Exploiting Serverless Function to Build a Cost-effective Cloud Storage

CS 4740: Cloud Computing
Fall 2024
Lecture 14d

Yue Cheng



Rule-breaking approach

* Quoted from "<u>A Rule-Breaking Approach to Research</u>", by Todd Austin, MICRO'24.

- A rule-breaking approach is effective and exciting
 - Identify a rule no one breaks
 - Invent a way to break that rule
 - See what happens!
- You will often find yourself in fertile ground
 - The "rules" are typically learned early or based on "conventional wisdom"
 - The "rules" create dogma that hide opportunity
- 50% will be intrigued with your crazy idea
- 50% will think your crazy idea will never work
- Embrace the pushback, it will inform and sharpen

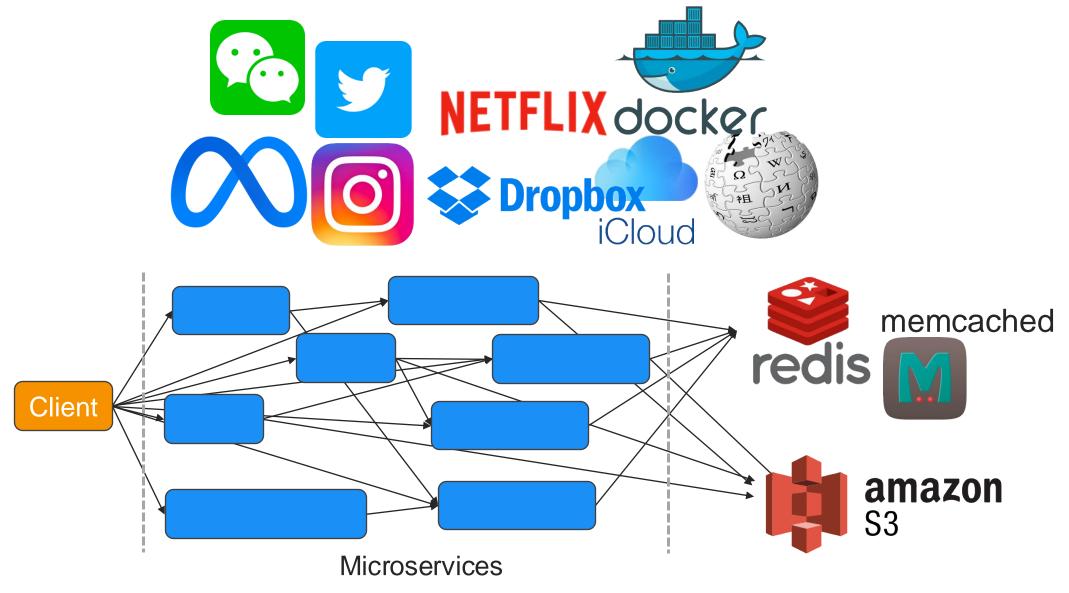


Breaking rules in serverless

- Rule: Serverless functions are stateless and can never work as storage
- Rule-breaking idea: Use functions as a brand-new storage medium to build a first-of-its-kind cloud storage system
 - Exploiting provider's function caching to retain data between func invocations
 - Erasure coding + replication to improve availability and performance
 - Reasonable performance+availability while being extremely cost-effective for not-toobusy storage workloads
 - Case study: IBM Docker registry



Internet-scale web apps are storage-intensive

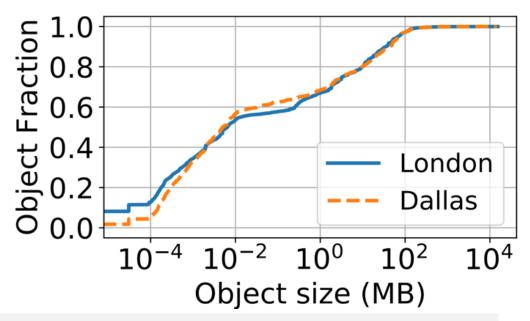


- Collected the workload traces of IBM Cloud Container Registry service for a duration of 75 days across seven datacenters in 2017
- Selected datacenters: Dallas & London



- Object size distribution
- Large objects' reuse patterns
- Storage footprint

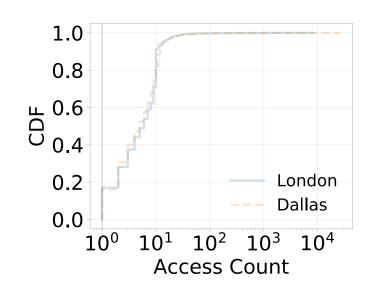
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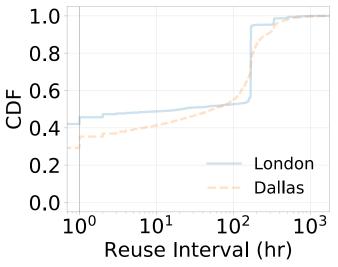


Extreme variability in object sizes:

- Object sizes span over 9 orders of magnitude
- > 20% of objects > 10MB

- Object size distribution
- Large objects' reuse patterns
- Storage footprint

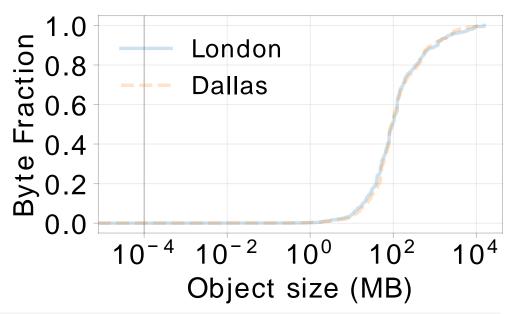




Caching large objects is beneficial:

- > 30% large object being accessed 10+ times
- > Around 35-45% of them get reused within 1 hour

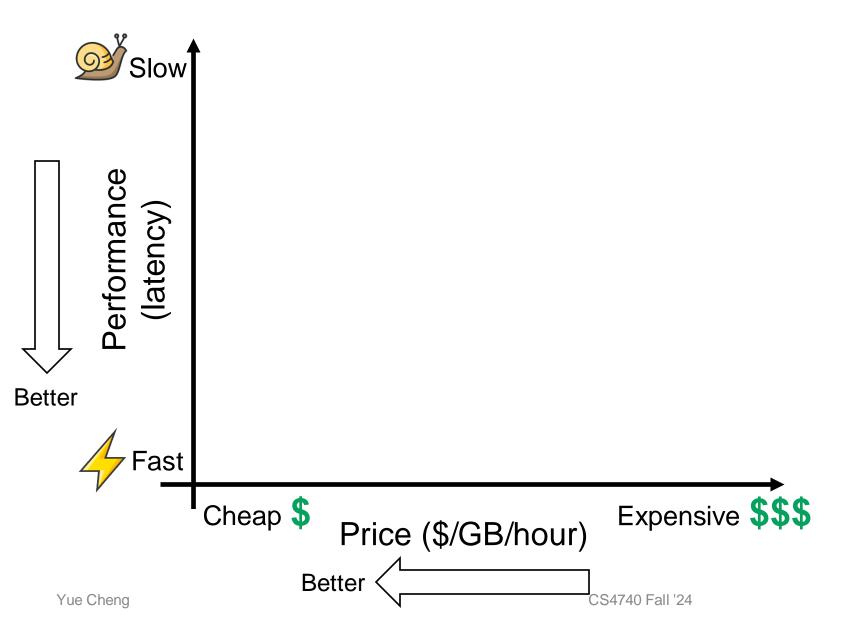
- Object size distribution
- Large objects' reuse patterns
- Storage footprint



Extreme tension between small and large objects:

