Runtime support for memory adaptation in scientific applications via local disk and remote memory [*]

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Abstract

The ever increasing memory demands of many scientific applications and the complexity of today's shared computational resources still require the occasional use of virtual memory, network memory, or even out-of-core implementations, with well known drawbacks in performance and usability. In [19], we introduced a basic framework for a runtime, user-level library, MMLIB, *in which DRAM is treated as a dynamic size cache for large memory objects residing on local disk. Application developers can specify and access these objects through* MMLIB, *enabling their application to execute optimally under variable memory availability, using as much DRAM as fluctuating memory levels will allow.*

In this paper, we first extend MMLIB *from a proof of concept to a usable, robust, and flexible library. We present a general framework that enables fully customizable, memory malleability in a wide variety of scientific applications, and provide several necessary enhancements to its environment sensing capabilities. Second, we introduce a remote memory capability, based on MPI communication of cached memory blocks between 'compute nodes' and designated memory servers. The increasing speed of interconnection networks makes a remote memory approach attractive, especially at the large granularity present in large scientific applications.*

We show experimental results from three important scientific applications that require the general MMLIB *framework. Their memory-adaptive versions perform nearly optimally under constant memory pressure and execute harmoniously with other applications competing for memory, without thrashing the memory system. We observe execution time improvements of factors between three and five over relying solely on the virtual memory system. With remote memory employed, these factors are even larger and significantly better than other, system-level remote memory implementations.*

1 Introduction

Commoditization of memory chips has enabled unprecedented increases in the memory available on today's computers and at rapidly decreasing costs. Manufacturing and marketing factors, however, keep the costs disproportionally high for larger memory chips. Therefore, although many shared computational resource pools or even large scale MPPs boast a large aggregate memory, only a small amount (relative to the high demands of many scientific applications) is available on individual processors. Moreover, available memory may vary temporally under multiprogramming. Sharing memory resources accross processors is a difficult problem, particularly when applications cannot reserve sufficient memory for sufficiently long times. These realities pose tremendous problems in many memory demanding scientific applications.

To quantify the magnitude of the problem, we use a simple motivating example. We ran a parallel multigrid code to compute a three-dimensional potential field on four SMPs that our department maintains as a resource pool for computationally demanding jobs. Each SMP has 1 GB of memory. Since our code needed 860 MB per processor, we could run it using only one processor per node. While our code was running other users could run small jobs without interference. When a user attempted to launch Matlab to compute the QR decomposition of a large matrix on one of the processors in an SMP, the time per iteration in our multigrid code jumped from 14 to 472 seconds as virtual memory system thrased. Most virtual memory systems would cause thrashing in this case, because their page replacement policies are not well suited for this type of scientific application.

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Memory pressure can also be encountered on dedicated or space-shared COWs and MPPs. An important class of scientific applications runs a large number of sequential or low parallel degree jobs to explore a range of parameters. Typically, larger numbers of processors enable higher throughput computing. However, when memory is insufficient for individual jobs, such applications grind to a halt under virtual memory. On some MPPs, with small or no local disks, virtual memory is not adequate or even possible. Utilizing more processors per job to exploit larger aggregate memory may not be possible either, because the jobs are sequential or of limited parallel scalability. Application scientists often address these issues by implementing specialized out-of-core codes, and utilizing the parallel file systems that many MPPs employ. Besides the double performance penalty (data read from disk *and* propagated through the interconnection network), such codes often lack flexibility, performing I/O even for data sets that could fit in memory.

Scenarios such as the above are one of the reasons for using batch schedulers, resource matchmakers, process migration and several other techniques that warrant that each application will have enough memory to run without thrashing throughout its lifetime. These methods are not without problems. They may incur high waiting times for jobs, or high runtime migration overheads whenever there is resource contention. On certain platforms, such as shared-memory multiprocessors, some of these methods are not even applicable, as users may reserve more memory than their memory-per-CPU share [9]. A similar situation can occur if applications are allowed to use network RAM (NRAM) or other remote memory mechanisms [29]. Moreover, most remote memory research has been at the system level which incurs unacceptably high latencies for page replacement [17].

The problem is equally hard at the sequential level. Page replacement policies of virtual memory systems usually target applications such as transaction processing that do not share the same memory access patterns as most scientific applications. In addition, high seek times during thrashing cannot be amortized by prefetching, as it is unreasonable to expect the virtual memory system to predict the locality and pattern of block accesses on disk. On the other hand, compiler or user-provided hints would require modifications to the system.

To tame these problems we have developed a runtime library, MMLIB (Memory Malleability library), that controls explicitly the DRAM allocations of specified large objects during the runtime of an application, thus enabling it to execute optimally under variable memory availability. MMLIB allows applications to use customized, application-specific memory management policies, running entirely at user-level. To achieve portability and performance, MMLIB blocks specified memory objects into *panels* and manages them through memory mapping. This provides programmers with a familiar interface that has no explicit I/O and can exploit the same common abstractions used to optimize code for memory hierarchies. Moreover, the advantages of running applications fully in-core are maintained, when enough memory is available. The library is designed for portability across operating systems and implemented in a non-intrusive manner.

In [19], we gave a proof of concept of MMLIB based on a simplified framework, and developed a parameter-free algorithm to accurately ascertain memory shortage and availability strictly at user-level. In this paper, we first provide a general framework that enables memory malleability in a variety of scientific applications, and enhance MMLIB's sensing capabilities to require no user input. Second, we introduce remote memory capability into MMLIB, based on MPI communication of panels between compute nodes and designated memory servers. Besides performance improvements on clusters with high speed networks, our flexible, user-level design enables a host of options such as multiple memory servers, and dynamic migration of panels between servers.

