cache, memtable, disk layers, and bloom filters performs for an arbitrary sequence of queries. In particular, we are able to simulate how often we are forced to access data on disk (the main performance bottleneck for an LSM tree) and how often we can respond with data in memory. So far, results suggest that the same LSM tree architecture performs very differently under different query distributions (Figure 1), and that different LSM tree architectures perform very differently under the *same* query distribution (Figure 2). We are working on an optimization procedure to find the best architecture for a given set of queries.

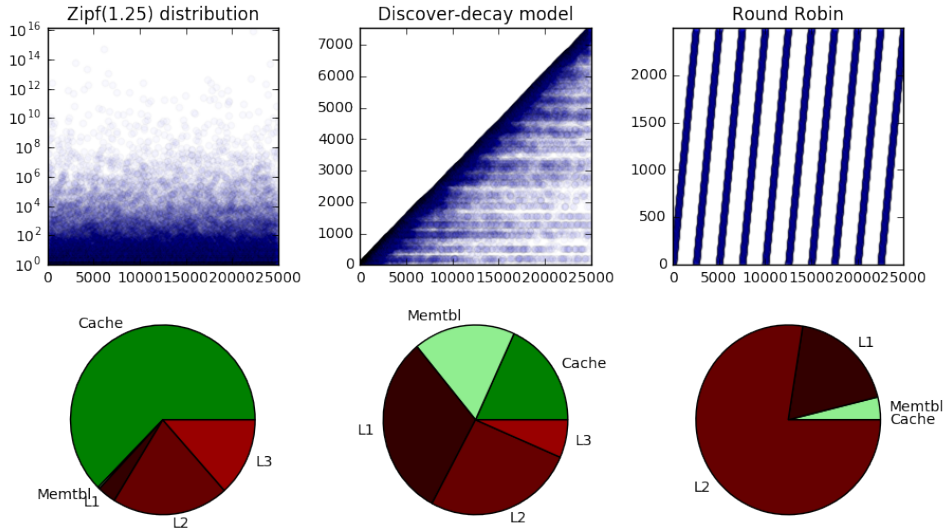


Figure 1: The same LSM tree architecture (a 25-element cache, 100-element memtable, 5x layer ratio, and 10-bit bloom filters with 5 hash functions) performs very differently for different query distributions. Memtable and cache hits (in green) are fast, whereas accesses to the layers (in red) are slow. For the Zipf workload, the cache is much more useful than the memtable, while the situations are reversed for the Round-Robin workload. Both are useful in the discover-decay case.

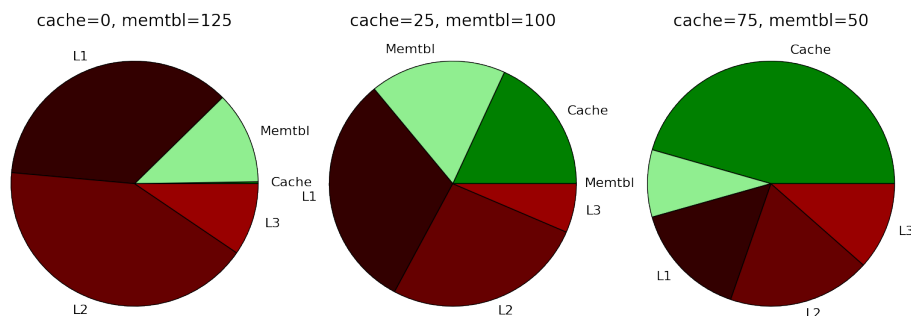


Figure 2: Performance results for different LSM tree architectures on the discover-decay workload. Note that for this time-dependent workload, both the cache and the memtable are useful, but finding the best ratio may require optimization.

## 4 Modeling

## 5 Benchmarking

So far, we’ve succeeded in getting basic benchmarks for RocksDB running and identifying which configuration parameters to vary

## References

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