➤ Large objects (>10MB) occupy 95% storage footprint

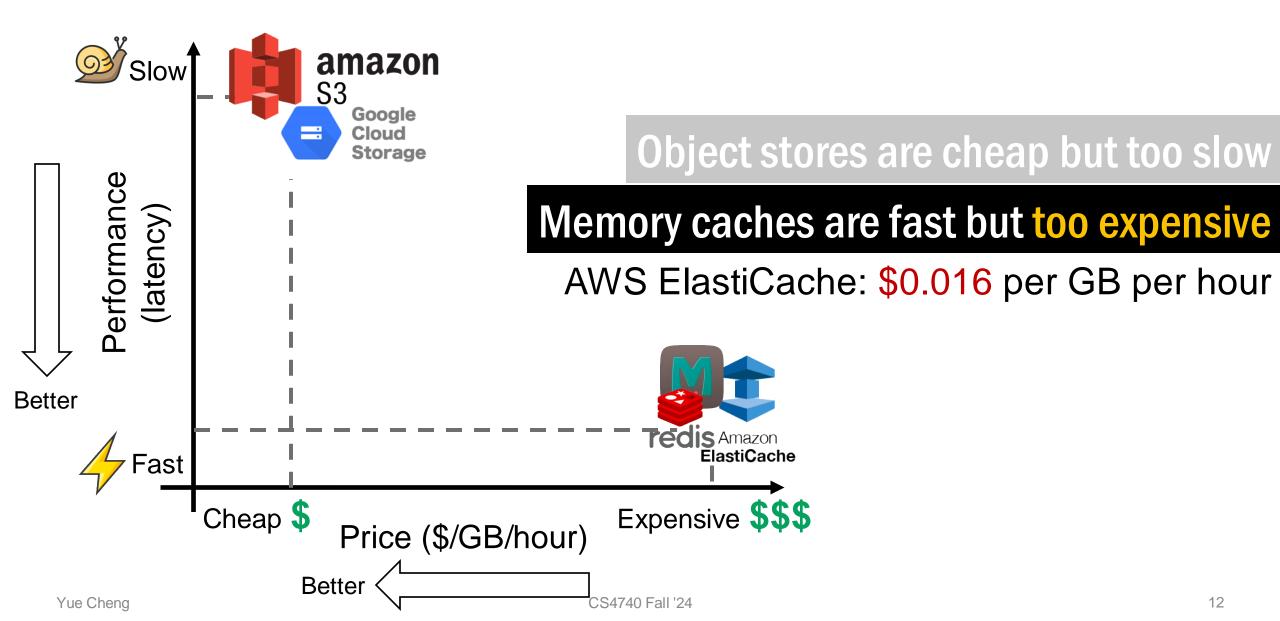
Today's cloud storage landscape



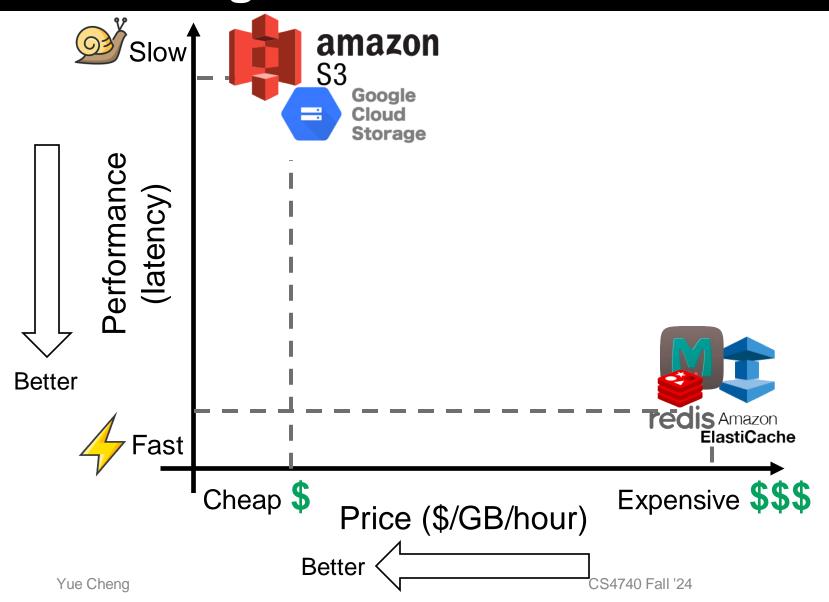
Today's cloud storage landscape



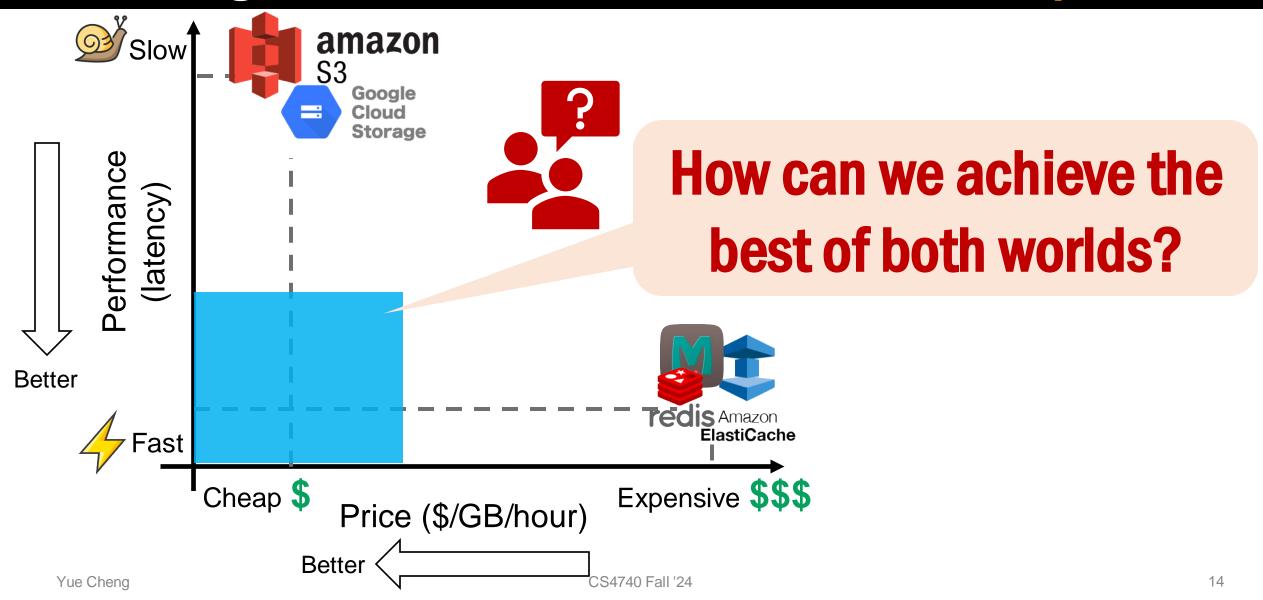
Today's cloud storage landscape



- Caching both small and large objects is challenging
- Existing solutions either too slow or too expensive



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- Existing solutions either too slow or too expensive



InfiniCache: A cost-effective and highperformance memory cache built atop FaaS

- Insight #1: Serverless functions' <CPU, RAM>
 resources are pay-per-use
- Insight #2: Serverless providers offer "free" function memory caching for tenants

InfiniCache: A cost-effective and highperformance memory cache built atop FaaS

- Insight #1: Serverless functions' <CPU, RAM>
 resources are pay-per-use → Cheap
- Insight #2: Serverless providers offer "free" function memory caching for tenants → Fast and cheap

High-level idea: Use Lambda functions to cache data objects

A strawman proposal that directly caches data objects in Lambda functions' memory may not work because of those FaaS limitations:

No guaranteed data availability

Banned inbound network

Limited per-function resources

High-level idea: Use Lambda functions to cache data objects

A strawman proposal that directly caches data objects in Lambda functions' memory may not work because of those FaaS limitations:

No guaranteed data availability

Banned inbound network

Limited per-function resources

▲ Serverless functions could be reclaimed any time

♠ In-memory state is lost



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High-level idea: Use Lambda functions to cache data objects

A strawman proposal that directly caches data objects in Lambda functions' memory may not work because of those FaaS limitations:

No guaranteed data availability

Banned inbound network

Limited per-function resources

▲ Serverless functions cannot run as a server



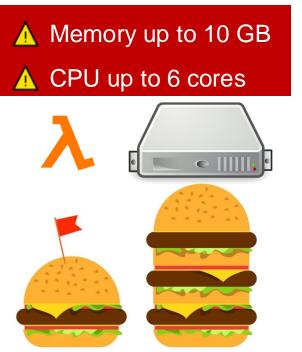
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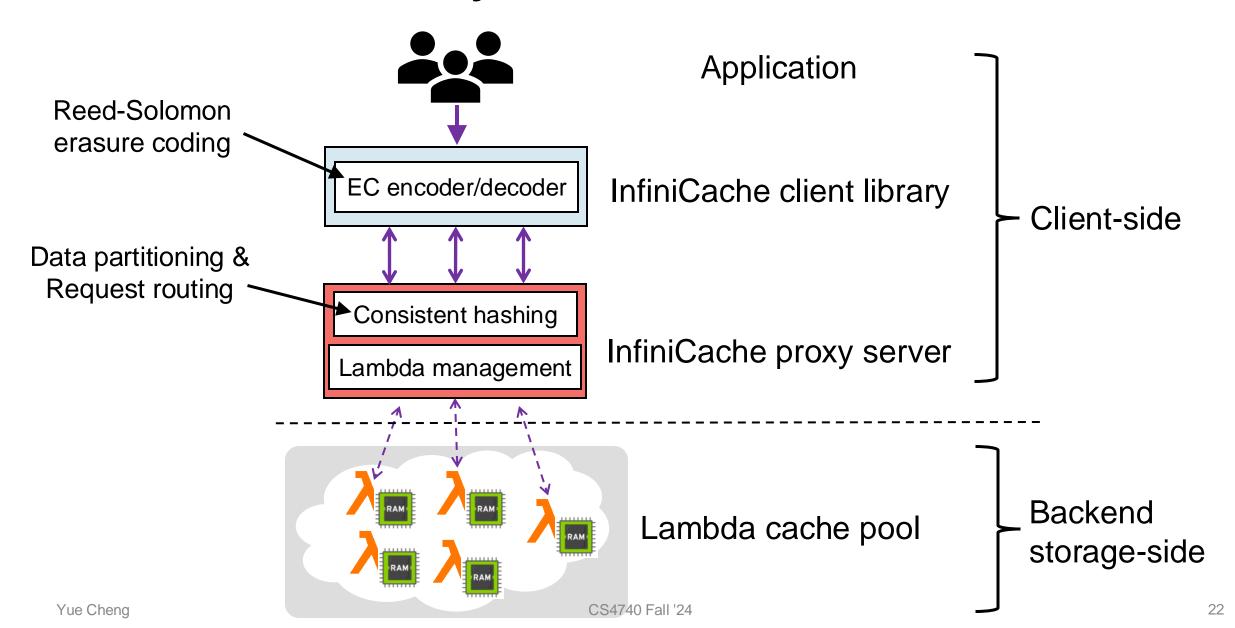
Limited per-function resources



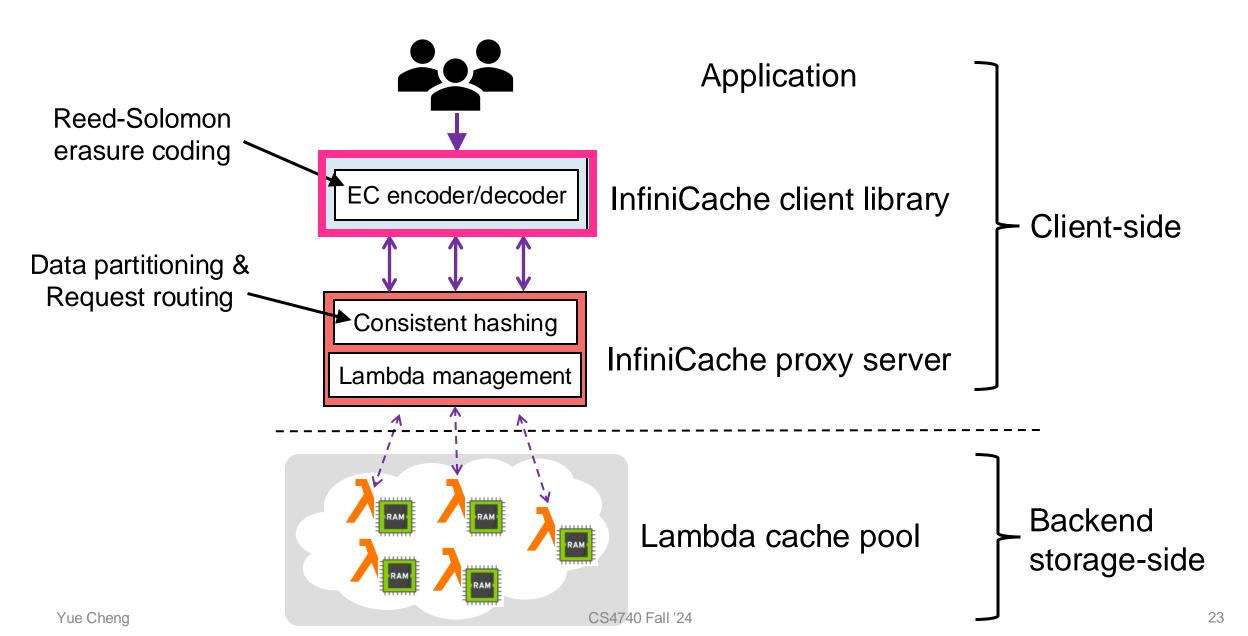
InfiniCache: The first memory cache built atop FaaS

- InfiniCache achieves high data availability by using erasure coding and delta-sync periodic data backup across functions
- InfiniCache achieves high performance by utilizing the aggregated, parallel network bandwidth of multiple functions
- InfiniCache achieves similar performance to AWS ElastiCache while reducing the \$\$ cost by 31-96X

InfiniCache bird's eye view



Let's look at RAID and Reed-Solomon EC first



RAID: Redundant Array of Inexpensive Disks

Wish List for a Disk

- Wish it to be faster
 - I/O is always the performance bottleneck

Wish List for a Disk

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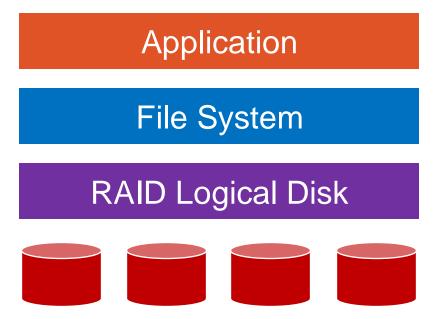
- Wish it to be more reliable
 - We don't want our valuable data to be gone

Only One Disk?

- Sometimes we want many disks
 - For higher performance
 - For larger capacity
 - For better reliability

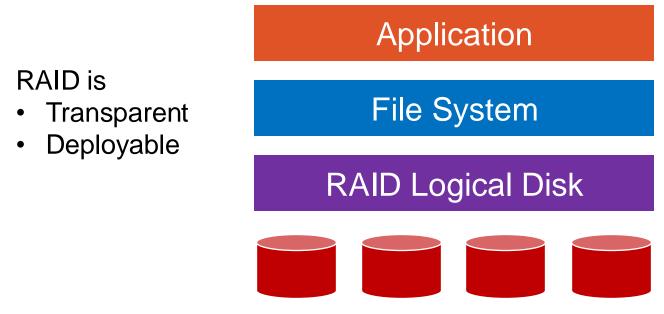
• Challenge: Most file systems work on only one disk

RAID: Redundant Array of Inexpensive Disks



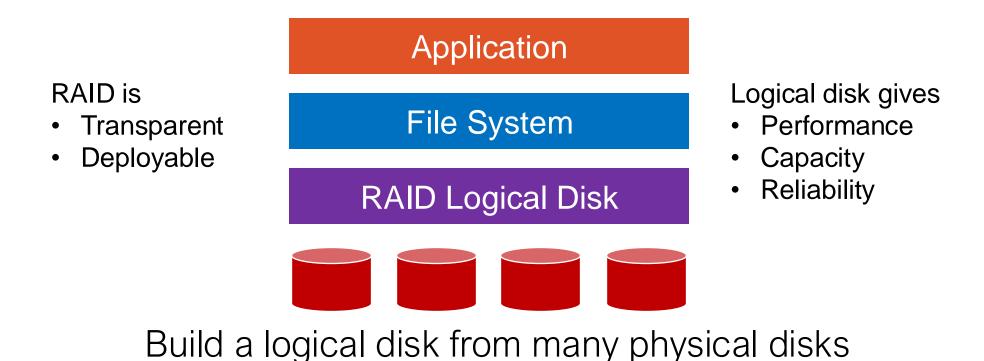
Build a logical disk from many physical disks

RAID: Redundant Array of Inexpensive Disks

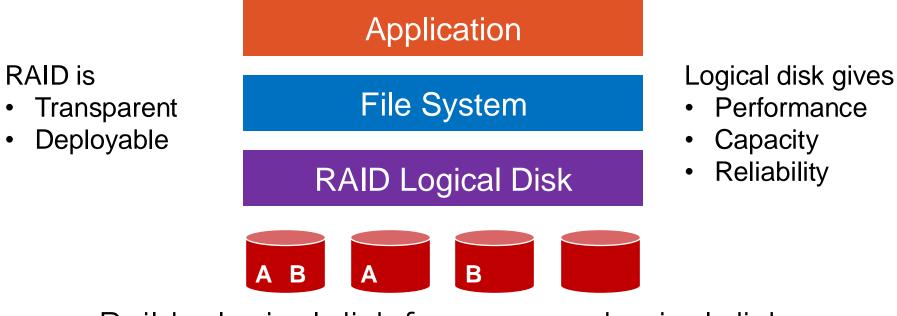


Build a logical disk from many physical disks

RAID: Redundant Array of Inexpensive Disks



RAID: Redundant Array of Inexpensive Disks



Build a logical disk from many physical disks

Why Inexpensive Disks?