We see several benefits in this library-based approach for memory malleability. Injecting memory malleability into scientific applications allows them to run under memory pressure with degraded but acceptable efficiency, under a wider variety of execution conditions. Efficient memory adaptive applications can benefit both high-level batch schedulers, by letting them harness cycles from busy machines with idle memory, and operating system schedulers, by avoiding thrashing and thus securing continuous service to jobs. Also, as we show in this paper, the transparent design enables the library to implement remote memory when local disks are small or slower than fetching data from the network. MMLIB is an optimization tool for DRAM accesses at the low level of the memory hierarchy (disk/network), but it can coexist with and complement optimization tools for higher levels (memory/cache), enabling a unified approach to locality optimization in block-structured codes.

We present experimental results from three important scientific applications that we linked with MMLIB. Besides their importance for scientific computing, these applications stress different aspects of MMLIB and motivate the runtime optimizations presented in this work.

2 Related work

An attractive feature of multiprogrammed clusters of workstations has been pointed out in a quantitative study by Acharya and Setia [3]. They show that, on average, more than half of the memory of the clusters is available for intervals between 5 and 30 minutes, with shorter intervals for larger memory requests. The study did not investigate mechanisms and policies for exploiting idle memory or the impact of fluctuations of idle memory on application performance.

Batch schedulers for privately owned networks of workstations and grids, such as Condor-G [13] and the GrADS scheduling framework [10], use admission control schemes which schedule a job only on nodes with enough memory. This avoids thrashing at the cost of reduced utilization of memory and potentially higher job waiting times. Other coarse-grain approaches for avoiding thrashing include checkpointing and migration of jobs. However, such approaches are not generally aware of the performance characteristics or the execution state of the program [28].

Chang et.al. [8] have presented a user-level mechanism for constraining the resident set sizes of user programs within a fixed range of available memory. They assume that the program has an a-priori knowledge of lower and upper bounds of the required memory range. This work does not consider dynamic changes to memory availability, nor does it address the problem of customizing the memory allocation and replacement policy to the memory access pattern of the application—both central issues in our research.

An approach that addresses a dynamically changing environment for general applications has been developed by Brown and Mowry [7] that integrates compiler analysis, operating system support, and a runtime layer to enable memory-intensive applications to effectively use paged virtual memory. The runtime layer makes the appropriate memory allocation decisions by processing hints on the predicted memory usage that the compiler inserted. Although the approach has shown some good results, it requires modifications to the operating system. In addition, applications with complex memory-access patterns can cause significant difficulties in identifying appropriate release points.

Barve and Vitter [6] presented a theoretical framework for estimating the optimal performance that algorithms could achieve if they adapted to varying amounts of available memory. They did not discuss implementation details or how system adaptivity can be achieved. Pang et al. [25] presented a sorting algorithm that dynamically splits and merges the resident buffer to adapt to changes in the memory available to the DBMS. This is a simulation-based study that does not discuss any details of the adaptation interface.

Remote memory servers have been employed in multicomputers [15] for jobs that exceed the available memory per processor. The advent of high-throughput computing on shared computational resources has motivated the design of NRAM systems for clusters of workstations [17, 4, 5, 12, 24]. Real implementations of NRAM and memory servers [5, 15, 11, 29] extend the operating system paging algorithms and provide support for consistency and fault tolerance at the page level. Though performance improvements have been reported over disk-based virtual memory systems, the page level fine granularity still incurs significant overheads, and thrashing can still occur. Moreover, such implementations require substantial changes to the operating system.

At the user-level, Nieplocha et al. [21] have developed the Global Arrays Toolkit that implements a distributed shared memory access to certain, user-specified arrays. Its design philosophy is different from ours, however, as many processes require access to the shared array, and at various levels of granularity. Koussih et al. [16] describe a user-level, remote memory management system called Dodo. Based on a Condor-like philosophy, Dodo harvests unused memory from idle workstations. It provides allocation and management of fine-grained remote memory objects, as well as user-defined replacement policies, but it does not include adaptation mechanisms for dynamically varying RAM, and cannot apply to local disks, or to remote memory servers that are not idle.

In [23], Nikolopoulos presented an adaptive scheduling scheme for alleviating memory pressure on multiprogrammed COWs, while co-ordinating the scheduling of the communicating threads of parallel jobs. That scheme required modifications to the operating system. In [22], he suggested the use of dynamic memory mapping for controlling the resident set of a program within a range of available physical memory. The algorithm operated at page-level granularity. In [20], two of the authors followed an application-level approach that avoided thrashing of an eigenvalue solver, by having the node under memory pressure recede its computation during that most computationally intensive phase, hopefully speeding the completion of competing jobs.

3 User-level adaptation

Application-level approaches are sometimes received with caution because of increased developer involvement. However, to exploit higher memory hierarchies, developers of scientific applications already block the accesses to the data or use libraries where such careful blocking is provided. Blocking for memory access is at a much larger granularity and thus complementary to cache access. Based on this, our approach in [19] considered the largest data object partitioned into P blocks, which in out-of-core literature are often called *panels*, and operated as follows:

```
for i = 1:$P$
    Get panel $p_{pattern(i)}$ from lower level memory
    Work with $p_{pattern(i)}$
```

Most scientific applications consist of code segments that can be described in this familiar to developers format. As long as the "get panel" encapsulates the memory management functionality, no code restructuring is ever needed.

On a dedicated workstation one can easily select between an in-core or an out-of-core algorithm and data structure according to the size of the problem. On a non-dedicated system though, the algorithm should adapt to memory variability, running as fast as an in-core algorithm if there is enough memory to store its entire data set, or utilizing the available memory to cache as many panels as possible. Based on memory mapped I/O, we provided a framework and supporting library for modifying codes for memory adaptivity that are portable to many applications and operating systems. Memory mapping has several advantages over conventional I/O because it avoids write-outs to swap space of read-only panels, integrates data access from memory and disk, allows for fine tuning of the panel size to hide disk latencies and facilitates an implementation of various cache replacement policies.

