TensorFlow-Serving: Flexible, High-Performance ML Serving

Christopher Olston olston@google.com

Noah Fiedel nfiedel@google.com Kiril Gorovoy kgorovoy@google.com

Fangwei Li

fangweil@google.com

Jeremiah Harmsen jeremiah@google.com Li Lao llao@google.com

Vinu Rajashekhar vinuraja@google.com Sukriti Ramesh sukritiramesh@google.com **Jordan Soyke** jsoyke@google.com

Abstract

We describe TensorFlow-Serving, a system to serve machine learning models inside Google which is also available in the cloud and via open-source. It is extremely flexible in terms of the types of ML platforms it supports, and ways to integrate with systems that convey new models and updated versions from training to serving. At the same time, the core code paths around model lookup and inference have been carefully optimized to avoid performance pitfalls observed in naive implementations. Google uses it in many production deployments, including a multi-tenant model hosting service called TFS².

1 Introduction

Machine learning (ML) lies at the heart of a growing number of important problems in many fields. While there is vast literature and software devoted to training ML models, there has been little systematic effort around deploying trained models in production.

Indeed, until recently within Google, ML serving infrastructure has consisted mainly of ad-hoc, non-reusable solutions. Such solutions generally start off simple and seemingly don't necessitate a fancy or general-purpose solution, e.g. "just put the models in a BigTable, and write a simple server that loads from there and handles RPC requests to the models."

One-off serving solutions quickly accumulate complexity as they add support for model versioning (for model updates with a rollback option) and multiple models (for experimentation via A/B testing), which necessitate managing server RAM carefully while avoiding availability lapses during version transitions. Then performance problems arise as model loading causes latency spikes for other models or versions concurrently serving, requiring careful thread management and other techniques to keep tail latencies in check. Next, achieving high throughput via hardware acceleration (GPUs and TPUs) requires asynchronous batch scheduling with cross-model interleaving and more tail latency protections. As the application matures and researchers do more experimentation with alternative and larger models,¹ the models may not all fit on a single server node, and a scheme must be devised to bin-pack models onto servers and route queries accordingly. And so on.

Over time, an application's serving system becomes a complex piece of software. Yet applicationspecific APIs, assumptions and business logic baked in at the start prevent repurposing it. As ML

¹Model accuracy improvements are sometimes won at the cost of model bloat, e.g. larger embeddings, more layers or more parameters per layer.

³¹st Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems (NIPS 2017), Long Beach, CA, USA.

applications proliferate, having custom top-to-bottom serving code for each application becomes untenable.

We set out to build a single, state-of-the-art software framework for most ML serving workloads at Google, and in Google's Cloud-ML offering. What we've built is called TensorFlow-Serving, for serving TensorFlow [1] and other types² of ML models. It consists of three layers: (1) a C++ library consisting of APIs and modules from which to construct an ML server, (2) an assemblage of the library modules into a canonical server binary, and (3) a hosted service.

The hosted service is the easiest to use: just upload your model to it and it gets served. It also enables us to codify best practices such as validating model quality before serving a new version, or logging inferences to catch training/serving skew bugs [2]. Previously, these best practices were not widely adopted, and much effort was undertaken to persuade each team using ML to adopt them.

Teams with specialized hardware or datacenter needs may elect to use the binary on their own servers.

Maximum customization is possible via our library, which splits a server's functionality into distinct modules connected via carefully designed APIs. We've seen many ML serving variations at Google, e.g. transitioning to new model versions in-place versus taking a server offline, serving multiple kinds of models (TensorFlow + SomeOtherFlow) in a given server, or receiving models to serve from different kinds of storage or data-conveyance media. Variations like these can be realized by configuring and composing our modules in different ways, and/or creating custom implementations of some modules. The default module implementations supplied in the library encapsulate subtle performance optimizations based on hard lessons e.g. around inference tail latency, such as particular data structures for looking up models, and being mindful of which thread performs a slow operation like freeing a big chunk of memory.

