

Understanding the Performance of the Java Operating System JX using Visualization Techniques

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Abstract

During the development of the Java-based operating system JX, we frequently needed tools to assess the performance of the microkernel and the Java components. We instrumented the microkernel and the bytecode-to-native-code translator to get information about nearly every aspect of the systems behavior. The gathered data can be visualized to show CPU time consumption of methods, thread scheduling, object allocation behavior, and object ages.

1 Introduction

In the JX project [4][5] we build a complete operating system using the type-safe, object-oriented language Java. One of the major challenges is achieving a performance that is competitive to mainstream operating systems, such as Linux or Solaris. It is in the nature of our microkernel-based system, that most time is spent executing Java code. Achieving a good performance therefore requires an optimizing bytecode-to-nativecode translator and instrumentation/visualization tools to locate performance problems. In this paper we concentrate on the second requirement. To illustrate the various instrumentation and visualization techniques we use one single application: an NFS server that is written in Java (as are the RPC/UDP/IP/device driver layers) and runs on the JX microkernel.

Reed [10] classifies performance instrumentation into timing, counting, sampling, and tracing. The method timing system is described in Section 2, Section 3 describes our sampling system, Section 4 the event tracing. Section 5 describes our tools to assess the memory usage behavior of the system. The problems that we solved concerning data collection and transfer are described in Section 6.

2 Method timing

To write faster code, it is necessary for the programmer to identify the most time-consuming parts of a program. These *hot spots of execution* often indicate poor code or bottlenecks. The hot spots are the parts of the code that benefit

most from optimizations. We instrumented the bytecode-to-nativecode translator to insert code that measures the execution times of methods. Method timing creates an overhead particularly at small methods. To get more exact results, we use several error correction techniques.

Hardware supported measuring. Method timing uses the time stamp counter register (TSC) of the Pentium processor family. The TSC contains the elapsed clock ticks since system boot. To measure the time consumed by a method, we save the TSC in the prolog of the method and subtract the TSC in the epilog of the method. The result is totalized for each invocation pair consisting of caller and callee method. The sum is saved together with the number of invocations and the caller and callee address in a data structure per thread. Collecting the data separately per thread avoids locking overhead and allows to analyze the behavior of a dedicated thread.

Error correction. Figure 1 shows the flowchart of a single method invocation. The measurement of the callee method caused an overhead (extra clock cycles) that falsifies the result.

The extra cycles are wrongly accounted to the caller method. To avoid this measurement error, it is necessary to identify the consumed extra clock cycles. The amount of extra cycles in the prolog is almost constant and it is possible to determine a fix value. The more significant and

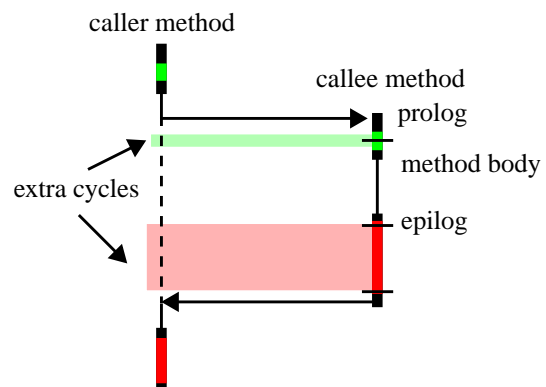


Figure 1: Error correction of one method call

changing number of extra cycles in the epilog is measured by reading the time stamp count a third time and computing the number of extra cycles.

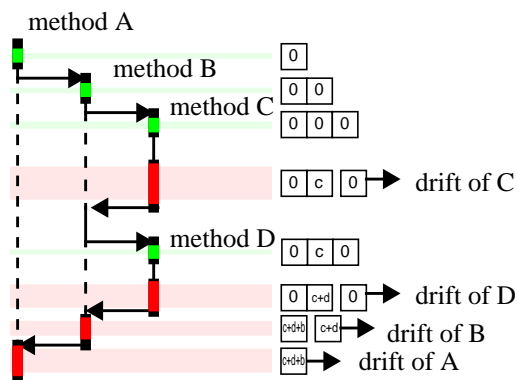


Figure 2: Error correction in a call chain

For error correction of a deeper nested method we have to accumulate the quantified drift and propagate the drift to the callers. A stack is used for this task. Figure 2 illustrates the functionality of the stack. On every method invocation the stack is growing by a new initialized counter. The drift for a particular method is always accumulated on the topmost counter. In the epilog of a method the topmost counter is popped from the stack and subtracted from the measured clock cycles of the method. Then the drift is added to the drift of the caller method.

In this way the error made by the measurement is sufficiently compensated for a single thread. This is sufficient to find the most-time-consuming parts of a program or to examine the execution path. But it is not sufficient to determine the exact execution time for a single method or to determine the variation, because the execution of extra code during the measurement has noticeable impact on the memory bandwidth, the caches, the buffers, and the branch prediction of the processor. To measure the exact execution time of a single method the translator can be configured to insert the measurement code only into the prolog and epilog of that method.

Support of multithreading. The JX system, as a Java runtime environment, usually has more than one thread of execution. While profiling is active the system scheduler has to inform the profiler about the suspension of a thread. In this case the number of clock cycles during the suspension period is computed. If the thread is suspended outside the measurement routine the computed value is added to the current drift counter.

Analysing the results. To get a better overview of the executions paths we produce diagrams that show the execution times.