To get a new panel, the application calls a function from our library that also controls the number of panels kept in-core. At this point, the function has three choices: it can increase or decrease the number of in-core panels if additional, or respectively less, memory is available; or it can sustain the number of in-core panels if no change in memory availability is detected. The policy for selecting panels to evict is user defined as only the application has full knowledge of the access pattern.

Critical to this functionality is that our library be able to detect memory shortage and availability. However, the amount of total available memory is a global system information that few systems provide, and even then, it is expensive and with no consistent semantics. In [19], we developed an algorithm which relies only on measurements of the program's resident set size (RSS), a widely portable and local information. Memory shortage is inferred from a decrease in a program's RSS that occurs without any unmapping on the part of the program. Memory surplus is detected using a "probing" approach in which the availability of a quantity of memory is determined by attepmting to use it and seeing if it can be maintained in the resident set. The algorithm is parameter-free, expecting only an estimate of the memory requirements of the program, excluding the managed panels. We call the size of this non-managed memory, *static memory* (sRSS). The algorithm detects memory availability, by probing the system at dynamically selected time intervals, attempting to increase memory usage one panel at a time. For the effectiveness of this algorithm in identifying the available memory, the reader is referred to [19].

3.1 A general framework

The above simplified framework is limited to a class of applications with repeated, exhaustive passes through one, read-only object. We have developed a more comprehensive framework that captures characteristics from a much larger class of applications. Scientific applications often work on many large memory objects at a time, with various access patterns for each object, sometimes working persistently on one panel, while other panels are only partially accessed, or even modified. This extended framework of applications is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1 depicts only one computation phase, which is repeated several times during the lifetime of the program. A computation phase denotes a thematic beginning and end of some computation, e.g., one iteration of the CG method or the two innermost of three nested loops. In this phase, a small number of memory objects are accessed (e.g., the matrix and the preconditioner in the CG algorithm), as their sheer size limits their number. In contrast to the previous simplified framework, we do not assume a sequential pass through all the panels of an object, although this is often the case in practice. In this context, a full sweep denotes a completion of the phase.

For each iteration of the computation phase, certain panels from certain memory objects need to be fetched, worked upon, and possibly written back. The iteration space in the current computation phase, the objects needed for the current iteration, and the access patterns for panels depend on the algorithm and can be described by the programmer. Finally, our new framework allows memory objects to fluctuate in size between different computation phases.

We have extended MMLIB to implement this general framework, hiding all bookkeeping and adaptation decisions from the user. The user interface that enables this transparency and a detailed discussion of the technical issues involved are described in detail in [18]. An outline of the main functions and some implementation details are given in Appendix A.

3.2 Estimating static memory size

Our memory adaptation algorithm in [19] assumes that the program has an accurate estimate of the size of its *static memory*, i.e., memory not associated with managed objects. This is needed for calculating how much of the RSS belongs to the mapped objects. However, this size may not be easily computed or even available to the program if large enough static memory is allocated within linked, third party libraries. Moreover, for some programs the static memory may fluctuate between sweeps of the computation phase. A more serious problem arises when the static memory is not accessed during the computation phase. Under memory pressure, most operating systems consider the static memory least recently used and slowly swap it out of DRAM. This causes a false detection of memory shortage, and the unmapping of as many panels as the size of the swapped static memory.

An elegant solution to this problem relies on a system call named `mincore()` for most Unix systems and `VirtualQuery()` for Windows. The call allows a process to obtain information about which pages from a certain memory segment are resident in core. Because MMLIB can only ascertain residency of its MMS objects, it uses `mincore()` to compute the actual resident size of the MMS panels, which is exactly what our algorithm needs. Obviously, the use of this technique at every `get_panel` is prohibitive because of the overhead associated with checking the pages of all mapped panels. We follow a more feasible, yet equally effective strategy. We measure the residency of all panels (mRSS) in the beginning of a new computational phase, and derive an accurate estimate of the static memory: sRSS = RSS − mRSS, with RSS obtained from the system. As long as no memory shortage is detected, we use sRSS during the computation phase. Otherwise, we recompute mRSS and sRSS to make sure we do not unnecessarily unmap panels. Since unmapping is not a frequent occurrence the overall `mincore` overhead is tiny, especially compared to the slow down the code experiences when unmapping is required.

3.2.1 A most-missing eviction policy

One of the design goals of MMLIB is to preempt the virtual memory system paging policy by holding the RSS of the application below the level at which the system will begin to swap out our pages. Under increasing memory pressure, the paging algorithm of the system could be antagonistic by paging out data that MMLIB tries to keep resident, thus causing unnecessary additional memory shortage. In this case, it may be beneficial to "concede defeat" and limit our losses by evicting those panels that have had most of their pages swapped out, rather than evicting according to our policy, say MRU. The rationale is that if the OS has evicted LRU pages, these will have to be reloaded either way, so we might as well evict the corresponding panels. Evicting MRU panels may make things worse because we will have to load the swapped out LRU pages as well as the MRU panels that we evicted.

The `mincore` functionality we described above facilitates the implementation of this "most missing" policy. This policy is not at odds with the user specified policy because it is only applied when memory shortage is detected, which is when the antagonism with the system policy can occur. Under constant or increasing memory availability the user policy is in effect. Preliminary results in section 5 show clear advantages with this policy.

4 Remote memory extension

Despite a dramatic increase in disk storage capacities, improvements in disk latencies have lagged significantly behind those of interconnection networks. Hence, remote virtual memory has often been suggested [17]. The argument is strengthened by work in [3, 2, 16] showing that there is significant benefit to harvesting the ample idle memory in computing clusters for data-intensive applications. The argument is imposing on MPPs, where parallel I/O must pass also through the interconnection network.