The libraries, and an instance of the binary, are open-source.³ The hosted service is available to all teams within Google, as well as to the public via Google Cloud Platform.⁴

1.1 Related Work

There is a vast amount of literature and code devoted to machine learning. Some prominent opensource offerings include Hadoop Mahout [3], scikit-learn [4], Spark MLlib [5], TensorFlow [1] and Weka [6]. This paper focuses specifically on serving ML models in production, which has received relatively little systematic attention outside of application-specific approaches.

The general-purpose approaches we are aware of are Clipper [7], LASER [8] and Velox [9]. Of these, Clipper may be the closest effort to TensorFlow-Serving; the two systems were developed concurrently. Clipper and TensorFlow-Serving share a focus on remaining largely agnostic to the specific ML technology of the models being served, and have some similar components e.g. batching. Whereas Clipper is a research system used as a vehicle to pursue speculative ideas, TensorFlow-Serving encapsulates the state of the art of production infrastructure as used inside Google and Google Cloud Platform.

Lastly, there is of course a great deal of literature on web serving and other non-ML serving scenarios, e.g. [10–13], which has informed our work. With ML serving, the objects being served (the ML models) are: (a) comprised of logic, not just data, giving rise to isolation and other challenges; (b) of greatly varying sizes, and in some cases hundreds of gigabytes such that two versions cannot reside in RAM simultaneously; (c) at times highly dynamic, with new versions emitted from training every few minutes⁵; (d) greatly helped by hardware acclerators (GPUs and TPUs [14]), which necessitate carefully managed batching.

²Despite the name, the core libraries are ML-platform-agnostic in that they treat models as a black boxes (via a safe void*-like construct), and the other layers contain very little TensorFlow-specific logic and would be fairly easy to generalize.

³https://github.com/tensorflow/serving

⁴https://cloud.google.com/ml-engine

⁵The extreme form of online learning, in which models are updated in-place while being served, is not generally practiced at Google, in part due to challenges with debuggability and quality assurance.

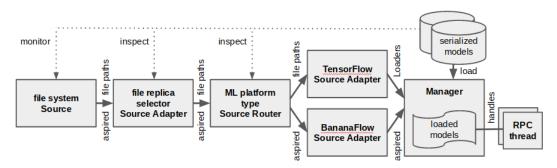


Figure 1: Model lifecycle management: example topology.

2 Library

The library has two parts: (1) *lifecycle management* modules that decide which models to load into memory, sequence the loading/unloading of specific versions, and offer reference-counted access to them; (2) modules that service RPC requests to carry out *inference* using loaded models, with optional cross-request batching.

2.1 Model Lifecycle Management

As illustrated in Figure 1, the model lifecycle management aspect of a server consists of a chain of individual modules:

- *Sources*, which monitor external storage systems (e.g. file systems) to discover models and their versions.
- *Source Routers* that split the stream of model versions to be loaded based on the kind of model (e.g. TensorFlow versus BananaFlow models).
- *Source Adapters*, which transform metadata about the location of each model version into *Loaders* that can load the version into memory.
- A *Manager* that sequences the loading and unloading of model versions, and provides reference-counted access to them for inference.

Other than the TensorFlow and BananaFlow Source Adapters, these modules treat models as black boxes called *servables*, which could be anything. Hence the mention of BananaFlow, a hypothetical machine learning framework unrelated to TensorFlow. In seriousness, Google uses TensorFlow-Serving for some proprietary non-TensorFlow machine learning frameworks as well as TensorFlow. Servables do not need to be machine learning models at all, e.g. they could be lookup tables that encode feature transformations.

The API used to connect these modules is called *aspired versions*. A call to this API passes the name of a servable, along with a list of versions (typically just one) that the source would like to be memory-resident. (Implicitly, versions omitted from the list are ones it would like *not* to be memory-resident.) We chose this uni-directional, idempotent API to make it easy to build a Source that periodically polls a storage system and emits servable versions that it aspires to reside in memory, without needing to know which ones *currently* are in memory.