A call graph display (Figure 3) is produced by using the *dot* program [1]. After having produced several call graphs we concluded that this visualization is not well-suited to give a good picture of the consumed time. This was the reason to develop another visualization (Figure 4) that shows a box for each method, where the size of the box is proportional to the time consumed by this method.

3 Sampling

Similar to method timing, sampling is used to find hotspots in the system, but with a considerably lower measurement overhead. While timing measures the exact execution times of methods, sampling can only produce a statistical view of the system. The timer interrupt service routine (ISR) logs the instruction pointer of the interrupted instruction. The distribution of the instruction pointers indicates where the program spends most of its time.

4 Event tracing

User-generated events. JX allows Java components to log component-specific events. The Java code can register an event name with the microkernel and gets an event number. This number is used for subsequent logging. Time and event number are stored in main memory. The overhead of logging an event is 45 cycles.

Figure 5 shows the event trace that is produced when the system boots and acts as an NFS server. The system first sends a bootp request and receives a reply packet (at about 48.75 sec). Then the client mounts the NFS file system, and starts to read the same file in an endless loop. This creates RPC and NFS traffic starting at about 53.6 sec. 0.2 sec. later there starts a dense block of events. These are the *getattr* requests that are sent by the client during the execution of the benchmark program. The block of events is interrupted three times by the garbage collector, that in the current version of JX disables all interrupts. This will be changed when the protocol between GC and intra-domain scheduler is finished.

To improve the NFS request rate, we have to look at the events in more detail, so we zoom into the 3.4 millisecond interval starting at about 53.791 sec (Figure 6). There is an obvious pattern of consecutive events (dotted line) that starts and ends with a *3C905interrupt* event. A complete cycle needs about 905 μ sec. Figure 7 displays the times between successive events.

Method enter/exit events. For debugging purposes it is often interesting to know which methods are executed in which order. Our translator can be configured to insert a prologue that logs TSC and method pointer. The same event-recording facilities as with user-generated events are used. Therefore the diagram looks similar.

Scheduling events. To visualize the scheduling behavior of the system we use a thread activity diagram. The kernel is instrumented to collect events during thread switching. The TSC and target thread ID are logged.

Figure 8 shows the thread activity during boot and the NFS test. The y-axis shows either the thread name or the thread ID for unnamed threads. Some background information is necessary to understand this diagram. “Idle” is the thread that runs when no other thread is runnable. The “Main-Test” thread is the thread that selects which test to run. “IRQThread8” is the first-level interrupt handler for the RTC interrupt. It runs periodically and fires timers by unblocking other threads. As “IRQThread8” is a first-level handler it runs with interrupts disabled and must complete in a bounded time. Time-consuming tasks are delegated to the “TimerManager” thread. At about 53.79 sec. the system starts to receive *getattr* NFS requests and the thread switches start to occur more frequently. “IRQThread9” is the first level interrupt handler for the NIC (network interface card) interrupt. It acknowledges the received packet with the NIC, places it in a queue, and unblocks the “Etherpacket-Queue” thread that processes that queue.

5 Memory

Java uses an automatic memory management called garbage collection. The programmer creates objects but never destroys them. This is very convenient for the programmer. But during performance debugging or in order to find memory leaks the programmer wants to know exactly when objects are allocated and destroyed.

Object creation: time, size and code position. Figure 9 shows at which times and in which libraries, classes, and methods objects are allocated. The object size is color-coded: blue means a small, red a large allocation.

Object creation and destruction. Figure 10 shows the lifetime of objects. The y-axis shows the instruction pointer of the code position of allocation (equally distributed). The color relates to the object type (class). At one allocation point (in the Java space, not inside the kernel) the same type of object is created. Figure 11 presents a closer look at the objects that are created in the last tenth of the diagram in Figure 10.

Object aging. We developed several visualizations to capture whether objects are long- or short-living and what kind of objects are more likely to have a long or short lifetime. Figure 12 shows the age of objects and where they are allocated. The number of instances of a class with a certain age is encoded in the size of the dot. The red line is the average number of instances with the specific age.

Cache behaviour. Figure 13 displays the values of the Pentium III performance counters. During this test they are con-

figured to measure the number of lines evicted from the L2 cache and the number of L2 requests. Together with the thread activity diagram in Figure 8 the performance counter diagram tells us that there is lot of cache activity (many accesses and misses) during the boot phase. Then the code has only few accesses to the L2 cache. Most requests seem to be satisfied by L1. There is a three seconds interval where the line is absolutely horizontal. During this period the system is idle after the initialization of the NIC. The following steep rise of the curve is created by the GC, which has poorer locality than the rest of the system (see thread activity diagram Figure 8).

6 Data collection and transfer

JX is a microkernel with minimal built-in device support. From a software engineering perspective this architecture is superior to monolithic OS architectures. Due to the lack of built-in device drivers and file systems, a microkernel architecture makes it very difficult to transfer the collected data from the target system to the outside world. Only the serial device is supported by the JX microkernel. It is used for debugging and data transfer.

Especially the GC-aging instrumentation may generate up to hundreds of megabytes of data. It is very unpractical to transfer this data in a textual representation via the serial line. Therefore we transfer it in compressed binary format using the *minilzo* [8] compression library.