The general MMLIB framework in Figure 1 lends itself naturally to a remote memory extension. The key modification is that instead of memory mapping a new panel from the corresponding file on disk, we allocate space for it and request it from a remote memory server. This server stores and keeps track of unmapped panels in its memory, while handling the mapping requests. In implementing this extension we had to address several design issues.

First, we chose MPI for the communication between processors, because it is a widely portable interface that users are also familiar with. Also, because MMLIB works entirely at user-level, we need the user to be able to designate which processors will play the role of remote memory servers. This is deliberately unlike the Dodo or Condor systems that try to scavenge idle memory and cycles in COWs. The long experience of some of the authors in scientific programming suggests that users are empowered, not burdened by exercising this control. The downside of using MPI is that the user must compile and run sequential programs with MPI. All other MPI set up and communications are handled internally in MMLIB. For parallel programs there is no additional burden to the user. In the future, and if experience deems it necessary, a more transparent communication mechanism can be implemented with minimal change to MMLIB. Nevertheless, our implementation is practically transparent, and it has provided a valuable proof of concept for this functionality.

Second, because each panel is associated with a particular remote server, the executing process knows where to request it from. This allows the panels of one memory object to be kept on a number of servers. At the same time each server may be storing and handling panels from many objects, and possibly from many processors. Because of the large granularity, there is only a small number of panels, so the additional bookkeeping is trivial. This flexible design, which is reminiscent of home-based shared virtual memory research [14], enables a load balancing act between servers, that can migrate panels completely independently from the execution nodes. As long as the server pointer of each unmapped panel is updated in the corresponding MMS object, execution nodes know where to direct their next request. An exploration of the many possibilities that arise from this design is beyond the scope of this paper.

Third, the memory that will hold a remotely fetched panel does not have to be allocated with named memory mapping. Named memory mapping was important in the original MMLIB as it was used to read a panel implicitly from a disk file, and because of that file it could avoid writing to the swap device under memory pressure. With remote memory, the existence of a file image for each panel is not required. We have explored the question of which allocation mechanism among `malloc()`, named `mmap()`, and anonymous `mmap()` provides the most benefits in performance and flexibility. Our experimental testbed and results, shown in the following section, yield anonymous `mmap()` as the best choice. In principle, memory mapping should be preferred because it permits the use of `mincore()` by MMLIB to compute the static memory size, and thus provide accurate sensing measurements for adaptation. On some operating systems `malloc()` is not implemented on top of `mmap()`, and thus does not permit the use of `mincore()`.

An outline of the remote memory algorithm follows. Initially, the memory server(s) load all the (initially unmapped) panels of all objects of the application into their memory. When a working process issues a `get_panel(mms,p)`, and the panel is not in memory (mapped), MMLIB sends a request to the appropriate server holding panel p of the object `mms`. If no panel is to be unmapped, MMLIB allocates the appropriate memory space and issues an `MPI_Recv`. If a panel, q, is to be unmapped, MMLIB figures out the server to send it to, and initiates an `MPI_Send`. When the send returns, this space of q can be reused to store the incoming panel p, so MMLIB simply issues an `MPI_Recv`. We should point out that if an object is designated as read-only, its panels need not be sent to the memory server when unmapped, provided that the server keeps all panels in its memory. Finally, the MMLIB framework retains all of its adaptivity to external memory pressure when our remote memory implementation is used in place of disk I/O.

5 Experiments

First we describe three applications that we modified to use MMLIB; their special characteristics require our extended framework and optimizations and cannot be implemented using the simple framework of [19]. Second, we present experiments with these applications under constant and variable memory pressure. Third, we explore experimentally the question posed in the previous section about the most appropriate allocation mechanism for remote memory. Finally we demonstrate the power of remote memory in MMLIB using the CG application.

5.1 The applications

The first application is the conjugate gradient (CG) linear system solver provided in SPARSKIT [26]. Each iteration of CG requires one sparse matrix-vector multiplication and a few inner products and vector updates. Our only MMS object is the coefficient matrix, as it poses the bulk of the memory demands of the program, and is broken into 40 panels. CG also has a sizable amount of static memory for six work vectors. For MMLIB to work, this size must be known. In [19], we hard coded the size of this static memory. Here, we let MMLIB detect it dynamically.

The second application is a modified Gram-Schmidt (MGS) orthogonalization procedure. A memory demanding application of MGS stems from materials science, where Krylov eigensolvers are used to find about 500–2000 eigenvectors for an eigenvalue problem of dimension on the order of one million [27]. Our code simulates a Krylov eigensolver except that it generates the recurrence vector at random, not through matrix vector multiplication. This vector is orthogonalized against previously generated vectors and then appended to them. Only these vectors need to be managed by MMLIB. In our experiment, we use one panel per vector for a total of 30 vectors, each of 3,500,000 doubles (80 MB total). This test is possible only through our new MMLIB, as the size of the MMS object varies at runtime, and multiple panels are active simulateneously.

The third application is an implementation of the Ising model, which is used to model magnetism in ferromagnetic material, liquid-gas transition, and other similar physical processes. Considering a two-dimensional lattice of atoms, each of which has a spin of either up or down, the code runs a Monte-Carlo simulation to generate a series of configurations that represent thermal equilibrium. The memory accesses are based on a simple 5-point stencil computation. For each iteration the code sweeps the lattice and tests whether to flip the spin of each lattice site. The flip is accepted, if it causes a negative potential energy change, ΔE. Otherwise, the spin flips with a probability equal to $\exp \frac{-\Delta E}{kT}$, where k is the Boltzman constant and T the ambient temperature. The higher the T, the more spins are flipped. In computational terms, T determines the frequency of writes to the lattice sites at every iteration. The memory-adaptive version partitions the lattice row-wise into 40 panels. To calculate the energy change at panel boundaries, the code needs the last row of the above neighboring panel and the first row of the below neighboring panel. The new MMLIB framework is needed for panel write backs with variable frequency, and multiple active panels.

