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Kafka

The Definitive Guide

REAL-TIME DATA AND STREAM PROCESSING AT SCALE

Neha Narkhede,
Gwen Shapira & Todd Palino

Kafka: The Definitive Guide

Neha Narkhede, Gwen Shapira, and Todd Palino

Beijing • Boston • Farnham • Sebastopol • Tokyo

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Kafka: The Definitive Guide

by Neha Narkhede , Gwen Shapira , and Todd Palino

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Constant width

Used for program listings, as well as within paragraphs to refer to program elements such as variable or function names, databases, data types, environment variables, statements, and keywords.

Constant width bold

Shows commands or other text that should be typed literally by the user.

Constant width italic

Shows text that should be replaced with user-supplied values or by values determined by context.



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Acknowledgments

Meet Kafka

The enterprise is powered by data. We take information in, analyze it, manipulate it, and create more as output. Every application creates data, whether it is log messages, metrics, user activity, outgoing messages, or something else. Every byte of data has a story to tell, something of import that will inform the next thing to be done. In order to know what that is, we need to get the data from where it is created to where it can be analyzed. We then need to get the results back to where they can be executed on.

The faster we can do this, the more agile and responsive our organizations can be. The less effort we spend on moving data around, the more we can focus on the core business at hand. This is why the pipeline is a critical component in the data-driven enterprise. How we move the data becomes nearly as important as the data itself.

Any time scientists disagree, it's because we have insufficient data. Then we can agree on what kind of data to get; we get the data; and the data solves the problem. Either I'm right, or you're right, or we're both wrong. And we move on.

—Neil deGrasse Tyson

Publish / Subscribe Messaging

Before discussing the specifics of Apache Kafka, it is important for us to understand the concept of publish-subscribe messaging and why it is important. Publish-subscribe messaging is a pattern that is characterized by the sender (publisher) of a piece of data (message) not specifically directing it to a receiver. Instead, the publisher classifies the message somehow, and that receiver (subscriber) subscribes to receive certain classes of messages. Pub/sub systems often have a broker, a central point where messages are published, to facilitate this.

How It Starts

Many use cases for publish-subscribe start out the same way: with a simple message queue or inter-process communication channel. For example, you write an application that needs to send monitoring information somewhere, so you write in a direct connection from your application to an app that displays your metrics on a dashboard, and push metrics over that connection, as seen in Figure 1-1.

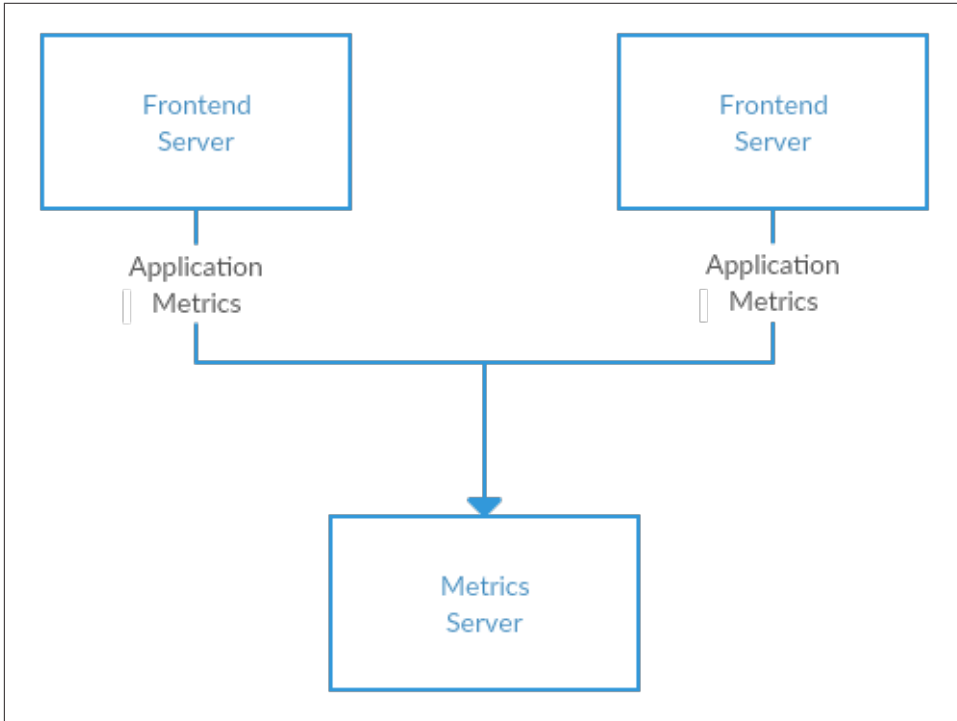


Figure 1-1. A single, direct metrics publisher

Before long, you decide you would like to analyze your metrics over a longer term, and that doesn't work well in the dashboard. You start a new service that can receive metrics, store them, and analyze them. In order to support this, you modify your application to write metrics to both systems. By now you have three more applications that are generating metrics, and they all make the same connections to these two services. Your coworker thinks it would be a good idea to do active polling of the services for alerting as well, so you add a server on each of the applications to provide metrics on request. After a while, you have more applications that are using those servers to get individual metrics and use them for various purposes. This architecture can look much like Figure 1-2, with connections that are even harder to trace.

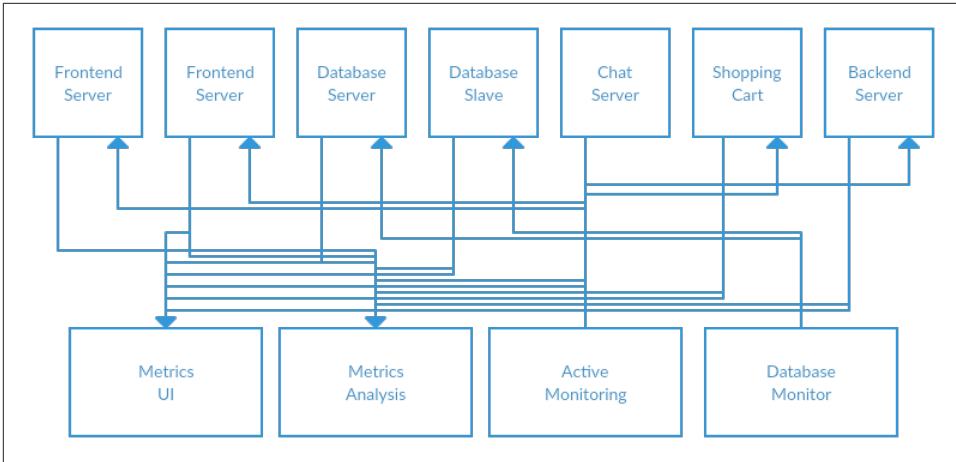


Figure 1-2. Many metrics publishers, using direct connections

The technical debt built up here is obvious, and you decide to pay some of it back. You set up a single application that receives metrics from all the applications out there, and provides a server to query those metrics for any system that needs them. This reduces the complexity of the architecture to something similar to Figure 1-3. Congratulations, you have built a publish-subscribe messaging system!

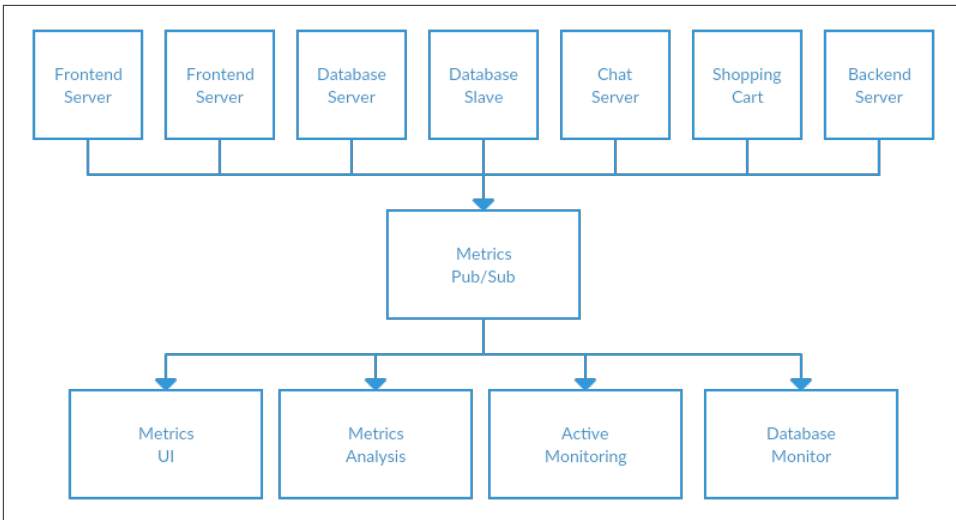


Figure 1-3. A metrics publish/subscribe system

Individual Queue Systems

At the same time that you have been waging this war with metrics, one of your coworkers has been doing similar work with log messages. Another has been working on tracking user behavior on the front-end website and providing that information to developers who are working on machine learning, as well as creating some reports for management. You have all followed a similar path of building out systems that decouple the publishers of the information from the subscribers to that information. Figure 1-4 shows such an infrastructure, with three separate pub/sub systems.

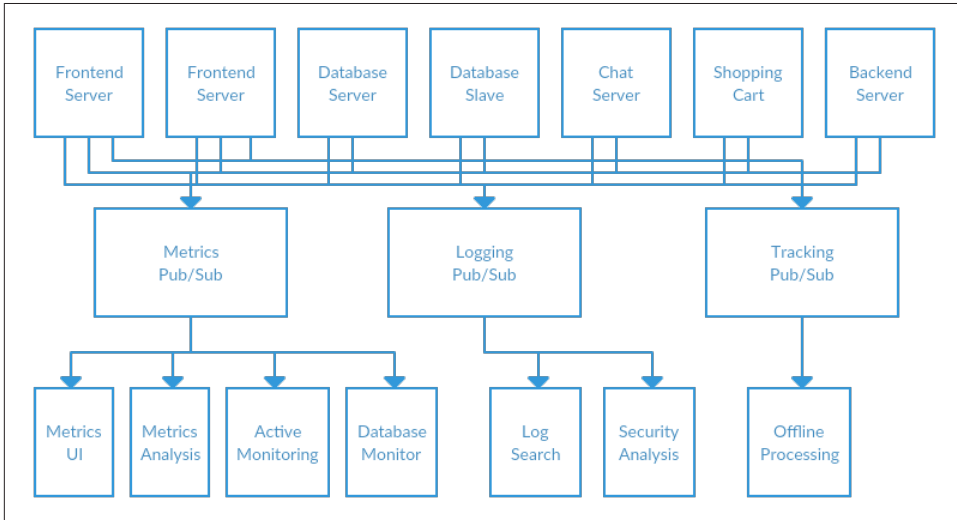


Figure 1-4. Multiple publish/subscribe systems

This is certainly a lot better than utilizing point to point connections (as in Figure 1-2), but there is a lot of duplication. Your company is maintaining multiple systems for queuing data, all of which have their own individual bugs and limitations. You also know that there will be more use cases for messaging coming soon. What you would like to have is a single centralized system that allows for publishing of generic types of data, and that will grow as your business grows.

Enter Kafka

Apache Kafka is a publish/subscribe messaging system designed to solve this problem. It is often described as a “distributed commit log”. A filesystem or database commit log is designed to provide a durable record of all transactions so that they can be replayed to consistently build the state of a system. Similarly, data within Kafka is stored durably, in order, and can be read deterministically. In addition, the data can

be distributed within the system to provide additional protections against failures, as well as significant opportunities for scaling performance.

Messages and Batches

The unit of data within Kafka is called a *message*. If you are approaching Kafka from a database background, you can think of this as similar to a *row* or a *record*. A message is simply an array of bytes, as far as Kafka is concerned, so the data contained within it does not have a specific format or meaning to Kafka. Messages can have an optional bit of metadata which is referred to as a *key*. The key is also a byte array, and as with the message, has no specific meaning to Kafka. Keys are used when messages are to be written to partitions in a more controlled manner. The simplest such scheme is to treat partitions as a hash ring, and assure that messages with the same key are always written to the same partition. Usage of keys is discussed more thoroughly in [Chapter 3](#).

For efficiency, messages are written into Kafka in batches. A *batch* is just a collection of messages, all of which are being produced to the same topic and partition. An individual round trip across the network for each message would result in excessive overhead, and collecting messages together into a batch reduces this. This, of course, presents a tradeoff between latency and throughput: the larger the batches, the more messages that can be handled per unit of time, but the longer it takes an individual message to propagate. Batches are also typically compressed, which provides for more efficient data transfer and storage at the cost of some processing power.

Schemas

While messages are opaque byte arrays to Kafka itself, it is recommended that additional structure be imposed on the message content so that it can be easily understood. There are many options available for message *schema*, depending on your application's individual needs. Simplistic systems, such as Javascript Object Notation (JSON) and Extensible Markup Language (XML), are easy to use and human readable. However they lack features such as robust type handling and compatibility between schema versions. Many Kafka developers favor the use of Apache Avro, which is a serialization framework originally developed for Hadoop. Avro provides a compact serialization format, schemas that are separate from the message payloads and that do not require generated code when they change, as well as strong data typing and schema evolution, with both backwards and forwards compatibility.

A consistent data format is important in Kafka, as it allows writing and reading messages to be decoupled. When these tasks are tightly coupled, applications which subscribe to messages must be updated to handle the new data format, in parallel with the old format. Only then can the applications that publish the messages be updated to utilize the new format. New applications that wish to use data must be coupled

with the publishers, leading to a high-touch process for developers. By using well-defined schemas, and storing them in a common repository, the messages in Kafka can be understood without coordination. Schemas and serialization are covered in more detail in [Chapter 3](#).

Topics and Partitions

Messages in Kafka are categorized into *topics*. The closest analogy for a topic is a database table, or a folder in a filesystem. Topics are additionally broken down into a number of *partitions*. Going back to the “commit log” description, a partition is a single log. Messages are written to it in an append-only fashion, and are read in order from beginning to end. Note that as a topic generally has multiple partitions, there is no guarantee of time-ordering of messages across the entire topic, just within a single partition. Figure 1-5 shows a topic with 4 partitions, with writes being appended to the end of each one. Partitions are also the way that Kafka provides redundancy and scalability. Each partition can be hosted on a different server, which means that a single topic can be scaled horizontally across multiple servers to provide for performance far beyond the ability of a single server.

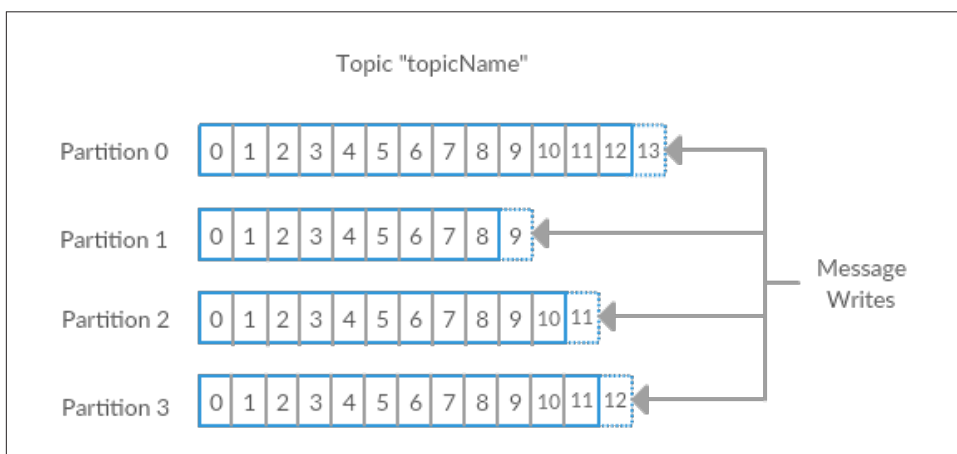


Figure 1-5. Representation of a topic with multiple partitions

The term *stream* is often used when discussing data within systems like Kafka. Most often, a stream is considered to be a single topic of data, regardless of the number of partitions. This represents a single stream of data moving from the producers to the consumers. This way of referring to messages is most common when discussing stream processing, which is when frameworks, some of which are Kafka Streams, Apache Samza, and Storm, operate on the messages in real time. This method of operation can be compared to the way offline frameworks, namely Hadoop, are designed to work on bulk data at a later time. An overview of stream processing is provided in [Chapter 10](#).

Producers and Consumers

Kafka clients are users of the system, and there are two basic types: producers and consumers.

Producers create new messages. In other publish/subscribe systems, these may be called *publishers* or *writers*. In general, a message will be produced to a specific topic. By default, the producer does not care what partition a specific message is written to and will balance messages over all partitions of a topic evenly. In some cases, the producer will direct messages to specific partitions. This is typically done using the message key and a partitioner that will generate a hash of the key and map it to a specific partition. This assures that all messages produced with a given key will get written to the same partition. The producer could also use a custom partitioner that follows other business rules for mapping messages to partitions. Producers are covered in more detail in [Chapter 3](#).

Consumers read messages. In other publish/subscribe systems, these clients may be called *subscribers* or *readers*. The consumer subscribes to one or more topics and reads the messages in the order they were produced. The consumer keeps track of which messages it has already consumed by keeping track of the *offset* of messages. The offset is another bit of metadata, an integer value that continually increases, that Kafka adds to each message as it is produced. Each message within a given partition has a unique offset. By storing the offset of the last consumed message for each partition, either in Zookeeper or in Kafka itself, a consumer can stop and restart without losing its place.

Consumers work as part of a *consumer group*. This is one or more consumers that work together to consume a topic. The group assures that each partition is only consumed by one member. In Figure 1-6, there are three consumers in a single group consuming a topic. Two of the consumers are working from one partition each, while the third consumer is working from two partitions. The mapping of a consumer to a partition is often called *ownership* of the partition by the consumer.

In this way, consumers can horizontally scale to consume topics with a large number of messages. Additionally, if a single consumer fails, the remaining members of the group will rebalance the partitions being consumed to take over for the missing member. Consumers and consumer groups are discussed in more detail in [Chapter 4](#).

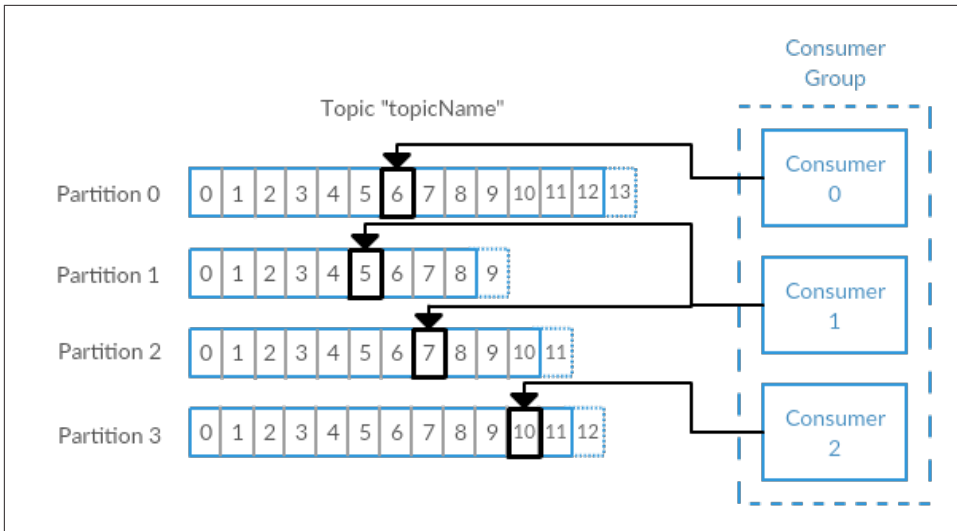


Figure 1-6. A consumer group reading from a topic

Brokers and Clusters

A single Kafka server is called a *broker*. The broker receives messages from producers, assigns offsets to them, and commits the messages to storage on disk. It also services consumers, responding to fetch requests for partitions and responding with the messages that have been committed to disk. Depending on the specific hardware and its performance characteristics, a single broker can easily handle thousands of partitions and millions of messages per second.

Kafka brokers are designed to operate as part of a *cluster*. Within a cluster of brokers, one will also function as the cluster *controller* (elected automatically from the live members of the cluster). The controller is responsible for administrative operations, including assigning partitions to brokers and monitoring for broker failures. A partition is owned by a single broker in the cluster, and that broker is called the *leader* for the partition. A partition may be assigned to multiple brokers, which will result in the partition being replicated (as in Figure 1-7). This provides redundancy of messages in the partition, such that another broker can take over leadership if there is a broker failure. However, all consumers and producers operating on that partition must connect to the leader. Cluster operations, including partition replication, are covered in detail in [Chapter 6](#).