• Economies of scale! Cheap disks are popular

 You can often get many commodity hardware components for the same price as a few expensive components

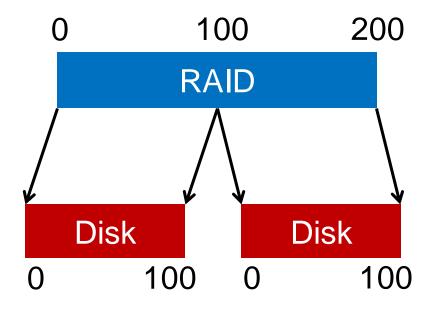
Why Inexpensive Disks?

Economies of scale! Cheap disks are popular

- You can often get many commodity hardware components for the same price as a few expensive components
- Strategy: Write software to build high-quality logical devices from many cheap devices
 - Tradeoff: To compensate poor properties of cheap devices

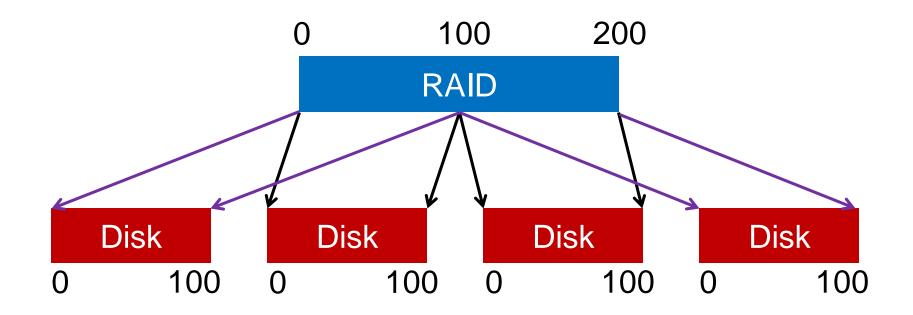
General Strategy

Build fast and large disks from smaller ones



General Strategy

Build fast and large disks from smaller ones Add more disks for reliability++!



RAID Metrics

- Capacity
 - How much space can apps use?
- Reliability
 - How many disks can we safely lose?
 - Assume fail-stop model!

RAID Levels



(a) RAID 0: non-redundant striping.



(b) RAID 1: mirrored disks.



(c) RAID 2: memory-style error-correcting codes.



(d) RAID 3: bit-interleaved parity.



(e) RAID 4: block-interleaved parity.



(f) RAID 5: block-interleaved distributed parity.



(g) RAID 6: P + Q redundancy.

RAID Level 0





(a) RAID 0: non-redundant striping.



(b) RAID 1: mirrored disks.



(c) RAID 2: memory-style error-correcting codes.



(d) RAID 3: bit-interleaved parity.



(e) RAID 4: block-interleaved parity.



(f) RAID 5: block-interleaved distributed parity.

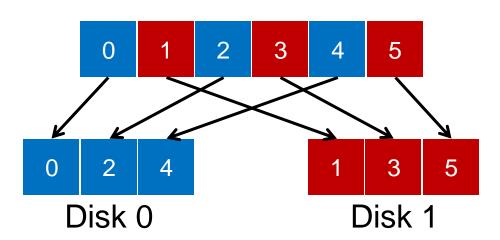


(g) RAID 6: P + Q redundancy.

RAID-0: Striping

- No redundancy
- Serves as upper bound for
 - Performance
 - Capacity

Logical blocks



4 Disks

Disk 0	Disk 1	Disk 2	Disk 3
0	1	2	3
4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11
12	13	14	15

4 Disks

	Disk 0	Disk 1	Disk 2	Disk 3
-	0	1	2	3
stripe:	4	5	6	7
	8	9	10	11
	12	13	14	15

How to Map?

- Given logical address A:
 - Disk = ...
 - Offset = ...

Disk 0	Disk 1	Disk 2	Disk 3	
0	1	2	3	
4	5	6	7	
8	9	10	11	
12	13	14	15	

How to Map?

- Given logical address A:
 - Disk = A % disk count
 - Offset = A / disk_count

Disk 0	Disk 1	Disk 2	Disk 3	
 0	1	2	3	
4	5	6	7	
8	9	10	11	
12	13	14	15	

Mapping Example: Find Block 13

• Given logical address 13:

• Offset =
$$13 / 4 = 3$$

	Disk 0	Disk 1	Disk 2	Disk 3
Offset ()	0	1	2	3
1	4	5	6	7
2	8	9	10	11
3	12	(13)	14	15

Chunk Size = 1

Disk 0	Disk 1	Disk 2	Disk 3
0	1	2	3
4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11
12	13	14	15

Chunk Size = 1

Disk 0	Disk 1	Disk 2	Disk 3
 0	1	2	3
4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11
12	13	14	15

Chunk Size = 2

Disk 0	Disk 1	Disk 2	Disk 3	
0	2	4	6	chunk size:
1	3	5	7	2 blocks
8	10	12	14	
9	11	13 CS4740 Fall '24	15	

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Chunk Size = 1

	Disk 0	Disk 1	Disk 2	Disk 3	
•	0	1	2	3	ice.
	4	5	6	7	
	8	9	10	11	
	12	13	14	15	

In all following examples, we assume chunk size of 1

Chunk Size = 2

Disk 0	Disk 1	Disk 2	Disk 3	
0	2	4	6	chunk size:
1	3	5	7	2 blocks
8	10	12	14	
9	11	13 CS4740 Fall '24	15	

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RAID-0 Analysis

1. What is capacity? N * C

N is the number of disks C is the capacity of each disk

2. How many disks can fail? 0

RAID Level 1



(a) RAID 0: non-redundant striping.





(b) RAID 1: mirrored disks.



(c) RAID 2: memory-style error-correcting codes.



(d) RAID 3: bit-interleaved parity.



(e) RAID 4: block-interleaved parity.



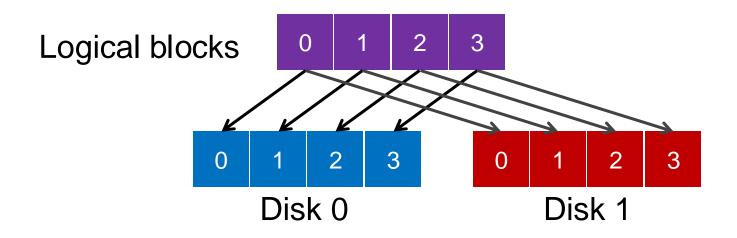
(f) RAID 5: block-interleaved distributed parity.



(g) RAID 6: P + Q redundancy.

RAID-1: Mirroring

• RAID-1 keeps two copies of each block



Assumption

- Assume disks are fail-stop
 - Two states
 - They work or they don't
 - We know when they don't work

4 Disks

Disk 0	Disk 1	Disk 2	Disk 3
0	0	1	1
2	2	3	3
4	4	5	5
6	6	7	7

4 Disks

Disk 0	Disk 1	Disk 2	Disk 3	
0	0	1	1	
2	2	3	3	
4	4	5	5	
6	6	7	7	

How many disks can fail?

RAID-1 Analysis

1. What is capacity? N/2 * C

2. How many disks can fail? 1 or maybe N / 2

RAID Level 4



(a) RAID 0: non-redundant striping.



(b) RAID 1: mirrored disks.



(c) RAID 2: memory-style error-correcting codes.



(d) RAID 3: bit-interleaved parity.



(e) RAID 4: block-interleaved parity.



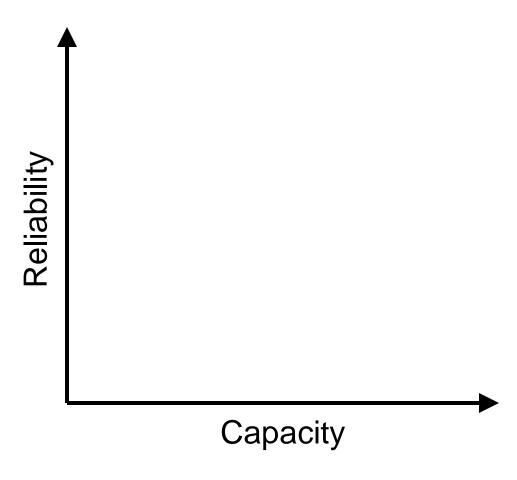
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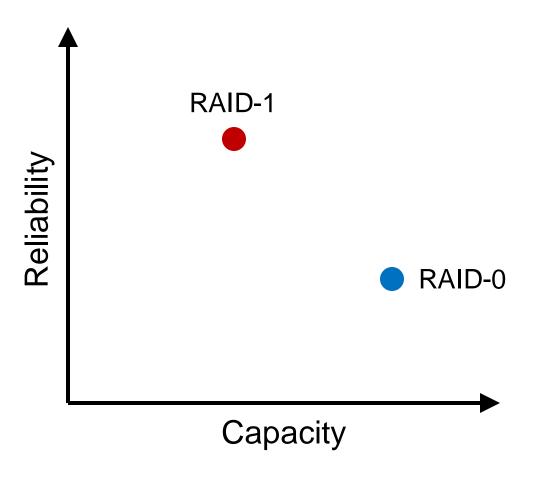
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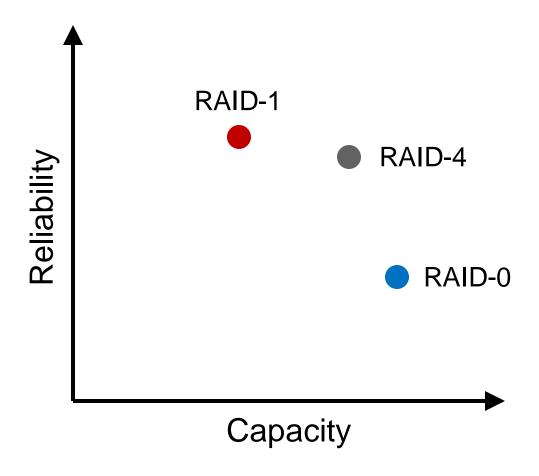
RAID-4



RAID-4



RAID-4



RAID-4 Strategy

• Use parity disk

• In algebra, if an equation has N variables, and N-1 are known, you can also solve for the unknown

• Treat the sectors/blocks across disks in a stripe as an equation

5 Disks

	Disk 0	Disk 1	Disk 2	Disk 3	Disk 4
7	0	1	2	3	P0
	4	5	6	7	P1
	8	9	10	11	P2
	12	13	14	15	P3

	Disk 0	Disk 1	Disk 2	Disk 3	Disk 4
stripe:					
					(parity)

	Disk 0	Disk 1	Disk 2	Disk 3	Disk 4
stripe:	4	3	0	2	

(parity)

	Disk 0	Disk 1	Disk 2	Disk 3	Disk 4
stripe:	4	3	0	2	9
					(parity)

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	Disk 0	Disk 1	Disk 2	Disk 3	Disk 4
stripe:	X	3	0	2	9
					(parity)

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	Disk 0	Disk 1	Disk 2	Disk 3	Disk 4
stripe:	4	3	0	2	9
					(parity)

C ₀	C1	C2	C3	P
0	0	1	1	XOR(0,0,1,1) = 0
0	1	0	0	XOR(0,1,0,0) = 1

C ₀	C1	C2	C3	P
0	0	1	1	XOR(0,0,1,1) = 0
0	1	0	0	XOR(0,1,0,0) = 1

- P = 0: The number of 1 in a stripe must be an even number
- P = 1: The number of 1 in a stripe must be an odd number

	Block0	Block1	Block2	Block3	Parity
stripe:	00	10	11	10	11
	10	01	00	01	10

- P = 0: The number of 1 in a stripe must be an even number
- P = 1: The number of 1 in a stripe must be an odd number

	Block0	Block1	Block2	Block3	Parity
stripe:	Х	10	11	10	11
	10	01	00	01	10

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	Block0	Block1	Block2	Block3	Parity
stripe:	X	10	11	10	11
	10	01	00	01	10

Block
$$0 = XOR(10,11,10,11) = 00$$

- P = 0: The number of 1 in a stripe must be an even number
- P = 1: The number of 1 in a stripe must be an odd number

	Block0	Block1	Block2	Block3	Parity
stripe:	00	10	11	10	11
	10	01	00	01	10

Block
$$0 = XOR(10,11,10,11) = 00$$

- P = 0: The number of 1 in a stripe must be an even number
- P = 1: The number of 1 in a stripe must be an odd number

RAID-4 Analysis

1. What is capacity? (N-1) * C

2. How many disks can fail? 1

RAID Level 5



(a) RAID 0: non-redundant striping.