7 Related work

JVMPI. The Java Virtual Machine Profiler Interface (JVMPI) is an event-based interface between a JVM and a profiler agent. Whenever something interesting happens inside the VM (method is entered or exited, object is allocated, moved, or freed, etc.) the profiler agent is notified. The profiler agent is also allowed to instrument a class file after it has been loaded. Because the JVMPI is intended as a standard interface between different JVMs and profilers the profiler and JIT are not as tightly integrated as in JX. The ability of the bytecode-to-native-code translator to insert special profiling code allows to reduce the measurement error and to collect trace data with very low overhead. Furthermore, JX allows to collect hardware-specific data using the CPU’s performance counters, which is essential for the optimization of the translator.

Hyperprof. Hyperprof uses the data generated by an unmodified JVM when the “-prof” switch is used. It shows caller-callee relations and method timing as hyperbolic tree. While our visualization is not that spectacular it nevertheless makes the same information visually available (method timing diagram).

Jinsight. IBM's Jinsight uses a modified JVM to get more detailed trace information. It is able to display thread activity, object usage and creation, and garbage collection. It also provides special features to help diagnosing memory leaks. As indicated in the previous sections, we can perform similar diagnostics.

JaViz. JaViz is another performance visualization tool that collects trace data using a modified JVM. The main focus of this tool is the analysis of client/server applications. After collecting and merging the data a call graph can be displayed including client/server interaction. While our profiling tools are not designed to merge data collected on different computers, it is possible to trace the interaction between different applications.

Commercial tools. There are also some commercial tools to profile applications. For example Rational Quantify [9] counts individual machine cycles by inserting counting instructions into the object code for every functional block of code.

JProbe (Sitraka Software) [11], OptimizeIt (Intuitive Systems Inc.) are similar tools. They all provide a call graph display, memory usage diagrams etc.

8 Conclusion and future work

A comprehensive analyses of a Java-based OS needs several instrumentation and visualization techniques. Instrumentation techniques range from very invasive method timing and object aging analysis to low overhead application generated events. The captured data is currently visualized by generating a FrameMaker MIF file. The MIF backend should be easily replaceable by other backends, e.g., for X11, which allow an interactive selection of the interesting data by specifying time ranges, event types, or object types.