The aspired versions API is templated by the type of data T passed with each version. In our canonical serving set-up, there is a Source with T = file path, which monitors a file system and emits paths to versions of servables it desires to reside in memory. A TensorFlow Source Adapter converts each file path string to a TensorFlow model Loader. The Manager requires T to be Loader. Inside Google we have production use-cases for chains of multiple Source Adapters, as well as Source Routers and custom implementations of Sources and Source Adapters.

2.1.1 Canary and Rollback

Our canonical file-based Source is configured with a set of servable/directory pairs; in each directory it looks for new versions of a given servable. By default the Source aspires the latest (largest numbered) version of each servable, which works well for casual deployments. For production deployments, users can override that default to address the following critical use-cases:

- *Canary:* When a new version arrives from training and the one currently serving traffic becomes the second-newest version, the user can opt to aspire both of those versions simultaneously (i.e. load the newest version without unloading the older one). They would continue to send all prediction request traffic to the (now) second-newest version, while also teeing a sample of the traffic to the newest version to enable a comparison of their predictions. Once there is enough confidence in the newest version, the user would then switch to aspiring only that version (i.e. unload the second-newest one). This approach requires more peak resources, but can avoid exposing users to an important class of model bugs.
- *Rollback:* If a flaw is detected with the current primary serving version (which was not caught via canary), the user can request to switch to aspiring a specific older version (i.e. cause the problematic version to be unloaded in favor of the older, presumably safe one; the order of the unload and load is configurable—see Section 2.1.2). Later, when the problem has been addressed and a newer, safe version has been written from training to the file system, the user can switch to aspiring that one, thus ending the rollback.

2.1.2 Aspired Versions Manager

Our flagship Manager implementation is called *AspiredVersionsManager*. It is parameterized by a version transition policy which is one of: (1) an *availability-preserving policy* that loads a new version of a servable before unloading the old one; (2) a *resource-preserving policy* that does the opposite. The resource-preserving policy is useful for extremely large models such that two versions cannot fit in memory at the same time, and a lapse of availability is acceptable either because a broader system ensures there are other replicas not currently transitioning versions, or the clients are batch jobs that can wait/retry. We use both policies at Google.

AspiredVersionsManager incorporates several subtle performance optimizations, some of which were discussed in [15]:

- Read-copy-update [16] data structure to ensure wait-free access to servables by inference threads.
- Custom reference-counted servable handles that ensure the freeing of memory for no-longerwanted servables occurs in a manager thread, not an inference thread. This approach avoids adding latency hiccups to inference requests.
- Releasing memory to the operating system upon servable unload.
- Isolated load and inference thread pools, to insulate inference requests from performance issues due to concurrent loading of other servables or versions.
- One-time use of all threads to load the initial set of servable versions, to speed up server start-up.

We have also made some low-level performance optimizations around the interaction between memory allocation and CPU caches.

2.2 Inference

We offer several TensorFlow-specific RPC APIs for inference: a low-level tensor interface that mirrors TensorFlow's Session::Run() API, as well as higher-level interfaces for classification and regression. To go with the latter, as well as to integrate smoothly with training pipelines, we have co-designed a canonical data format for examples called tf.Example. Inside Google many projects use tf.Example with our classification or regression API, but we also have many that use the lower-level tensor representation/API to gain more flexibility and control over performance.

We nevertheless do our best to optimize our standard example representation (e.g. compressing away features common to a batch of examples), and advocate for its adoption where feasible. It offers improved type safety, but more importantly it facilitates tools that provide other forms of safety e.g. detecting outlier versions of a model (which can reveal training pipeline bugs) prior to serving, and flagging training/serving skew (another bug indicator). Such tools are part of our end-to-end ML pipeline infrastructure (Section 3.2). To this end, we are working on additional high-level APIs e.g. for sequence models. Our goal is to cover all but the most exotic use-cases with typed APIs.