(b) RAID 1: mirrored disks.



(c) RAID 2: memory-style error-correcting codes.



(d) RAID 3: bit-interleaved parity.



(e) RAID 4: block-interleaved parity.



(f) RAID 5: block-interleaved distributed parity.



(g) RAID 6: P + Q redundancy.



RAID-5: Rotating Parity

Disk 0	Disk 1	Disk 2	Disk 3	Disk 4
0	1	2	3	P0
5	6	7	P1	4
10	11	P2	8	9
15	P3	12	13	14
P4	16	17	18	19

RAID-5 works almost identically to RAID-4, except that it rotates the parity block across drives

RAID-5 Analysis

1. What is capacity? (N-1) * C

2. How many disks can fail? 1

RAID Level 6



(a) RAID 0: non-redundant striping.



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(c) RAID 2: memory-style error-correcting codes.



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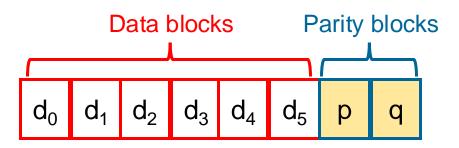
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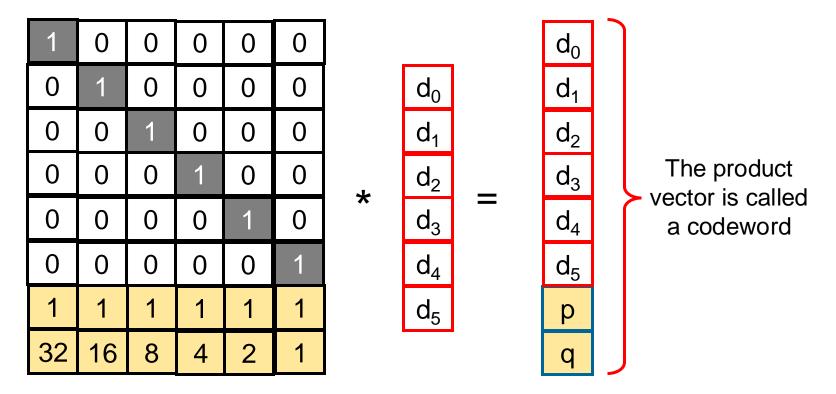
(g) RAID 6: P + Q redundancy.

RAID-6



RAID-6 can fail at most 2 disks at a time.

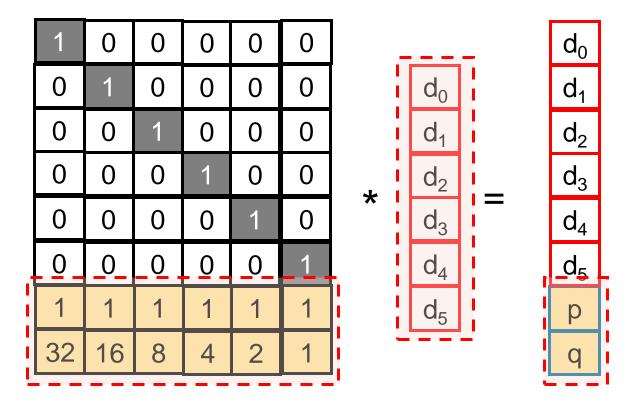
Encoding



Generator matrix

$$[8 \times 6] * [6 \times 1] = [8 \times 1]$$

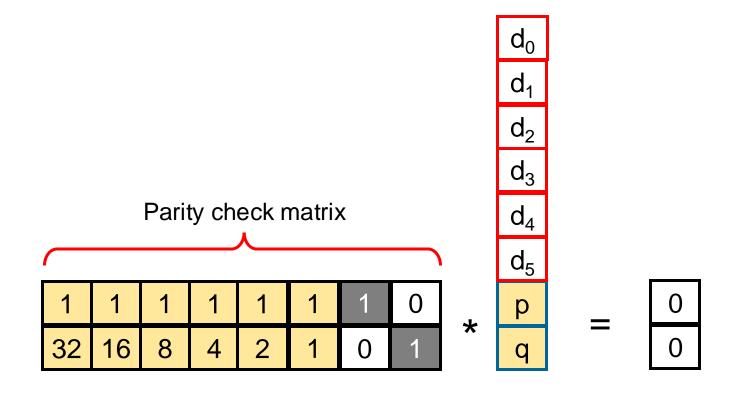
Encoding



 $d_0 \oplus d_1 \oplus d_2 \oplus d_3 \oplus d_4 \oplus d_5 \longrightarrow p$

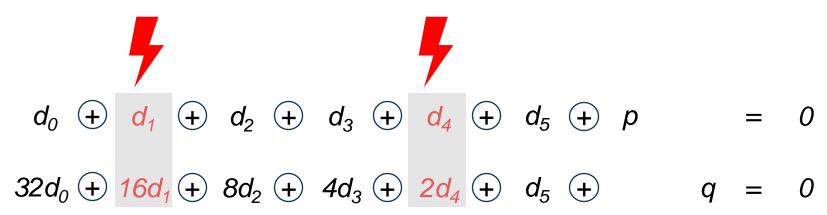
 $32d_0 \oplus 16d_1 \oplus 8d_2 \oplus 4d_3 \oplus 2d_4 \oplus d_5 \longrightarrow q$

Decoding with a parity check matrix

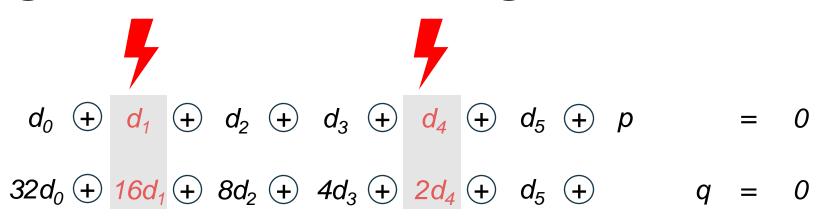


$$d_0 \oplus d_1 \oplus d_2 \oplus d_3 \oplus d_4 \oplus d_5 \oplus p = 0$$

$$32d_0 \oplus 16d_1 \oplus 8d_2 \oplus 4d_3 \oplus 2d_4 \oplus d_5 \oplus q = 0$$

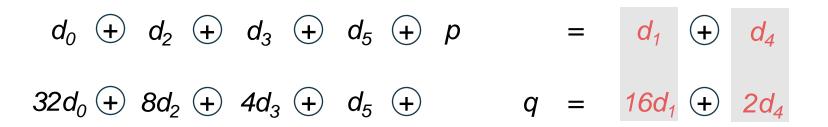


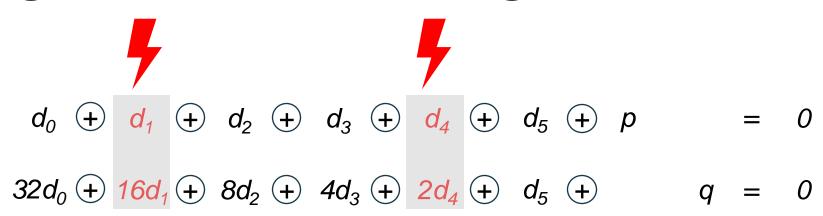
Suppose disk1 ($\frac{d_1}{d_1}$) and disk4 ($\frac{d_4}{d_1}$) fail



Suppose disk1 ($\frac{d_1}{d_1}$) and disk4 ($\frac{d_4}{d_4}$) fail

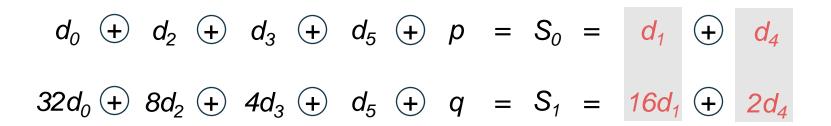
Step 1: Put the failed data on the right of the equations.

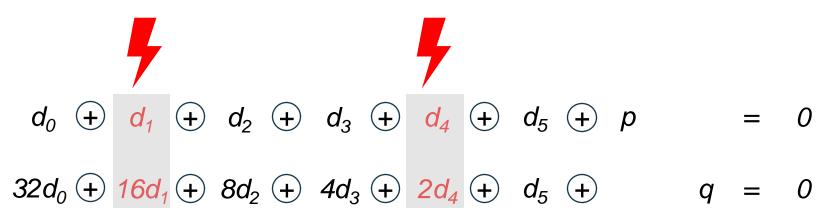




Suppose disk1 ($\frac{d_1}{d_1}$) and disk4 ($\frac{d_4}{d_4}$) fail

Step 2: Calculate the left sides, since those all exist.





Suppose disk1 ($\frac{d_1}{d_1}$) and disk4 ($\frac{d_4}{d_4}$) fail

Step 3: Solve using Gaussian Elimination or Matrix Inversion.

$$S_0 = d_1 + d_4$$

$$C_1 = \frac{(2S_0 + S_1)}{(16 + 2)}$$

$$S_1 = 16d_1 + 2d_4$$

$$d_4 = S_0 + d_1$$

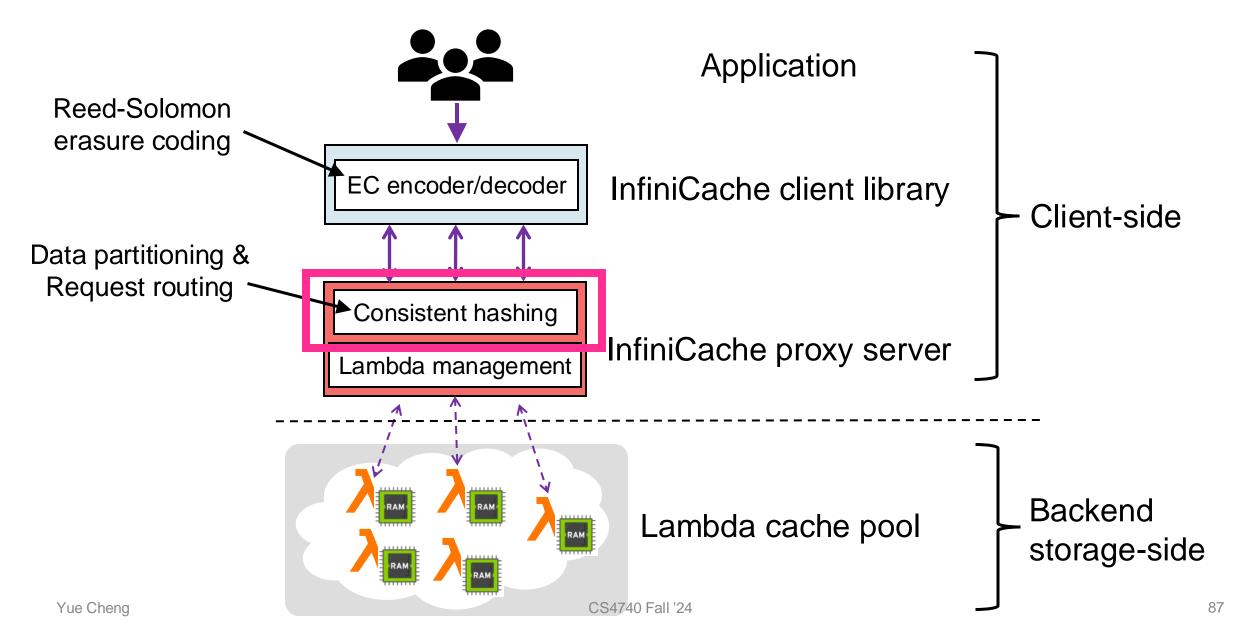
RAID-6 Analysis

Assuming a RS configuration of 6+2

1. What is capacity? (N-2) * C where N = 8

2. How many disks can fail? 2

Next basic building block: consistent hashing



Consistent hashing

Scaling out: Placement

You have key-value pairs to be partitioned across nodes based on an id

- Problem 1: Data placement
 - On which node(s) to place each key-value pair?
 - Maintain mapping from data object to node(s)
 - Evenly distribute data/load