In all three applications the panel replacement policy is MRU, but there is also use of persistent (MGS) and neighboring (Ising) panels.

5.2 Adaptation results

Figure 2 includes one graph per application, each showing the performance of three versions of that application under constant memory pressure. Each point in the charts shows the execution time of one version of the application when run against a dummy job that occupies a fixed amount of physical memory, using the `mlock()` system call to pin its pages in-core. For each application we test a conventional in-core version (blue top curve), a memory-adaptive version using MMLIB (red lower curve), and an ideal version (green lowest curve) in which the application fixes the number of panels cached at an optimal value provided by an oracle. The charts show the performance degradation of the applications under increasing levels of memory pressure. In all three applications, the memory-adaptive implementation performs consistently and significantly better than the conventional in-core implementation. Additionally, the performance of the adaptive code is very close to the ideal-case performance, without any advance knowledge of memory availability and static memory size, and regardless of the number of active panels (whether read-only or read/write).

The litmus test for MMLIB is when multiple instances of applications employing the library are able to coexist on a machine without thrashing the memory system. Figure 3 shows the resident set size (RSS) over time for two instances of the memory adaptive Ising code running simultaneously on a Sun Ultra 5 node. After the job that starts first has completed at least one sweep through the lattice, the second job starts. Both jobs have 150 MB requirements, but memory pressure varies temporally. The circles in the curves denote the beginning of lattice sweeps. Distances between consecutive circles along a curve indicate the time of each sweep.

The results show that the two adaptive codes run together harmoniously without constantly evicting each other from memory and the jobs reach an equilibrium where system memory utilization is high and throughput is sustained without thrashing. The system does not allow more than about 170 MB for all jobs, and it tends to favor the application that starts first. A similar phenomenon was observed in Linux. We emphasize that the intricacies of the memory allocation policy of the OS are orthogonal to the policies of MMLIB. MMLIB allows jobs to utilize as efficiently as possible the available memory, not to claim more memory than what is given to each application by the OS.

Figure 4 shows the benefits of our proposed "most-missing" eviction policy. After external memory pressure starts, the job that uses strictly the MRU policy has highly variable performance initially because the evicted MRU panels usually do not coincide with the system evicted pages. The most missing policy is much better during that phase. After the algorithm adapts to the available memory the most missing policy reverts automatically to MRU.

Because all three of the applications we have tested employ memory access patterns for which MRU replacement is appropriate (and are thus very poorly served by the LRU-like algorithms employed by virtual memory systems), one might wonder if all of the performance gains provided by MMLIB are attributable to the MRU replacement that it enables. To test this notion, we ran the MMLIB-enabled CG under memory pressure and instructed MMLIB to use LRU replacement. Figure 5 compares the performance of CG using the wrong (LRU) replacement policy with the CG correctly employing MRU. The version using LRU replacement performs significantly worse, requiring roughly twice the amount of time required by the MRU version to perform one iteration. However, when compared to the performance of in-core CG under memory pressure, the code using the wrong replacement policy still performs iterations in roughly half the time of in-core CG at lower levels of memory pressure, and at higher levels performs even better. As discussed in the designing goals of MMLIB, the benefits in this case come strictly from the large granularity of panel access, as opposed to the page-level granularity of the virtual memory system, and from avoiding thrashing.

5.3 Remote memory results

The remote memory experiments are conducted on the SciClone cluster [1] at William & Mary. All programs are linked with the MPICH_GM package and the communications are routed via a Myrinet 1280 switch. We use dual-cpu Sun Ultra 60 workstations at 360MHz with 512MB memory, running Solaris 9.

5.3.1 Microbenchmark results

These experiments help us understand the effect of various allocation schemes (malloc, named mmap, anonymous mmap) on the MPI_Recv performance, under various levels of memory pressure. Figure 6 shows three graphs corresponding to the three methods for allocating the receiving block of the MPI_Recv call. Each graph contains six curves plotting the perceived MPI_Recv bandwidth for six different total 'buffers' that the MPI_Recv tries to fill by receiving 'Block Size' bytes at a time. This microbenchmark simulates an MMLIB process that uses remote memory to bring each one of the panels (of 'Block Size' each) of a memory object (of 'buffer' size). On the same node with the receiving process, there is a competing process reading a 300MB file from the local disk. The larger the total 'buffer' size, the more severe the memory pressure on the node. The remote memory server process is always ready to send the requested data.

The top chart suggests that named mapping is the worst choice for allocating MPI_Recv buffers, especially under heavy memory pressure, which is exactly when MMLIB is needed. In fact when the receiving block is small, performance is bad even without memory pressure (e.g., all curves for block size of 256 KB). With large block sizes bandwidth increases but only when the total 'buffer' does not cause memory pressure (e.g., the 20MB 'buffer' curve). A reason for this is that receiving a remote panel causes a write-out to its backing store on the local disk, even though the two may be identical.

For both the middle and bottom charts, all six curves are very similar, suggesting that allocation using anonymous mmap() or malloc() is not very sensitive to memory pressure. The MPI_Recv bandwidth performance of using malloc() for memory allocation is better than that of using anonymous mmap(). As no other processes were using the network during the experiments, the perceived differences in bandwidth must be due to different mechanisms of Solaris 9 for copying memory from system to user space.

Although these microbenchmarks suggest malloc() as the allocator of choice for implementing remote memory, experiments with the CG application favor anonymous mapping, with malloc() demonstrating unpredictable behavior.

5.3.2 CG application results

To demonstrate the remote memory capability of MMLIB, we performed two sets of experiments with the CG application on the same computing platform as in microbenchmark experiments.