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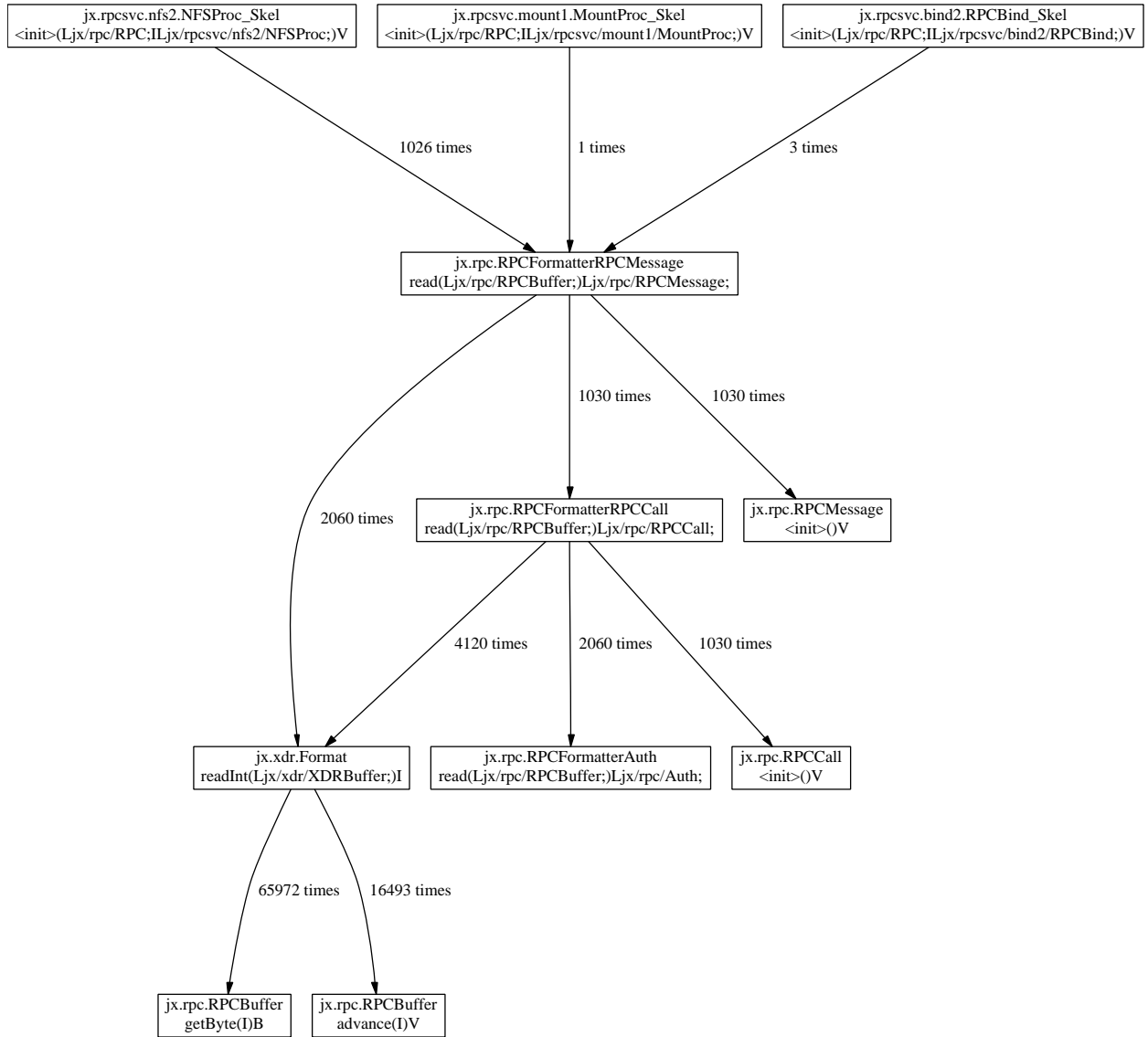
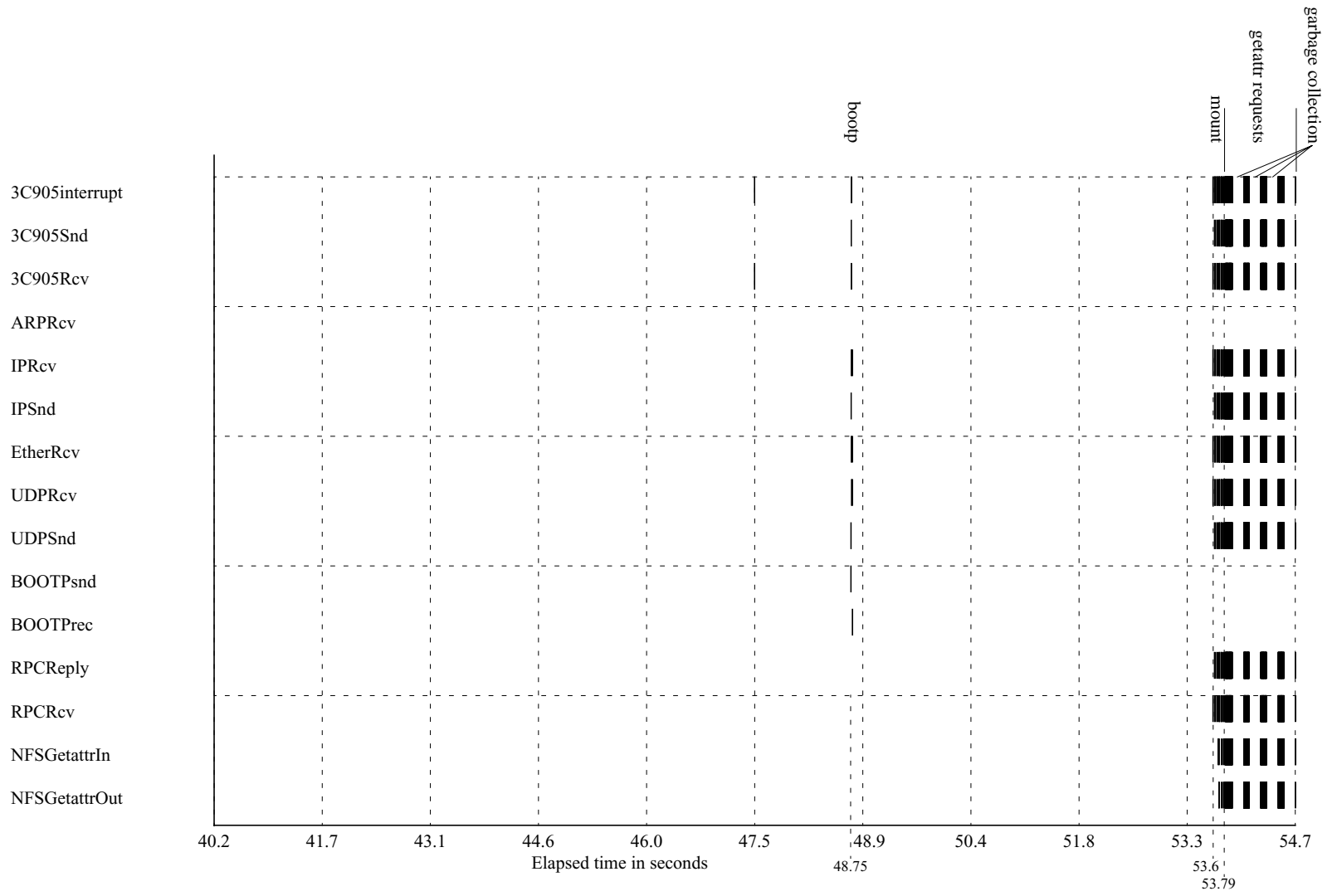