Each API has an RPC handler that fetches a servable handler from the Manager, dereferences it and invokes a method such as Session::Run(), and then discards it. The handlers are equipped with

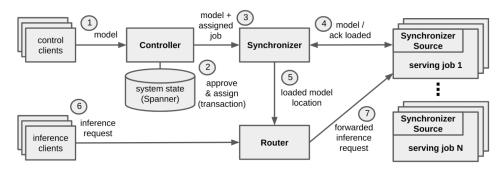


Figure 2: TFS² (hosted model serving) architecture.

logging capability, which is useful for debugging, detecting training/serving skew, and validating model changes [17].

2.2.1 Inter-Request Batching

As mentioned above, machine learning can leverage custom hardware e.g. GPUs and TPUs [14]. The key is to combine many inference requests into a single merged request, e.g. by concatenating the underlying input tensors. This strategy can boost throughput substantially, but it has to be managed carefully to avoid unduly hurting latency.

TensorFlow-Serving comes with a core library of batching primitives that is templatized on the type of request being batched (be it tensors or some other data). The core library supports multiple batching queues, to batch requests for multiple servables or versions separately, and schedule them in a round-robin fashion onto a single shared device e.g. GPU. The set of queues can be dynamic, added and removed as servable versions come and go.

The core batching library is wrapped in two ways for use with TensorFlow: (1) an implementation of TensorFlow's Session abstraction that batches multiple Run() calls together, concatenating their input tensors, and then forwards to the wrapped Session's Run(); (2) special Batch and Unbatch ops [18] that can be inserted into a TensorFlow graph around a set of regular ops, which pass batched data to those ops. The latter is new and not yet fully vetted, but we are optimistic that it can supplant the former because it is more flexible. In particular, it can be used to batch just the GPU/TPU portion of a graph, batch the body of a sequence model's while-loop, or independently batch multiple subgraphs e.g. the encode and decode phases of a sequence-to-sequence model. It bears similarities to the batching approach of [19].

3 Canonical Binary and Hosted Service

While our library offers great flexibility, and we have use-cases that leverage that flexibility, many use-cases can make due with a "vanilla" set-up consisting of a file-system-monitoring Source, a TensorFlow Source Adapter and a Manager. We package this set-up as a binary so that most users do not need to fuss with our lower-level library offering.

But our ultimate goal is to offer model serving as a hosted service, freeing users from even running jobs. We want to raise the serving abstraction from "run these jobs, each of which serves a set of models" to "serve these models," with the jobs managed on their behalf. The hosted <u>TensorFlow-Serving</u> service is called "TFS²."

3.1 TFS²

In TFS², users issue high-level commands such as "add model," "remove model," and "add model version." The TFS² infrastructure, illustrated in Figure 2, takes care of the rest, including assigning each model to one of a suite of serving jobs based on resource fit.

The *Controller* takes care of adding, removing and updating users' models, as well as honoring canary and rollback requests (see Section 2.1.1). It estimates the RAM required to serve a given model and selects a serving job that has enough memory capacity. Compute capacity is provisioned via user-supplied "hints" in advance of major production launches; experimental launches and gradual

production traffic variations are handled automatically by a separate system that reactively autoscales each serving job (dynamically adding and removing job replicas as load fluctuates). The Controller keeps all its state in Spanner [20], a globally-replicated database system, and manages it transactionally.

Once assigned a serving job by the Controller, models are disseminated to a *Synchronizer* job in each data center configured to serve models. The Synchronizer instructs serving jobs which models/versions to keep loaded at a given time, via a special RPC-based Source library component that receives Synchronizer instructions, and reports back status. The Synchronizer informs a *Router* job which models are successfully loaded in which serving jobs, so it can forward inference RPC requests appropriately. The Router uses hedged backup requests [21] to mitigate latency spikes from transient server issues or inter-request or -model interference.