Scaling out: Partition management

- Problem 2: Partition management
 - Including how to recover from node failure
 - e.g., bringing another node into partition group
 - Changes in system size, i.e., nodes joining/leaving
 - Heterogeneous nodes

Scaling out: Partition management

- Problem 2: Partition management
 - Including how to recover from node failure
 - e.g., bringing another node into partition group
 - Changes in system size, i.e., nodes joining/leaving
 - Heterogeneous nodes
- Centralized: Cluster manager
- Decentralized: Deterministic hashing and algorithms

Modulo hashing

- First consider problem of data partition:
 - Given object id X, choose one of k servers to use

- Suppose we use modulo hashing:
 - Place X on server $i = hash(X) \mod k$

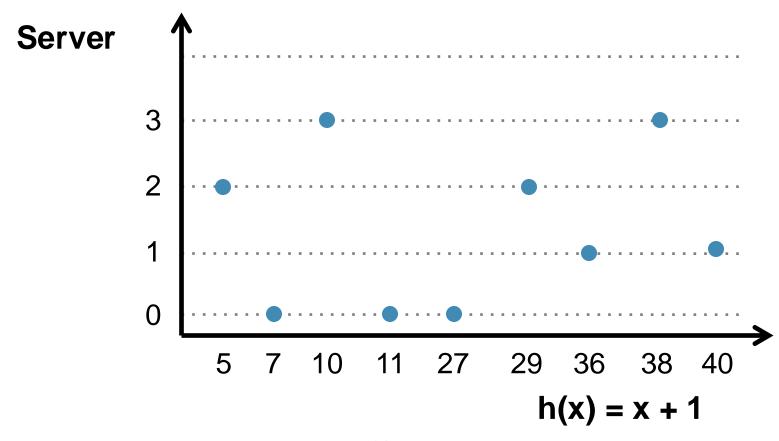
Modulo hashing

- First consider problem of data partition:
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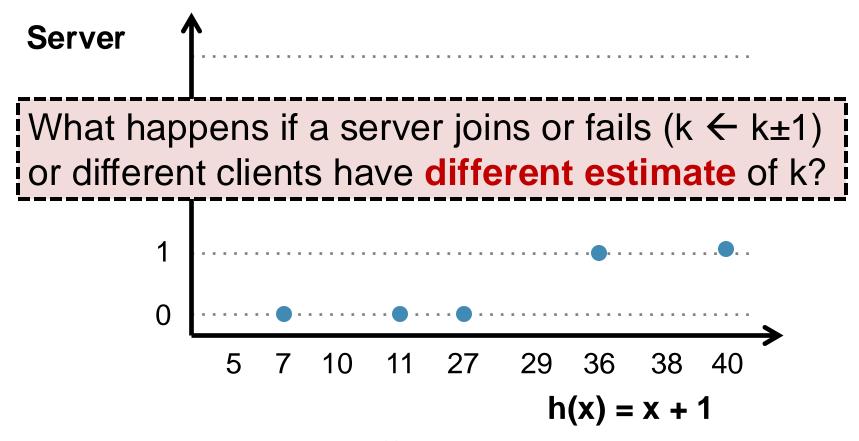
- Suppose we use modulo hashing:
 - Place X on server $i = hash(X) \mod k$

What's the problem with this method?

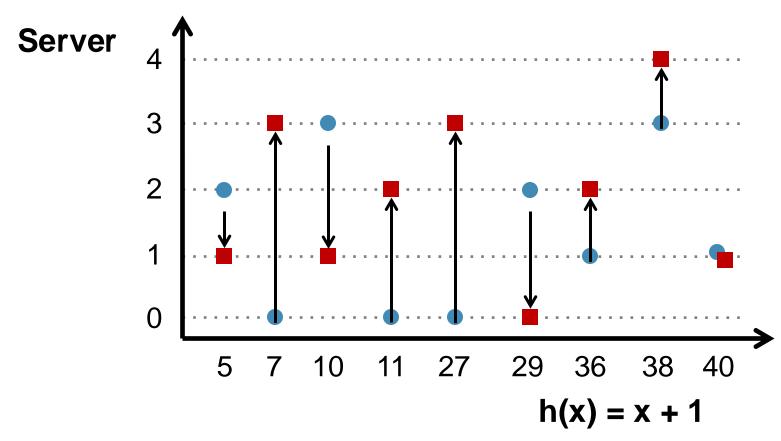
 $i = h(x) \mod 4$

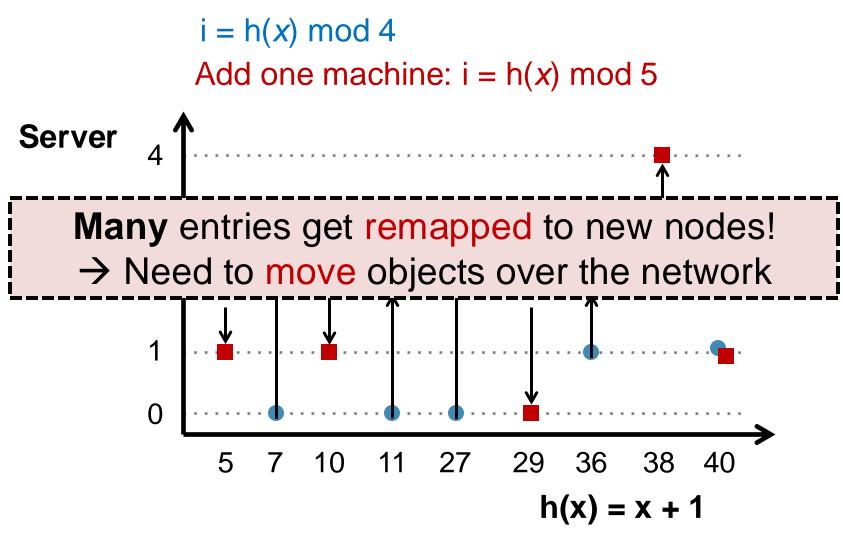






 $i = h(x) \mod 4$ Add one machine: $i = h(x) \mod 5$

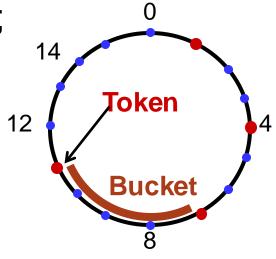




Consistent hashing

Assign n tokens to random points on mod 2^k circle;
 hash key size = k

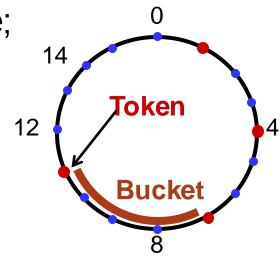
- -Hash object to random circle position
- -Put object to **closest clockwise** bucket
 - -successor (key) → bucket



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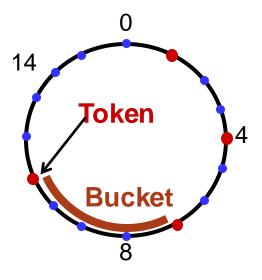
- -Hash object to random circle position
- -Put object to **closest clockwise** bucket
 - -successor (key) → bucket



- Desirable features:
 - Balance: No bucket has "too many" objects; E(bucket size)=1/nth
 - Smoothness: Addition/removal of token minimizes
 object movements for other buckets

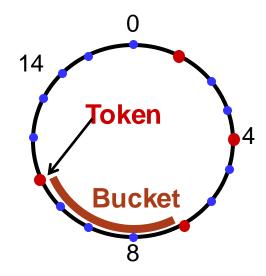
Consistent hashing's load balancing problem

- Each node owns 1/nth of the ID space in expectation
 - Hot keys → some buckets have higher request rate



Consistent hashing's load balancing problem

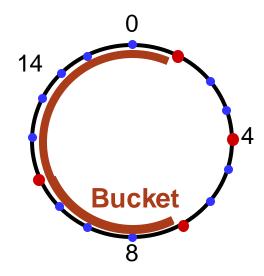
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- If a node fails, its successor takes over bucket
 - Smoothness goal ✓: Only localized shift, not O(n)
 - But now successor owns two buckets: 2/nth of key space
 - The failure has upset the load balance

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Virtual nodes

- Idea: Each physical node implements v virtual nodes
 - Each physical node maintains v > 1 token ids
 - Each token id corresponds to a virtual node
 - Each **physical node** can have a different v based on strength of node (heterogeneity)

Each virtual node owns an expected 1/(vn)th of ID space

Virtual nodes

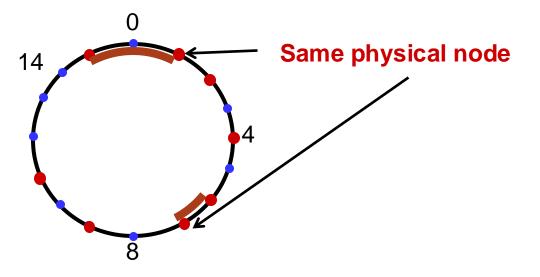
- Idea: Each physical node implements v virtual nodes
 - Each physical node maintains v > 1 token ids
 - Each token id corresponds to a virtual node
 - Each **physical node** can have a different v based on strength of node (heterogeneity)
- Each virtual node owns an expected 1/(vn)th of ID space

- Upon a physical node's failure, v virtual nodes fail
 - Their successors take over 1/(vn)th more
 - Expected to be distributed across physical nodes