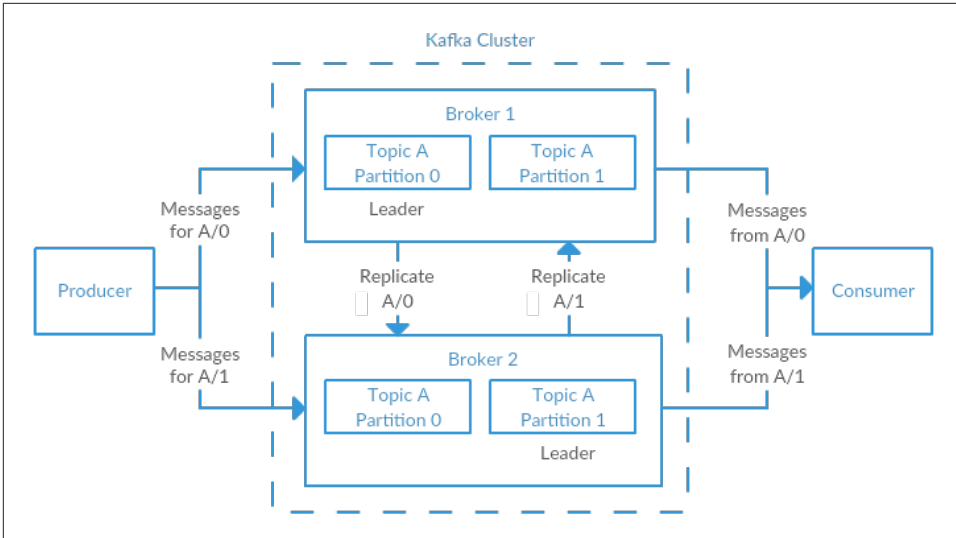


Figure 1-7. Replication of partitions in a cluster

A key feature of Apache Kafka is that of *retention*, or the durable storage of messages for some period of time. Kafka brokers are configured with a default retention setting for topics, either retaining messages for some period of time (e.g. 7 days) or until the topic reaches a certain size in bytes (e.g. 1 gigabyte). Once these limits are reached, messages are expired and deleted so that the retention configuration is a minimum amount of data available at any time. Individual topics can also be configured with their own retention settings, so messages can be stored for only as long as they are useful. For example, a tracking topic may be retained for several days, while application metrics may be retained for only a few hours. Topics may also be configured as *log compacted*, which means that Kafka will retain only the last message produced with a specific key. This can be useful for changelog-type data, where only the last update is interesting.

Multiple Clusters

As Kafka deployments grow, it is often advantageous to have multiple clusters. There are several reasons why this can be useful:

- Segregation of types of data
- Isolation for security requirements
- Multiple datacenters (disaster recovery)

When working with multiple datacenters, in particular, it is usually required that messages be copied between them. In this way, online applications can have access to

user activity at both sites. Or monitoring data can be collected from many sites into a single central location where the analysis and alerting systems are hosted. The replication mechanisms within the Kafka clusters are designed only to work within a single cluster, not between multiple clusters.

The Kafka project includes a tool called *Mirror Maker* that is used for this purpose. At its core, Mirror Maker is simply a Kafka consumer and producer, linked together with a queue. Messages are consumed from one Kafka cluster and produced to another. Figure 1-8 shows an example of an architecture that uses Mirror Maker, aggregating messages from two “Local” clusters into an “Aggregate” cluster, and then copying that cluster to other datacenters. The simple nature of the application belies its power in creating sophisticated data pipelines, however. All of these cases will be detailed further in [Chapter 7](#).

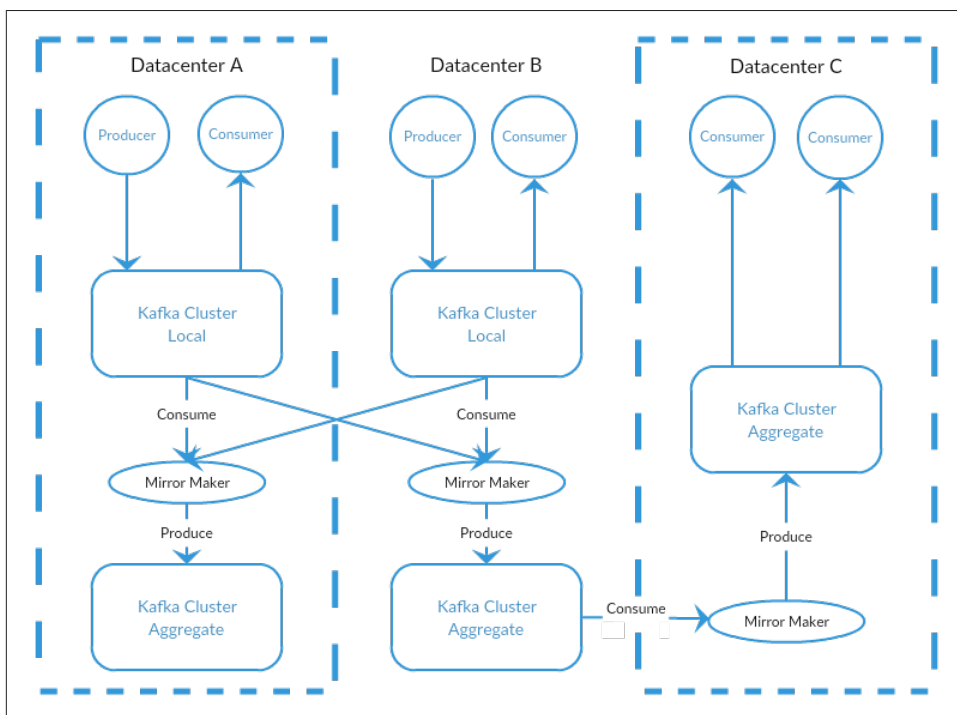


Figure 1-8. Multiple datacenter architecture

Why Kafka?

There are many choices for publish/subscribe messaging systems, so what makes Apache Kafka a good choice?

Multiple Producers

Kafka is able to seamlessly handle multiple producers, whether those clients are using many topics or the same topic. This makes the system ideal for aggregating data from many front end systems and providing the data in a consistent format. For example, a site that serves content to users via a number of microservices can have a single topic for page views which all services can write to using a common format. Consumer applications can then received one unified view of page views for the site without having to coordinate the multiple producer streams.

Multiple Consumers

In addition to multiple producers, Kafka is designed for multiple consumers to read any single stream of messages without interfering with each other. This is in opposition to many queuing systems where once a message is consumed by one client, it is not available to any other client. At the same time, multiple Kafka consumers can choose to operate as part of a group and share a stream, assuring that the entire group processes a given message only once.

Disk-based Retention

Not only can Kafka handle multiple consumers, but durable message retention means that consumers do not always need to work in real time. Messages are committed to disk, and will be stored with configurable retention rules. These options can be selected on a per-topic basis, allowing for different streams of messages to have different amounts of retention depending on what the consumer needs are. Durable retention means that if a consumer falls behind, either due to slow processing or a burst in traffic, there is no danger of losing data. It also means that maintenance can be performed on consumers, taking applications offline for a short period of time, with no concern about messages backing up on the producer or getting lost. The consumers can just resume processing where they stopped.

Scalable

Flexible scalability has been designed into Kafka from the start, allowing for the ability to easily handle any amount of data. Users can start with a single broker as a proof of concept, expand to a small development cluster of 3 brokers, and move into production with a larger cluster of tens, or even hundreds, of brokers that grows over time as the data scales up. Expansions can be performed while the cluster is online, with no impact to the availability of the system as a whole. This also means that a cluster of multiple brokers can handle the failure of an individual broker and continue servicing clients. Clusters that need to tolerate more simultaneous failures can be configured with higher replication factors. Replication is discussed in more detail in [Chapter 6](#).

High Performance

All of these features come together to make Apache Kafka a publish/subscribe messaging system with excellent performance characteristics under high load. Producers, consumers, and brokers can all be scaled out to handle very large message streams with ease. This can be done while still providing sub-second message latency from producing a message to availability to consumers.

The Data Ecosystem

Many applications participate in the environments we build for data processing. We have defined inputs, applications that create data or otherwise introduce it to the system. We have defined outputs, whether that is metrics, reports, or other data products. We create loops, with some components reading data from the system, performing operations on it, and then introducing it back into the data infrastructure to be used elsewhere. This is done for numerous types of data, with each having unique qualities of content, size, and usage.

Apache Kafka provides the circulatory system for the data ecosystem, as in Figure 1-9. It carries messages between the various members of the infrastructure, providing a consistent interface for all clients. When coupled with a system to provide message schemas, producers and consumers no longer require a tight coupling, or direct connections of any sort. Components can be added and removed as business cases are created and dissolved, while producers do not need to be concerned about who is using the data, or how many consuming applications there are.

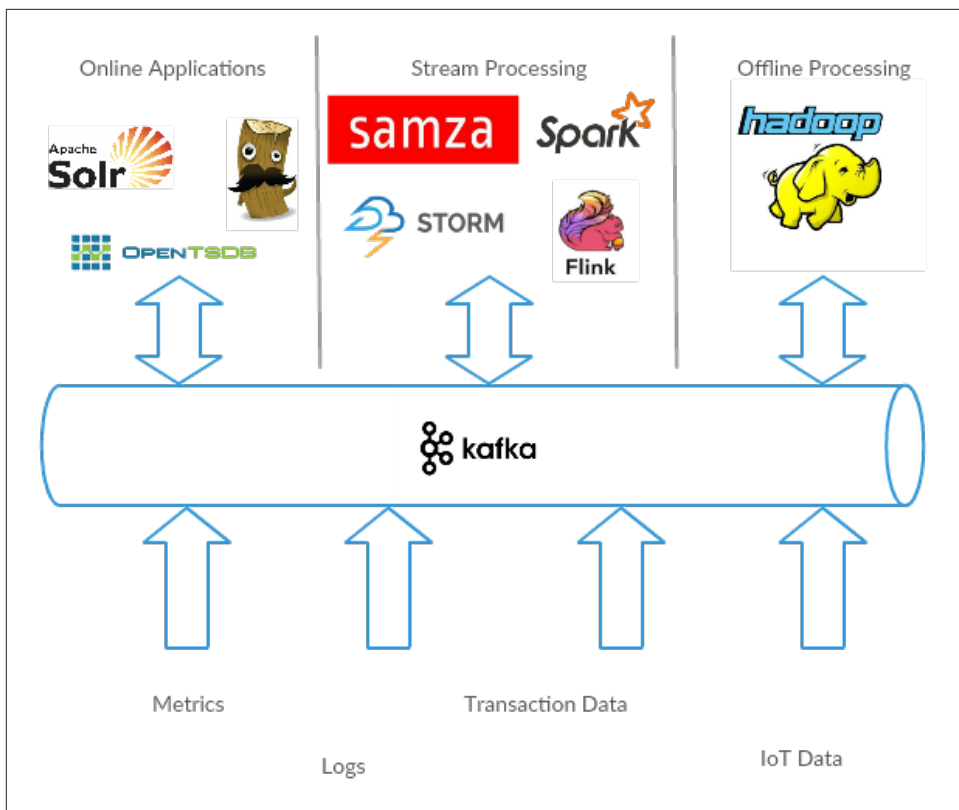


Figure 1-9. A Big data ecosystem

Use Cases

Activity Tracking

The original use case for Kafka is that of user activity tracking. A website's users interact with front end applications, which generate messages regarding actions the user is taking. This can be passive information, such as page views and click tracking, or it can be more complex actions, such as adding information to their user profile. The messages are published to one or more topics, which are then consumed by applications on the back end. In doing so, we generate reports, feed machine learning systems, and update search results, among myriad other possible uses.

Messaging

Another basic use for Kafka is messaging. This is where applications need to send notifications (such as email messages) to users. Those components can produce messages without needing to be concerned about formatting or how the messages will

actually be sent. A common application can then read all the messages to be sent and perform the work of formatting (also known as decorating) the messages and selecting how to send them. By using a common component, not only is there no need to duplicate functionality in multiple applications, there is also the ability to do interesting transformations, such as aggregation of multiple messages into a single notification, that would not be otherwise possible.

Metrics and Logging

Kafka is also ideal for the collection of application and system metrics and logs. This is a use where the ability to have multiple producers of the same type of message shines. Applications publish metrics about their operation on a regular basis to a Kafka topic, and those metrics can be consumed by systems for monitoring and alerting. They can also be used in an offline system like Hadoop to perform longer term analysis, such as year over year growth projections. Log messages can be published in the same way, and can be routed to dedicated log search systems like Elasticsearch or security analysis applications. Kafka provides the added benefit that when the destination system needs to change (for example, it's time to update the log storage system), there is no need to alter the front end applications or the means of aggregation.

Commit Log

As Kafka is based on the concept of a commit log, utilizing Kafka in this way is a natural use. Database changes can be published to Kafka and applications can monitor this stream to receive live updates as they happen. This changelog stream can also be used for replicating database updates to a remote system, or for consolidating changes from multiple applications into a single database view. Durable retention is useful here for providing a buffer for the changelog, meaning it can be replayed in the event of a failure of the consuming applications. Alternately, log compacted topics can be used to provide longer retention by only retaining a single change per key.

Stream Processing

Another area that provides numerous types of applications is stream processing. This can be thought of as providing the same functionality that map/reduce processing does in Hadoop, but it operates on a data stream in real time, where Hadoop usually relies on aggregation of data over a longer time frame, either hours or days, and then performing batch processing on that data. Stream frameworks allow users to write small applications to operate on Kafka messages, performing tasks such as counting metrics, partitioning messages for efficient processing by other applications, or transforming messages using data from multiple sources. Stream processing is covered separate from other case studies in [Chapter 10](#).

The Origin Story

Kafka was born from necessity to solve the data pipeline problem at LinkedIn. It was designed to provide a high-performance messaging system which could handle many types of data, and provide for the availability of clean, structured data about user activity and system metrics in real time.

Data really powers everything that we do.

—Jeff Weiner, *CEO of LinkedIn*

LinkedIn's Problem

As described at the beginning of this chapter, LinkedIn had a system for collecting system and application metrics that used custom collectors and open source tools for storing and presenting the data internally. In addition to traditional metrics, such as CPU usage and application performance, there was a sophisticated request tracing feature that used the monitoring system and could provide introspection into how a single user request propagated through internal applications. The monitoring system had many faults, however. This included metric collection based on polling, large intervals between metrics, and no self-service capabilities. The system was high-touch, requiring human intervention for most simple tasks, and inconsistent, with differing metric names for the same measurement across different systems.

At the same time, there was a system created for collecting user activity tracking information. This was an HTTP service that front-end servers would connect to periodically and publish a batch of messages (in XML format). These batches were then moved to offline processing, which is where the files were parsed and collated. This system, as well, had many failings. The XML formatting was not consistent, and parsing it was computationally expensive. Changing the type of activity created required a significant amount of coordinated work between front-ends and offline processing. Even then, the system would be broken constantly with changing schemas. Tracking was built on hourly batching, so it could not be used in real-time for any purpose.

Monitoring and user activity tracking could not use the same back-end service. The monitoring service was too clunky, the data format was not oriented for activity tracking, and the polling model would not work. At the same time, the tracking service was too fragile to use for metrics, and the batch-oriented processing was not the right model for real-time monitoring and alerting. However, the data shared many traits, and correlation of the information (such as how specific types of user activity affected application performance) was highly desirable. A drop in specific types of user activity could indicate problems with the application that services it, but hours of delay in processing activity batches meant a slow response to these types of issues.

At first, existing off-the-shelf open source solutions were thoroughly investigated to find a new system that would provide real-time access to the data and scale out to handle the amount of message traffic needed. Prototype systems were set up with ActiveMQ, but at the time it could not handle the scale. It was also a fragile solution in the way LinkedIn needed to use it, hitting many bugs that would cause the brokers to pause. This would back up connections to clients and could interfere with the ability of the applications to serve requests to users. The decision was made to move forward with a custom infrastructure for the data pipeline.

The Birth of Kafka

The development team at LinkedIn was led by Jay Kreps, a principal software engineer who was previously responsible for the development and open source release of Voldemort, a distributed key-value storage system. The initial team also included Neha Narkhede and was quickly joined by Jun Rao. Together they set out to create a messaging system that would meet the needs of both systems and scale for the future. The primary goals were:

- Decouple the producers and consumers by using a push-pull model
- Provide persistence for message data within the messaging system to allow multiple consumers
- Optimize for high throughput of messages
- Allow for horizontal scaling of the system to grow as the data streams grow

The result was a publish/subscribe messaging system that had an interface typical of messaging systems, but a storage layer more like a log aggregation system. Combined with the adoption of Apache Avro for message serialization, this system was effective for handling both metrics and user activity tracking at a scale of billions of messages per day. Over time, LinkedIn's usage has grown to in excess of one trillion messages produced (as of August 2015), and over a petabyte of data consumed daily.

Open Source

Kafka was released as an open source project on GitHub in late 2010. As it started to gain attention in the open source community, it was proposed and accepted as an Apache Software Foundation incubator project in July of 2011. Apache Kafka graduated from the incubator in October of 2012. Since that time, it has continued to have active development from LinkedIn, as well as gathering a robust community of contributors and committers outside of LinkedIn. As a result, Kafka is now used in some of the largest data pipelines at many organizations. In the fall of 2014, Jay Kreps, Neha Narkhede, and Jun Rao left LinkedIn to found Confluent, a company centered around providing development, enterprise support, and training for Apache Kafka. The two companies, along with ever-growing contributions from others in the open

source community, continue to develop and maintain Kafka, making it the first choice for big data pipelines.

The Name

A frequent question about the history of Apache Kafka is how the name was selected, and what bearing it has on the application itself. On this topic, Jay Kreps offered the following insight:

I thought that since Kafka was a system optimized for writing using a writer's name would make sense. I had taken a lot of lit classes in college and liked Franz Kafka. Plus the name sounded cool for an open source project.

So basically there is not much of a relationship.

—Jay Kreps

Getting Started With Kafka

Now that we know what Kafka is, and have a common terminology to work with, we can move forwards with getting started with setting up Kafka and building your data pipeline. In the next chapter, we will explore Kafka installation and configuration. We will also cover selecting the right hardware to run Kafka on, and some things to keep in mind when moving to production operations.

Installing Kafka

This chapter describes how to get started running the Apache Kafka broker, including how to set up Apache Zookeeper, which is used by Kafka for storing metadata for the brokers. The chapter will also cover the basic configuration options that should be reviewed for a Kafka deployment, as well as criteria for selecting the correct hardware to run the brokers on. Finally, we cover how to install multiple Kafka brokers together as part of a single cluster, and some specific concerns when shifting to using Kafka in a production environment.

First Things First

Choosing an Operating System

Apache Kafka is a Java application, and is run under many operating systems. This includes Windows, OS X, Linux, and others. The installation steps in this chapter will be focused on setting up and using Kafka in a Linux environment, as this is the most common OS on which it is installed. This is also the recommended OS for deploying Kafka for general use. For information on installing Kafka on Windows and OS X, please refer to [Appendix A](#).

Installing Java

Prior to installing either Zookeeper or Kafka, you will need a Java environment set up and functioning. This should be a Java 8 version, and can be the version provided by your operating system or one directly downloaded from java.com. While Zookeeper and Kafka will work with a runtime edition of Java, it may be more convenient when developing tools and applications to have the full Java Development Kit. As such, the rest of the installation steps will assume you have installed JDK version 8, update 51 in `/usr/java/jdk1.8.0_51`.

Installing Zookeeper

Apache Kafka uses Zookeeper to store metadata information about the Kafka cluster, as well as consumer client details. While it is possible to run a Zookeeper server using scripts contained within the Kafka distribution, it is trivial to install a full version of Zookeeper from the distribution.

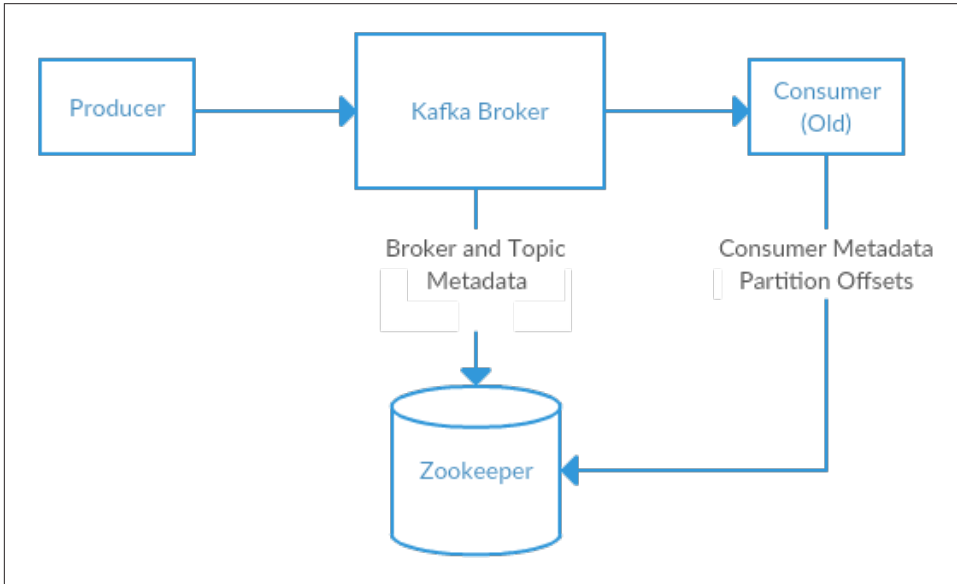


Figure 2-1. Kafka and Zookeeper

Kafka has been tested extensively with the stable 3.4.6 release of Zookeeper. Download that version of Zookeeper from [apache.org at http://mirror.cc.columbia.edu/pub/software/apache/zookeeper/zookeeper-3.4.6/zookeeper-3.4.6.tar.gz](http://mirror.cc.columbia.edu/pub/software/apache/zookeeper/zookeeper-3.4.6/zookeeper-3.4.6.tar.gz).

