POLM2: Automatic Profiling for Object Lifetime-Aware Memory Management for HotSpot Big Data Applications

Rodrigo Bruno, Paulo Ferreira INESC-ID / Instituto Superior Técnico, University of Lisbon rodrigo.bruno@tecnico.ulisboa.pt,paulo.ferreira@inesc-id.pt

Abstract

Big Data applications suffer from unpredictable and unacceptably high pause times due to bad memory management (Garbage Collection, GC) decisions. This is a problem for all applications but it is even more important for applications with low pause time requirements such as credit-card fraud detection or targeted website advertisement systems, which can easily fail to comply with Service Level Agreements due to long GC cycles (during which the application is stopped). This problem has been previously identified and is related to Big Data applications keeping in memory (for a long period of time, from the GC's perspective) massive amounts of data objects.

Memory management approaches have been proposed to reduce the GC pause time by allocating objects with similar lifetimes close to each other. However, they either do not provide a general solution for all types of Big Data applications (thus only solving the problem for a specific set of applications), and/or require programmer effort and knowledge to change/annotate the application code.

This paper proposes POLM2, a profiler that automatically: i) estimates application allocation profiles based on execution records, and ii) instruments application bytecode to help the GC taking advantage of the profiling information. Thus, no programmer effort is required to change the source code to allocate objects according to their lifetimes. POLM2 is implemented for the OpenJDK HotSpot Java Virtual Machine 8 and uses NG2C, a recently proposed GC which supports multi-generational pretenuring. Results show that POLM2 is able to: i) achieve pauses as low as NG2C (which requires manual source code modification), and ii) significantly reduce application pauses by up to 80% when compared to G1 (default collector in OpenJDK). POLM2 does not negatively impact neither application throughput nor memory utilization.

CCS Concepts • Software and its engineering \rightarrow Allocation / deallocation strategies;

Keywords Profiling, Bytecode, Generational Heap, Garbage Collection, CRIU

ACM Reference format:

Rodrigo Bruno, Paulo Ferreira. 2017. POLM2: Automatic Profiling for Object Lifetime-Aware Memory Management for HotSpot Big Data Applications. In *Proceedings of Middleware '17, Las Vegas, NV, USA, December 11–15, 2017,* 14 pages.

DOI: 10.1145/3135974.3135986

Middleware '17, Las Vegas, NV, USA

© 2017 ACM. 978-1-4503-4720-4/17/12...\$15.00

DOI: 10.1145/3135974.3135986

1 Introduction

Big Data applications suffer from unpredictable and unacceptably high pause times due to automatic memory management, i.e., Garbage Collection (GC). Therefore, applications such as creditcard fraud detection or targeted website advertisement systems, that rely on fast access to data stored/processed by underlying Big Data platforms (BGPLATs), such as graph-based computing or in-memory databases, can easily fail to comply with their target response time (usually specified in Service Level Agreements, SLAs). This problem is even more important if multiple platforms work together (for example in a stack of BGPLATs, one depending on the output of the other to produce output). In this scenario, the probability of incurring into a long GC pause (and potentially failing an SLA) increases with the number of BGPLATs in the stack.

High GC pauses in HotSpot applications is a well studied problem [10, 20, 21]. Its root cause can be decomposed in two subproblems: i) Big Data applications hold large volumes of data in memory (e.g., to provide fast access), and ii) data stays in memory for a long period of time (from the GC perspective), violating the widely accepted assumption that most objects die young and only a negligible amount of objects become old [31, 49]. Holding large amounts of middle to long-lived objects in memory leads to an extreme GC effort mainly due to en masse object promotion (i.e., copying objects into older generations) and compaction (compacting memory to reduce fragmentation). This results in long and frequent applications pauses (during which the GC is promoting or compacting objects) compromising applications' SLAs.

To solve this problem (reducing application pauses due to an extreme GC effort to promote objects and compact memory), previous works propose the use of: i) off-heap memory¹ [37, 39, 42], ii) scope limited allocation regions [4, 9, 18, 19, 23-25, 28, 32, 42, 46], or iii) multiple generations [7, 10, 29, 38, 45]. While the use of offheap memory can reduce some GC effort by reducing the number of objects managed by the GC, it has two main drawbacks: i) it forces the programmer to allocate and deallocate memory explicitly (which is error prone), and ii) it does not completely solve the problem since objects describing data stored off-heap remain in the GC-managed heap (as shown in Bruno et al. [10]). Regarding scopebased allocation spaces (in which all objects allocated in a particular scope are deallocated at once, freeing the GC from handling those objects), this technique cannot be used for a wide spectrum of BG-PLATs, in particular storage oriented platforms, since data objects typically live across many scopes [10]. For example, if a storage oriented platform keeps an in-memory data structure (such as a data cache/table), objects placed in the data structure have a lifetime that is independent of the duration of the scope where the objects were created (typically these objects escape the scope where they