Virtual nodes: Example

4 Physical Nodes

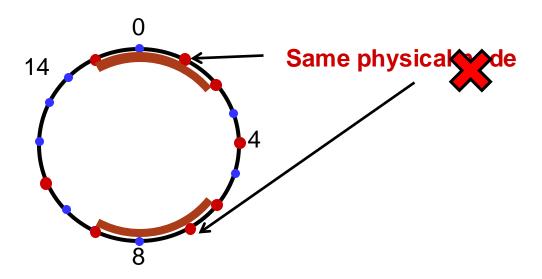
V=2



Virtual nodes: Example

4 Physical Nodes

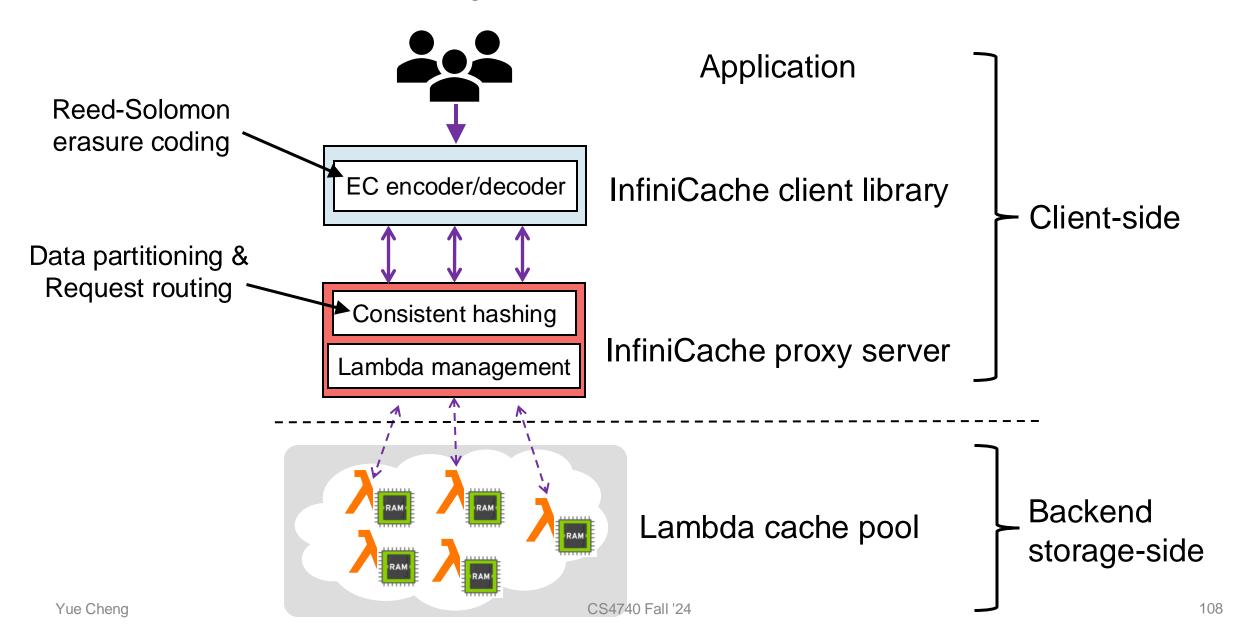
V=2



Result: Better load balance with larger v

Switching back to InfiniCache

InfiniCache bird's eye view





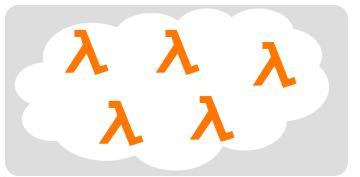
Application

EC encoder

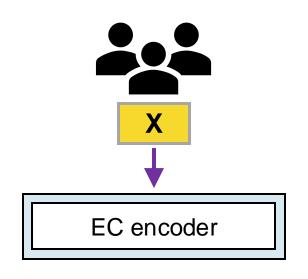
InfiniCache client library

Request routing

InfiniCache proxy



Lambda cache pool

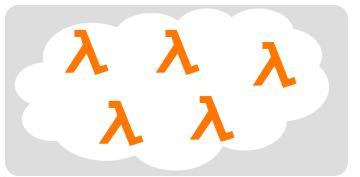


Application

InfiniCache client library

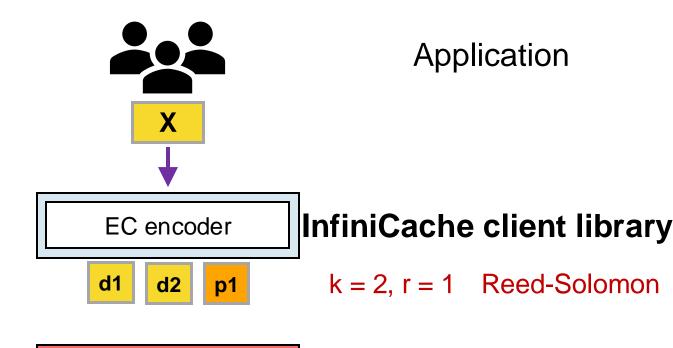
Request routing

InfiniCache proxy



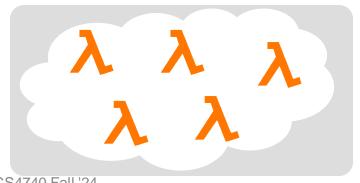
Lambda cache pool

 Object is split and encoded into k+r chunks



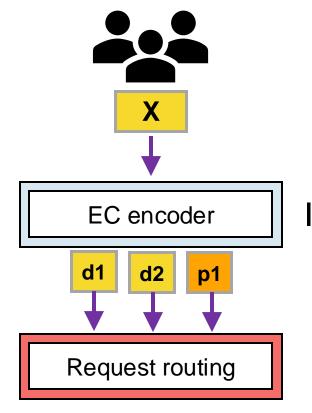
Request routing

InfiniCache proxy



Lambda cache pool

- Object is split and encoded into k+r chunks
- 2. Object chunks are sent to the proxy in parallel

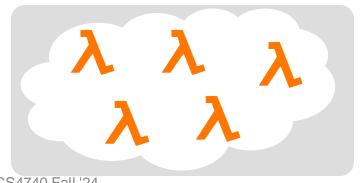


Application

InfiniCache client library

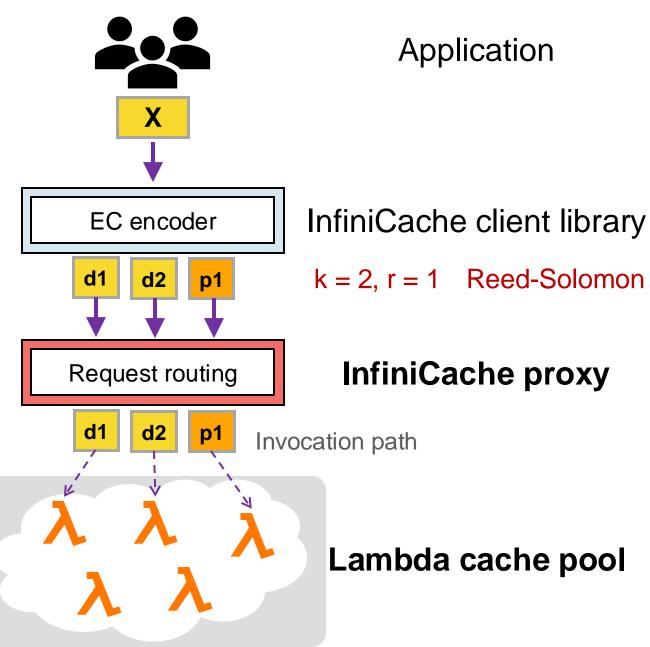
k = 2, r = 1 Reed-Solomon

InfiniCache proxy

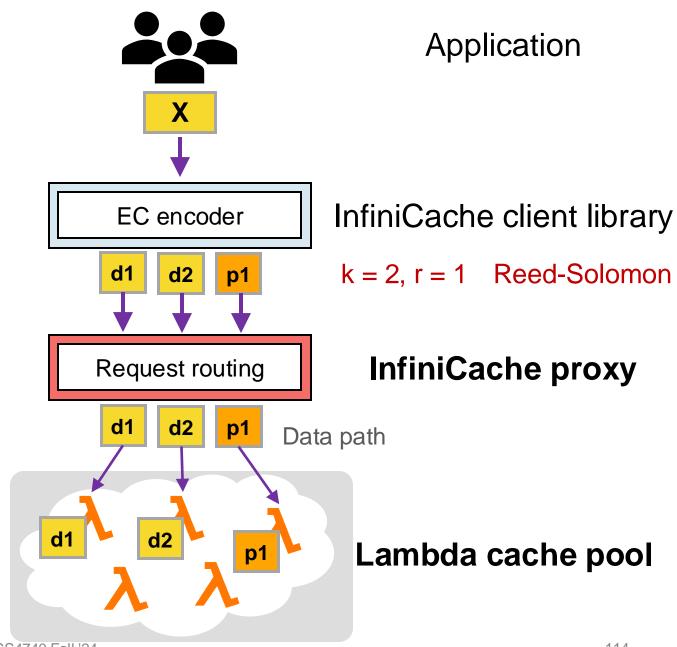


Lambda cache pool

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- 3. Proxy invokes Lambda cache nodes



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- 4. Proxy streams object chunks to Lambda cache nodes





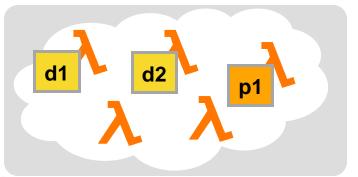
Application

EC decoder

InfiniCache client library

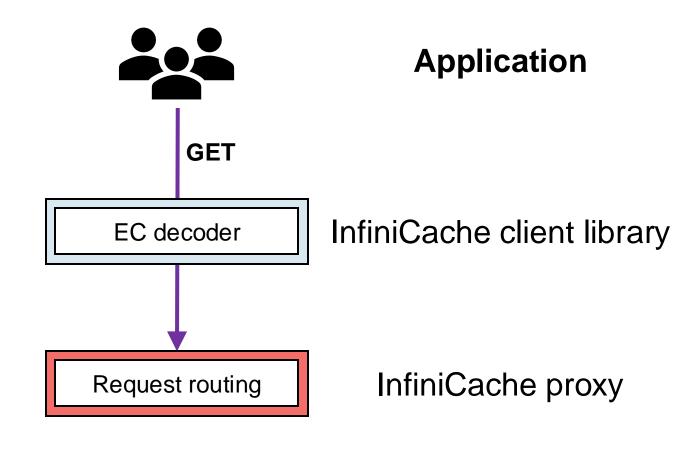
Request routing

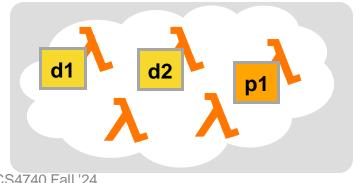
InfiniCache proxy



Lambda cache pool

1. Client sends GET request





Lambda cache pool



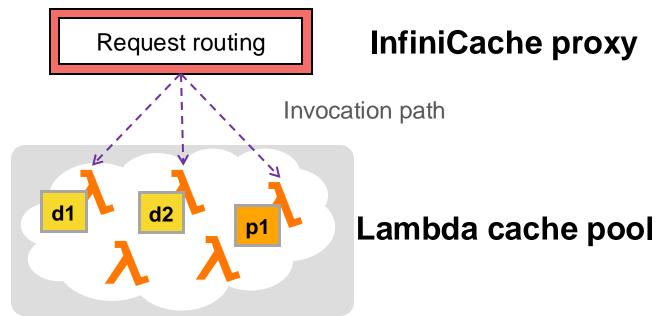
Application

1. Client sends GET request

2. Proxy invokes associated Lambda cache nodes

EC decoder

InfiniCache client library



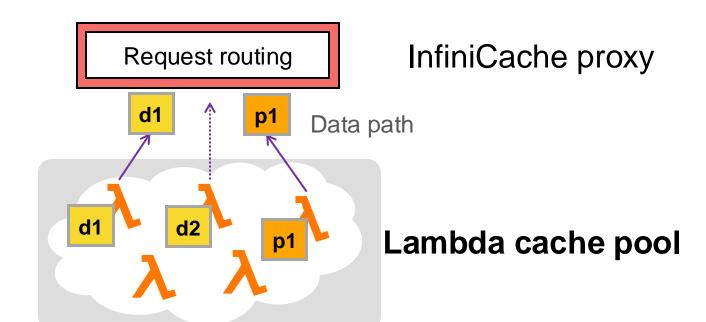


Application

- 1. Client sends GET request
- 2. Proxy invokes associated Lambda cache nodes
- 3. Lambda cache nodes transfer object chunks to proxy

EC decoder

InfiniCache client library



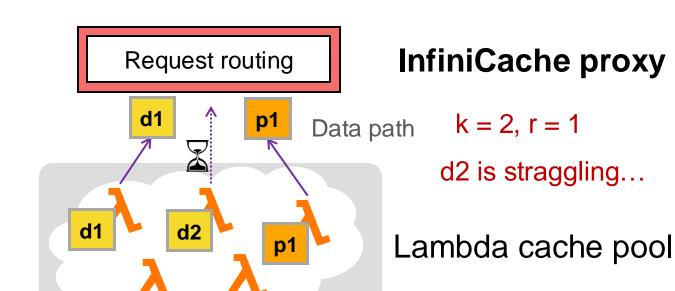


Application

- 1. Client sends GET request
- 2. Proxy invokes associated Lambda cache nodes
- 3. Lambda cache nodes transfer object chunks to proxy
 - First-d optimization: Proxy drops straggler Lambda

EC decoder

InfiniCache client library





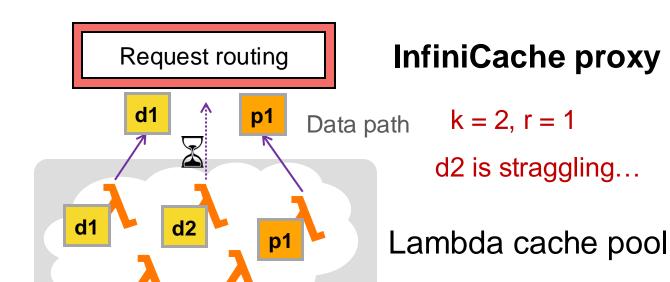
Application

Recall MapReduce uses replication to tackle **stragglers**; turns out storage-efficient redundancy technique **erasure coding** can achieve the same goal.