Standalone Server

The following example installs Zookeeper with a basic configuration in `/usr/local/zookeeper`, storing its data in `/var/lib/zookeeper`

```
# tar -xzf zookeeper-3.4.6.tar.gz
# mv zookeeper-3.4.6 /usr/local/zookeeper
# mkdir -p /var/lib/zookeeper
# cat > /usr/local/zookeeper/conf/zoo.cfg << EOF
> tickTime=2000
> dataDir=/var/lib/zookeeper
> clientPort=2181
> EOF
# export JAVA_HOME=/usr/java/jdk1.8.0_51
# /usr/local/zookeeper/bin/zkServer.sh start
JMX enabled by default
```

```
Using config: /usr/local/zookeeper/bin/./conf/zoo.cfg
Starting zookeeper ... STARTED
#
```

You can now validate that Zookeeper is running correctly in standalone mode by connecting to the client port and sending the four letter command 'srvr':

```
# telnet localhost 2181
Trying ::1...
Connected to localhost.
Escape character is '^]'.
srvr
Zookeeper version: 3.4.6-1569965, built on 02/20/2014 09:09 GMT
Latency min/avg/max: 0/0/0
Received: 1
Sent: 0
Connections: 1
Outstanding: 0
Zxid: 0x0
Mode: standalone
Node count: 4
Connection closed by foreign host.
#
```

Zookeeper Ensemble

A Zookeeper cluster is called an “ensemble”. Due to the consensus protocol used, it is recommended that ensembles contain an odd number of servers (e.g. 3, 5, etc.) as a majority of ensemble members (a quorum) must be working for Zookeeper to respond to requests. This means in a 3-node ensemble, you can run with one node missing. With a 5-node ensemble, you can run with two nodes missing.

Sizing Your Zookeeper Ensemble

Consider running Zookeeper in a 5-node ensemble. In order to make configuration changes to the ensemble, including swapping a node, you will need to reload nodes one at a time. If your ensemble cannot tolerate more than one node being down, doing maintenance work introduces additional risk. It is also not recommended to run a Zookeeper ensemble larger than 7 nodes, as performance can start to degrade due to the nature of the consensus protocol.

To configure Zookeeper servers in an ensemble, they must have a common configuration that lists all servers, and each server needs a `myid` file in the data directory which specifies the ID number of the server. If the hostnames of the servers in the ensemble are `zoo1.example.com`, `zoo2.example.com`, and `zoo3.example.com`, the configuration file may be:

```
tickTime=2000
dataDir=/var/lib/zookeeper
clientPort=2181
initLimit=20
syncLimit=5
server.1=zoo1.example.com:2888:3888
server.2=zoo2.example.com:2888:3888
server.3=zoo3.example.com:2888:3888
```

In this configuration, the `initLimit` is the amount of time to allow for followers to connect with a leader. The `syncLimit` value limits how far out of sync followers can be with the leader. Both values are a number of `tickTime` units, which makes the `initLimit` $20 * 2000$ ms, or 40 seconds. The configuration also lists each server in the ensemble. The servers are specified in the format `server.X=hostname:peerPort:leaderPort`, with the following parameters:

- `X` is the ID number of the server. This must be an integer, but it does not need to be zero-based or sequential
- `hostname` is the hostname or IP address of the server
- `peerPort` is the TCP port over which servers in the ensemble communicate with each other
- `leaderPort` is the TCP port over which leader election is performed

Clients only need to be able to connect to the ensemble over the `clientPort`, but the members of the ensemble must be able to communicate with each other over all three ports.

In addition to the shared configuration file, each server must have a file in the `dataDir` directory with the name `myid`. This file must contain the ID number of the server, which must match the configuration file. Once these steps are complete, the servers will start up and communicate with each other in an ensemble.

Installing a Kafka Broker

Once Java and Zookeeper are configured, you are ready to install Apache Kafka. The current release of Kafka can be downloaded at <http://kafka.apache.org/downloads.html>. At press time, that version is 0.9.0.1 running under Scala version 2.11.0.

The following example installs Kafka in `/usr/local/kafka`, configured to use the Zookeeper server started previously and to store the message log segments stored in `/tmp/kafka-logs`:

```
# tar -zxf kafka_2.11-0.9.0.1.tgz
# mv kafka_2.11-0.9.0.1 /usr/local/kafka
# mkdir /tmp/kafka-logs
```

```
# export JAVA_HOME=/usr/java/jdk1.8.0_51
# /usr/local/kafka/bin/kafka-server-start.sh -daemon
/usr/local/kafka/config/server.properties
#
```

Once the Kafka broker is started, we can verify it is working by performing some simple operations against the cluster creating a test topic, producing some messages, and consuming the same messages:

Create and verify a topic:

```
# /usr/local/kafka/bin/kafka-topics.sh --create --zookeeper localhost:2181
--replication-factor 1 --partitions 1 --topic test
Created topic "test".
# /usr/local/kafka/bin/kafka-topics.sh --zookeeper localhost:2181
--describe --topic test
Topic:test    PartitionCount:1    ReplicationFactor:1    Configs:
    Topic: test    Partition: 0    Leader: 0    Replicas: 0    Isr: 0
#
```

Produce messages to a test topic:

```
# /usr/local/kafka/bin/kafka-console-producer.sh --broker-list
localhost:9092 --topic test
Test Message 1
Test Message 2
^D
#
```

Consume messages from a test topic:

```
# /usr/local/kafka/bin/kafka-console-consumer.sh --zookeeper
localhost:2181 --topic test --from-beginning
Test Message 1
Test Message 2
^C
Consumed 2 messages
#
```

Broker Configuration

The example configuration that is provided with the Kafka distribution is sufficient to run a standalone server as a proof of concept, but it will not be sufficient for most installations. There are numerous configuration options for Kafka which control all aspects of setup and tuning. Many options can be left to the default settings, as they deal with tuning aspects of the Kafka broker that will not be applicable until you have a specific use case to work with and a requirement to adjust them.

General Broker

There are several broker configurations that should be reviewed when deploying Kafka for any environment other than a standalone broker on a single server. These parameters deal with the basic configuration of the broker, and most of them must be changed to run properly in a cluster with other brokers.

broker.id

Every Kafka broker must have an integer identifier, which is set using the `broker.id` configuration. By default, this integer is set to 0, but it can be any value. The most important thing is that it must be unique within a single Kafka cluster. The selection of this number is arbitrary, and it can be moved between brokers if necessary for maintenance tasks. A good guideline is to set this value to something intrinsic to the host so that when performing maintenance it is not onerous to map broker ID numbers to hosts. For example, if your hostnames contain a unique number (such as `host1.example.com`, `host2.example.com`, etc.), that is a good choice for the `broker.id` value.

port

The example configuration file starts Kafka with a listener on TCP port 9092. This can be set to any available port by changing the `port` configuration parameter. Keep in mind that if a port lower than 1024 is chosen, Kafka must be started as root. Running Kafka as root is not a recommended configuration.

zookeeper.connect

The location of the Zookeeper used for storing the broker metadata is set using the `zookeeper.connect` configuration parameter. The example configuration uses a Zookeeper running on port 2181 on the local host, which is specified as `localhost:2181`. The format for this parameter is a semicolon separated list of `hostname:port/path` strings, where the parts are:

- `hostname` is the hostname or IP address of the Zookeeper server
- `port` is the client port number for the server
- `/path` is an optional Zookeeper path to use as a chroot environment for the Kafka cluster. If it is omitted, the root path is used.

If a chroot path is specified and does not exist, it will be created by the broker when it starts up.

Why Use a Chroot Path

It is generally considered to be a good practice to use a chroot path for the Kafka cluster. This allows the Zookeeper ensemble to be shared with other applications, including other Kafka clusters, without a conflict. It is also best to specify multiple Zookeeper servers (which are all part of the same ensemble) in this configuration separated by semicolons. This allows the Kafka broker to connect to another member of the Zookeeper ensemble in the case of a server failure.

log.dirs

Kafka persists all messages to disk, and these log segments are stored in the directories specified in the `log.dirs` configuration. This is a comma separated list of paths on the local system. If more than one path is specified, the broker will store partitions on them in a “least used” fashion with one partition’s log segments stored within the same path. Note that the broker will place a new partition in the path that has the least number of partitions currently stored in it, not the least amount of disk space used.

num.recovery.threads.per.data.dir

Kafka uses a configurable pool of threads for handling log segments in three situations:

- When starting normally, to open each partition’s log segments
- When starting after a failure, to check and truncate each partition’s log segments
- When shutting down, to cleanly close log segments

By default, only one thread per log directory is used. As these threads are only used during startup and shutdown, it is reasonable to set a larger number of threads in order to parallelize operations. Specifically, when recovering from an unclean shutdown this can mean the difference of several hours when restarting a broker with a large number of partitions! When setting this parameter, remember that the number configured is per log directory specified with `log.dirs`. This means that if `num.recovery.threads.per.data.dir` is set to 8, and there are 3 paths specified in `log.dirs`, this is a total of 24 threads.

auto.create.topics.enable

The default Kafka configuration specifies that the broker should automatically create a topic under the following circumstances

- When a producer starts writing messages to the topic
- When a consumer starts reading messages from the topic
- When any client requests metadata for the topic

In many situations, this can be undesirable behavior, especially as there is no way to validate the existence of a topic through the Kafka protocol without causing it to be created. If you are managing topic creation explicitly, whether manually or through a provisioning system, you can set the `auto.create.topics.enable` configuration to `false`.

Topic Defaults

The Kafka server configuration specifies many default configurations for topics that are created. Several of these parameters, including partition counts and message retention, can be set per-topic using the administrative tools (covered in [Chapter 9](#)). The defaults in the server configuration should be set to baseline values that are appropriate for the majority of the topics in the cluster.

Using Per-Topic Overrides

In previous versions of Kafka, it was possible to specify per-topic overrides for these configurations in the broker configuration using parameters named `log.retention.hours.per.topic`, `log.retention.bytes.per.topic`, and `log.segment.bytes.per.topic`. These parameters are no longer supported, and overrides must be specified using the administrative tools.

num.partitions

The `num.partitions` parameter determines how many partitions a new topic is created with, primarily when automatic topic creation is enabled (which is the default setting). This parameter defaults to 1 partition. Keep in mind that the number of partitions for a topic can only be increased, never decreased. This means that if a topic needs to have fewer partitions than `num.partitions`, care will need to be taken to manually create the topic (discussed in [Chapter 9](#)).

As described in [Chapter 1](#), partitions are the way a topic is scaled within a Kafka cluster, which makes it important to use partition counts that will balance the message load across the entire cluster as brokers are added. This does not mean that all topics

must have a partition count higher than the number of brokers so that they span all brokers, provided there are multiple topics (which will also be spread out over the brokers). However, in order to spread out the load for a topic with a high message volume, the topic will need to have a larger number of partitions.

log.retention.ms

The most common configuration for how long Kafka will retain messages is by time. The default is specified in the configuration file using the `log.retention.hours` parameter, and it is set to 168 hours, or one week. However, there are two other parameters allowed, `log.retention.minutes` and `log.retention.ms`. All three of these specify the same configuration, the amount of time after which messages may be deleted, but the recommended parameter to use is `log.retention.ms`. If more than one is specified, the smaller unit size will take precedence.

Retention By Time and Last Modified Times

Retention by time is performed by examining the last modified time (mtime) on each log segment file on disk. Under normal cluster operations, this is the time that the log segment was closed, and represents the timestamp of the last message in the file. However, when using administrative tools to move partitions between brokers, this time is not accurate. This will result in excess retention for these partitions. More information on this is provided in [Chapter 9](#) when discussing partition moves.

log.retention.bytes

Another way to expire messages is based on the total number of bytes of messages retained. This value is set using the `log.retention.bytes` parameter, and it is applied per-partition. This means that if you have a topic with 8 partitions, and `log.retention.bytes` is set to 1 gigabyte, the amount of data retained for the topic will be 8 gigabytes at most. Note that all retention is performed for an individual partition, not the topic. This means that should the number of partitions for a topic be expanded, the retention will increase as well if `log.retention.bytes` is used.

Configuring Retention By Size and Time

If you have specified a value for both `log.retention.bytes` and `log.retention.ms` (or another parameter for retention by time), messages may be removed when either criteria is met. For example, if `log.retention.ms` is set to 86400000 (1 day), and `log.retention.bytes` is set to 1000000000 (1 gigabyte), it is possible for messages that are less than 1 day old to get deleted if the total volume of messages over the course of the day is greater than 1 gigabyte. Conversely, if the volume is less than 1

gigabyte, messages can be deleted after 1 day even if the total size of the partition is less than 1 gigabyte.

log.segment.bytes

The log retention settings above operate on log segments, not individual messages. As messages are produced to the Kafka broker, they are appended to the current log segment for the partition. Once the log segment has reached the size specified by the `log.segment.bytes` parameter, which defaults to 1 gibibyte, the log segment is closed and a new one is opened. Once a log segment has been closed, it can be considered for expiration. A smaller size means that files must be closed and allocated more often, which reduces the overall efficiency of disk writes.

Adjusting the size of the log segments can be important if topics have a low produce rate. For example, if a topic receives only 100 megabytes per day of messages, and `log.segment.bytes` is set to the default, it will take 10 days to fill one segment. As messages cannot be expired until the log segment is closed, if `log.retention.ms` is set to 604800000 (1 week), there will actually be up to 17 days of messages retained until the closed log segment is expired. This is because once the log segment is closed with the current 10 days of messages, that log segment must be retained for 7 days before it can be expired based on the time policy (as the segment can not be removed until the last message in the segment can be expired).

Retrieving Offsets By Timestamp

The size of the log segments also affects the behavior of fetching offsets by timestamp. When requesting offsets for a partition at a specific timestamp, Kafka fulfills the request by looking for the log segment in the partition where the last modified time of the file is (and therefore closed) after the timestamp and the immediately previous segment was last modified before the timestamp. Kafka then returns the offset at the beginning of that log segment (which is also the filename). This means that smaller log segments will provide more accurate answers for offset requests by timestamp.

log.segment.ms

Another way to control when log segments are closed is by using the `log.segment.ms` parameter, which specifies the amount of time after which a log segment should be closed. As with the `log.retention.bytes` and `log.retention.ms` parameters, `log.segment.bytes` and `log.segment.ms` are not mutually exclusive properties. Kafka will close a log segment either when the size limit is reached, or when the time

limit is reached, whichever comes first. By default, there is no setting for `log.segment.ms`, which results in only closing log segments by size.

Disk Performance When Using Time-Based Segments

When using a time-based log segment limit, it is important to consider the impact on disk performance when multiple log segments are closed simultaneously. This can happen when there are many partitions which never reach the size limit for log segments, as the clock for the time limit will start when the broker starts and will always execute at the same time for these low-volume partitions.

`message.max.bytes`

The Kafka broker limits the maximum size of a message that can be produced, configured by the `message.max.bytes` parameter which defaults to 1000000, or 1 megabyte. A producer which tries to send a message larger than this will receive an error back from the broker and the message will not be accepted. As with all byte sizes specified on the broker, this configuration deals with compressed message size, which means that producers can send messages that are much larger than this value uncompressed, provided they compress down to under the configured `message.max.bytes` size.

There are noticeable performance impacts from increasing the allowable message size. Larger messages will mean that the broker threads that deal with processing network connections and requests will be working longer on each request. It also increases the size of disk writes, which will impact I/O throughput.

Coordinating Message Size Configurations

The message size configured on the Kafka broker must be coordinated with the `fetch.message.max.bytes` configuration on consumer clients. If this value is smaller than `message.max.bytes`, then consumers which encounter larger messages will fail to fetch those messages, resulting in a situation where the consumer gets stuck and cannot proceed. The same rule applies to the `replica.fetch.max.bytes` configuration on the brokers when configured in a cluster.

Hardware Selection

Selecting an appropriate hardware configuration for a Kafka broker can be more art than science. Kafka itself has no strict requirement on a specific hardware configuration, and will run without issue on any system. Once performance becomes a concern, however, there are several factors that must be considered that will contribute to

the overall performance: disk throughput and capacity, memory, networking, and CPU. Once you have determined which types of performance are the most critical for your environment, you will be able to select an optimized hardware configuration that fits within your budget.

Disk Throughput

The performance of producer clients will be most directly influenced by the throughput of the broker disk that is used for storing log segments. Kafka messages must be committed to local storage when they are produced, and most clients will wait until at least one broker has confirmed that messages have been committed before considering the send successful. This means that faster disk writes will equal lower produce latency.

The obvious decision when it comes to disk throughput is whether to use traditional spinning hard drives (HDD) or solid state disks (SSD). Solid state disks have drastically lower seek and access times and will provide the best performance. Spinning disks, on the other hand, are more economical and provide more capacity per unit. You can also improve the performance of spinning disks by using more of them in a broker, whether by having multiple data directories or by setting up the drives in a RAID configuration. Other factors, such as the specific drive technology (e.g. Serial Attached Storage or Serial ATA), as well as the quality of the drive controller, will affect throughput.

Disk Capacity

Capacity is the other side of the storage discussion. The amount of disk capacity that is needed is driven by how many messages need to be retained at any time. If the broker is expected to receive 1 terabyte of traffic each day, with 7 days of retention, then the broker will need a minimum of 7 terabytes of useable storage for log segments. You should also factor in at least 10% overhead for other files, in addition to any buffer that you wish to maintain for fluctuations in traffic or growth over time.

Storage capacity will be one of the factors to consider when sizing a Kafka cluster, and determining when to expand it. The total traffic for a cluster can be balanced across it by having multiple partitions per topic, and this will allow additional brokers to shore up the available capacity if the density on a single broker will not suffice. The decision on how much disk capacity is needed will also be informed by the replication strategy chosen for the cluster (which is discussed in more detail in [Chapter 6](#)).

Memory

Aside from disk performance, the amount of memory available to the broker is the primary factor in client performance. Where disk performance primarily affects producers of messages, the memory available mostly affects consumers. The normal

mode of operation for a Kafka consumer is reading from the end of the partitions, where it is caught up and lagging behind the producers very little, if at all. In this situation, the messages that the consumer is reading are optimally stored in the systems page cache, resulting in faster reads than if the broker must reread the messages from disk.

Kafka itself does not need very much heap memory configured for the Java Virtual Machine (JVM). Even a broker that is handling X messages per second and a data rate of X megabits per second can run with a 5 gigabyte heap. The rest of the system memory will be used by the page cache and will benefit Kafka. This is the main reason why it is not recommended to have Kafka colocated on a system with any other significant application, as this allows the page cache to continually be polluted, which will decrease performance.

Networking

The available network throughput will specify the maximum amount of traffic that Kafka can handle. This is often the governing factor, combined with disk storage, for cluster sizing. This is complicated by the inherent imbalance between inbound and outbound network usage that is created by Kafka's support for multiple consumers. A producer may write 1 MB per second in for a given topic, but there could be any number of consumers which creates a multiplier on the outbound network usage. Other operations, such as cluster replication (covered in [Chapter 6](#)) and mirroring (discussed in [Chapter 8](#)) will also increase requirements. Should the network interface become saturated, it is not uncommon for cluster replication to fall behind, which can leave the cluster in a vulnerable state.

CPU

Processing power is a lesser concern when compared to disk and memory, but it will affect overall performance of the broker to some extent. Ideally, clients should compress message to optimize network and disk usage. This does require that the Kafka broker decompress every message batch in order to assign offsets, and then recompress the message batch to store it on disk. This is where the majority of Kafka's requirement for processing power comes from. This should not be the primary factor in selecting hardware, however.

Kafka in the Cloud

A common installation for Kafka is within cloud computing environments, such as Amazon Web Services. Due to the different types of instances available, the various performance characteristics of Kafka must be prioritized in order to select the correct instance configuration to use. A good place to start is with the amount of data retention required, followed by the performance needed from the producers. If very low

latency is necessary, I/O optimized instances that have local solid state disk storage may be required. Otherwise, ephemeral storage (such as the AWS Elastic Block Store) may be sufficient. Once these decisions are made, the CPU and memory options available will be appropriate for the performance.

In real terms, this will mean that for AWS either the m4 or r3 instance types are a common choice. The m4 instance will allow for greater retention periods, but the throughput to the disk will be less as it is on Elastic Block Storage. The r3 instance will have much better throughput, with local SSD drives, but those drives will limit the amount of data that can be retained. For the best of both worlds, it is necessary to move up to either the i2 or d2 instance types, which are significantly more expensive.

Kafka Clusters

A single Kafka server works well for local development work, or for a proof of concept system, but there are significant benefits to having multiple brokers configured as a cluster. The biggest benefit is the ability to scale the load across multiple servers. A close second is using replication to guard against data loss due to single system failures. This will also allow for performing maintenance work on Kafka, or the underlying systems, while still maintaining availability for clients. This section focuses on just configuring a Kafka cluster. [Chapter 6](#) contains more more information on replication of data.