Figure 3: Call graph produced by *dot*

Figure 5: Application-generated events



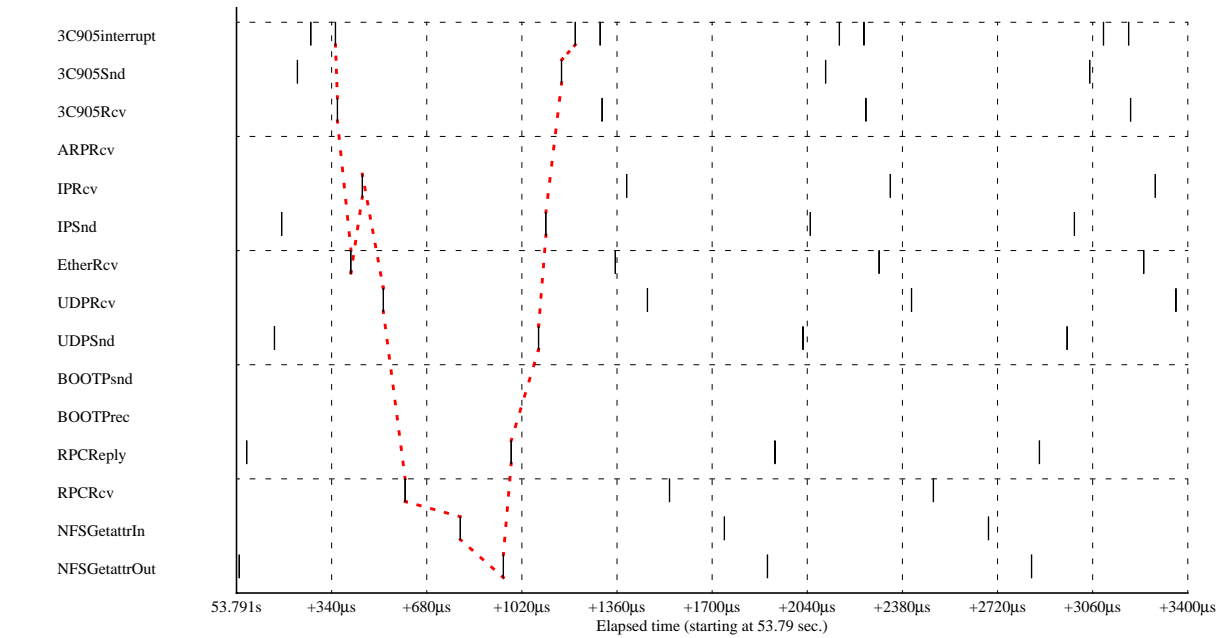


Figure 6: Event trace

3C905interrupt	49
3C905Snd	56
IPSnd	26
UDPSnd	99
RPCReply	29
NFSGetattrOut	168
NFSGetattrIn	210
RPCRcv	82
UDPRcv	83
IPRcv	43
EtherRcv	54
3C905Rcv	6
3C905interrupt	

