

# Percolator

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# Outline

- 1 Motivation
  - Google's Search Algorithm
  - Requirements
- 2 Design
  - Structure
  - Algorithm
  - Details and Optimizations
- 3 Evaluation

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- Updating Google's web index continuously is a major challenge.
  - Tens of petabytes of data
  - Billions of updates per day
  - Thousands of machines.
  - Cascading updates.

# Google's Search Algorithm

- Every page has a “page rank”.
- The **page rank** of a popular page is supposed to be high.
- The page rank of a page is determined by the page rank of all the pages that link to it.
- For example:
  - If the New York Times website points to some link, then it has a high page rank. 😊
  - If my website points to some website, it will have a very low page rank. 😞

# Example of a Google Search Query

The screenshot shows a Google search interface. At the top, there are navigation links: +Smruti, Search, Images, Maps, Play, YouTube, News, Gmail, Drive, Calendar, and More. The search bar contains the text "smruti sarangi" and a search button. Below the search bar, there are tabs for "Web", "Images", "Maps", "More", and "Search tools". The search results are displayed below, starting with "About 21,400 results (0.37 seconds)".

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**Smruti Ranjan Sarangi** is an Assistant Professor in the computer science and engineering department at IIT Delhi since January 2011. He primarily works in ...

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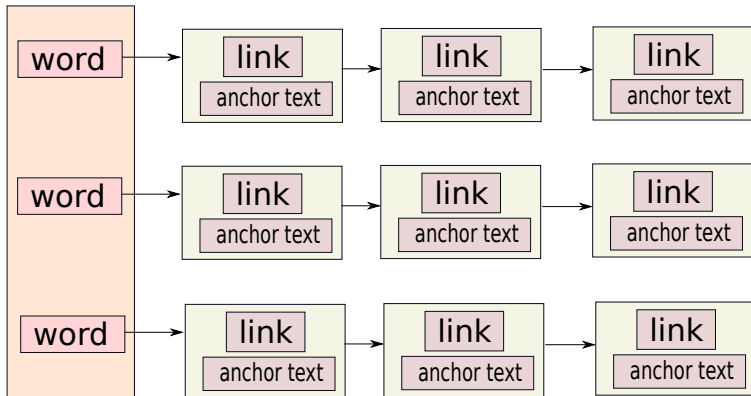
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# Structure of a Web Index



# The Problem of Updates

- The links in the **inverted list** are arranged according to their page rank.
- If the page rank of a website changes then:
  - We need to update the inverted list to reflect the change.
  - The page rank of sites that it points to need to change.
  - This problem is known as **cascading update** .



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# Requirements of a Solution

- Should provide ACID transaction semantics (do not want to corrupt database).
- Should have high throughput, and acceptable latency.
- Should be able to handle petabytes of data.
- Traditional DBMS systems are too slow → Need new technology
- Random access to data such that changes can **percolate**
- Consistency Model: Snapshot Isolation

# Snapshot Isolation

- Assume two concurrent updates to a linked list.
  - If they do not access the same node or its parent, then they are disjoint.
  - Disjoint accesses can continue in parallel.
  - This is **different** from regular transaction semantics such as serializability.
- **Definition** :
  - When a transaction starts, it takes (appears to) a consistent **snapshot** of the entire database.
  - It then proceeds to update its private copy of the database.
  - The values are committed if they have not been changed by another transaction since the snapshot.

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# Design of Percolator

- Built on top of Bigtable – Google's distributed storage engine
- Bigtable is a multidimensional database
  - Distributed key-value store
  - We save – row, column, timestamp
  - Atomic read-modify-write operations for each row
  - Meta data is stored in separate columns
- Observer framework
  - Any row has a set of observers.
  - They run specialized functions when data in the row changes.

# Model of Transactions

- Provides support for ACID transactions
  - Hard to do in such a large database
  - **Required** : Do not want to have Google's database in an inconsistent state
  - Uses a timestamp for each data item
  - The set of timestamps at the beginning of a transaction is its snapshot.
- Transactions can include multiple rows across multiple BigTable tables
- Percolator implements its own lock service
- Percolator adds a special column to save locks.

# Columns in BigTable

Column	Use
lock	contains a pointer to the lock
write	timestamp of committed data
data	data value
notify	list of observers
ack_ $O$	last timestamp at which observer $O$ ran

# Example

A transfers B 7₹

key	data	lock	write
A	6: 5:10₹	6: 5:	6:data@5 5:
B	6: 5:2₹	6: 5:	6:data@5 5:

key	data	lock	write
A	7: <b>3₹</b> 6: 5:10₹	7: <b>primary</b> 6: 5:	7: 6:data@5 5:
B	6: 5:2₹	6: 5:	6:data@5 5:



# Example - II

key	data	lock	write
A	7:3₹	7: primary	7:
	6:	6:	6:data@5
	5:10₹	5:	5:
B	7:9₹	7: <b>primary@A</b>	7:
	6:	6:	6:data@5
	5:2₹	5:	5:

key	data	lock	write
A	8:	8:	8: <b>data @ 7</b>
	7:3₹	7:	7:
	6:	6:	6:data@5
	5:10₹	5:	5:
B	7:9₹	7: primary@A	7:
	6:	6:	6:data@5
	5:2₹	5:	5:

# Example - III

key	data	lock	write
A	8:	8:	8: <b>data @ 7</b>
	7:3₹	7:	7:
	6:	6:	6:data@5
	5:10₹	5:	5:
B	8:	8:	8: <b>data @ 7</b>
	7:9₹	7:	7:
	6:	6:	6:data@5
	5:2₹	5:	5:

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# Algorithm: Begin Transaction

## Algorithm 1: Begin Transaction

- 1  $startTs \leftarrow \text{oracle.getTimeStamp}()$
- 2 Set(W):  
writes.push(W)

# Get Method

```
1 Get(row, column):
  while True do
2     T ← startTrans(row)
     if T.hasLock(0, startTs) then
3         backOffAndMaybeRemoveLock(row, col)
         continue
4     end
5     latestWrite ← T.read(row, [0, startTs])
     if !latestWrite then
6         return  $\phi$ 
7     end
8     dataTs ← latestWrite.timeStamp
     return (T.read(row, "data", dataTs)
9 end
```

# PreWrite

```
1 PreWrite(Write w, Write primary)  
   Column col  $\leftarrow w.col$   
    $T \leftarrow \text{startTransaction}(w.row)$   
  
2 if  $T.read(w.row, "write", [startTs, \infty])$  then  
3   |   return false  
4 end  
5 if  $T.read(w.row, "lock", [0, \infty])$  then  
6   |   return false  
7 end  
  
8  $T.write(w.row, "data", startTs, w.value)$   
    $T.write(w.row, "lock", startTs, \{primary.row, primary.col\})$   
return  $T.commit()$ 
```

# Commit - I

```
1 Commit()
   /* Prewrite all the entries                               */
2 (primary, secondaries) ← (writes[0], writes[1 ... n])
   if !PreWrite(primary,primary) then
3   | return false
4 end
5 for Write w: secondaries do
6   | if !PreWrite(w,primary) then
7   | | return false
8   | end
9 end
10 commitTs ← oracle.getTimeStamp()
```

# Commit - II

```
/* Commit the primary */
11 T ← startTransaction(primary.row)

/* Test to see if aborted by somebody else */
12 if !T.read(primary.row, "lock", startTs) then
13   | return false
14 end

/* Write the primary and erase the lock */
15 T.write(primary.row, "write", commitTs, "data@"+startTs)
   T.erase (primary.row, "lock", commitTs)

/* Point of commit */
16 if !T.Commit() then
17   | return false
18 end
```



# Commit - III

```
19 for Write w: secondaries do  
20   | write(w.row, "write", commitTs, "data@"+startTs)  
   | erase (w.row, "lock", commitTs)  
21 end  
22 return true
```

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# Timestamps

- The timestamp oracle needs to be able to sustain a very high throughput.
- Possible to batch several RPC calls to the oracle to reduce network load.
- Needs to give out timestamps in increasing order.
- If it fails, then it needs to recover and issue timestamps that are greater than the ones it issued earlier.

# Observers

- Each observer registers a set of columns, and a function.
- The function gets invoked, if any of the columns are updated.
- Possible to do **message collapsing**
- At most one observer's transaction will commit per column.
- Steps in running an observer
  - After an update to a column, Percolator sets the notify column.
  - A worker thread, ultimately picks up this information, and runs an observer.
  - If the latest timestamp of an observer run (**ack\_O**) is less than the commit timestamp of the update, then run the observer.
  - Worker threads avoid **clumping** by scanning random parts of the database.

# Performance Improvements

- Support for **read-modify-write** RPCs in BigTable.
- Create batches of RPC calls.
- Employ pre-fetching to reduce reads.
- Use blocking API calls, and a large number of threads to simplify the programming model.

# Setup

- Existing Setup:
  - Crawl billions of documents
  - Series of 100 map-reduces
  - A document takes 2-3 days for getting indexed
- Percolator based indexing system – **Caffeine**
  - 100x faster
  - Average age of documents gets reduced by 50%

# Performance vs Crawl Rate

- Crawl rate → Percentage of repository that is updated per hour.
- Let us plot the clustering latency (y axis) vs the crawl rate (x axis)
- For Map-reduce it starts at 2200s and **rises** to infinity when the crawl rate exceeds 33%.
- For Percolator it remains **below** 200s till about 37%. Then it continues to rise.

# Scalability for TPC/E benchmarks

- The transactions per second (TPS) varies linearly as we scale the number of cores.
- 4000 TPS is achieved with 5,000 cores.
- It **increases** to 12,000 TPS for 15,000 cores.

Close to Linear Scaling





## Large-scale Incremental Processing Using Distributed Transactions and Notifications by Daniel Peng and Frank Dabek, OSDI, 2010