We offer two TFS² instances: (1) a Temp instance where employees taking machine learning courses or experimenting with new types of models can try them out, and (2) a Prod instance for robust, 24/7 serving of production traffic. Within each instance there are several *partitions* which represent specialization based on hardware (e.g. we offer partitions with TPUs) or geography (e.g. a partition with jobs located in South America).

The serving jobs in TFS^2 use the same binary⁶ we make available for users who wish to run their own jobs. This approach reduces the maintenance burden, and also allows us to canary binary releases in our Temp instance before rolling out the release more broadly to both non-hosted and hosted users.

3.2 End-to-End ML Pipelines

TensorFlow-Serving and TFS² are part of Google's overall machine learning infrastructure [15]. Other key components include model training, quality validation (comparing inference results versus prior trained versions), robustness validation (ensuring a model does not induce a server to crash), and detection of training/serving skew. Google users can set up pipelines consisting of these steps, which inject successful model versions into either stand-alone serving jobs or TFS².

4 Project Status, Performance and Adoption

We started the project in the fall of 2015 and open sourced the library code in winter 2016. The binary came after, and was incorporated into Google's Cloud Machine Learning Engine offering in fall 2016. We launched the Temp instance of TFS^2 in fall 2016, and the Prod instance in winter 2017.

While always a work-in-progress, the current level of system performance is quite good: In terms of throughput, the main bottlenecks lie in the RPC and TensorFlow layers; we determined that TensorFlow-Serving itself can handle about 100,000 requests per second per core,⁷ if those two layers are factored out. Latency-wise, we have been able to rein in tail latency substantially while other models or versions are loading, compared to our initial naive implementation; details and performance results are reported in [15].

Each of the form-factors we offer (library, binary, service) is being used in production inside Google, supporting various internal systems and user-facing products. The total number of Google projects using TensorFlow-Serving is in the hundreds. Overall traffic from Google adoption is in the tens of millions of inferences per second. External adoption includes one-off usage e.g. [22], as well as projects by Hortonworks [23], IBM and SAP to incorporate TensorFlow-serving into their general-purpose machine learning and database platforms.

Acknowledgements

The Synchronizer system used in TFS² as well as elsewhere in Google, was developed by the Ads Serving team including Nels Beckman, Andrew Bernard, Scott Daley and Ahmed Shalaby.

TFS² is made excellent by Google's ML-SRE team: Travis Abbott, Chris Farrar, Scott Martin, Brian McBarron, Daniel Papasian, Steven Ross and Sean Sechrist.

⁶The Source to activate—RPC-based or file-system-based—is configurable; TFS² uses the former while standalone jobs use the latter.

⁷Measurements taken on a 16 vCPU Intel Xeon E5 2.6 GHz machine.

We are also grateful for the ideas, contributions and collaborations from the following individuals and teams: Robson Araujo, Manasi Joshi, Andrey Khorlin, Alex Passos, Gautam Vasudevan, Jarek Wilkiewicz, Google CloudML team (especially Bhupesh Chandra, Polina Dudnik and Robbie Haertel), TensorFlow team, TFX team, Berkeley RISELab (in particular Dan Crankshaw and Joseph Gonzalez), and the open-source GitHub community.