In the first set, the MMLIB enabled CG application runs on one local node. It works on a 200MB matrix, which is equally partitioned into 20 panels. We create various levels of memory pressure on the local node by running in addition the in-core CG application (without MMLIB) with 300MB, 150MB, and 100MB memory requirements. The experimental results are shown in Table 1. There are two rows of data for each of the three memory allocation methods. In the first row, we run the MMLIB CG without remote memory; in the second row, we run MMLIB CG with remote memory capability.

First, we see that under named mmap(), performance for remote mode is inferior to local mode, while under anonymous mmap() mode and malloc(), remote mode is obviously superior to local mode, especially when memory pressure is severe. The results also confirm the microbenchmark observations that named mmap() is the wrong choice for remote memory.

In contrast to the microbenchmark results, however, remote mode performance is better under anonymous mmap() than under malloc(). There are two reasons for this. The most important reason is that on Solaris 9 malloc() extends the data segment by calling brk(), rather than by calling mmap(). Because MMLIB issues a series of malloc() and free() calls, especially when there is heavy memory pressure, the unmapped panels may not be readily available for use by the system. This causes the runtime scheduler to think that there is not enough memory and thus to allocate less resources to the executing process. In our experiments on the dual cpu Suns, we noticed that the Solaris scheduler gave less than 25% cpu time to the application in malloc() mode, while it gave close to 50% cpu time to the one in anonymous mmap() mode. Interestingly, the local MMLIB implementation without remote memory demonstrates even a worse behavior, suggesting that, on Solaris, the use of malloced segments should be avoided for highly dynamic I/O cases. The second reason is that the `mincore()` system call does not work on memory segments allocated by malloc(). Therefore, MMLIB cannot obtain accurate estimates of the static memory to adapt to memory variabilities.

In the second set of the experiments, we let two MMLIB CG applications run against each other to measure the performance advantages of using remote memory over local disk in a completely dynamic setting. Both MMLIB CG applications use anonymous mmap() to allocate memory and work on different matrices of equal size. Each matrix is equally partitioned into 10MB panels. The experimental results are shown in Table 2. When remote memory instead of local disk is used, the total wall-clock time of the two MMLIB CG applications is always reduced. Especially when the overall memory pressure is severe such as the 300MB matrix and 250MB matrix cases (the overall memory requirement for data is 600MB and 500MB), the wall-clock time reduction can be 22.4% and 28.7% respectively.

We emphasize that these improvements are *on top* of the improvements provided by the local disk MMLIB over the simple use of virtual memory. Considering also the improvements from Figure 2, our remote memory library improves local virtual memory performance by a factor of between four and seven. This compares favorably with factors of two or three reported in other remote memory research [16].

6 Conclusions

We presented a general framework and supporting library that allows scientific applications to automatically manage their memory requirements at runtime, thus executing optimally under variable memory availability.

The library is highly transparent, requiring minimal code modifications and only at a large granularity level.

This paper extends our previous simplified framework and adaptation algorithm for memory malleability with the following key functionalities: (a) multiple and simultaneous read/write memory objects, active panels, and access patterns, (b) automatic and accurate estimation of the size of the non-managed memory, and (c) application level remote memory capability.

We showed how each of the new functionalities (a) and (b) were necessary in implementing three common scientific applications, and how (c) has signigicant performance advantages over system-level remote memory. Moreover, the remote memory functionality has opened a host of new possibilities for load and memory balancing in COWs and MPPs, that will be explored in future research. Our experimental results with MMLIB, have confirmed its adaptivity and near optimality in performance.

Appendix A

Core interface and functionality

To be managed by MMLIB, a given data-set must be broken into a user-specified number of panels for which a backing store is created on disk, accessed through memory mapping. The size of the panel is usually determined as a large multiple of the block size that is optimal for cache efficiency so that it also amortizes I/O seek times. In case of memory contention, a large number of panels can fine tune more accurately the exact level of available memory but incur higher bookkeeping and I/O overheads. Because of diminishing returns beyond a 5-10% accurate prediction of available memory, and because our goal is to match the performance of unmanaged in-core methods when running without memory contention, we suggest that about 10-40 panels be used per object.

MMS mmlib_new_mmstruct(type, *filename, P)
Each data-set and its panels are associated with an MMS object, which handles all necessary bookkeeping and through which all accesses to the data occurs. The above function constructs an MMS object of a given MMLIB type. Type examples include MMLIB_TYPE_MATDENSE for a dense two dimensional array, or MMLIB_TYPE_VECTOR for a one dimensional array. The filename specifies the name of the backing store, and P is the number of the panels into which the data is broken.

void mmlib_set_update_queue(void (*func) (MMReg, MMS, int))
An MMS object is associated with a distinct priority queue. This queue orders the panels according to the eviction policy chosen by the user for that object. When more than one objects are active simultaneously, the choice of panel eviction must consider not only the intra- but also the inter-object priorities. For this reason, MMLIB maintains a global registry of all MMS objects (MMReg), using this instead to make its adaptation decisions. When a given amount of space must be freed, the MMLIB eviction function evicts panels according to their ordering in the queue until enough space has been freed. The priority queue is updated each time that mmlib_get_panel() is called, inserting the newly accessed panel in the proper place. mmlib_set_update_queue() allows the user to specify the function that should be called to perform this update and maintain any other data structures that may be required to implement the eviction policy, such as queues local to each MMS object. MMLIB defaults to Most Recently Used (MRU) replacement, as this is suited to the cyclic the access patterns of many scientific applications.