- 1. Client s quest
- 2. Proxy invo ciated Lambda ca des
- 3. Lambda cach odes transfer object chunks proxy
 - First-d opti nization: Proxy drops straggler Lambda

EC decoder

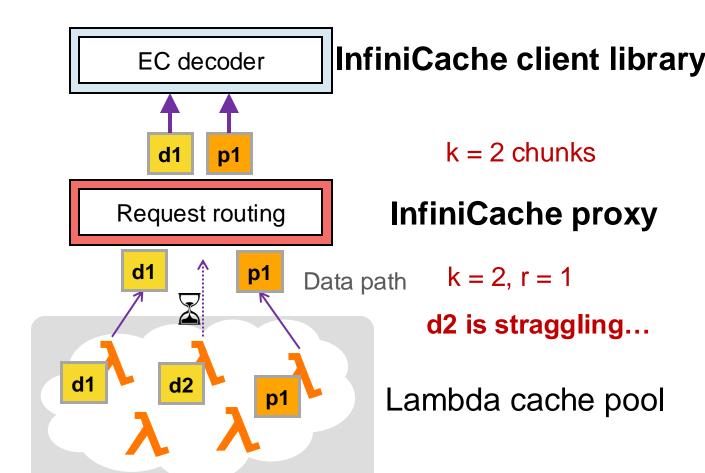
InfiniCache client library



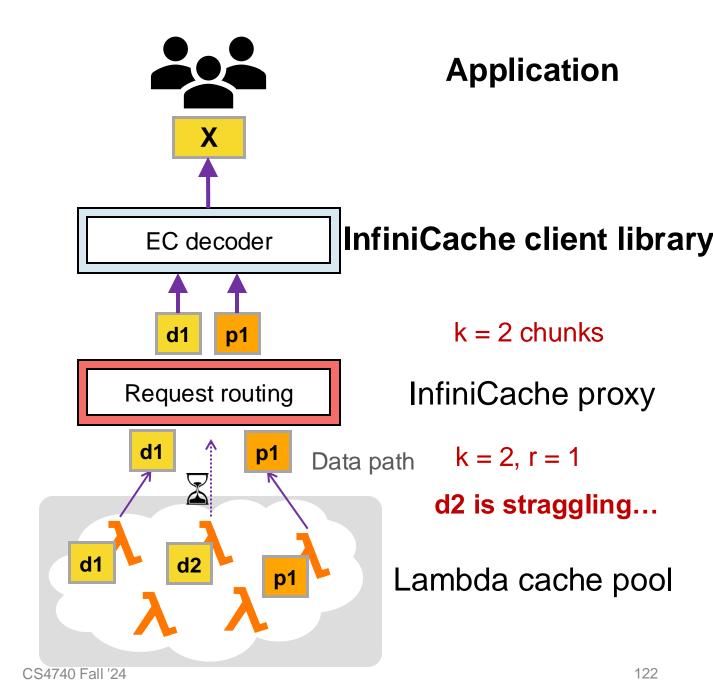


Application

- 1. Client sends GET request
- 2. Proxy invokes associated Lambda cache nodes
- 3. Lambda cache nodes transfer object chunks to proxy
- 4. Proxy streams k=2 chunks in parallel to client



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- 5. Client library decodes k chunks





Application

Tradeoff: Computational cost of EC decoding **vs.** delay waiting for the straggler (typically, **computational cost < straggler delay**, thanks to the efficient implementation of modern EC libraries)

- 1. Client send
- 2. Proxy invoke Lambda cach
- 3. Lambda cache object chunks to
- 4. Proxy streams k=2 unks in parallel to client

y unks in

ansfer

InfiniCache client library EC decoder k = 2 chunks Request routing InfiniCache proxy **d1** k = 2, r = 1Data path d2 is straggling... d1 **d2** Lambda cache pool

5. Client library decodes k chunks

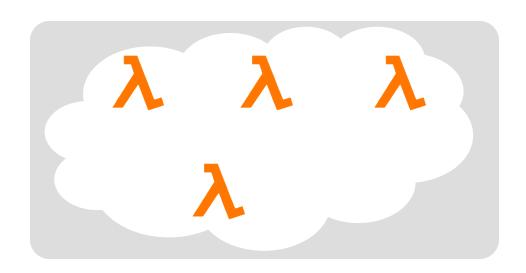
123

Maximizing data availability

- Erasure-coding
- Periodic warm-up
- Smart delta-sync backup

1. Lambda nodes are cached by AWS when not running

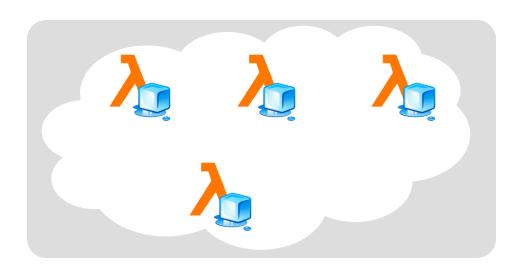




- 1. Lambda nodes are cached by AWS when not running
 - AWS may reclaim cold Lambda functions after they are idling for a period



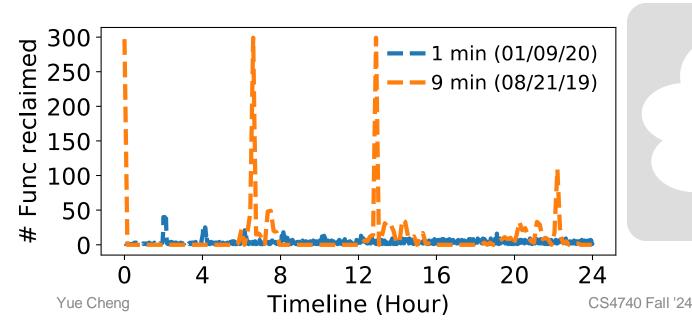


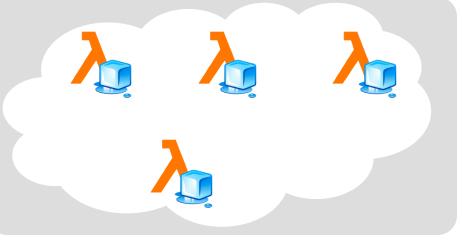


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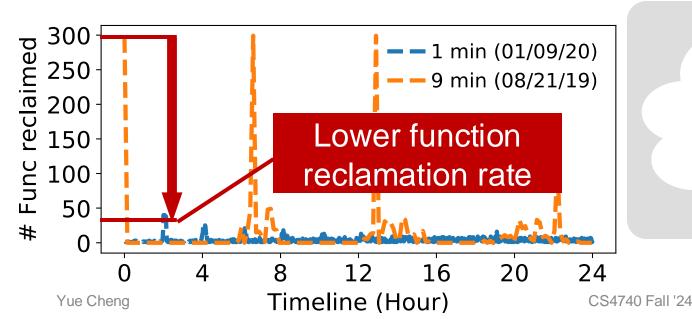


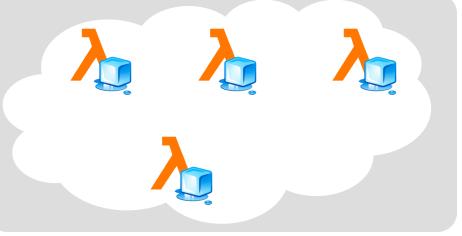


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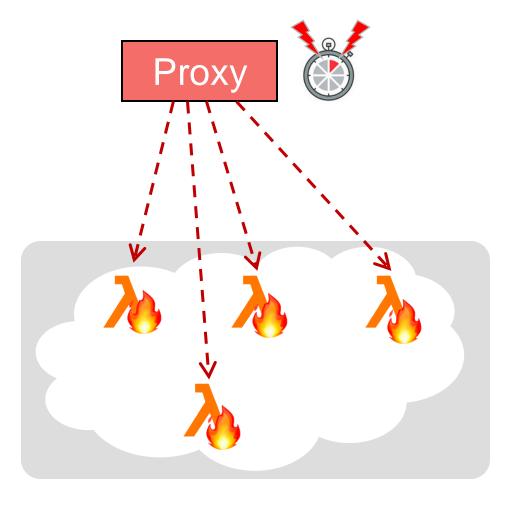




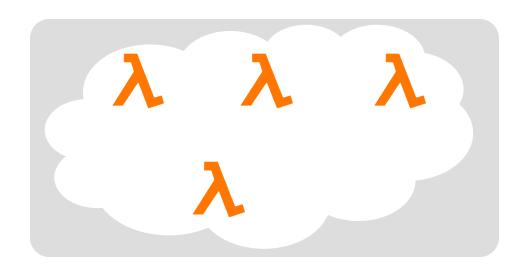




- 1. Lambda nodes are cached by AWS when not running
- 2. Proxy periodically invokes sleeping Lambda cache nodes to extend their lifespan

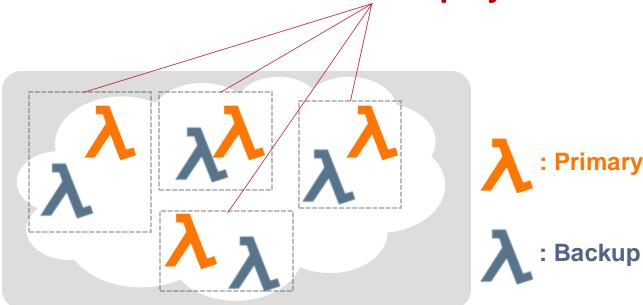




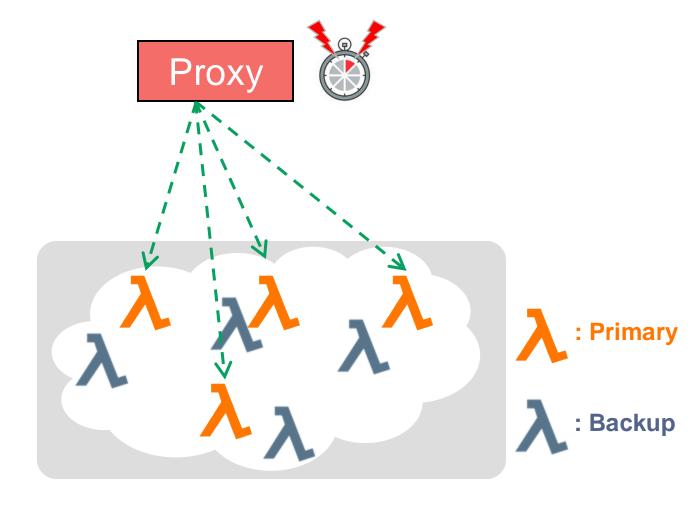




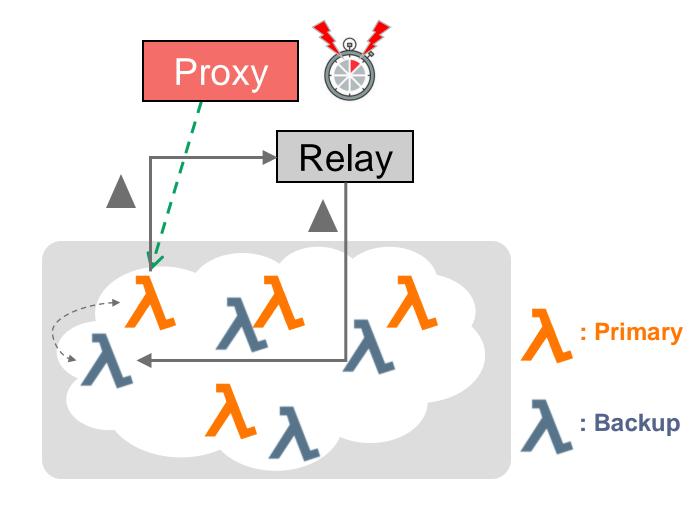
Function deployment



1. Proxy periodically sends out backup commands to Lambda cache nodes



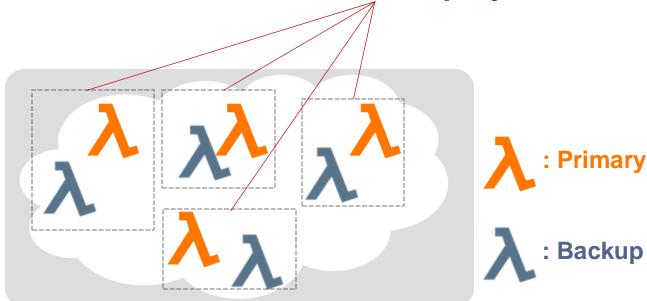
- 1. Proxy periodically sends out backup commands to Lambda cache nodes
- 2. Lambda node performs deltasync with its peer replica
 - Source Lambda propagates deltaupdate to destination Lambda