Figure 7: Time between events

Figure 8: Thread activity diagram

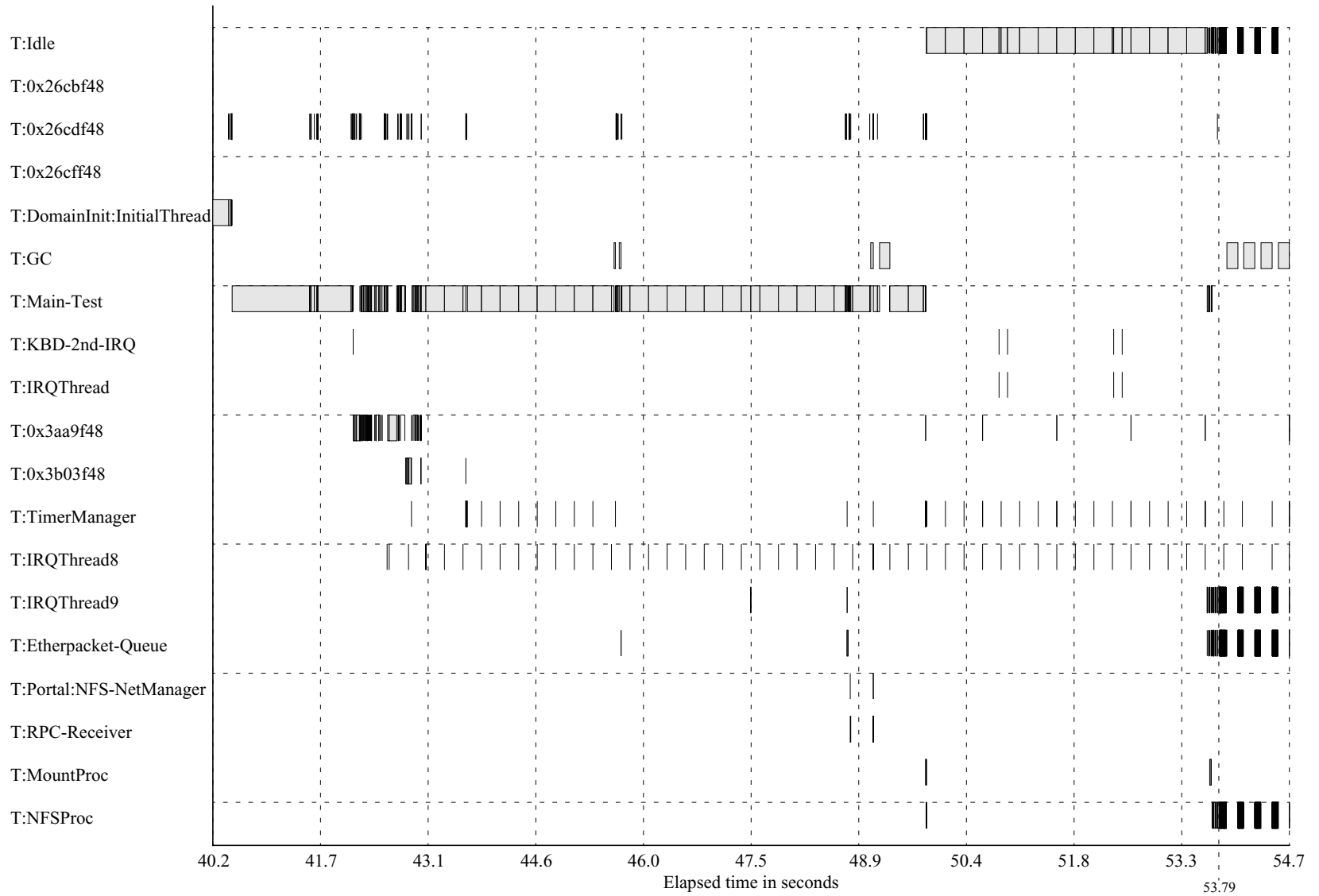


Figure 9: Object allocations over time