We should note that to provide maximum flexibility, MMLIB also provides an interface for the user to specify the function that performs panel evictions. The preferred method for specifying an eviction policy is to use mmlib_set_update_queue() when possible, however.

void *mmlib_get_panel(MMS mms, p)
This function is the basic building block of the library. It returns a pointer to the beginning of panel p, hiding the rest of the bookkeeping. If the panel is already mapped, it returns its address and updates the global and corresponding local queues. If the panel is not mapped, it checks for memory shortage or surplus, consults the eviction policy and adjusts the number of panels in the queues accordingly.

void mmlib_release_panel(MMS mms, p)
Some applications work on many memory objects simultaneously, but not all objects have the same lifetime. In particular, certain panels may persist throughout the mapping and unmapping of other panels of the same or different objects. For example, assume we need to compute the interaction of a panel X_m with panels $X_i, i = 1, m-1$. It would be a performance disaster if, based on the MRU policy, we decided to unmap this panel because it was recently accessed. In this case, the user needs to “lock” this panel as persistent, until all relevant computation is completed. In MMLIB, the pointer returned by `mmlib_get_panel` remains valid until the `mmlib_release_panel` is called. The release does not evict the panel; it merely unlocks it so that it can be evicted if deemed necessary.

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```
Identify memory objects $M_1, M_2, \ldots, M_k$
needed during this phase
**for** i = [ Iteration Space for all Objects ]
    **for** j= [ all Objects needed for iteration i ]
        panelID = accessPattern($M_j$, i)
        Get panel or portion of panel (panelID)
    **endfor**
    Work on required panels or subpanels
    **for** j= [ all Objects needed for iteration i ]
        panelID = accessPattern($M_j$, i)
        **if** panel panelID was modified
            Write Back(panelID)
        **if** panel panelID not needed persistently
            Release(panelID)
    **endfor**
**endfor**
```

Figure 1. Extended framework modeling the memory access needs of a wide variety of scientific applications

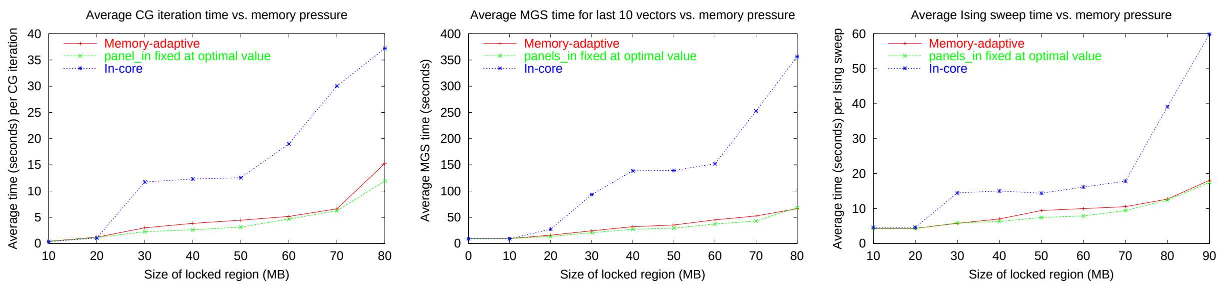

Figure 2. Performance under constant memory pressure. The left chart shows the average time per iteration of CG with a 70 MB matrix, which requires a total of 81 MB of RAM including memory for the work vectors. The middle chart shows the time to orthogonalize via modified Gram-Schmidt the last 10 vectors of a 30 vector set. Approximately 80 MB are required to store all 30 vectors. The right chart shows the time required for an Ising code to sweep through a 70 MB lattice. All experiments were conducted on a Linux 2.4.22-xfs system with 128 MB of RAM, some of which is shared with the video subsystem.

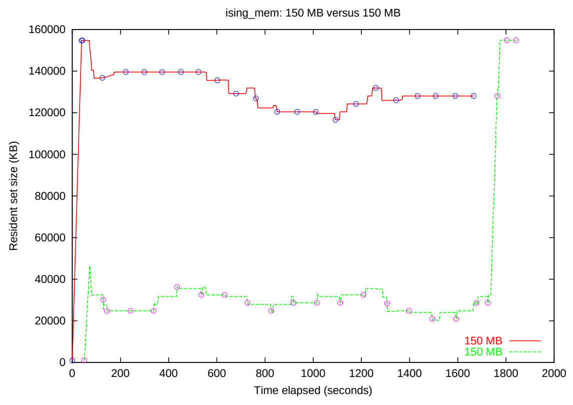

Figure 3. Running adaptive versus adaptive jobs. RSS vs. time for two equal-sized (150 MB) memory-adaptive Ising jobs. The second job starts 30 seconds after the first job. The experiment is run on a Sun Ultra 5 with 256 MB of RAM, under Solaris 9.