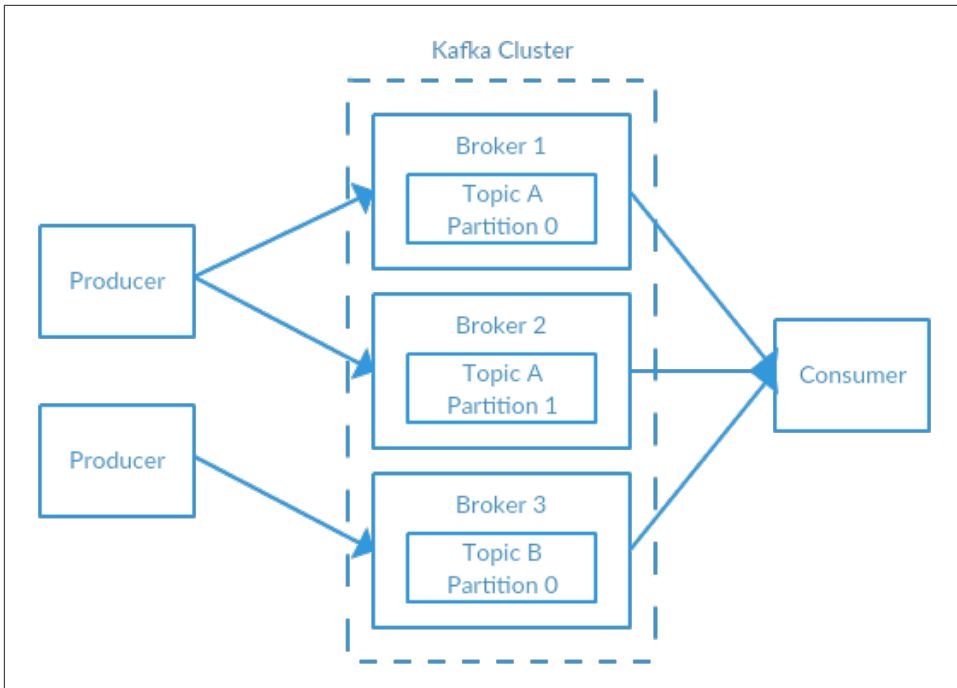


Figure 2-2. A simple Kafka cluster

How Many Brokers

The appropriate size for a Kafka cluster is determined by several factors. The first concern is how much disk capacity is required for retaining messages and how much storage is available on a single broker. If the cluster is required to retain 10 terabytes of data, and a single broker can store 2 TB, then the minimum cluster size is 5 brokers. In addition, using replication will increase the storage requirements by at least 100%, depending on the replication factor chosen ([Chapter 6](#)). This means that this same cluster, configured with replication, now needs to contain at least 10 brokers.

The other consideration is the capacity of the cluster to handle requests. This is often required due to the capacity of the network interfaces to handle the client traffic, specifically if there are multiple consumers of the data or if the traffic is not consistent over the retention period of the data (e.g. bursts of traffic during peak times). If the network interface on a single broker is used to 80% capacity at peak, and there are two consumers of that data, the consumers will not be able to keep up with peak traffic unless there are two brokers. If replication is being used in the cluster, this is an additional consumer of the data that must be taken into account. It may also be desirable to scale out to more brokers in a cluster in order to handle performance concerns caused by lesser disk throughput or system memory available.

Broker Configuration

There are only two requirements in the broker configuration to allow multiple Kafka brokers to join a single cluster. The first is that all brokers must have the same configuration for the `zookeeper.connect` parameter. This specifies the Zookeeper ensemble and path where the cluster stores metadata. The second requirement is that all brokers in the cluster must have a unique value for the `broker.id` parameter. If two brokers attempt to join the same cluster with the same `broker.id`, the second broker will log an error and fail to start. There are other configuration parameters used when running a cluster, specifically parameters that control replication, which are covered in later chapters.

Operating System Tuning

While most Linux distributions have an out-of-the-box configuration for the kernel tuning parameters that will work fairly well for most applications, there are a few changes that can be made for a Kafka broker that will improve performance. These primarily revolve around the virtual memory and networking subsystems, as well as specific concerns for the disk mount point that is used for storing log segments. These parameters are typically configured in the `/etc/sysctl.conf` file, but you should refer to your Linux distribution's documentation for specific details regarding how to adjust the kernel configuration.

Virtual Memory

In general, the Linux virtual memory system will automatically adjust itself for the work load of the system. The most impact that can be made here is to adjust how swap space is handled. As with most applications, specifically ones where throughput is a concern, the advice is to avoid swapping at (almost) all costs. The cost incurred by having pages of memory swapped to disk will show up as a noticeable impact in all aspects of performance in Kafka. In addition, Kafka makes heavy use of the system page cache, and if the VM system is swapping to disk, this shows that there is certainly not enough memory being allocated to page cache.

One way to avoid swapping is just to not configure any swap space at all. Having swap is not a requirement, but it does provide a safety net if something catastrophic happens on the system. Having swap can prevent the operating system from abruptly killing a process due to an out of memory condition. For this reason the recommendation is to set the `vm.swappiness` parameter to a very low value, such as 1. The parameter is a percentage of how likely the VM subsystem is to use swap space, rather

than dropping pages from the page cache. It is preferable to reduce the size of the page cache rather than swap.

Why Not Set Swappiness to Zero?

Previously, the recommendation for `vm.swappiness` was always to set it to 0. This value used to have the meaning “do not swap unless there is an out of memory condition”. However, the meaning of this value changed as of Linux kernel version 3.5-rc1, and that change was back ported into many distributions, including Red Hat Enterprise Linux kernels as of version 2.6.32-303. This changed the meaning of the value 0 to “never swap under any circumstances”. It is for this reason that a value of 1 is now recommended.

There is also a benefit to adjusting how the kernel handles dirty pages that must be flushed to disk. Kafka relies on disk I/O performance to provide a good response time to producers. This is also the reason that the log segments are usually put on a fast disk, whether that is an individual disk with a fast response time (e.g. SSD) or a disk subsystem with significant NVRAM for caching (e.g. RAID). The result is that the number of dirty pages that are allowed, before the flush background process starts writing them to disk, can be reduced. This is accomplished by setting the `=vm.dirty_background_ratio+` value lower than the default of 10. The value is a percentage of the total amount of system memory, and setting this value to 5 is appropriate in many situations. This setting should not be set to zero, however, as that would cause the kernel to continually flush pages, which would eliminate the ability for the kernel to buffer disk writes against temporary spikes in the underlying device performance.

The total number of dirty pages that are allowed before the kernel forces synchronous operations to flush them to disk can also be increased by changing the value of `vm.dirty_ratio`, increasing it above the default of 20 (also a percentage of total system memory). There is a wide range of possible values for this setting, but between 60 and 80 is a reasonable number. This setting does introduce a small amount of risk, both with regards to the amount of unflushed disk activity as well as the potential for long I/O pauses if synchronous flushes are forced. If a higher setting for `vm.dirty_ratio` is chosen, it is highly recommended that replication be used in the Kafka cluster to guard against system failures.

When choosing values for these parameters, it is wise to review the number of dirty pages over time while the Kafka cluster is running under load, whether production or simulated. The current number of dirty pages can be determined by checking the `/proc/vmstat` file:

```
# cat /proc/vmstat | egrep "dirty|writeback"
nr_dirty 3875
nr_writeback 29
nr_writeback_temp 0
#
```

Disk

Outside of selecting the disk device hardware, as well as the configuration of RAID if it is used, the choice of filesystem used for this disk can have the next largest impact on performance. There are many different filesystems available, but the most common choices for local filesystems are either EXT4 (Fourth extended file system) or XFS. Recently XFS has become the default filesystem for many Linux distributions, and this is with good reason - it outperforms EXT4 for most workloads with minimal tuning required. EXT4 can perform well, but it requires using tuning parameters that can be considered less safe. This includes setting the commit interval to a longer time than the default of 5 to force less frequent flushes. EXT4 also introduced delayed allocation of blocks, which brings with it a greater chance of data loss and filesystem corruption in the case of a system failure. The XFS filesystem also uses a delayed allocation algorithm, but it is generally safer than that used by EXT4. XFS also has better performance for Kafka's work load without requiring tuning beyond the automatic tuning performed by the filesystem. It is more efficient when batching disk writes, all of which combines to give better overall I/O throughput.

Regardless of which filesystem is chosen for the mount which holds the log segments, it is advisable to set the `noatime` mount option for the mount point. File metadata contains three timestamps: creation time (`ctime`), last modified time (`mtime`), and last access time (`atime`). By default, the `atime` is updated every time a file is read. This generates a large number of disk writes and the `atime` attribute is generally considered to be of little use, unless an application needs to know if a file has been accessed since it was last modified (in which case the `relatime` option can be used). It is not used by Kafka at all, which means disabling setting of the last access time entirely is safe. Setting `noatime` on the mount will prevent these timestamp updates from happening, but this does not affect the proper handling of the `ctime` and `mtime` attributes.

Networking

Adjusting the default tuning of the Linux networking stack is common for any application which generates a high amount of network traffic, as the kernel is not tuned by default for large, high speed data transfers. In fact, the recommended changes for Kafka are the same as are suggested for most web servers and other networking applications. The first adjustment is to change the default and maximum amount of memory allocated for the send and receive buffers for each socket. This will increase performance significantly for large transfers. The relevant parameters for the send

and receive buffer default size per socket are `net.core.wmem_default` and `net.core.rmem_default`, and a reasonable setting for these parameters is 131072, or 128 kibibytes. The parameters for the send and receive buffer maximum sizes are `net.core.wmem_max` and `net.core.rmem_max`, and a reasonable setting is 2097152, or 2 mebibytes. Keep in mind that the maximum size does not indicate that every socket will have this much buffer space allocated, it only allows up to that much if needed.

In addition to the socket settings, the send and receive buffer sizes for TCP sockets must be set separately using the `net.ipv4.tcp_wmem` and `net.ipv4.tcp_rmem` parameters. These are set using 3 space-separated integers that specify the minimum, default, and maximum sizes respectively. The maximum size cannot be larger than the values specified for all sockets using `net.core.wmem_max` and `net.core.rmem_max`. An example setting for each of these parameters is “4096 65536 2048000”, which is a 4 kibibyte minimum buffer, 64 kibibyte default, and 2 mebibyte maximum. Based upon the actual workload that your Kafka brokers receive, you may want to increase the maximum sizes higher to allow for greater buffering of the network connections.

There are several other network tuning parameters that are useful to set. Enabling TCP window scaling by setting `net.ipv4.tcp_window_scaling` to 1 will allow clients to transfer data more efficiently, and allow it to be buffered on the broker side. Increasing the value of `net.ipv4.tcp_max_syn_backlog` above the default of 1024 will allow a greater number of simultaneous connections to be accepted. Increasing the value of `net.core.netdev_max_backlog` to greater than the default of 1000 can assist with bursts of network traffic, specifically when using multi-gigabit network connection speeds, by allowing more packets to be queued up for the kernel to process them.

Production Concerns

Once you are ready to move your Kafka environment out of testing and into your production operations, there are a few more things to think about that will assist with setting up a reliable messaging service.

Garbage Collector Options

Tuning the Java garbage collection options for an application has always been something of an art, requiring detailed information about how the application uses memory and a significant amount of observation and trial and error. Thankfully this has changed with Java 7 and the introduction of the Garbage First (or G1) garbage collector. G1 is designed to automatically adjust to different workloads and provide consistent pause times for garbage collection over the lifetime of the application. It also

handles large heap sizes with ease, by segmenting the heap into smaller zones and not collecting over the entire heap in each pause.

G1 does all of this with a minimal amount of configuration in normal operation. There are two configuration options for G1 that are often used to adjust its performance. These are:

- `MaxGCPauseMillis`: This option specifies the preferred pause time for each garbage collection cycle. It is not a fixed maximum - G1 can and will exceed this time if it is required. This value defaults to 200 milliseconds. This means that G1 will attempt to schedule the frequency of GC cycles, as well as the number of zones that are collected in each cycle, such that each cycle will take approximately 200ms.
- `InitiatingHeapOccupancyPercent`: This option specifies the percentage of the total heap that may be in use before G1 will start a collection cycle. The default value is 45. This means that G1 will not start a collection cycle until after 45% of the heap is in use. This includes both the new (eden) and old zone usage in total.

The Kafka broker is fairly efficient with the way it utilizes heap memory and creates garbage objects, so it is possible to set these options lower. The particular tuning used here has been found to be appropriate for a server with 64 gigabytes of memory, running Kafka in a 5 gigabyte heap. For `MaxGCPauseMillis`, this broker can be configured with a value of 20 milliseconds. The value for `InitiatingHeapOccupancyPercent` is set to 35, which causes garbage collection to run slightly earlier than with the default value.

The start script for Kafka does not use the G1 collector, instead defaulting to using Parallel New and Concurrent Mark and Sweep garbage collection. The change is easy to make via environment variables. Using the start command from earlier in the chapter, modify it as such:

```
# export JAVA_HOME=/usr/java/jdk1.8.0_51
# export KAFKA_JVM_PERFORMANCE_OPTS="-server -XX:+UseG1GC
-XX:MaxGCPauseMillis=20 -XX:InitiatingHeapOccupancyPercent=35
-XX:+DisableExplicitGC -Djava.awt.headless=true"
# /usr/local/kafka/bin/kafka-server-start.sh -daemon
/usr/local/kafka/config/server.properties
#
```

Datacenter Layout

For development systems, the physical location of the Kafka brokers within a data-center is not as much of a concern, as there is not as severe an impact if the cluster is partially or completely unavailable for short periods of time. When serving production traffic, however, downtime means dollars lost, whether through loss of services

to users or loss of telemetry on what the users are doing. This is when it becomes critical to configure replication within the Kafka cluster (see [Chapter 6](#)), which is also when it is important to consider the physical location of brokers in their racks in the datacenter. If not addressed prior to deploying Kafka, it can mean expensive maintenance to move servers around.

The Kafka broker has no rack-awareness when assigning new partitions to brokers. This means that it cannot take into account that two brokers may be located in the same physical rack, or in the same availability zone (if running in a cloud service like AWS), and therefore can easily assign all replicas for a partition to brokers that share the same power and network connections in the same rack. Should that rack have a failure, these partitions would be offline and inaccessible to clients. In addition, it can result in additional lost data on recovery due to an unclear leader election (more about this in [Chapter 6](#)).

The best practice is to have each Kafka broker in a cluster installed in a different rack, or at the very least not sharing single points of failure for infrastructure services such as power and network. This typically means at least deploying the servers that will run brokers with dual power connections (to two different circuits) and dual network switches (with a bonded interface on the servers themselves to fail over seamlessly). Even with dual connections, there is a benefit to having brokers in completely separate racks. From time to time, it may be necessary to perform physical maintenance on a rack or cabinet that requires it to be offline (such as moving servers around, or rewiring power connections).

Colocating Applications on Zookeeper

Kafka utilizes Zookeeper for storing metadata information about the brokers, topics, and partitions. This does not represent enough traffic for a Zookeeper ensemble with multiple nodes for the ensemble to be dedicated to just that Kafka cluster, as the writes are only on changes to the makeup of the consumer groups or the Kafka cluster itself. In fact, many deployments will use a single Zookeeper ensemble for multiple Kafka clusters (using a chroot Zookeeper path for each cluster, as described earlier in this chapter).

Kafka Consumers and Zookeeper

Prior to Apache Kafka 0.9.0.0, consumers, in addition to the brokers, utilized Zookeeper, to directly store information about the composition of the consumer group, what topics it was consuming, and to periodically commit offsets for each partition being consumed (to enable failover between consumers in the group). With version 0.9.0.0, a new consumer interface was introduced that allows this to be managed directly with the Kafka brokers. This is the consumer which is discussed in [Chapter 4](#).

There is a concern with consumers and Zookeeper under certain configurations, however. Consumers have a configurable choice to use either Zookeeper or Kafka for committing offsets, as well as the interval between commits. If the consumer uses Zookeeper for offsets, each consumer will perform a Zookeeper write every interval for every partition it consumes. A reasonable interval for offset commits is one minute, as this is the period of time over which a consumer group will read duplicate messages in the case of a consumer failure. These commits can be a significant amount of Zookeeper traffic, especially in a cluster with many consumers, and will need to be taken into account. It may be necessary to use a longer commit interval if the Zookeeper ensemble is not able to handle the traffic. However, it is recommended that consumers using the latest Kafka libraries use Kafka for committing offsets, removing the dependency on Zookeeper.

Outside of using a single ensemble for multiple Kafka clusters, it is not recommended to share the ensemble with other applications, if it can be avoided. Kafka is sensitive to Zookeeper latency and timeouts, and an interruption in communications with the ensemble will cause the brokers to behave unpredictably. This can easily cause multiple brokers to go offline at the same time, should they lose Zookeeper connections, which will result in offline partitions. It also puts stress on the cluster controller, which can show up as subtle errors long after the interruption has passed, such as when trying to perform a controlled shutdown of a broker. Other applications which can put stress on the Zookeeper ensemble, either through heavy usage or improper operations, should be segregated to their own ensemble.

Getting Started With Clients

In this chapter we learned how to get Apache Kafka up and running. We also covered picking the right hardware for your brokers and specific concerns around getting set up in a production environment. Now that you have a Kafka cluster, we will walk through the basics of Kafka client applications. The next two chapters will cover how to create clients for both producing messages to Kafka ([Chapter 3](#), as well as consuming those messages out again ([Chapter 4](#)).

Kafka Producers - Writing Messages to Kafka

Whether you use Kafka as a queue, a message bus or a data storage platform, you will always use Kafka by writing a producer that reads data from Kafka, a consumer that writes data to Kafka or an application that serves both roles.

For example, in a credit card transaction processing system, there will be a client application, perhaps an online store, responsible for sending each transaction to Kafka immediately when a payment is made. Another application is responsible for immediately checking this transaction against a rules engine and determining whether the transaction is approved or denied. The approve / deny response can then be written back to Kafka and the response can propagate back to the online store where the transaction has been initiated. A third application can read both transactions and the approval status from Kafka and store them in a database where analysts can later review the decisions and perhaps improve the rules engine.

Apache Kafka ships with built in client APIs that developers can use when developing applications that interact with Kafka. In this chapter we will see how to use Kafka's producer client to develop applications that write data to Kafka. In the next chapter we will look at Kafka's consumer client and reading data from Kafka.



In addition to the built-in clients, Kafka has a binary wire protocol. This means that it is possible for applications to read messages from Kafka or write messages to Kafka simply by sending the correct byte sequences to Kafka's network port. There are multiple clients that implement Kafka's wire protocol in different programming language, giving simple ways to use Kafka not just in Java applications but also in languages like C++, Python, Go and many more. Those clients are not part of Apache Kafka project, but a list of those is maintained in the project wiki ¹. The wire protocol and the external clients are outside the scope of the chapter.

There are many reasons an application will need to write messages to Kafka: Recording user activities for auditing or analysis, recording metrics, storing log messages, recording information from smart appliances, asynchronous communication with other applications, buffering information before writing to a database and much more.

Those diverse use-cases also imply diverse requirements: Is every message critical, or can we tolerate loss of messages? Are we ok with accidentally duplicating messages? Are there any strict latency or throughput requirements we need to support?

In the credit-card transaction processing example we introduced earlier, we can see that it will be critical to never lose a single message nor duplicate any messages, latency should be low but latencies up to 500ms can be tolerated, and throughput should be very high - we expect to process up to a million messages a second.

A different use-case can be to store click information from a website. In that case, some message loss or few duplicates can be tolerated, latency can be high - as long as there is no impact on the user experience - in other words, we don't mind if it takes few seconds for the message to arrive at Kafka, as long as the next page loads immediate after the user clicked on a link. Throughput will depend on the level of activity we anticipate on our website.

The different requirements will influence the way you use the producer API to write messages to Kafka and the configuration you will use.

Producer overview

While the producer APIs are very simple, there is a bit more that goes on under the hood of the producer when we send data. In [Figure 3-1](#) you can see the main steps involved in sending data to Kafka.

¹ <https://cwiki.apache.org/confluence/display/KAFKA/Clients>

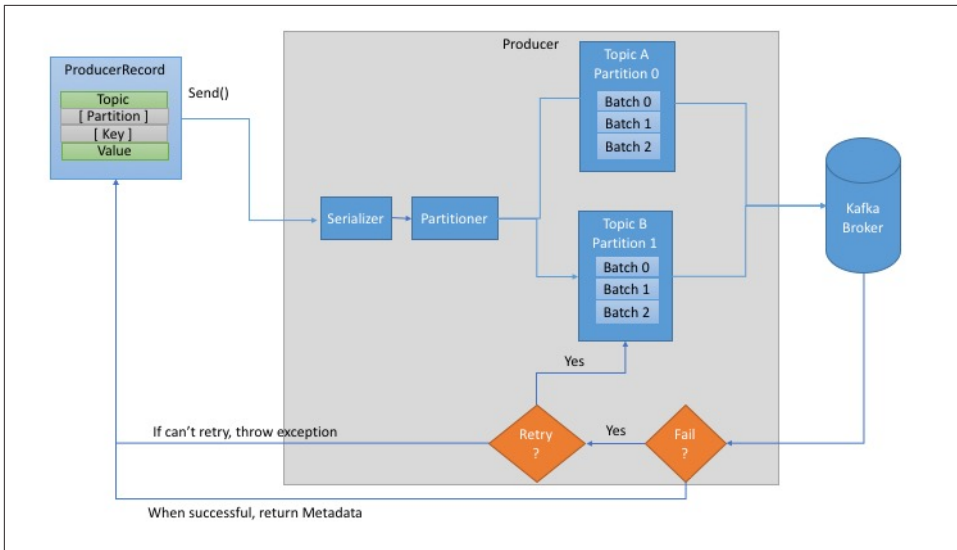


Figure 3-1. High level overview of Kafka Producer components

We start by creating a `ProducerRecord`, which must include the topic we want to send the record to and a value we are sending. Optionally, we can also specify a key and / or a partition. Once we send the `ProducerRecord`, the first thing the producer will do is serialize the key and value objects to `ByteArrays`, so they can be sent over the network.