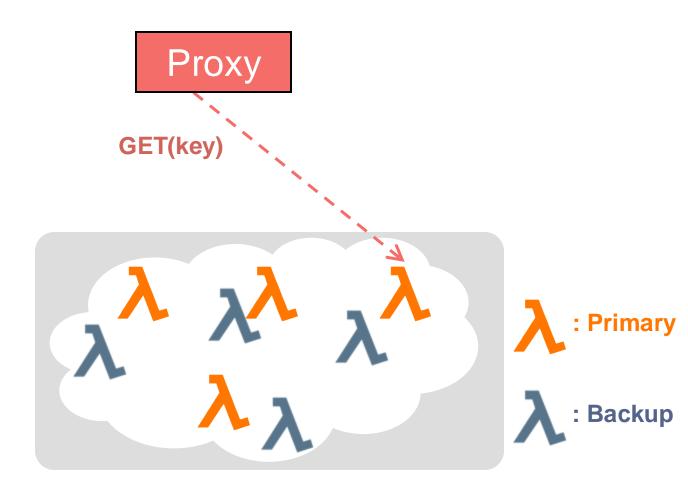
Seamless failover



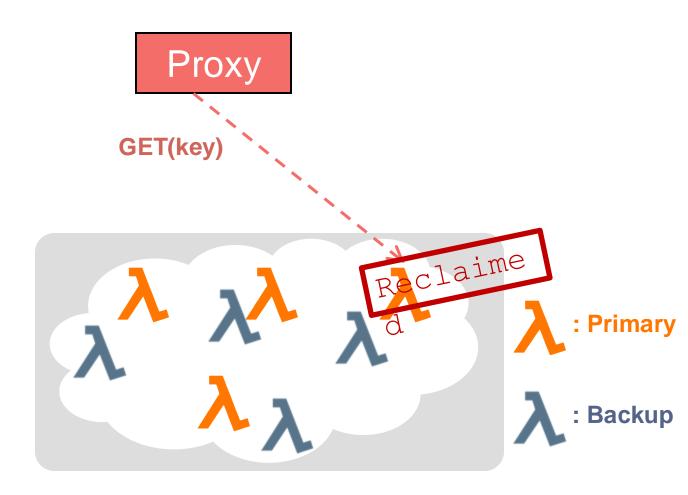
Function deployment



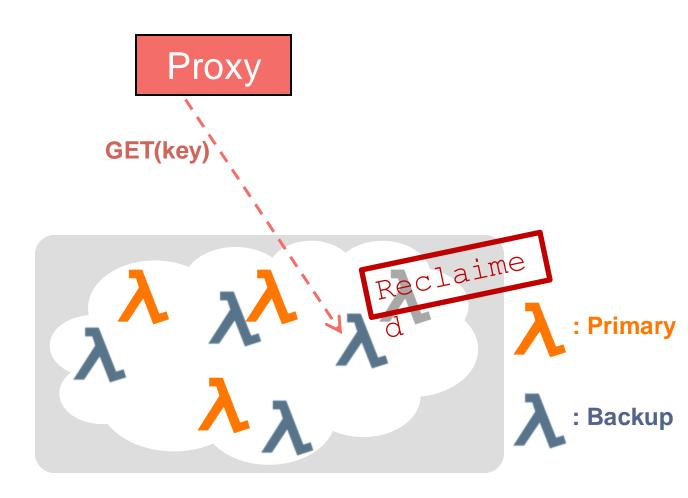
1. Proxy invokes a Lambda cache node with a GET request



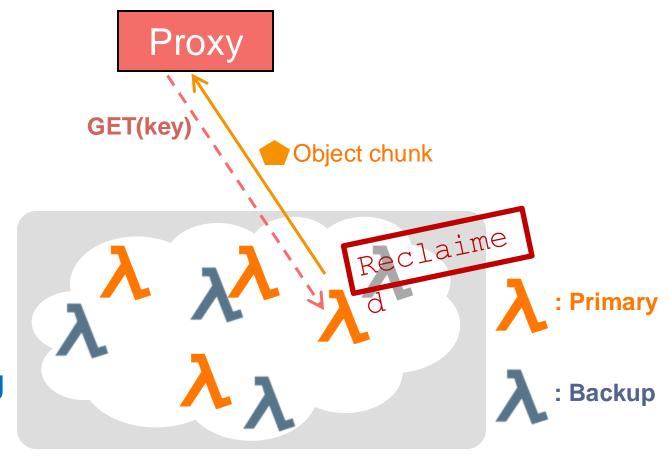
- 1. Proxy invokes a Lambda cache node with a GET request
- 2. Source Lambda gets reclaimed

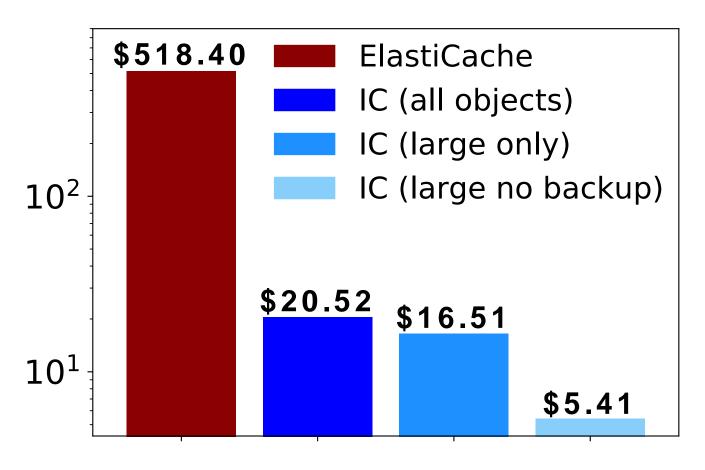


- 1. Proxy invokes a Lambda cache node with a GET request
- 2. Source Lambda gets reclaimed
- 3. The invocation request gets seamlessly redirected to the backup Lambda



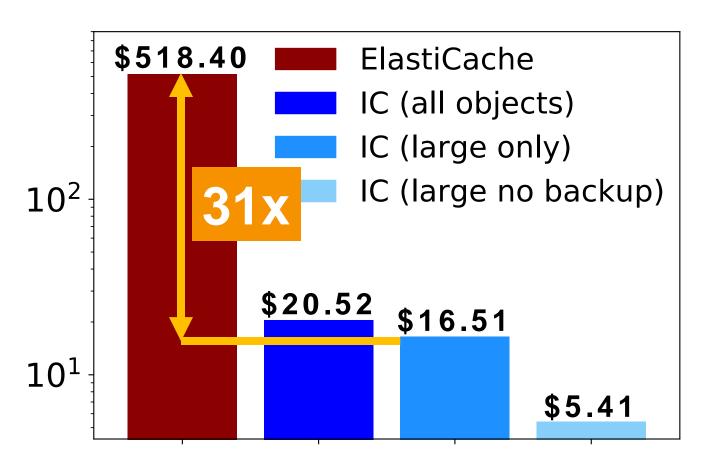
- Proxy invokes a Lambda cache node with a GET request
- 2. Source Lambda gets reclaimed
- 3. The invocation request gets seamlessly redirected to the backup Lambda
 - Failover gets automatically done and the backup becomes the primary
 - By exploiting the auto-scaling feature of AWS Lambda





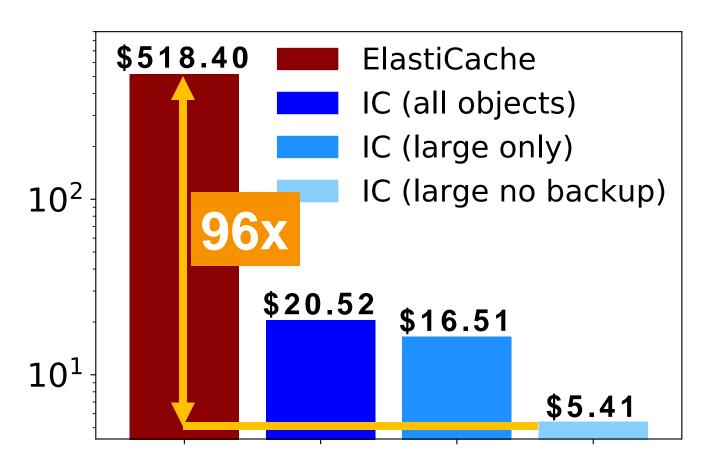
Workload setup

- All objects
- Large object only
 - Object larger than 10MB
- Large object w/o backup



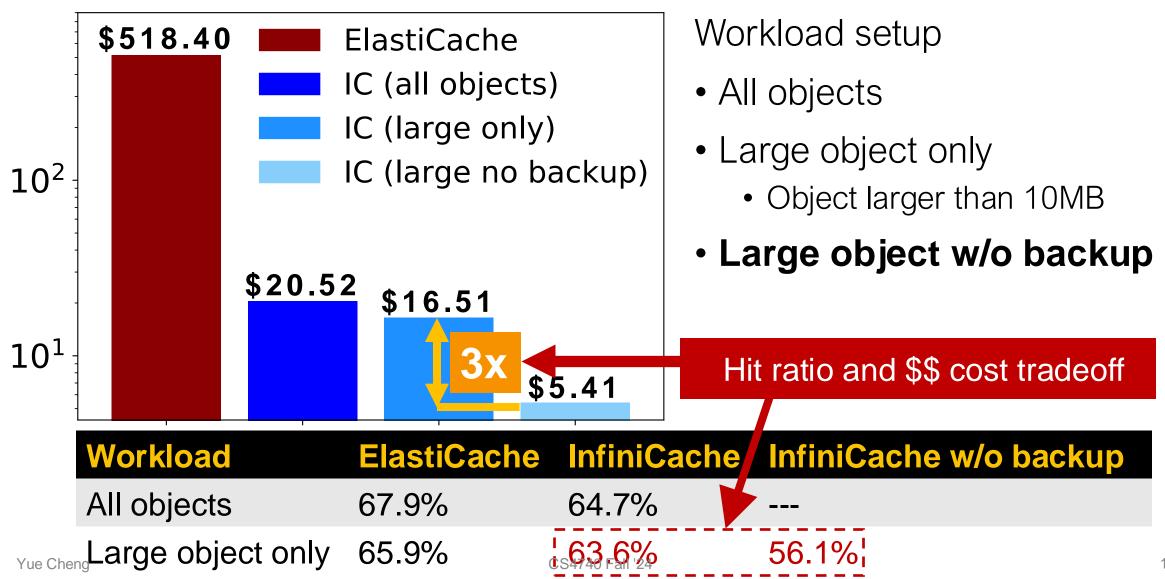
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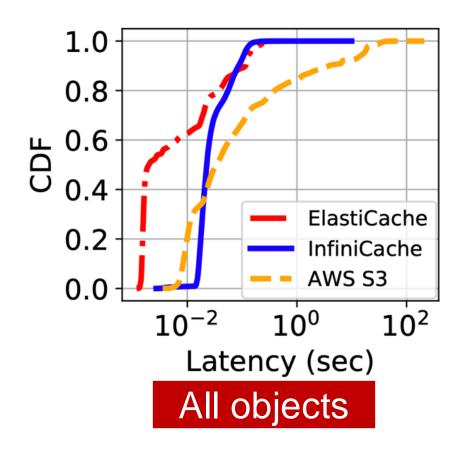


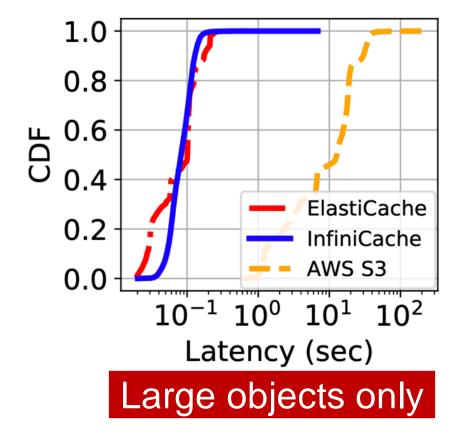
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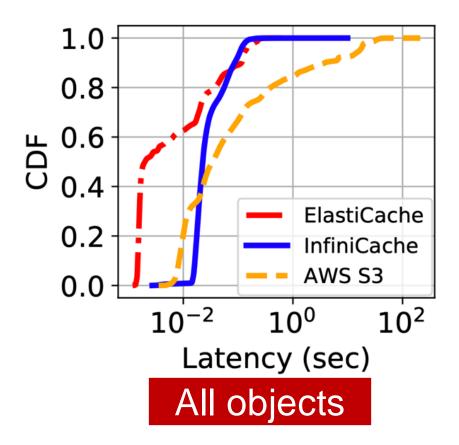


Performance of InfiniCache

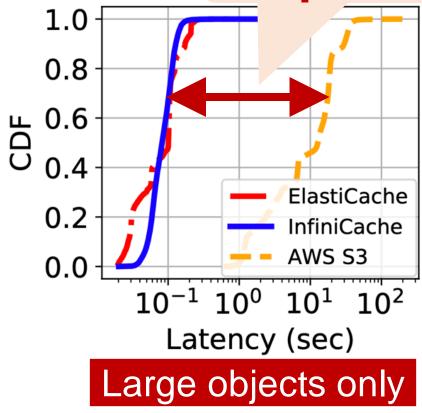




Performance of InfiniCache



> 100 times improvement



Discussion

- InfiniCache's cost saving benefits have conditions
 - The same condition holds for many different types of serverless/FaaS apps
- Unit time \$ cost increases with the access rate