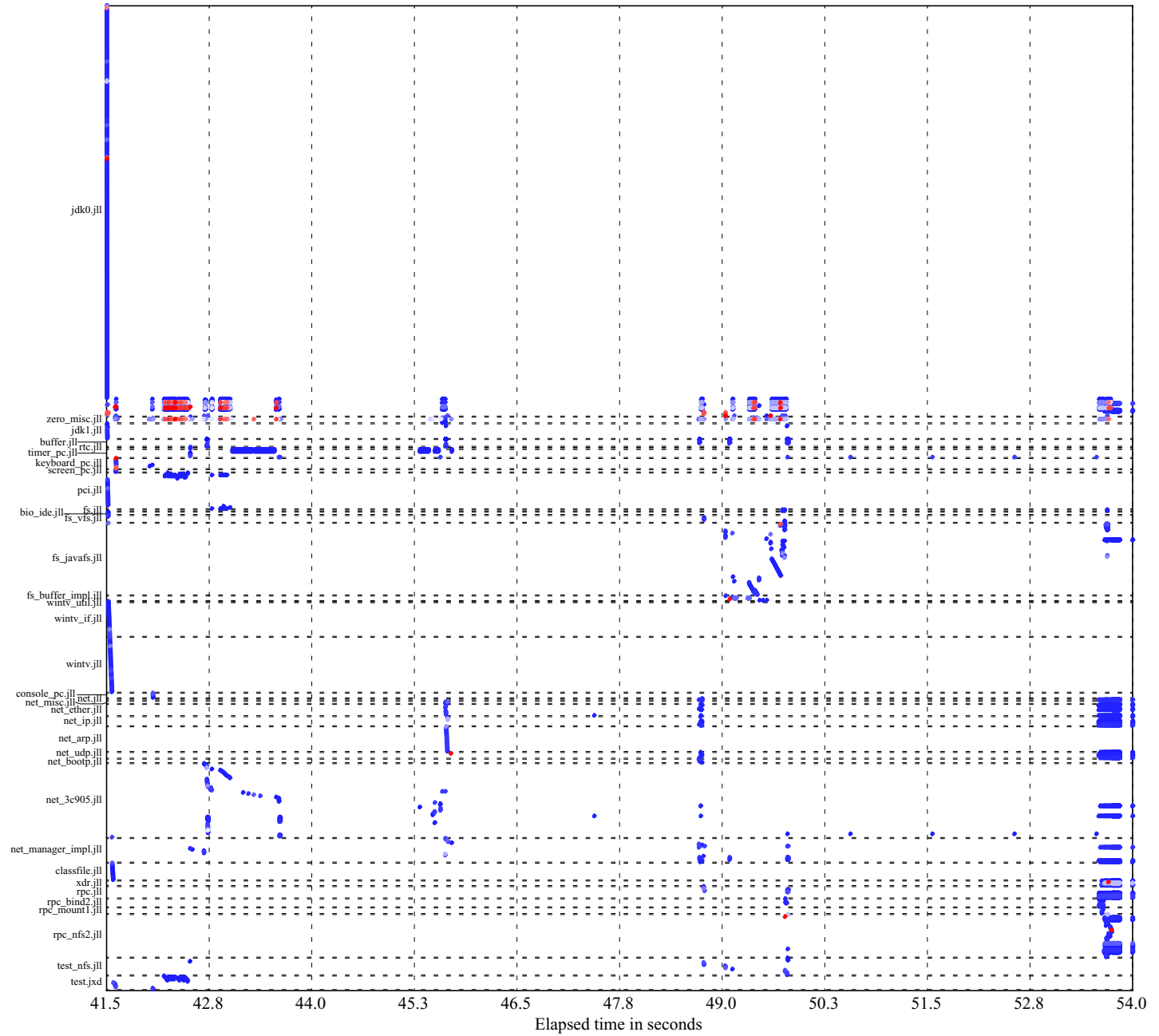


Figure 10: Object liveness

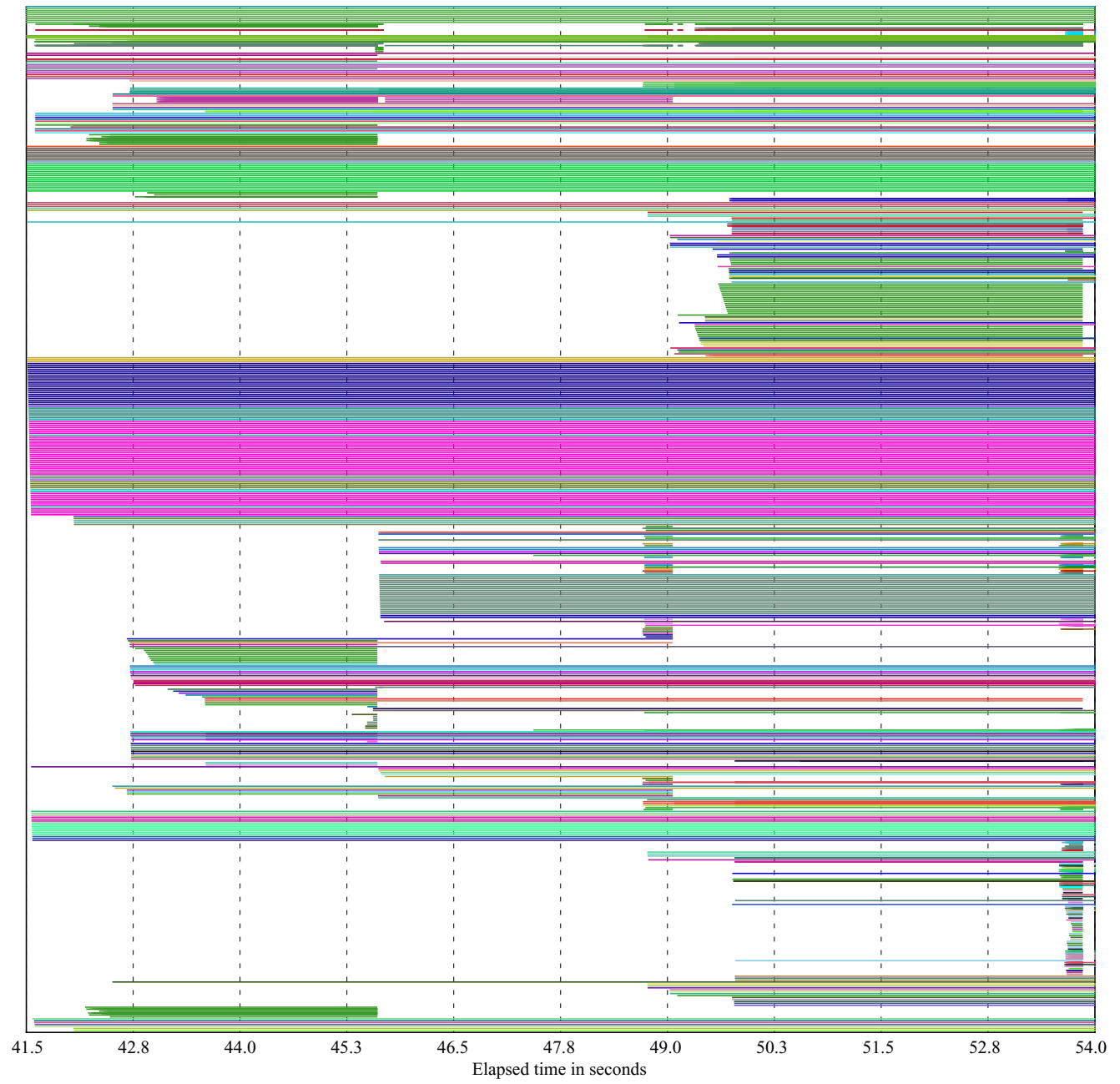
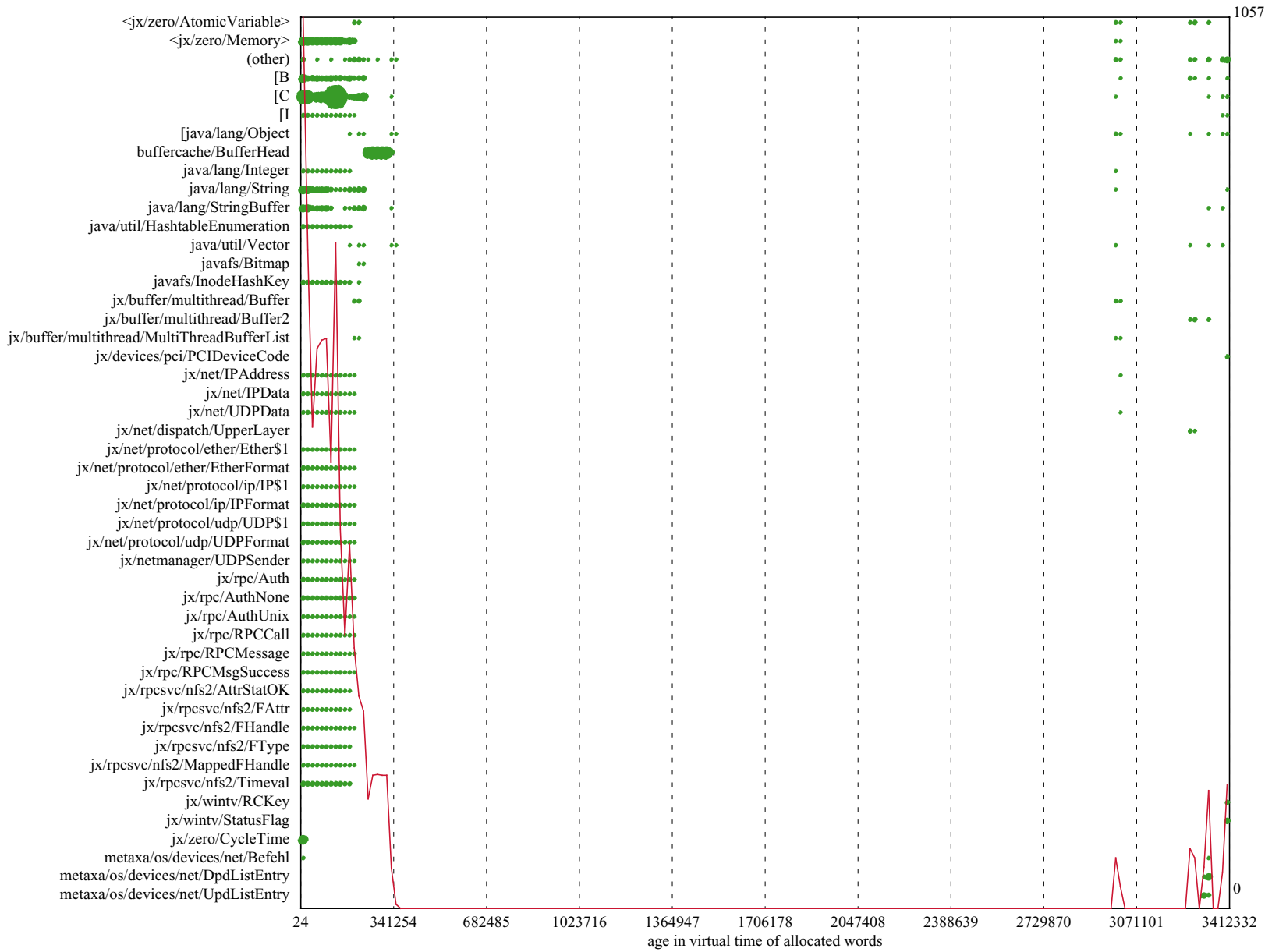