Next, the data is sent to a partitioner. If we specified a partition in the `ProducerRecord`, the partitioner doesn't do anything and simply returns the partition we specified. If we didn't, the partitioner will choose a partition for us, usually based on the `ProducerRecord` key. Once a partition is selected, the producer knows which topic and partition the record will go to. It then adds the record to a batch of records that will also be sent to the same topic and partition. A separate thread is responsible for sending those batches of records to the appropriate Kafka brokers.

When the broker receives the messages, it sends back a response. If the messages were successfully written to Kafka, it will return a `RecordMetadata` object with the topic, partition and the offset the record in the partition. If the broker failed to write the messages, it will return an error. When the producer receives an error, it may retry sending the message few more times before giving up and returning an error.

In this chapter we will learn how to use the Kafka Producer, and in the process we will go over most of the components in figure 3-1. We will show how to create a `KafkaProducer` and `ProducerRecord` objects, how to send records to Kafka using the default partitioner and serializers, how to handle the errors that Kafka may return

and how to write your own serializers and partitioner. We will also review the most important configuration options used to control the producer behavior.

Constructing a Kafka Producer

The first step in writing messages to Kafka is to create a producer object with the properties you want to pass to the producer. Kafka producer has 3 mandatory properties:

- `bootstrap.servers` - List of host:port pairs of Kafka brokers. This doesn't have to include all brokers in the cluster; the producer will query these brokers for information about additional brokers. But it is recommended to include at least two, so in case one broker goes down the producer will still be able to connect to the cluster.
- `key.serializer` - Kafka brokers expect byte arrays as key and value of messages. However the Producer interface allows, using parameterized types, to send any Java object as key and value. This makes for very readable code, but it also means that the Producer has to know how to convert these objects to byte arrays. `key.serializer` should be set to a name of a class that implements `org.apache.kafka.common.serialization.Serializer` interface and the Producer will use this class to serialize the key object to byte array. The Kafka client package includes `ByteArraySerializer` (which doesn't do much), `StringSerializer` and `IntegerSerializer`, so if you use common types, there is no need to implement your own serializers. Note that setting `key.serializer` is required even if you intend to send only values.
- `value.serializer` - the same way you set `key.serializer` to a name of a class that will serialize the message key object to a byte array, you set `value.serializer` to a class that will serialize the message value object. The serializers can be identical to the `key.serializer`, for example when both key and value are Strings or they can be different, for example Integer key and String value.

The following code snippet shows how to create a new Producer by setting just the mandatory parameters and using default for everything else:

```
private Properties kafkaProps = new Properties(); ❶
kafkaProps.put("bootstrap.servers", "broker1:9092,broker2:9092");

kafkaProps.put("key.serializer", "org.apache.kafka.common.serialization.String-
Serializer"); ❷
kafkaProps.put("value.serializer", "org.apache.kafka.common.serialization.
StringSerializer");

producer = new KafkaProducer<String, String>(kafkaProps); ❸
```

- ❶ We start with a Properties object
- ❷ Since we are planning on using Strings for message key and value, we use the built-in StringSerializer
- ❸ Here we create a new Producer by setting the appropriate key and value types and passing the Properties object

With such a simple interface, it is clear that most of the control over Producer behavior is done by setting the correct configuration properties. Apache Kafka documentation covers all the configuration options², and we will go over the important ones later in this chapter.

Once we instantiated a producer, it is time to start sending messages. There are three primary methods of sending messages:

- Fire-and-forget - in which we send a message to the server and don't really care if it arrived successfully or not. Most of the time, it will arrive successfully, since Kafka is highly available and the producer will retry sending messages automatically. However, some messages will get lost using this method.
- Synchronous Send - we send a message, the `send()` method returns a Future object and we use `get()` to wait on the future and see if the `send()` was successful or not.
- Asynchronous Send - we call the `send()` method with a callback function, which gets triggered when receive a response from the Kafka broker.

In all those cases, it is important to keep in mind that sending data to Kafka can fail on occasion and plan on handling those failures. Also note that a single producer object can be used by multiple threads to send messages, or you can use multiple producers. You will probably want to start with one producer and one thread. If you need better throughput, you can add more threads that use the same producer. Once this ceases to increase throughput, adding more producers will be in order.

In the examples below we will see how to send messages using the methods we mention and how to handle the different types of errors that could occur.

Sending a Message to Kafka

The simplest way to send a message is as follows:

```
ProducerRecord<String, String> record =  
    new ProducerRecord<>("CustomerCountry", "Precision Products",
```

² <http://kafka.apache.org/documentation.html#producerconfigs>

```

"France"); ❶
try {
    producer.send(record); ❷
} catch (Exception e) {
    e.printStackTrace(); ❸
}

```

- ❶ The Producer accepts `ProducerRecord` objects, so we start by creating one. `ProducerRecord` has multiple constructors, which we will discuss later. Here we use one that requires the name of the topic we are sending data to, which is always a `String`; and the key and value we are sending to Kafka, which in this case are also `Strings`. The types of the key and value must match our `Serializer` and `Producer` objects.
- ❷ We use the `Producer` object `send()` method to send the `ProducerRecord`. As we've seen in the `Producer` architecture diagram, the message will be placed in a buffer and will be sent to the broker in a separate thread. The `send()` method returns a `Java Future` object³ with `RecordMetadata`, but since we simply ignore the returned value, we have no way of knowing whether the message was sent successfully or not. This method of sending messages is useful when dropping a message silently in some cases is acceptable. For example when logging Twitter messages or low-important messages from an application log.
- ❸ While we ignore errors that may occur while sending messages to Kafka brokers or in the brokers themselves, we may still get an exception if the producer encountered errors before sending the message to Kafka. Those can be `SerializationException`, when it fails to serialize the message, a `BufferExhaustedException`, if the buffer is full and the producer was configured to throw an exception when buffer is full rather than block, or an `InterruptedException`, if the sending thread was interrupted.

Sending a Message Synchronously

```

ProducerRecord<String, String> record =
    new ProducerRecord<>("CustomerCountry", "Precision Products", "France");
producer.send(record).get(); ❶

```

- ❶ Here, we are using `Future.get()` to wait until the reply from Kafka arrives back. The specific `Future` implemented by the `Producer` will throw an exception if the Kafka broker sent back an error and our application can handle the problem. If there were no errors, we will get a `RecordMetadata` object which we can use to retrieve the offset the message was written to.

³ <http://docs.oracle.com/javase/7/docs/api/java/util/concurrent/Future.html>

KafkaProducer has two types of errors. Retriable errors are those that can be resolved by sending the message again. For example connection error can be resolved because the connection may get re-established, or “no leader” error can be resolved when a new leader is elected for the partition. KafkaProducer can be configured to retry those errors automatically, so the application code will get retrieable exceptions only when the number of retries was exhausted and the error was not resolved. Some errors will not be resolved by retrying. For example, “message size too large”. In those cases KafkaProducer will not attempt a retry and will return the exception immediately.

Sending Messages Asynchronously

Suppose the network roundtrip time between our application and the Kafka cluster is 10ms. If we wait for a reply after sending each message, sending 100 messages will take around 1 second. On the other hand, if we just send all our messages and not wait for any replies, then sending 100 messages will barely take any time at all. In most cases, we really don’t need a reply - Kafka sends back the topic, partition and offset of the record after it was written and this information is usually not required by the sending app. On the other hand, we do need to know when we failed to send a message completely so we can throw an exception, log an error or perhaps write the message to an “errors” file for later analysis.

In order to send messages asynchronously and still handle error scenarios, the Producer supports adding a callback when sending a record. Here is an example of how we use a callback:

```
private class DemoProducerCallback implements Callback { ❶
    @Override
    public void onCompletion(RecordMetadata recordMetadata, Exception e) {
        if (e != null) {
            e.printStackTrace(); ❷
        }
    }
}

ProducerRecord<String, String> record =
    new ProducerRecord<>("CustomerCountry", "Biomedical Materials", "USA");
❸
producer.send(record, new DemoProducerCallback()); ❹
```

- ❶ To use callbacks, you need a class that implements `org.apache.kafka.clients.producer.Callback` interface, which has a single function - `onCompletion`
- ❷ If Kafka returned an error, `onCompletion` will have a non-null exception. Here we “handle” it by printing, but production code will probably have more robust error handling functions.

- ③ The records are the same as before
- ④ And we pass a Callback object along when sending the record

Serializers

As seen in previous examples, Producer configuration includes mandatory serializers. We've seen how to use the default String serializer. Kafka also includes Serializers for Integers and ByteArrays, but this does not cover most use-cases. Eventually you will want to be able to serialize more generic records.

We will start by showing how to write your own serializer, and then introduce the Avro serializer as a recommended alternative.

Custom Serializers

When the object you need to send to Kafka is not a simple String or Integer, you have a choice of either using a generic serialization library like Avro, Thrift or Protobuf to create records, or to create a custom serializer for objects you are already using. We highly recommend to use generic serialization library. But in order to understand how the serializers work and why it is a good idea to use a serialization library, let's see what it takes to write your own custom serializer.

For example, suppose that instead of recording just the customer name, you created a simple class to represent customers:

```
public class Customer {
    private int customerID;
    private String customerName;

    public Customer(int ID, String name) {
        this.customerID = ID;
        this.customerName = name;
    }

    public int getID() {
        return customerID;
    }

    public String getName() {
        return customerName;
    }
}
```

Now suppose we want to create a custom serializer for this class. It will look something like this:

```
import org.apache.kafka.common.errors.SerializationException;

import java.nio.ByteBuffer;
```

```

import java.util.Map;

public class CustomerSerializer implements Serializer<Customer> {

    @Override
    public void configure(Map configs, boolean isKey) {
        // nothing to configure
    }

    @Override
    /**
     We are serializing Customer as:
     4 byte int representing customerId
     4 byte int representing length of customerName in UTF-8 bytes (0 if name is
     Null)
     N bytes representing customerName in UTF-8
     */
    public byte[] serialize(String topic, Customer data) {
        try {
            byte[] serializedName;
            int stringSize;
            if (data == null)
                return null;
            else {
                if (data.getName() != null) {
                    serializeName = data.getName().getBytes("UTF-8");
                    stringSize = serializedName.length;
                } else {
                    serializedName = new byte[0];
                    stringSize = 0;
                }
            }

            ByteBuffer buffer = ByteBuffer.allocate(4 + 4 + stringSize);
            buffer.putInt(data.getID());
            buffer.putInt(stringSize);
            buffer.put(serializedName);

            return buffer.array();
        } catch (Exception e) {
            throw new SerializationException("Error when serializing Customer to
byte[] " + e);
        }
    }

    @Override
    public void close() {
        // nothing to close
    }
}

```

Configuring a Producer with this `CustomerSerializer` will allow you to define `ProducerRecord<String, Customer>` and send Customer data directly to the Producer. On the other hand, note how fragile the code is - If we ever have too many customers for example and need to change `customerID` to `Long`, or if we ever decide to add `startDate` field to `Customer`, we will have a serious issue in maintaining compatibility between old and new messages. Debugging compatibility issues between different versions of Serializers and Deserializers is fairly challenging - you need to compare arrays of raw bytes. To make matters even worse, if multiple teams in the same company end up writing Customer data to Kafka, they will all need to use the same Serializers and modify the code at the exact same time.

For these reasons, we recommend to never implement your own custom serializer, instead use an existing protocol such as Apache Avro, Thrift or Protobuf. In the following section we will describe Apache Avro and then show how to serialize Avro records and send them to Kafka.

Serializing using Apache Avro

Apache Avro is a language neutral data serialization format. The project was created by Doug Cutting to provide a way to share data files with a large audience.

Avro data is described in a language independent schema. The schema is usually described in JSON and the serialization is usually to binary files although serializing to JSON is also supported. Avro assumes that the schema is present when reading and writing files, usually by embedding the schema in the files themselves.

One of the most interesting features of Avro, and what makes it a good fit for use in a messaging system like Kafka is that when the application writing messages switches to a new schema, the applications reading the data can continue processing messages without requiring any change or update.

Suppose the original schema was:

```
{ "namespace": "customerManagement.avro",
  "type": "record",
  "name": "Customer",
  "fields": [
    { "name": "id", "type": "int" },
    { "name": "name", "type": "string" },
    { "name": "faxNumber", "type": [ "null", "string" ], "default": "null" } ❶
  ]
}
```

- ❶ `id` and `name` fields are mandatory, while `fax number` is optional and defaults to `null`

We used this schema for few month and generated few terabytes of data in this format. Now suppose that we decide that in the new version, we upgraded to the 21st

century and we will no longer include a “faxNumer” field, instead we have “email” field.

The new schema will be:

```
{ "namespace": "customerManagement.avro",
  "type": "record",
  "name": "Customer",
  "fields": [
    { "name": "id", "type": "int" },
    { "name": "name", "type": "string" },
    { "name": "email", "type": [ "null", "string" ], "default": "null" }
  ]
}
```

Now after upgrading to the new version, new records will contain “faxNumber” and old records will contain “email”. Some of the applications reading the data were upgraded and how will this be handled?

The reading application will contain calls to methods similar to `getName()`, `getId()` and `getFaxNumber`. If it encounters a message written with the new schema, `getName()` and `getId()` will continue working with no modification. `getFaxNumber()` will return `null` since the message will not contain a fax number.

Now suppose we upgraded our reading application and it no longer has `getFaxNumber()` method but rather `getEmail()`. If it encounters a message written with the old schema, `getEmail()` will return `null` since the older messages do not contain an email address.

The important thing to note that even though we changed the schema in the messages without changing all the applications reading the data, there will be no exceptions or breaking errors and no need for expensive updates of existing data.

There are two caveats to this ideal scenario: * The schema used for writing the data and the schema expected by the reading application must be compatible. Avro documentation includes the compatibility rules⁴. * The deserializer will need access to the schema that was used when writing the data, even when it is different than the schema expected by the application that accesses the data. In Avro files the writing schema is included in the file itself, but there is a better way to handle this for Kafka messages. We will look at that next.

Using Avro records with Kafka

Note is that unlike Avro files, where storing the entire schema in the data file is a fairly reasonable overhead, storing the entire schema in each record will usually more

⁴ <https://avro.apache.org/docs/1.7.7/spec.html#Schema+Resolution>

than double the record size. However, Avro still requires the entire schema to be present when reading the record, so we need to locate the schema elsewhere. To achieve this, we use a Schema Registry. The idea is to store all the schemas used to write data to Kafka in the registry. Then we simply store the identifier for the schema in the record we produce to Kafka. The readers can then use the identifier to pull the record out of the schema registry and deserialize the data. The key is that all this work - storing the schema in the registry and pulling it up when required is done in the serializers and deserializers. The code that produces data to Kafka simply uses the Avro serializers just like it would any other serializer.

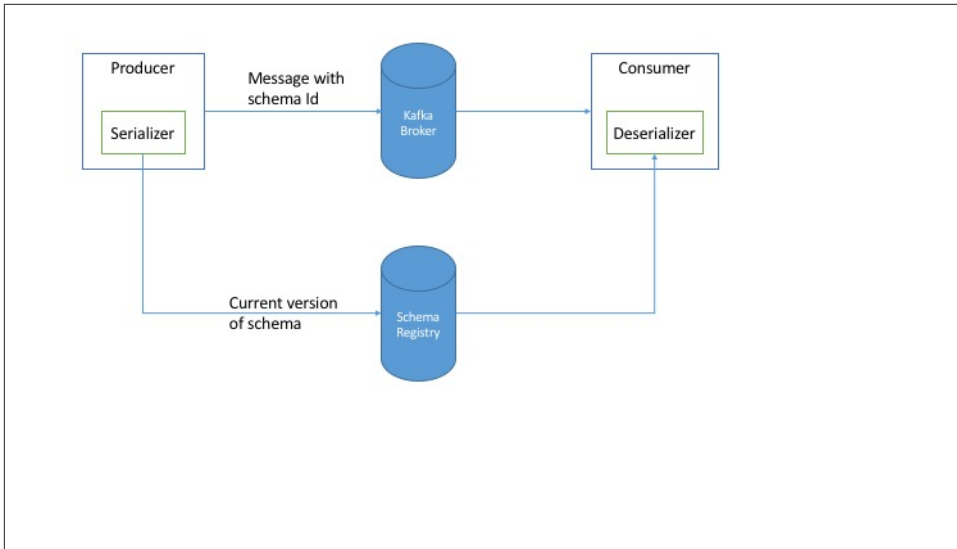


Figure 3-2. Flow diagram of serialization and deserialization of Avro records

Here is an example of how to produce generated Avro objects to Kafka (See Avro documentation: <http://avro.apache.org/docs/current/>) on how to use code generation with Avro):

```

Properties props = new Properties();

props.put("bootstrap.servers", "localhost:9092");
props.put("key.serializer", "io.confluent.kafka.serializers.KafkaAvroSerializer");
props.put("value.serializer", "io.confluent.kafka.serializers.KafkaAvroSerializer"); ❶
props.put("schema.registry.url", schemaUrl); ❷

String topic = "customerContacts";
int wait = 500;

Producer<String, Customer> producer = new KafkaProducer<String, Cus-
```

```

tomer>(props); ❸

// We keep producing new events until someone ctrl-c
while (true) {
    Customer customer = CustomerGenerator.getNext();
    System.out.println("Generated customer " + customer.toString());
    ProducerRecord<String, Customer> record =
        new ProducerRecord<>(topic, customer.getId(), cus-
tomer); ❹
    producer.send(record); ❺
}

```

- ❶ We use the `KafkaAvroSerializer` to serialize our objects with Avro
- ❷ `schema.registry.url` is a new parameter. This simply points to where we store the schemas.
- ❸ `Customer` is our generated object. We tell the producer that our records will contain `Customer` as the value
- ❹ We also instantiate `ProducerRecord` with `Customer` as the value type, and pass a `Customer` object when creating the new record.
- ❺ That is it. We send the record with our `Customer` object and `KafkaAvroSerializer` will handle the rest.

What if you prefer to use generic Avro objects rather than the generated Avro objects? No worries. In this case you just need to provide the schema:

```

Properties props = new Properties();
props.put("bootstrap.servers", "localhost:9092");
props.put("key.serializer", "io.confluent.kafka.serializers.KafkaAvroSerial-
izer"); ❶
props.put("value.serializer", "io.confluent.kafka.serializers.KafkaAvroSerial-
izer");
props.put("schema.registry.url", url); ❷

String schemaString = "{ \"namespace\": \"customerManagement.avro\",
\"type\": \"record\", \" + ❸
    \"name\": \"Customer\", \" +
    \"fields\": [ \" +
        { \"name\": \"id\", \"type\": \"int\" }, \" +
        { \"name\": \"name\", \"type\": \"string\" }, \" +
        { \"name\": \"email\", \"type\": [ \"null\", \"string\"
    ], \"default\": \"null\" } \" +
    ]}";
    Producer<String, GenericRecord> producer = new KafkaProducer<String, Generi-
cRecord>(props); ❹

```

```

Schema.Parser parser = new Schema.Parser();
Schema schema = parser.parse(schemaString);

for (int nCustomers = 0; nCustomers < customers; nCustomers++) {
    String name = "exampleCustomer" + nCustomers;
    String email = "example " + nCustomers + "@example.com"

    GenericRecord customer = new GenericData.Record(schema); ❸
    customer.put("id", nCustomer);
    customer.put("name", name);
    customer.put("email", email);

    ProducerRecord<String, GenericRecord> data =
        new ProducerRecord<String, GenericRecord>("cus-
tomerContacts", name, customer); ❹
    producer.send(data);
}
}

```

- ❶ We still use the same `KafkaAvroSerializer`
- ❷ And provide URI of the same Schema Registry
- ❸ But now we also need to provide the Avro schema, since it is not provided by the Avro generated object
- ❹ Our object type is an Avro `GenericRecord`, which we initialize with our schema and the data we want to write.
- ❺ Then the value of the `ProducerRecord` is simply a `GenericRecord` which contains our schema and data. The serializer will know how to get the schema from this record, store it in the schema registry and serialize the object data.