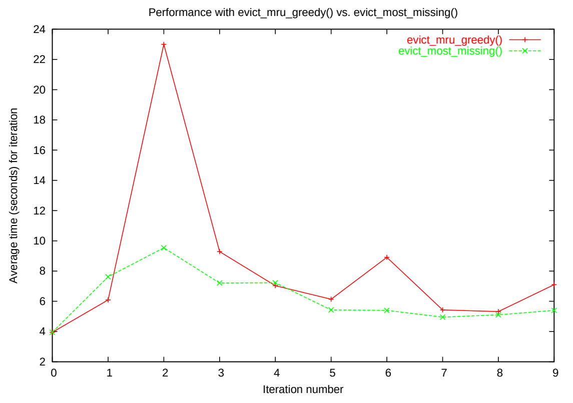

Figure 4. Benefits of evicting partially swapped out panels. The chart shows the times for the first 10 sweeps of a memory-adaptive Ising job running with a 60 MB lattice on a Linux machine with 128 MB of RAM. After 12 seconds, a dummy job that uses 60 MB of memory begins. The job that evicts panels with the largest number of missing pages, labeled `evict_most_missing`, has lower and less variable times than the original MRU replacement, labeled `evict_mru_greedy`.

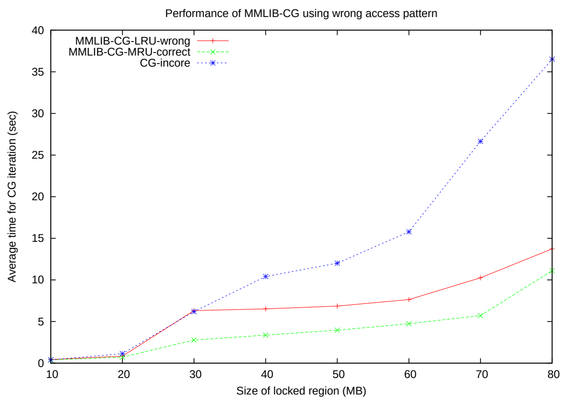

Figure 5. Performance of memory-adaptive CG versus memory pressure when using the wrong panel replacement policy is depicted by the curve labeled MMLIB-CG-LRU-wrong. The appropriate replacement policy is MRU, but LRU is used instead; any observed performance gains are not due to the ability of MMLIB to allow application-specific replacement. For comparison, the performance of memory-adaptive correctly employing MRU is depicted by the curve labeled MMLIB-CG-MRU-correct. Jobs run under static memory pressure provided by locking a region of memory in-core on a Linux 2.4 system with 128 MB of RAM.

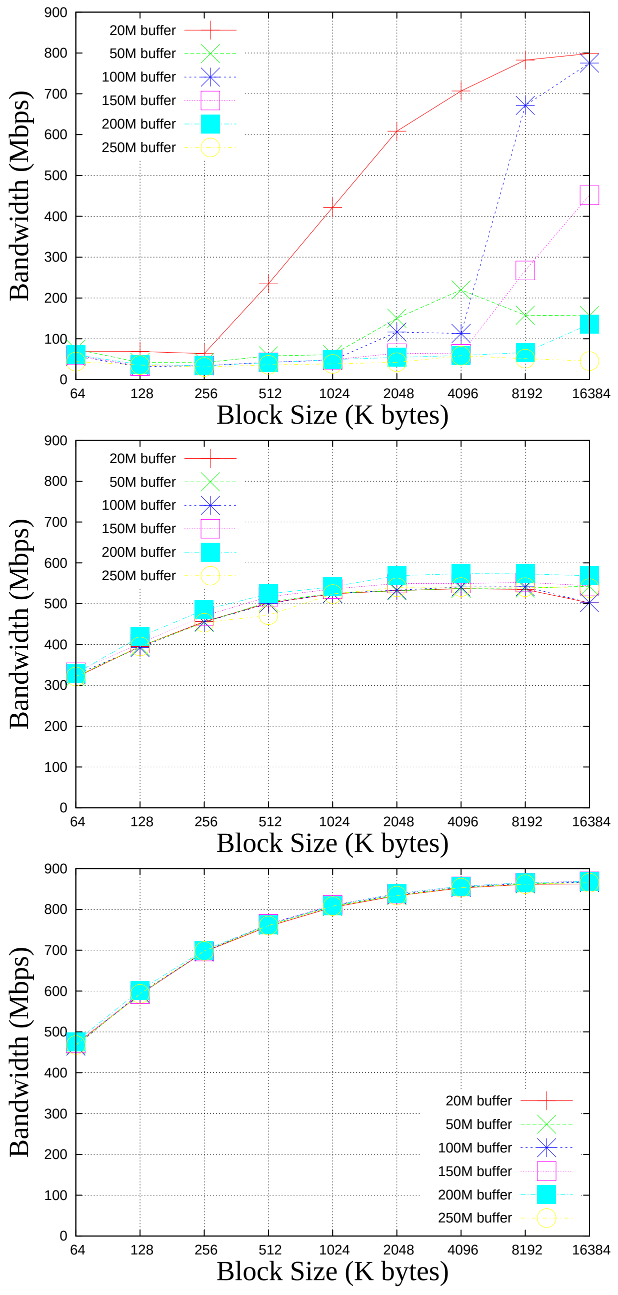

Figure 6. MPI_Recv perceived bandwidth microbenchmark results. The charts show the perceived MPI_Recv bandwidth vs. receiving block size for six different total buffer sizes. The receiving block is allocated using named mmap() (top chart), anonymous mmap() (middle chart), or malloc() (bottom chart).

Wall-clock time for MMLIB CG running against in-core CG

memory pressure / mode	300MB	150MB	100MB	Without Pressure
named mmap() local	388.097	326.642	309.365	285.135
named mmap() remote	484.34	472.831	371.277	289.617
anonymous mmap() local	541.005	367.357	317.726	294.406
anonymous mmap() remote	379.114	360.516	317.756	293.213
malloc() local	1325.485	1023.782	1059.640	1050.507
malloc() remote	534.229	504.043	475.662	462.117

Table 1. This table shows the wall-clock time for MMLIB CG running against in-core CG. The MMLIB CG has six modes corresponding to the six rows in the table. MMLIB CG works on 200MB matrix on local node. Memory pressure is created by in-core CG running on local node. Without Pressure means in-core CG is not running.

Wall-clock time for MMLIB CG running against MMLIB CG

matrix size / processes	300MB	250MB	200MB	150MB	100MB
$cg1$ local	1496.700	1116.355	413.500	265.929	181.252
$cg2$ local	1015.495	755.859	638.448	266.697	185.796
Total local	2512.195	1872.214	1051.948	532.626	367.048
$cg1$ remote	1139.011	815.240	415.056	266.049	158.954
$cg2$ remote	809.446	519.031	603.588	252.822	157.289
Total remote	1948.457	1334.271	1018.644	518.871	316.243
Remote time reduction over local	22.4%	28.7%	3.16%	2.58%	13.8%

Table 2. This table shows the wall-clock time for MMLIB CG running against MMLIB CG. Both MMLIB CG applications use anonymous mmap() to allocate memory. The first three rows show the results when local disk is used by both MMLIB CG applications. The following three rows show the results when remote memory is used by both MMLIB CG applications. The last row shows the total wall-clock time reduction for remote over local mode.