Figure 12: Age distribution of class instances
 Red line: sum of instances of a certain age



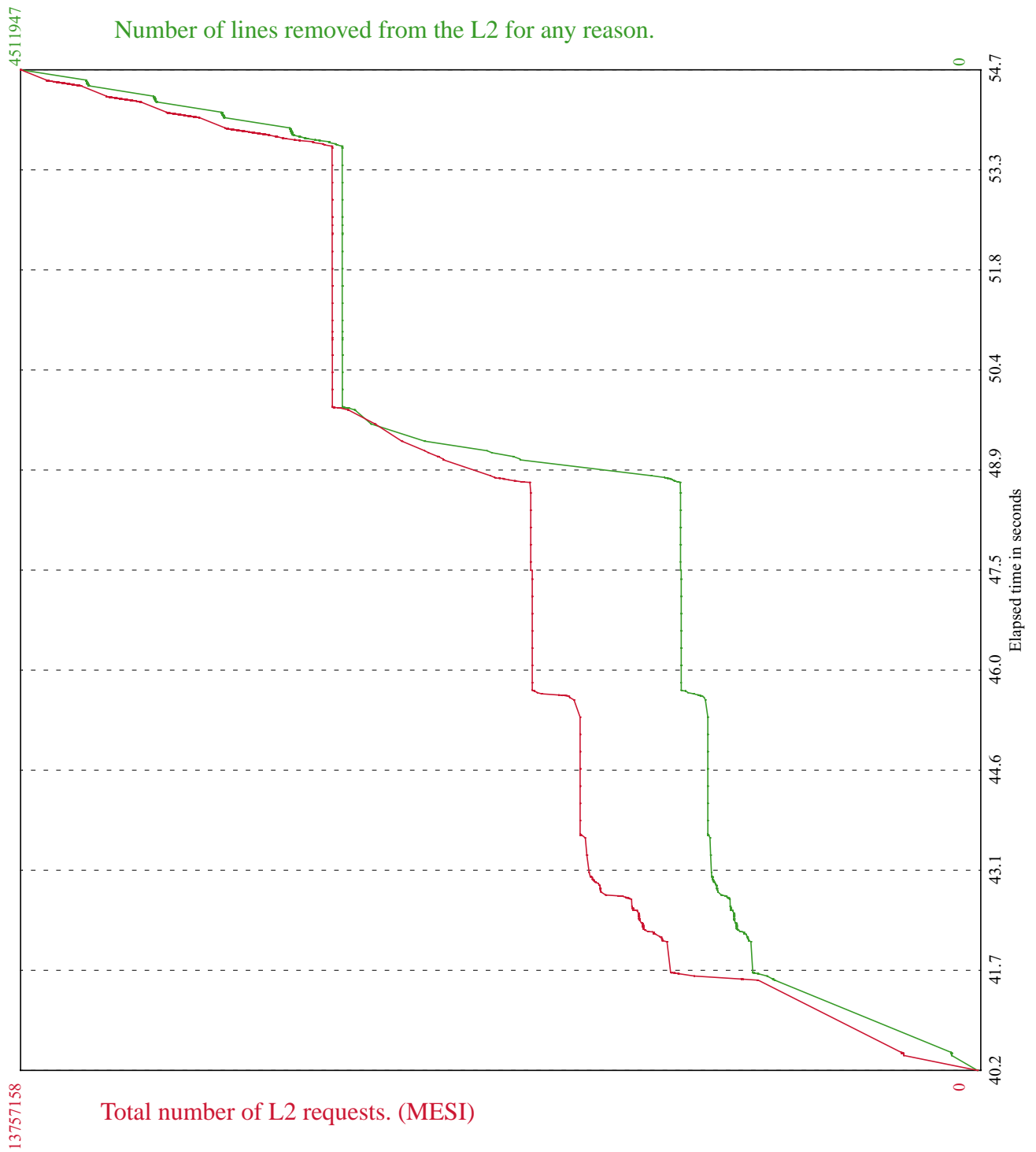


Figure 13: P6 performance counters during boot and NFS test