Partitions

In previous examples, the `ProducerRecord` objects we created included topic name, key and value. Kafka messages are key-value pairs and while it is possible to create a `ProducerRecord` with just topic and a value, with the key getting set to `null` by default, most applications produce records with keys. Keys serve two goals: They are additional information that gets stored with the message, and they are also used to decide to which one of the topic partitions the message will be written to. Note that all messages with same key will go to the same partition. This means that if a process is reading only a subset of the partitions in a topic (more on that in chapter 4), all the records for a single key will be received by the same process. To create a key-value record, you simply create a `ProducerRecord` as follows:

```

ProducerRecord<Integer, String> record =
    new ProducerRecord<>("CustomerCountry", "Laboratory Equipment", "USA");

```

When creating messages with a null key, you can simply leave the key out:

```
ProducerRecord<Integer, String> record =  
    new ProducerRecord<>("CustomerCountry", "USA"); ❶
```

- ❶ Here the key will simply be set to `null`, which may indicate that a customer name was missing on a form

When the key is `null` and the default partitioner is used, the record will be sent to one of the available partitions of the topic at random. Round-robin algorithm will be used to balance the messages between the partitions.

If a key exists and the default partitioner is used, Kafka will hash the key (using its own hash algorithm, so hash values will not change when Java is upgraded), and use the result to map the message to a specific partition. Note that this time, it is important that a key will always get mapped to the same partition, so we use all the partitions in the topic to calculate the mapping and not just available partitions. This means that if a specific partition is unavailable when you write data to it, you may get an error. This is a fairly rare occurrence, as you will read in chapter X when we discuss Kafka's replication and availability.

Also note that the mapping of keys to partitions is consistent only as long as the number of partitions in a topic does not change. So as long as the number of partitions is constant you can be sure that, for example, records regarding user 045189 will always get written to partition 34. This allows all kinds of optimizations when reading data from partitions. However, the moment you add new partitions to the topic, this is no longer guaranteed - the old records will stay in partition 34 while new records will get written to a different partition. When partitioning of the keys is important, the easiest solution is to create topics with sufficient partitions (how to determine a good number of partitions will be discussed in a different chapter), and never add partitions.

Implementing a Custom Partitioning Strategy

So far we discussed the traits of the default partitioner, which is the one most commonly used. However, Kafka does not limit you to just hash partitions and sometimes there are good reasons to partition data differently. For example, suppose that you are a B2B vendor and your biggest customer is a company manufacturing hand-held devices called Banana. Suppose that Banana is so large that they comprise around 10% of your business. If you use default hash-partitioning, records regarding the Banana account will get allocated to the same partition as other accounts, resulting in one partition being about twice as large as the rest. This can cause servers to run out of space, processing to slow down, etc. What we really want is to give Banana its own partition and then use hash-partitioning to map the rest of the accounts to partitions.

Here is an example of a custom partitioner as described above:

```

import org.apache.kafka.clients.producer.Partitioner;
import org.apache.kafka.common.Cluster;
import org.apache.kafka.common.PartitionInfo;
import org.apache.kafka.common.record.InvalidRecordException;
import org.apache.kafka.common.utils.Utils;

public class BananaPartitioner implements Partitioner {

    public void configure(Map<String, ?> configs) {} ❶

    public int partition(String topic, Object key, byte[] keyBytes,
                        Object value, byte[] valueBytes, Cluster
cluster) {
        List<PartitionInfo> partitions = cluster.partitionsFor-
Topic(topic);
        int numPartitions = partitions.size();

        if ((keyBytes == null) || (!(key instanceof String))) ❷
            throw new InvalidRecordException("We expect all messages to have cus-
tomer name as key")

        if (((String) key).equals("Banana"))
            return numPartitions; // Banana will always go to last partition

        // Other records will get hashed to the rest of the partitions
        return (Math.abs(Utils.murmur2(keyBytes)) % (numPartitions - 1))
    }

    public void close() {}
}

```

- ❶ Partitioner interface includes configure, partition and close methods. Here we only implement partition, although we really should have passed the special customer name through configure instead of hard-coding it in partition.
- ❷ We only expect String keys, so we throw an exception if that is not the case

Configuring Producers

So far we've seen very few configuration parameters for the producers - just the mandatory `bootstrap.servers` URI and serializers.

The producer has a large number of configuration parameters, most are documented in Apache Kafka documentation: [<http://kafka.apache.org/documentation.html#producerconfigs>] and many have reasonable defaults so there is no reason to tinker with every single parameters. Few of the parameters have significant impact on memory use, performance and reliability of the producers. We will review those here.

acks

The `acks` parameter controls how many partition replicas must receive the record before the producer can consider the write successful. This option has significant impact on how likely it is that messages will be lost. The options are:

- If `acks = 0` the Producer will not wait for any reply from the broker before assuming the message was sent successfully. This means that if something went wrong and the broker did not receive the message, the producer will not know about this and the message will be lost. However, because the producer is not waiting for any response from the server, it can send messages as fast as the network will support, so this setting can be used to achieve very high throughput.
- If `acks = 1` the producer will receive a success response from the broker the moment the leader replica received the message. If the message can't be written to the leader (for example, if the leader crashed and a new leader was not elected yet), the Producer will receive an error response and can retry sending the message, avoiding potential loss of data. The message can still get lost if the leader crashes and a replica without this message gets elected as the new leader. In this case throughput depends on whether we send messages synchronously or asynchronously. If our client code waits for reply from the server (by calling `get()` method of the Future object returned when sending a message) it will obviously increase latency significantly (at least by a network round-trip). If the client uses callbacks, latency will be hidden, but throughput will be limited by the number of in-flight messages (i.e. how many messages the producer will send before receiving replies from the server).
- If `acks = all` the Producer will receive a success response from the broker once all in-sync replicas received the message. This is the safest mode since you can make sure more than one broker has the message and that it will survive even in case of crash (More information on this in chapter X). However, the latency we discussed in the `acks = 1` case will be even higher, since we will be waiting for more than just one broker to receive the message.

buffer.memory

This sets the amount of memory the producer will use to buffer messages waiting to be sent to brokers. If messages are sent by the application faster than they can be delivered to the server, this may cause the producer to run out of space and additional `send()` calls will either block or throw an exception, based on `block.on.buffer.full` parameter.

compression.type

By default, messages are sent uncompressed. This parameter can be set to `snappy` or `gzip` in which case the corresponding compression algorithms will be used to compress the data before sending it to the brokers. Snappy compression was invented by Google to provide decent compression ratio with low CPU overhead and good performance, so it is recommended in cases where both performance and bandwidth are a concern. Gzip compression will typically use more CPU and time but result in better compression ratios, so it is recommended in cases where network bandwidth is more restricted. By enabling compression you reduce network utilization, which is often a bottleneck when sending messages to Kafka.

retries

When the producer receives an error message from the server, the error could be transient (for example, lack of leader for a partition). In this case, the value of `retries` parameter will control how many times the producer will retry sending the message before giving up and notifying the client of an issue. By default the producer will wait 100ms between retries, but you can control this using `retry.backoff.ms` parameter. We recommend testing how long it takes to recover from a crashed broker (i.e. how long until all partitions get new leaders), and setting the number of retries and delay between them such that the total amount of time spent retrying will be longer than the time it takes the Kafka cluster to recover from the crash - otherwise the producer will give up too soon. Note that some errors are not transient and will not cause retries (for example “message too large” error). In general, because the producer handles retries for you, there is not much point in catching exceptions or writing complex callback logic if all you will do with a producer error is retry later. You may want to avoid retrying and handle errors yourself if you have a different way of handling errors other than retrying - perhaps writing them to a file or throwing them away.

batch.size

When multiple records are sent to the same partition, the producer will batch them together. This parameter controls the amount of memory in bytes (not messages!) that will be used for each batch. When the batch is full, all the messages in the batch will be sent. However, this does not mean that the producer will wait for the batch to become full. The producer will send half-full batches and even batches with just a single message in them. Therefore setting the batch size too large will not cause delays in sending messages, it will just use more memory for the batches. Setting the batch size too small, will add some overhead since the producer will need to send messages more frequently.

linger.ms

`linger.ms` control the amount of time we wait for additional messages before sending the current batch. `KafkaProducer` sends a batch of messages either when the current batch is full or when `linger.ms` limit is reached. By default, the producer will send messages as soon as there is the sender thread is available to send them, even if there's just one message in the batch. By setting `linger.ms` higher than 0, we instruct the producer to wait few milliseconds for additional messages to get added to the batch before sending it to the brokers. This increases latency, but also increases throughput (since we send more messages at once there is less overhead per message).

client.id

This can be any string, and will be used by the brokers to identify messages sent from the client. It is used in logging, metrics and for quotas.

max.in.flight.requests.per.connection

This controls how many messages the producer will send to the server without receiving responses. Setting this high can increase memory usage while improving throughput. Setting this to 1 will guarantee that messages will be written to the broker in the order they were sent, even when retries occur.

timeout.ms and metadata.fetch.timeout.ms

These parameters control how long the producer will wait for reply from the server when sending data (`timeout.ms`) and when requesting metadata such as who are the current leaders for the partitions we are writing to (`metadata.fetch.timeout.ms`). If the timeout is reached without reply, the producer will respond with an error (either through exception or the send callback).



Ordering Guarantees

Apache Kafka preserves order of messages within a partition. This means that if messages were sent from the producer in a specific order, the broker will write them to a partition in this order and all consumers will read them in this order. For some use-cases, order is very important. There is a big difference between depositing 100\$ in an account and later withdrawing them, and the other way around! However, some use cases are less sensitive.

Setting the `retries` parameter to non-zero and the `max.in.flights.requests.per.session` to more than one, mean that it is possible that the broker will fail to write the first batch of messages, succeed to write the second (which was already in flight) and then retry the first batch and succeed, thereby reversing the order.

If the order is critical, usually success is critical too so setting `retries` to zero is not an option, however you can set `in.flights.requests.per.session = 1` to make sure that no additional messages will be sent to the broker while the first batch is still retrying. This will severely limit the throughput of the producer, so only use this when order is important.

Old Producer APIs

In this chapter we discussed the Java producer client that is part of `org.apache.kafka.clients` package. At the time of writing this chapter, Apache Kafka still has two older clients written in Scala that are part of `kafka.producer` package and part of the core Kafka module. These producers are called `SyncProducer` (which, depending on the value of `acks` parameter it may wait for the server to ack each message or batch of messages before sending additional messages) and `AsyncProducer` (Which batches messages in the background, sends them in a separate thread and does not provide feedback regarding success to the client).

Because the current producer supports both behaviors and give much more reliability and control to the developer, we will not discuss the older APIs. If you are interested in using them, please think twice and then refer to Apache Kafka documentation to learn more.

Kafka Consumers - Reading Data from Kafka

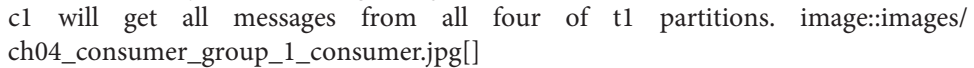
Applications that need to read data from Kafka use `KafkaConsumer` to subscribe to Kafka topics and receive messages from these topics. Reading data from Kafka is a bit different than reading data from other messaging systems and there are few unique concepts and ideas involved. It is difficult to understand how to use the consumer API without understanding these concepts first. So we'll start by explaining some of the important concepts, and then we'll go through some examples that show the different ways the consumer APIs can be used to implement applications with different requirements.

KafkaConsumer Concepts

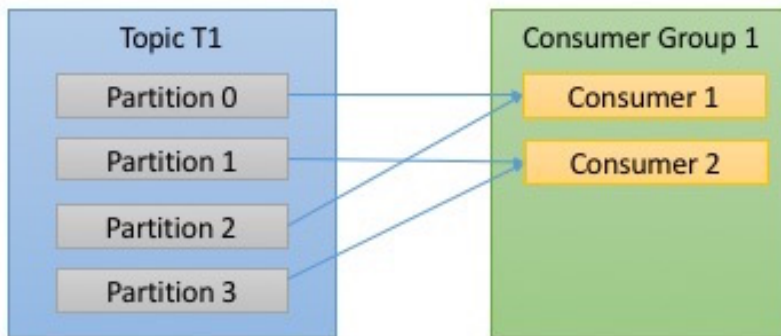
Consumers and Consumer Groups

Suppose you have an application that needs to read messages from a Kafka topic, run some validations against them and write the results to another data store. In this case your application will create a consumer object, subscribe to the appropriate topic and start receiving messages, validating them and writing the results. This can work well for a while, but what if the rate at which producers write messages to the topic exceed the rate at which your application can validate them? If you are limited to a single consumer reading and processing the data, your application may fall farther and farther behind, unable to keep up with the rate of incoming messages. Obviously there is a need to scale consumption from topics. Just like multiple producers can write to the same topic, we need to allow multiple consumers to read from the same topic, splitting the data between them.

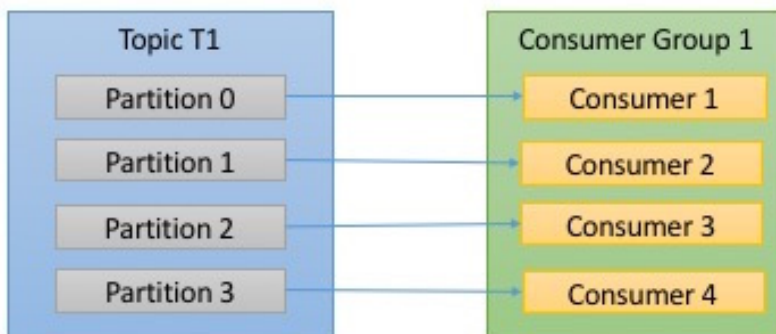
Kafka consumers are typically part of a consumer group. When multiple consumers are subscribed to a topic and belong to the same consumer group, then each consumer in the group will receive messages from a different subset of the partitions in the topic.

Lets take topic *t1* with 4 partitions. Now suppose we created a new consumer, *c1*, which is the only consumer in group *g1* and use it to subscribe to topic *t1*. Consumer *c1* will get all messages from all four of *t1* partitions. 

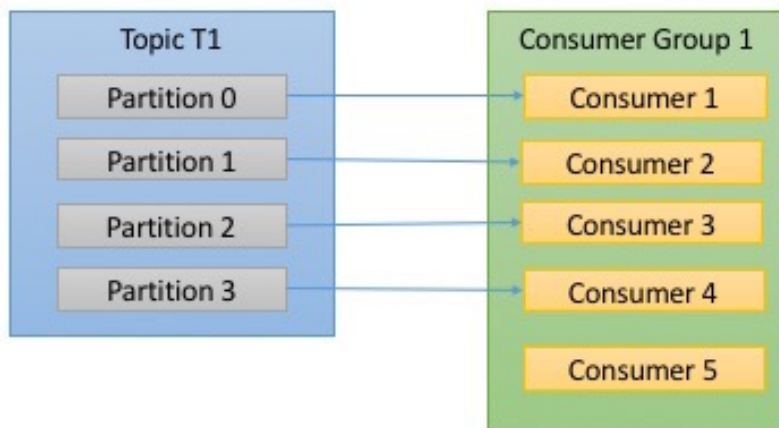
If we add another consumer, *c2* to group *g1*, each consumer will only get messages from two partitions. Perhaps messages from partition 0 and 2 go to *c1* and messages from partitions 1 and 3 go to consumer *c2*.



If *g1* has 4 consumers, then each will read messages from a single partitions.



If we add more consumers to a single group with a single topic than we have partitions, then some of the consumers will be idle and get no messages at all.

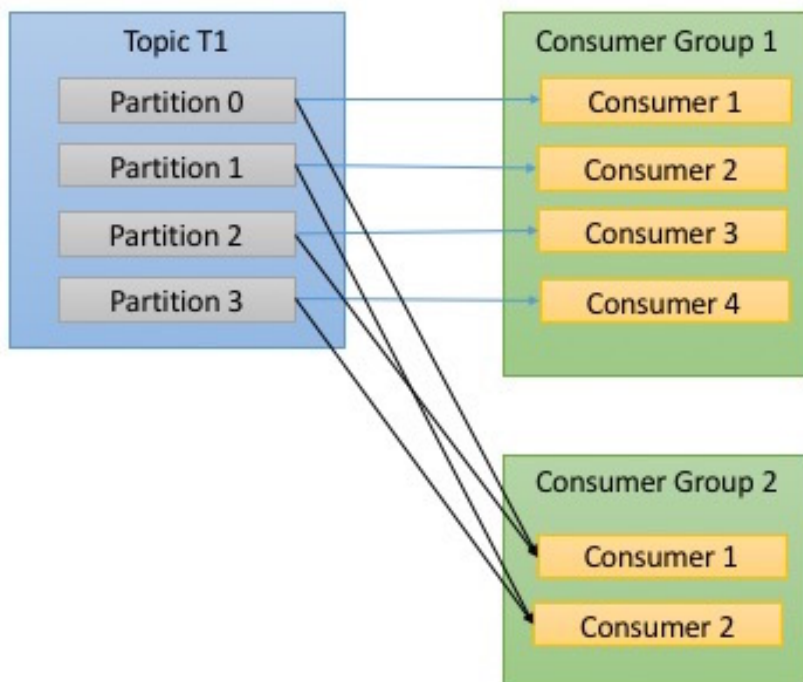


The main way we scale consumption of data from a Kafka topic is by adding more consumers to a consumer group. It is common for Kafka consumers to do high latency operations such as write to a database or to HDFS, or a time-consuming computation on the data. In these cases, a single consumer can't possibly keep up with the rate data flows into a topic, and adding more consumers that share the load by having each consumer own just a subset of the partitions and messages is our main method of scaling. This is a good reason to create topics with a large number of partitions - it allows adding more consumers when the load increases. Note again that there is no point in adding more consumers than you have partitions in a topic - some of the consumers will just be idle. We will look at how to choose the number of partitions for a topic in chapter X.

In addition to adding consumers in order to scale a single application, it is very common to have multiple applications that need to read data from the same topic. In fact, one of the main design goals in Kafka was to make the data produced to Kafka topics available for many use-cases throughout the organization. In those cases, we want each application to get all of the messages, rather than just a subset. To make sure an application gets all the messages in a topic, you make sure the application has its own consumer group. Unlike many traditional messaging systems, Kafka scales to large number of consumers and consumer groups without reducing performance.

In the example above, if we add a new consumer group *g2* with a single consumer, this consumer will get all the messages in topic *t1* independently of what *g1* is doing. *g2* can have more than a single consumer, in which case they will each get a subset of

partitions, just like we showed for *g1*, but *g2* as a whole will still get all the messages regardless of other consumer groups.



To summarize, you create a new consumer group for each application that needs all the messages from one or more topics. You add consumers to an existing consumer group to scale the reading and processing of messages from the topics, each additional consumer in a group will only get a subset of the messages.

Consumer Groups - Partition Rebalance

As we've seen in the previous section, consumers in a consumer group share ownership of the partitions in the topics they subscribe to. When we add a new consumer to the group it starts consuming messages from partitions which were previously consumed by another consumer. The same thing happens when a consumer shuts down or crashes, it leaves the group, and the partitions it used to consume will be consumed by one of the remaining consumers. Reassignment of partitions to consumers also happen when the topics the consumer group is consuming are modified, for example if an administrator adds new partitions.

The event in which partition ownership is moved from one consumer to another is called a *rebalance*. Rebalances are important since they provide the consumer group with both high-availability and scalability (allowing us to easily and safely add and remove consumers), but in the normal course of events they are fairly undesirable. During a rebalance, consumers can't consume messages, so a rebalance is in effect a short window of unavailability on the entire consumer group. In addition, when partitions are moved from one consumer to another the consumer loses its current state, if it was caching any data, it will need to refresh its caches - slowing down our application until the consumer sets up its state again. Throughout this chapter we will discuss how to safely handle rebalances and how to avoid unnecessary rebalances.

The way consumers maintain their membership in a consumer group and their ownership on the partitions assigned to them is by sending *heartbeats* to a Kafka broker designated as the *Group Coordinator* (note that this broker can be different for different consumer groups). As long as the consumer is sending heartbeats in regular intervals, it is assumed to be alive, well and processing messages from its partitions. In fact, the act of polling for messages is what causes the consumer to send those heartbeats. If the consumer stops sending heartbeats for long enough, its session will time out and the group coordinator will consider it dead and trigger a rebalance. Note that if a consumer crashed and stopped processing messages, it will take the group coordinator a few seconds without heartbeats to decide it is dead and trigger the rebalance. During those seconds, no messages will be processed from the partitions owned by the dead consumer. When closing a consumer cleanly, the consumer will notify the group coordinator that it is leaving, and the group coordinator will trigger a rebalance immediately, reducing the gap in processing. Later in this chapter we will discuss configuration options that control heartbeat frequency and session timeouts and how to set those to match your requirements.



How does the process of assigning partitions to brokers work?

When a consumer wants to join a group, it sends a `JoinGroup` request to the group coordinator. The first consumer to join the group becomes the group *leader*. The leader receives a list of all consumers in the group from the group coordinator (this will include all consumers that sent a heartbeat recently and are therefore considered alive) and it is responsible for assigning a subset of partitions to each consumer. It uses an implementation of `PartitionAssignor` interface to decide which partitions should be handled by which consumer. Kafka has two built-in partition assignment policies, which we will discuss in more depth in the configuration section. After deciding on the partition assignment, the consumer leader sends the list of assignments to the `GroupCoordinator` which sends this information to all the consumers. Each consumer only sees his own assignment - the leader is the only client process that has the full list of consumers in the group and their assignments. This process repeats every time a rebalance happens.