References

- TensorFlow: An open-source software library for Machine Intelligence. https://www.tensorflow. org.
- [2] E. Breck, S. Cai, E. Nielsen, M. Salib, and D. Sculley. What's your ML test score? A rubric for ML production systems. In NIPS Workshop on Reliable Machine Learning in the Wild, 2016.
- [3] Apache Mahout: Scalable machine learning and data mining. https://mahout.apache.org.
- [4] scikit-learn: Machine Learning in Python. http://scikit-learn.org/stable.
- [5] Apache Spark's machine learning library (MLlib). https://spark.apache.org/docs/1.1.0/mllibguide.html.
- [6] Weka 3: Data Mining Software in Java. http://www.cs.waikato.ac.nz/ml/weka.
- [7] D. Crankshaw, X. Wang, G. Zhou, M. J. Franklin, J. E. Gonzalez, and I. Stoica. Clipper: A Low-Latency Online Prediction Serving System. In 14th USENIX Symposium on Networked Systems Design and Implementation (NSDI), 2017.
- [8] D. Agarwal, B. Long, J. Traupman, D. Xin, and L. Zhang. LASER: A Scalable Response Prediction Platform for Online Advertising. In 7th ACM International Conference on Web Search and Data Mining, 2014.
- [9] D. Crankshaw, P. Bailis, J. E. Gonzalez, H. Li, Z. Zhang, M. J. Franklin, A. Ghodsi, and M. I. Jordan. The Missing Piece in Complex Analytics: Low Latency, Scalable Model Management and Serving with Velox. In 7th Biennial Conference on Innovative Data Systems Research, 2015.
- [10] nginx [engine x]. http://nginx.org/en.
- [11] V. S. Pai, P. Druschel, and W. Zwaenepoel. Flash: An efficient and portable Web server. In *USENIX Annual Technical Conference*, 1999.
- [12] D. C. Schmidt. Pattern languages of program design, chapter Reactor: An Object Behavioral Pattern for Concurrent Event Demultiplexing and Event Handler Dispatching, pages 529–545. 1995.
- [13] M. Welsh, D. E. Culler, and E. A. Brewer. SEDA: An Architecture for Well-Conditioned, Scalable Internet Services. In 18th Symposium on Operating Systems Principles, 2001.
- [14] N. P. Jouppi et al. In-Datacenter Performance Analysis of a Tensor Processing Unit. In 44th International Symposium on Computer Architecture (ISCA), 2017.
- [15] D. Baylor, E. Breck, H.-T. Cheng, N. Fiedel, C. Y. Foo, Z. Haque, S. Haykal, M. Ispir, V. Jain, L. Koc, C. Y. Koo, L. Lew, C. Mewald, A. Modi, N. Polyzotis, S. Ramesh, S. Roy, S. Whang, M. Wicke, J. Wilkiewicz, X. Zhang, and M. Zinkevich. The Anatomy of a Production-Scale Continuously-Training Machine Learning Platform. In 23rd SIGKDD Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining, 2017.
- [16] Read-copy-update. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Read-copy-update.
- [17] M. Zinkevich. Rules of Machine Learning: Best Practices for ML Engineering. http://martin. zinkevich.org/rules_of_ml/rules_of_ml.pdf.
- [18] TensorFlow Batching Ops. https://github.com/tensorflow/tensorflow/tree/master/tensorflow/ contrib/batching/ops.

- [19] G. Neubig, Y. Goldberg, and C. Dyer. On-the-fly Operation Batching in Dynamic Computation Graphs. https://arxiv.org/pdf/1705.07860.pdf.
- [20] J. C. Corbett, J. Dean, M. Epstein, A. Fikes, C. Frost, J. Furman, S. Ghemawat, A. Gubarev, C. Heiser, P. Hochschild, W. Hsieh, S. Kanthak, E. Kogan, H. Li, A. Lloyd, S. Melnik, D. Mwaura, D. Nagle, S. Quinlan, R. Rao, L. Rolig, Y. Saito, M. Szymaniak, C. Taylor, R. Wang, and D. Woodford. Spanner: Google's Globally-Distributed Database. In *10th USENIX Symposium on Operating Systems Design and Implementation*, 2012.
- [21] J. Dean. Achieving Rapid Response Times in Large Online Services, 2012. http://research. google.com/people/jeff/latency.html.
- [22] How Zendesk Serves TensorFlow Models in Production. https://medium.com/zendeskengineering/how-zendesk-serves-tensorflow-models-in-production-751ee22f0f4b.
- [23] Distributed TensorFlow Assembly On Apache Hadoop YARN. https://hortonworks.com/ blog/distributed-tensorflow-assembly-hadoop-yarn.