Creating a Kafka Consumer

The first step to start consuming records is to create a `KafkaConsumer` instance. Creating a `KafkaConsumer` is very similar to creating a `KafkaProducer` - you create a `Java Properties` instance with the properties you want to pass to the consumer. We will discuss all the properties in depth later in the chapter. To start we just need to use the 3 mandatory properties: `bootstrap.servers`, `key.deserializer` and `value.deserializer`.

The first property, `bootstrap.servers` is the connection string to Kafka cluster. It is used the exact same way it is used in `KafkaProducer`, and you can refer to Chapter 3 to see specific details on how this is defined. The other two properties `key.deserializer` and `value.deserializer` are similar to the `serializers` defined for the producer, but rather than specifying classes that turn Java objects to a `ByteArray`, you need to specify classes that can take a `ByteArray` and turn it into a Java object.

There is a fourth property, which is not strictly mandatory, but for now we will pretend it is. The property is `group.id` and it specifies the Consumer Group the `KafkaConsumer` instance belongs to. While it is possible to create consumers that do not belong to any consumer group, this is far less common and for most of the chapter we will assume the consumer is part of a group.

The following code snippet shows how to create a `KafkaConsumer`:

```
Properties props = new Properties();
props.put("bootstrap.servers", "broker1:9092,broker2:9092");
props.put("group.id", "CountryCounter");
```

```

props.put("key.deserializer", "org.apache.kafka.common.serialization.StringDe-
serializer");
props.put("value.deserializer", "org.apache.kafka.common.serialization.StringDe-
serializer");

KafkaConsumer<String, String> consumer = new KafkaConsumer<String,
String>(props);

```

Most of what you see here should be very familiar if you've read Chapter 3 on creating producers. We are planning on consuming Strings as both key and value, so we use the built-in `StringDeserializer` and we create `KafkaConsumer` with String types. The only new property here is `group.id` - which is the name of the consumer group this consumer will be part of.

Subscribing to Topics

Once we created a consumer, the next step is to subscribe to one or more topics. The `subscribe()` method takes a list of topics as a parameter, so its pretty simple to use:

```
consumer.subscribe(Collections.singletonList("customerCountries")); ❶
```

- ❶ Here we simply create a list with a single element, the topic name "customer-Countries"

It is also possible to call `subscribe` with a regular expression. The expression can match multiple topic names and if someone creates a new topic with a name that matches, a rebalance will happen almost immediately and the consumers will start consuming from the new topic. This is useful for applications that need to consume from multiple topics and can handle the different types of data the topics will contain. It is most common in applications that replicate data between Kafka and another system.

To subscribe to all test topics, we can call:

```
consumer.subscribe("test.*");
```

The Poll Loop

At the heart of the consumer API is a simple loop for polling the server for more data. Once the consumer subscribes to topics, the poll loop handles all details of coordination, partition rebalances, heartbeats and data fetching, leaving the developer with a clean API that simply returns available data from the assigned partitions. The main body of a consumer will look at follows:

```

try {
    while (true) { ❶
        ConsumerRecords<String, String> records = consumer.poll(100); ❷
        for (ConsumerRecord<String, String> record : records) ❸

```

```

        {
            log.debug("topic = %s, partition = %s, offset = %d, customer = %s,
country = %s\n",
                record.topic(), record.partition(), record.offset(), record.key(),
record.value());

            int updatedCount = 1;
            if (custCountryMap.containsKey(record.value())) {
                updatedCount = custCountryMap.get(record.value()) + 1;
            }
            custCountryMap.put(record.value(), updatedCount)

            JSONObject json = new JSONObject(custCountryMap);
            System.out.println(json.toString(4)) ❹
        }
    } finally {
        consumer.close(); ❺
    }
}

```

- ❶ This is indeed an infinite loop. Consumers are usually a long-running application that continuously polls Kafka for more data. We will show later in the chapter how to cleanly exit the loop and close the consumer.
- ❷ This is the most important line in the chapter. The same way that sharks must keep moving or they die, consumers must keep polling Kafka or they will be considered dead and the partitions they are consuming will be handed to another consumer in the group to continue consuming.
- ❸ `poll()` returns a list of records. Each record contains the topic and partition the record came from, the offset of the record within the partition, and of course the key and the value of the record. Typically we want to iterate over the list and process the records individually. `poll()` method takes a timeout parameter. This specifies how long it will take `poll` to return, with or without data. The value is typically driven by application needs for quick responses - how fast do you want to return control to the thread that does the polling?
- ❹ Processing usually ends in writing a result in a data store or updating a stored record. Here, the goal is to keep a running count of customers from each county, so we update a hashtable and print the result as JSON. A more realistic example would store the updates result in a data store.
- ❺ Always `close()` the consumer before exiting. This will close the network connections and the sockets and will trigger a rebalance immediately rather than wait for the Group Coordinator to discover that the consumer stopped sending heartbeats and is likely dead, which will take longer and therefore result in a longer

period of time during which no one consumes messages from a subset of the partitions.

The `poll` loop does a lot more than just get data. The first time you call `poll()` with a new consumer, it is responsible for finding the GroupCoordinator, joining the consumer group and receiving a partition assignment. If a rebalance is triggered, it will be handled inside the poll loop as well. And of course the heartbeats that keep consumers alive are sent from within the poll loop. For this reason, we try to make sure that whatever processing we do between iterations is fast and efficient.

Note that you can't have multiple consumers that belong to the same group in one thread and you can't have multiple threads safely use the same consumer. One consumer per thread is the rule.



To run multiple consumers in the same group in one application, you will need to run each in its own thread. It is useful to wrap the consumer logic in its own object, and then use Java's `ExecutorService` to start multiple threads each with its own consumer. Confluent blog has a [tutorial](#) that shows how to do just that.

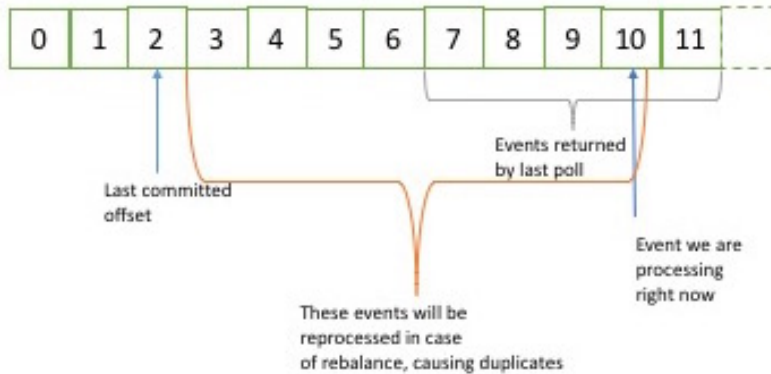
Commits and Offsets

Whenever we call `poll()`, it returns records written to Kafka that consumers in our group did not read yet. This means that we have a way of tracking which records were read by a consumer of the group. As we've discussed before, one of Kafka's unique characteristics is that it does not track acknowledgements from consumers the way many JMS queues do. Instead, it allows consumers to use Kafka to track their position (offset) in each partition.

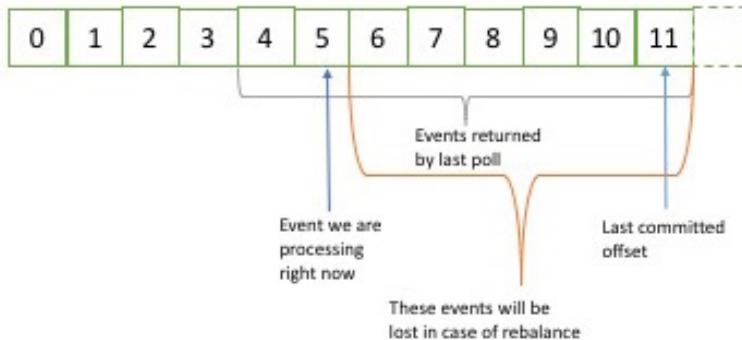
We call the action of updating the current position in the partition a `commit`.

How does a consumer commit an offset? It produces a message to Kafka, to a special `__consumer_offsets` topic, with the committed offset for each partition. As long as all your consumers are up, running and churning away, this will have no impact. However, if a consumer crashes or a new consumer joins the consumer group, this will *trigger a rebalance*. After a rebalance, each consumer may be assigned a new set of partitions than the one it processed before. In order to know where to pick up the work, the consumer will read the latest committed offset of each partition and continue from there.

If the committed offset is smaller than the offset of the last message the client processed, the messages between the last processed offset and the committed offset will be processed twice.



If the committed offset is larger than the offset of the last message the client actually processed, all messages between the last processed offset and the committed offset will be missed by the consumer group.



Clearly managing offsets has large impact on the client application.

The `KafkaConsumer` API provides multiple ways of committing offsets:

Automatic Commit

The easiest way to commit offsets is to allow the consumer to do it for you. If you configure `enable.auto.commit = true` then every 5 seconds the consumer will commit the largest offset your client received from `poll()`. The 5 seconds interval is the default and is controlled by setting `auto.commit.interval.ms`. As everything else in

the consumer, the automatic commits are driven by the poll loop. Whenever you poll, the consumer checks if its time to commit, and if it is, it will commit the offsets it returned in the last poll.

Before using this convenient option, however, it is important to understand the consequences.

Consider that by default automatic commit occurs every 5 seconds. Suppose that we are 3 seconds after the most recent commit and a rebalance is triggered. After the rebalancing all consumers will start consuming from the last offset committed. In this case the offset is 3 seconds old, so all the events that arrived in those 3 seconds will be processed twice. It is possible to configure the commit interval to commit more frequently and reduce the window in which records will be duplicated, but it is impossible to completely eliminate them.

Note that with auto-commit enabled, a call to poll will always commit the last offset returned by the previous poll. It doesn't know which events were actually processed, so it is critical to always process all the events returned by poll before calling poll again (or before calling close(), it will also automatically commit offsets). This is usually not an issue, but pay attention when you handle exceptions or otherwise exit the poll loop prematurely.

Automatic commits are convenient, but they don't give developers enough control to avoid duplicate messages.

Commit Current Offset

Most developers use to exercise more control over the time offsets are committed. Both to eliminate the possibility of missing messages and to reduce the number of messages duplicated during rebalancing. The consumer API has the option of committing the current offset at a point that makes sense to the application developer rather than based on a timer.

By setting `auto.commit.offset = false`, offsets will only be committed when the application explicitly chooses to do so. The simplest and most reliable of the commit APIs is `commitSync()`. This API will commit the latest offset returned by `poll()` and return once the offset is committed, throwing an exception if commit fails for some reason.

It is important to remember that `commitSync()` will commit the latest offset returned by `poll()`, so make sure you call `commitSync()` after you are done processing all the records in the collection, or you risk missing messages as described above. Note that when rebalance is triggered, all the messages from the beginning of the most recent batch until the time of the rebalance will be processed twice.

Here is how we would use `commitSync` to commit offsets once we finished processing the latest batch of messages:

```
while (true) {
    ConsumerRecords<String, String> records = consumer.poll(100);
    for (ConsumerRecord<String, String> record : records)
    {
        System.out.println("topic = %s, partition = %s, offset = %d, customer = %s, country = %s\n",
                           record.topic(), record.partition(), record.offset(), record.key(), record.value()); ❶
    }
    try {
        consumer.commitSync(); ❷
    } catch (CommitFailedException e) {
        log.error("commit failed", e) ❸
    }
}
```

- ❶ Lets assume that by printing the contents of a record, we are done processing it. Your application will be much more involved, and you should determine when you are “done” with a record according to your use-case.
- ❷ Once we are done “processing” all the records in the current batch, we call `commitSync` to commit the last offset in the batch, before polling for additional messages.
- ❸ `commitSync` retries committing as long as there is no error that can’t be recovered. If this happens there is not much we can do except log an error.

Asynchronous Commit

One drawback of manual commit is that the application is blocked until the broker responds to the commit request. This will limit the throughput of the application. Throughput can be improved by committing less frequently, but then we are increasing the number of potential duplicates that a rebalance will create.

Another option is the asynchronous commit API. Instead of waiting for the broker to respond to a commit, we just send the request and continue on.

```
while (true) {
    ConsumerRecords<String, String> records = consumer.poll(100);
    for (ConsumerRecord<String, String> record : records)
    {
        System.out.println("topic = %s, partition = %s, offset = %d, customer = %s, country = %s\n",
                           record.topic(), record.partition(), record.offset(), record.key(), record.value());
    }
}
```

```

        consumer.commitAsync(); ❶
    }

```

❶ Commit the last offset and carry on.

The drawback is that while `commitSync()` will retry the commit until it either succeeds or encounters a non-retriable failure, `commitAsync()` will not retry. The reason it does not retry is that by the time `commitAsync()` receives a response from the server, there may have been a later commit which was already successful. Imagine that we sent a request to commit offset 2000. There is a temporary communication problem, so the broker never gets the request and therefore never respond. Meanwhile, we processed another batch and successfully committed offset 3000. If `commitAsync()` now retries the previously failed commit, it may succeed in committing offset 2000 *after* offset 3000 was already processed and committed. In case of a rebalance, this will cause more duplicates.

We are mentioning this complication and the importance of correct order of commits, because `commitAsync()` also gives you an option to pass in a callback that will be triggered when the broker responds. It is common to use the callback to log commit errors or to count them in a metric, but if you want to use the callback for retries, you need to be aware of the problem with commit order.

```

while (true) {
    ConsumerRecords<String, String> records = consumer.poll(100);
    for (ConsumerRecord<String, String> record : records) {
        System.out.println("topic = %s, partition = %s, offset = %d, customer = %s, country = %s\n",
                           record.topic(), record.partition(), record.offset(), record.key(), record.value());
    }
    consumer.commitAsync(new OffsetCommitCallback() {
        public void onComplete(Map<TopicPartition, OffsetAndMetadata> offsets,
                               Exception exception) {
            if (e != null)
                log.error("Commit failed for offsets {}", offsets, e);
        }
    }); ❶
}

```

❶ We send the commit and carry on, but if the commit fails, the failure and the offsets will be logged.



A simple pattern to get commit order right for asynchronous retries is to use a monotonically increasing sequence number. Increase the sequence number every time you commit and the sequence number at the time of the commit to the `asyncCommit` callback. When you're getting ready to send a retry, check if the commit sequence number the callback got is equal to the instance variable, if it is - there was no newer commit and it is safe to retry. If the instance sequence number is higher, don't retry since a newer commit was already sent.

Combining Synchronous and Asynchronous commits

Normally, occasional failures to commit without retrying are not a huge problem, since if the problem is temporary the following commit will be successful. But if we know that this is the last commit before we close the consumer, or before a rebalance, we want to make extra sure that the commit succeeds.

Therefore a common pattern is to combine `commitAsync` with `commitSync` just before shutdown. Here is how it works (We will discuss how to commit just before rebalance when we get to the section about rebalance listeners):

```
try {
    while (true) {
        ConsumerRecords<String, String> records = consumer.poll(100);
        for (ConsumerRecord<String, String> record : records) {
            System.out.println("topic = %s, partition = %s, offset = %d, cus-
tomer = %s, country = %s\n",
                               record.topic(), record.partition(), record.off-
set(), record.key(), record.value());
        }
        consumer.commitAsync(); ❶
    }
} catch (Exception e) {
    log.error("Unexpected error", e);
} finally {
    try {
        consumer.commitSync(); ❷
    } finally {
        consumer.close();
    }
}
```

- ❶ While everything is fine, we use `commitAsync`. It is faster, and if one commit fails, the next commit will serve as a retry.
- ❷ But if we are closing, there is no “next commit”. We call `commitSync`, because it will retry until it succeeds or suffers unrecoverable failure.

Commit Specified Offset

Committing the latest offset only allows you to commit as often as you finish processing batches. But what if you want to commit more frequently than that? What if `poll()` returns a huge batch and you want to commit offsets in the middle of the batch to avoid having to process all those rows again if a rebalance occurs? You can't just call `commitSync()` or `commitAsync()` - this will commit the last offset returned, which you didn't get to process yet.

Fortunately, the consumer API allows you to call `commitSync()` and `commitAsync()` and pass a map of partitions and offsets that you wish to commit. If you are in the middle of processing a batch of records, and the last message you got from partition 3 in topic "customers" has offset 5000, you can call `commitSync()` to commit offset 5000 for partition 3 in topic "customers". Since your consumer may be consuming more than a single partition, you will need to track offsets on all of them, so moving to this level of precision in controlling offset commits adds complexity to your code.

Here is what commits of specific offsets looks like:

```
private Map<TopicPartition, OffsetAndMetadata> currentOffsets; ❶
int count = 0;

....

while (true) {
    ConsumerRecords<String, String> records = consumer.poll(100);
    for (ConsumerRecord<String, String> record : records)
    {
        System.out.println("topic = %s, partition = %s, offset = %d, customer = %s, country = %s\n",
                           record.topic(), record.partition(), record.offset(), record.key(), record.value()); ❷
        currentOffsets.put(new TopicPartition(record.topic(), record.partition()),
                           record.offset()); ❸
        if (count % 1000 == 0) ❹
            consumer.commitAsync(currentOffsets); ❺
        count++;
    }
}
```

- ❶ This is the map we will use to manually track offsets
- ❷ Remember, `println` is a stand-in for whatever processing you do for the records you consume
- ❸ After reading each record we update the offsets map with the last offset we've seen

- ④ Here, we decide to commit current offsets every 1000 records. In your application you can commit based on time or perhaps content of the records.
- ⑤ I chose to call `commitAsync`, but `commitSync` is also completely valid here. Of course, when committing specific offsets you still need to perform all the error handling we've seen in previous sections.

Rebalance Listeners

As we mentioned in previous section about committing offsets, a consumer will want to do some cleanup work before exiting and also before partition rebalancing.

If you know your consumer is about to lose ownership of a partition, you will want to commit offsets of the last event you've processed. If your consumer maintained a buffer with events that it only processes occasionally (for example, the `currentRecords` map we used when explaining `pause()` functionality), you will want to process the events you accumulated before losing ownership of the partition. Perhaps you also need to close file handles, database connections and such.

The consumer API allows you to run your own code when partitions are added or removed from the consumer. You do this by passing a `ConsumerRebalanceListener` when calling the `subscribe()` method we discussed previously. `ConsumerRebalanceListener` has two methods you can implement:

- `public void onPartitionsRevoked(Collection<TopicPartition> partitions)` is called before the rebalancing starts and after the consumer stopped consuming messages. This is where you want to commit offsets, so whoever gets this partition next will know where to start.
- `public void onPartitionsAssigned(Collection<TopicPartition> partitions)` is called after partitions has been re-assigned to the broker, but before the consumer started consuming messages.

This example will show how to use `onPartitionsRevoked()` to commit offsets before losing ownership of a partition. In the next section we will show a more involved example that also demonstrates the use of `onPartitionsAssigned()`.

```
private Map<TopicPartition, OffsetAndMetadata> currentOffsets;

private class HandleRebalance implements ConsumerRebalanceListener { ①
    public void onPartitionsAssigned(Collection<TopicPartition> partitions) { ②
    }

    public void onPartitionsRevoked(Collection<TopicPartition> partitions) {
        consumer.commitSync(currentOffsets); ③
    }
}
```

```

}

try {
    consumer.subscribe(topics, new HandleRebalance()); ❹

    while (true) {
        ConsumerRecords<String, String> records = consumer.poll(100);
        for (ConsumerRecord<String, String> record : records)
        {
            System.out.println("topic = %s, partition = %s, offset = %d, cus-
tomer = %s, country = %s\n",
                                record.topic(), record.partition(), record.off-
set(), record.key(), record.value());
            currentOffsets.put(new TopicPartition(record.topic(), record.parti-
tion()),
                                record.offset());
        }
        consumer.commitAsync(currentOffsets);
    }
} catch (WakeupException e) {
    // ignore, we're closing
} catch (Exception e) {
    log.error("Unexpected error", e);
} finally {
    try {
        consumer.commitSync(currentOffsets);
    } finally {
        consumer.close();
    }
}

```

- ❶ We start by implementing a `ConsumerRebalanceListener`
- ❷ In this example we don't need to do anything when we get a new partition, we'll just start consuming messages.
- ❸ However, when we are about to lose a partition due to rebalancing, we need to commit offsets. Note that we are committing the latest offsets we've processed, not the latest offsets in the batch we are still processing. This is because a partition could get revoked while we are still in the middle of a batch. We are committing offsets for all partitions, not just the partitions we are about to lose - since the offsets are for events that were already processed, there is no harm in that. Last, note that we are using `syncCommit()` to make sure the offsets are committed before the rebalance proceeds.
- ❹ The most important part - pass the `ConsumerRebalanceListener` to `subscribe()` method so it will get invoked by the consumer.

Seek and Exactly Once Processing

So far we've seen how to use `poll()` to start consuming messages from the last committed offset in each partition and to proceed in processing all messages in sequence. However, sometimes you want to start reading at a different offset.

If you want to start reading all messages from the beginning of the partition, or you want to skip all the way to the end of the partition and start consuming only new messages, there are APIs specifically for that: `seekToBeginning(TopicPartition tp)` and `seekToEnd(TopicPartition tp)`.

However, the Kafka API also lets you seek to a specific offset. This ability can be used in a variety of ways, for example to go back few messages or skip ahead few messages (perhaps a time-sensitive application that is falling behind will want to skip ahead to more relevant messages), but the most exciting use-case for this ability is when offsets are stored in a system other than Kafka.

Think about this common scenario: Your application is reading events from Kafka (perhaps a clickstream of users in a website), processes the data (perhaps clean up clicks by robots and add session information) and then store the results in a database, NoSQL store or Hadoop. Suppose that we really don't want to lose any data, nor do we want to store the same results in the database twice.

In these cases the consumer loop may look a bit like this:

```
while (true) {
    ConsumerRecords<String, String> records = consumer.poll(100);
    for (ConsumerRecord<String, String> record : records)
    {
        currentOffsets.put(new TopicPartition(record.topic(), record.partition()),
                           record.offset());
        processRecord(record);
        storeRecordInDB(record);
        consumer.commitAsync(currentOffsets);
    }
}
```

Note that we are very paranoid, so we commit offsets after processing each record. However, there is still a chance that our application will crash after the record was stored in the database but before we committed offsets, causing the record to be processed again and the database to contain duplicates.

This could be avoided if there was only a way to store both the record and the offset in one atomic action. Either both the record and the offset are committed, or neither of them are committed. As long as the records are written to a database and the offsets to Kafka, this is impossible.

But what if we wrote both the record and the offset to the database, in one transaction? Then we'll know that either we are done with the record and the offset is committed or we are not, and the record will be reprocessed.

Now the only problem is: if the record is stored in a database and not in Kafka, how will our consumer know where to start reading when it is assigned a partition? This is exactly what `seek()` can be used for. When the consumer starts or when new partitions are assigned, it can look up the offset in the database and `seek()` to that location.

Here is a skeleton example of how this may work. We use the `ConsumerRebalanceListener` and `seek()` to make sure we start processing at the offsets stored in the database.

```
public class SaveOffsetsOnRebalance implements ConsumerRebalanceListener {

    public void onPartitionsRevoked(Collection<TopicPartition> partitions) {
        commitDBTransaction(); ❶
    }

    public void onPartitionsAssigned(Collection<TopicPartition> partitions) {
        for(TopicPartition partition: partitions)
            consumer.seek(partition, getOffsetFromDB(partition)); ❷
    }
}

consumer.subscribe(topics, new SaveOffsetOnRebalance(consumer));
consumer.poll(0);

for (TopicPartition partition: consumer.assignment())
    consumer.seek(partition, getOffsetFromDB(partition)); ❸

while (true) {
    ConsumerRecords<String, String> records = consumer.poll(100);
    for (ConsumerRecord<String, String> record : records)
    {
        processRecord(record);
        storeRecordInDB(record);
        storeOffsetInDB(record.topic(), record.partition(), record.offset());
    }
    commitDBTransaction();
}
```

- ❶ We use an imaginary method here to commit the transaction in the database. The idea here is that the database records and offsets will be inserted to the database as we process the records, and we just need to commit the transaction when we are about to lose the partition to make sure this information will be persisted.

- ❷ We also have an imaginary method to fetch the offsets from the database, and then we `seek()` to those records when we get ownership of new partitions.
- ❸ When the consumer first starts, after we subscribed to topics, we call `poll()` once to make sure we join a consumer group and get assigned partitions and then we immediately `seek()` to the correct offset in the partitions we are assigned to. Keep in mind that `seek()` only updates the position we are consuming from, so the next `poll()` will fetch the right messages. If there was an error in `seek()` (for example the offset does not exist), the exception will be thrown by `poll()`;
- ❹ Another imaginary method - this time we update a table storing the offsets in our database. Here we assume that updating records is fast, so we do an update on every record, but commits are slow, so we only commit at the end of the batch. However this can be optimized in different ways.

There are many different ways to implement exactly-once semantics by storing offsets and data in an external store, but all of them will need to use the `ConsumerRebalanceListener` and `seek()` to make sure offsets are stored in time and that the consumer starts reading messages from the correct location.

But How Do We Exit?

Earlier in this chapter, when we discussed the poll loop, I asked you not to worry about the fact that the consumer polls in an infinite loop and that we will discuss how to exit the loop cleanly. So, let's discuss how to exit cleanly.

When you decide to exit the poll loop, you will need another thread to call `consumer.wakeup()`. If you are running the consumer loop in the main thread, this can be done from a `ShutdownHook`. Note that `consumer.wakeup()` is the only consumer method that is safe to call from a different thread. Calling `wakeup` will cause `poll()` to exit with `WakeupException`, or if `consumer.wakeup()` was called while the thread was not waiting on poll, the exception will be thrown on the next iteration when poll is called. The `WakeupException` doesn't need to be handled, it was just a way of breaking out of the loop, but it is important that before exiting the thread, you will call `consumer.close()`, this will do any last commits if needed and will send the group coordinator a message that the consumer is leaving the group, so rebalancing will be triggered immediately and you won't need to wait for the session to time out.

Here is what the exit code will look like if the consumer is running in the main application thread. This example is a bit truncated, you can view the full example [here](#).

```
Runtime.getRuntime().addShutdownHook(new Thread() {  
    public void run() {  
        System.out.println("Starting exit...");  
    }  
});
```

```

        consumer.wakeup(); ❶
        try {
            mainThread.join();
        } catch (InterruptedException e) {
            e.printStackTrace();
        }
    }
});

...

try {
    // looping until ctrl-c, the shutdown hook will cleanup on exit
    while (true) {
        ConsumerRecords<String, String> records = movingAvg.con-
sumer.poll(1000);
        System.out.println(System.currentTimeMillis() + " -- waiting
for data...");
        for (ConsumerRecord<String, String> record : records) {
            System.out.printf("offset = %d, key = %s, value = %s\n",
record.offset(), record.key(), record.value());
        }
        for (TopicPartition tp: consumer.assignment())
            System.out.println("Committing offset at position:" + con-
sumer.position(tp));
        movingAvg.consumer.commitSync();
    }
} catch (WakeupException e) {
    // ignore for shutdown ❷
} finally {
    consumer.close(); ❸
    System.out.println("Closed consumer and we are done");
}
}

```

- ❶ ShutdownHook runs in a separate thread, so the only safe action we can take is to call wakeup to break out of the poll loop
- ❷ Another thread calling wakeup will cause poll to throw a WakeupException. You'll want to catch the exception, to make sure your application doesn't exit unexpectedly, but there is no need to do anything with it.
- ❸ Before exiting the consumer, make sure you close it cleanly.

Deserializers

As discussed in the previous chapter, Kafka Producers require *serializers* to convert objects into byte arrays that are then sent to Kafka. Similarly, Kafka Consumers require *deserializers* to convert byte arrays received from Kafka into Java objects. In

previous examples, we just assumed that both the key and the value of each message are Strings and we used the default StringDeserializer in the Consumer configuration.

In the previous chapter about the Kafka Producer, we've seen how to serialize custom types and how to use Avro and AvroSerializers to generate Avro objects from schema definitions and then serialize them when producing messages to Kafka. We will now look at how to create custom deserializers for your own objects and how to use Avro and its deserializers.

It should be obvious that the serializer that was used in producing events to Kafka must match the deserializer that will be used when consuming events. Serializing with IntSerializer and then deserializing with StringDeserializer will not end well. This means that as a developer you need to keep track of which serializers were used to write into each topic, and make sure each topic only contains data that the deserializers you use can interpret. This is one of the benefits of using Avro and the Schema Repository for serializing and deserializing - the AvroSerializer can make sure that all the data written to a specific topic is compatible with the schema of the topic, which means it can be deserialized with the matching deserializer and schema. Any errors in compatibility - in the producer or the consumer side will be caught easily with an appropriate error message, which means you will not need to try to debug byte arrays for serialization errors.

We will start by quickly showing how to write a custom deserializer, even though this is the less recommended method, and then we will move on to an example of how to use Avro to deserialize message keys and values.

Custom Deserializers

Lets take the same custom object we serialized in Chapter 3, and write a deserializer for it.

```
public class Customer {
    private int customerID;
    private String customerName;

    public Customer(int ID, String name) {
        this.customerID = ID;
        this.customerName = name;
    }

    public int getID() {
        return customerID;
    }

    public String getName() {
        return customerName;
    }
}
```

The custom deserializer will look as follows:

```
import org.apache.kafka.common.errors.SerializationException;

import java.nio.ByteBuffer;
import java.util.Map;

public class CustomerDeserializer implements Deserializer<Customer> { ❶

    @Override
    public void configure(Map configs, boolean isKey) {
        // nothing to configure
    }

    @Override
    public Customer deserialize(String topic, byte[] data) {

        int id;
        int nameSize;
        String name;

        try {
            if (data == null)
                return null;
            if (data.length < 8)
                throw new SerializationException("Size of data received by IntegerDeser-
ializer is shorter than expected");

            ByteBuffer buffer = ByteBuffer.wrap(data);
            id = buffer.getInt();
            String nameSize = buffer.getInt();

            byte[] nameBytes = new Array[Byte](nameSize);
            buffer.get(nameBytes);
            name = new String(nameBytes, 'UTF-8');

            return new Customer(id, name); ❷

        } catch (Exception e) {
            throw new SerializationException("Error when serializing Customer to
byte[] " + e);
        }
    }

    @Override
    public void close() {
        // nothing to close
    }
}
```

- ❶ Note that the consumer also needs the implementation of Customer class, and both the class and the serializer need to match on the producing and consuming

applications. In a large organization with many consumers and producers sharing access to the data, this can become challenging.

- ② We are just reversing the logic of the serializer here - we get the customer ID and name out of the byte array and use them to construct the object we need.

The consumer code that uses this serializer will look similar to this example:

```
Properties props = new Properties();
props.put("bootstrap.servers", "broker1:9092,broker2:9092");
props.put("group.id", "CountryCounter");
props.put("key.deserializer", "org.apache.kafka.common.serialization.StringDe-
serializer");
props.put("value.deserializer", "org.apache.kafka.common.serialization.Customer-
Deserializer");

KafkaConsumer<String, Customer> consumer = new KafkaConsumer<>(props);

consumer.subscribe("customerCountries")

while (true) {
    ConsumerRecords<String, Customer> records = consumer.poll(100);
    for (ConsumerRecord<String, Customer> record : records)
    {
        System.out.println("current customer Id: " + record.value().getId() + " and
current customer name: " + record.value().getName());
    }
}
```

Again, it is important to note that implementing custom serializer and deserializer is not a recommended practice. It tightly couples producers and consumers and is fragile and error-prone. A better solution would be to use a standard message format such as Thrift, Protobuf or Avro. We'll now see how to use Avro deserializers with the kafka consumer. For background on Apache Avro, its schemas and schema-compatibility capabilities, please refer back to Chapter 3.

Using Avro Deserialization with Kafka Consumer

Lets assume we are using the implementation of Customer class in Avro that was shown in Chapter 3. In order to consume those objects from Kafka, you want to implement a consuming application similar to this:

```
Properties props = new Properties();
props.put("bootstrap.servers", "broker1:9092,broker2:9092");
props.put("group.id", "CountryCounter");
props.put("key.serializer", "org.apache.kafka.common.serialization.StringDeser-
ializer");
props.put("value.serializer", "io.confluent.kafka.serializers.KafkaAvroDeserial-
izer"); ①
props.put("schema.registry.url", schemaUrl); ②
String topic = "customerContacts"
```

```

KafkaConsumer consumer = new KafkaConsumer(createConsumerConfig(brokers,
groupId, url));
consumer.subscribe(Collections.singletonList(topic));

System.out.println("Reading topic:" + topic);

while (true) {
    ConsumerRecords<String, Customer> records = consumer.poll(1000); ❸

    for (ConsumerRecord<String, Customer> record: records) {
        System.out.println("Current customer name is: " + record.value().get-
Name()); ❹
    }
    consumer.commitSync();
}

```

- ❶ We use `KafkaAvroDeserializer` to deserialize the Avro messages
- ❷ `schema.registry.url` is a new parameter. This simply points to where we store the schemas. This way the consumer can use the schema that was registered by the producer to deserialize the message.
- ❸ We specify the generated class, `Customer`, as the type for the record value
- ❹ `record.value()` is a `Customer` instance and we can use it accordingly

Configuring Consumers

So far we have focused on learning the Consumer API, but we've only seen very few of the configuration properties - just the mandatory `bootstrap.servers`, `group.id`, `key.deserializer` and `value.deserializer`. All the Consumer configuration is documented in Apache Kafka documentation: [<http://kafka.apache.org/documentation.html#newconsumerconfigs>]. Most of the parameters have reasonable defaults and do not require modification, but some have implications on performance and availability of the consumers. Lets take a look at some of the more important properties:

`fetch.min.bytes`

This property allows a consumer to specify the minimum amount of data that it wants to receive from the broker when fetching records. If a Broker receives a request for records from a Consumer but the new records amount to fewer bytes than `min.fetch.bytes`, the broker will wait until more messages are available before sending the records back to the consumer. This reduces the load on both the Consumer and the Broker as they have to handle fewer back-and-forward messages in cases where the topics don't have much new activity (or for lower activity hours of the day).

You will want to set this parameter higher than the default if the Consumer is using too much CPU when there isn't much data available, or to reduce load on the brokers when you have large number of consumers.

fetch.max.wait.ms

By setting `fetch.min.bytes` you tell Kafka to wait until it has enough data to send before responding to the consumer. `fetch.max.wait.ms` lets you control how long to wait. By default Kafka will wait up to 500ms. This results in up to 500ms of extra latency in case there is not enough data flowing to the Kafka topic to satisfy the minimum amount of data to return. If you want to limit the potential latency (usually due to SLAs controlling the maximum latency of the application), you can set `fetch.max.wait.ms` to lower value. If you set `fetch.max.wait.ms` to 100ms and `fetch.min.bytes` to 1MB, Kafka will receive a fetch request from the consumer and will respond with data either when it has 1MB of data to return or after 100ms, whichever happens first.

max.partition.fetch.bytes

This property controls the maximum number of bytes the server will return per partition. The default is 1MB, which means that when `KafkaConsumer.poll()` returns `ConsumerRecords`, the record object will use at most `max.partition.fetch.bytes` per partition assigned to the Consumer. So if a topic has 20 partitions, and you have 5 consumers, each consumer will need to have 4MB of memory available for `ConsumerRecords`. In practice, you will want to allocate more memory as each consumer will need to handle more partitions if other consumers in the group fail. `max.partition.fetch.bytes` must be larger than the largest message a broker will accept (`max.message.size` property in the broker configuration), or the broker may have messages that the consumer will be unable to consumer, in which case the consumer will hang trying to read them. Another important consideration when setting `max.partition.fetch.bytes` is the amount of time it takes the consumer to process data. As you recall, the consumer must call `poll()` frequently enough to avoid session timeout and subsequent rebalance. If the amount of data a single `poll()` returns is very large, it may take the consumer longer to process, which means it will not get to the next iteration of the poll loop in time to avoid a session timeout. If this occurs the two options are either to lower `max.partition.fetch.bytes` or to increase the session timeout.

session.timeout.ms

The amount of time a consumer can be out of contact with the brokers while still considered alive, defaults to 3 seconds. If a consumer goes for more than `session.timeout.ms` without sending a heartbeat to the group coordinator, it is consid-

ered dead and the group coordinator will trigger a rebalance of the consumer group to allocate partitions from the dead consumer to the other consumers in the group. This property is closely related to `heartbeat.interval.ms`. `heartbeat.interval.ms` controls how frequently the `KafkaConsumer.poll()` method will send a heartbeat to the group coordinator, while `session.timeout.ms` controls how long can a consumer go without sending a heartbeat. Therefore, those two properties are typically modified together - `heartbeat.interval.ms` must be lower than `session.timeout.ms`, and is usually set to a 1/3 of the timeout value. So if `session.timeout.ms` is 3 seconds, `heartbeat.interval.ms` should be 1 second. Setting `session.timeout.ms` lower than default will allow consumer groups to detect and recover from failure sooner, but may also cause unwanted rebalances as result of consumers taking longer to complete the poll loop or garbage collection. Setting `session.timeout.ms` higher will reduce the chance of accidental rebalance, but also means it will take longer to detect a real failure.

auto.offset.reset

This property controls the behavior of the consumer when it starts reading a partition for which it doesn't have a committed offset or if the committed offset it has is invalid (usually because the consumer was down for so long that the record with that offset was already aged out of the broker). The default is "latest", which means that lacking a valid offset the consumer will start reading from the newest records (records which were written after the consumer started running). The alternative is "earliest", which means that lacking a valid offset the consumer will read all the data in the partition, starting from the very beginning.

enable.auto.commit

We discussed the different options for committing offsets earlier in this chapter. This parameter controls whether the consumer will commit offsets automatically and defaults to true. Set it to false if you prefer to control when offsets are committed, which is necessary to minimize duplicates and avoid missing data. If you set `enable.auto.commit` to true then you may also want to control how frequently offsets will be committed using `auto.commit.interval.ms`.

partition.assignment.strategy

We learned that partitions are assigned to consumers in a consumer group. A `PartitionAssignor` is a class that, given consumers and topics they subscribed to, decides which partitions will be assigned to which consumer. By default Kafka has two assignment strategies: * `Range` - which assigns to each consumer a consecutive subset of partitions from each topic it subscribes to. So if consumers C1 and C2 are subscribed to two topics, T1 and T2 and each of the topics has 3 partitions. Then C1 will be

assigned partitions 0 and 1 from topics T1 and T2, while C2 will be assigned partition 2 from those topics. Note that because each topic has uneven number of partitions and the assignment is done for each topic independently, the first consumer ended up with more partitions than the second. This happens whenever Range assignment is used and the number of consumers does not divide the number of partitions in each topic neatly. * RoundRobin - which takes all the partitions from all subscribed topics and assigns them to consumers sequentially, one by one. If C1 and C2 described above would use RoundRobin assignment, C1 would have partitions 0 and 2 from topic T1 and partition 1 from topic T2. C2 would have partition 1 from topic T1 and partitions 0 and 2 from topic T2. In general, if all consumers are subscribed to the same topics (a very common scenario), RoundRobin assignment will end up with all consumers having the same number of partitions (or at most 1 partition difference). `partition.assignment.strategy` allows you to choose a partition assignment strategy. The default is `org.apache.kafka.clients.consumer.RangeAssignor` which implements the Range strategy described above. You can replace it with `org.apache.kafka.clients.consumer.RoundRobinAssignor`. A more advanced option will be to implement your own assignment strategy, in which case `partition.assignment.strategy` should point to the name of your class.

client.id

This can be any string, and will be used by the brokers to identify messages sent from the client. It is used in logging, metrics and for quotas.

Stand Alone Consumer - Why and How to Use a Consumer without a Group

So far we discussed consumer groups, where partitions are assigned automatically to consumers and are rebalanced automatically when consumers are added or removed from the group. Typically, this behavior is just what you want, but in some cases you want something much simpler. Sometimes you know you have a single consumer that always needs to read data from all the partitions in a topic, or from a specific partition in a topic. In this case there is no reason for groups or rebalances, just subscribe to specific topic and/or partitions, consume messages and commit offsets on occasion.

If this is the case, you don't *subscribe* to a topic, instead you *assign* yourself few partitions. Here is an example of how a consumer can assign itself all partitions of a specific topic and consume from them:

```
List<PartitionInfo> partitionInfos = null;
partitionInfos = consumer.partitionsFor("topic"); ❶

if (partitionInfos != null) {
```

```

    for (PartitionInfo partition : partitionInfos)
        partitions.add(new TopicPartition(partition.topic(), partition.partition()));
    consumer.assign(partitions); ❷

    while (true) {
        ConsumerRecords<String, String> records = consumer.poll(1000); ❸

        for (ConsumerRecord<String, String> record: records) {
            System.out.println("topic = %s, partition = %s, offset = %d, customer = %s, country = %s\n",
                                record.topic(), record.partition(), record.offset(), record.key(), record.value());
        }
        consumer.commitSync();
    }
}

```

- ❶ We start by asking the cluster for the partitions available in the topic. If you only plan on consuming a specific partition, you can skip this part.
- ❷ Once we know which partitions we want, we call `assign()` with the list.

Note that other than the lack of rebalances and the need to manually find the partitions, everything looks normal. Just remember that if someone adds new partitions to the topic, the consumer will not be notified. So either handle this by checking `consumer.partitionsFor()` periodically or keep in mind that if an admin adds partitions, the applications will require bouncing. Also note that a consumer can either subscribe to topics (and be part of a consumer group), or assign itself partitions, but not both at the same time.

Older consumer APIs

In this chapter we discussed the Java `KafkaConsumer` client that is part of `org.apache.kafka.clients` package. At the time of writing this chapter, Apache Kafka still has two older clients written in Scala that are part of `kafka.consumer` package which is part of the core Kafka module. These consumers are called `SimpleConsumer` (which is not very simple. It is a thin wrapper around the Kafka APIs that allow you to consume from specific partitions and offsets) and the `High Level Consumer`, also known as `ZookeeperConsumerConnector`, which is somewhat similar to the current consumer in that it has consumer groups and it rebalances partitions - but it uses Zookeeper to manage consumer groups and it does not give you the same control over commits and rebalances as we have now.

Because the current consumer supports both behaviors and gives much more reliability and control to the developer, we will not discuss the older APIs. If you are interes-

ted in using them, please think twice and then refer to Apache Kafka documentation to learn more.

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