Permission to make digital or hard copies of all or part of this work for personal or classroom use is granted without fee provided that copies are not made or distributed for profit or commercial advantage and that copies bear this notice and the full citation on the first page. Copyrights for components of this work owned by others than ACM must be honored. Abstracting with credit is permitted. To copy otherwise, or republish, to post on servers or to redistribute to lists, requires prior specific permission and/or a fee. Request permissions from permissions@acm.org.

¹Off-heap is a way to allocate objects outside the scope of the automatic memory management system (i.e., Garbage Collector). While using off-heap memory, the programmer is responsible for collecting memory (by deallocating allocated objects).

Middleware '17, December 11-15, 2017, Las Vegas, NV, USA

were created). Finally, using multiple generations can effectively reduce the GC effort by organizing the heap accordingly [10], i.e., each generation containing objects with similar lifetimes (more details in Section 2). However, this solution has two drawbacks: i) programmers' knowledge and effort is required to change/annotate the application code in order to tell the GC which objects live longer than others (this can be a long and difficult task that needs to be redone every time the application code is updated), and ii) it requires code access, which can be non trivial if the code to be changed/annotated is located in third-party libraries (or inside the Java Development Kit).

This paper proposes a solution (POLM2) for the above mentioned problems. POLM2 is: i) an off-line profiler that automatically gathers application allocation profiling information, and ii) an application bytecode instrumenter that instruments the application to take advantage of the profiling information to help the GC taking better decisions. POLM2 strives to reduce HotSpot applications' pause time (due to GC en masse object promotion and compaction) without requiring any programmers' effort, and for any type of Big Data applications. In addition, no source code access is required in order for POLM2 to work. POLM2 must reduce application pause times while not degrading other performance metrics such as throughput and memory usage.

Automatically adapting memory management decisions for a particular application is non-trivial, and two challenges can be easily identified. First, one must extract and analyze an application allocation profile, i.e., identify which data objects are being held in memory for a long time (thus putting extra effort on the GC), and where they are allocated. This is a hard task since it is difficult to efficiently record each object allocation and also be able to identify when each object dies (i.e., it is no longer reachable). Second, one must process all the gathered information and instrument the application in order to improve memory management decisions (to take into consideration its allocation profile).

POLM2 builds upon NG2C [10], a GC algorithm which, with the help of the programmer, allocates objects with similar lifetimes close to each other (in the same generation to be more specific), leading to much reduced GC effort and, consequently, reduced application pauses. To free the programmer from having to change/annotate the application code, POLM2 automatically instruments application bytecode based on off-line profiling information.

The proposed solution includes four components: i) a *Recorder* that records object allocations and informs the Heap Dumper (described next) when it should create a new heap snapshot; ii) a *Dumper* that creates heap snapshots (containing all living objects); iii) an *Analyzer*, a component that processes both allocation records and heap dumps to estimate object lifetimes per allocation site, producing an allocation profile for the application/workload; iv) an *Instrumenter*, a component that, taking as input the application allocation profile, instruments the application bytecode (at load time) in order to give the GC (i.e., NG2C) the necessary information to allocate application objects in specific generations (according to their lifetime), thus reducing GC effort to manage them (resulting in shorter application pauses).

Using POLM2 is divided in two phases: i) profiling, and ii) production. During the profiling phase, the goal is to learn the application allocation profile. For this purpose, the *Recorder*, *Dumper*, and the *Analyzer* are necessary to record allocations, dump heap objects, and analyze all this information. The output of the profiling phase is an application allocation profile that is the input for the production phase. In the production phase, the *Instrumenter* rewrites application bytecode (at load time) in order to make memory management lifetime-aware, leading to reduced application pause times.

In short, POLM2 makes Big Data applications to better use the underlying GC, with shorter pauses, without imposing any effort on the programmer. The profiller is instrumental to attain the overall goal.

POLM2 is implemented for the OpenJDK 8 HotSpot JVM and uses NG2C, a recently proposed GC for HotSpot that supports multi-generational pretenuring (i.e., allocating an object in any generation). Java Agents (a Java Agent is a pluggable component that runs attached to the JVM) are used to implement the *Recorder* and the *Instrumenter*, that changes the bytecode at load time, either to record allocations (*Recorder*) or to use NG2C's API (*Instrumenter*). The *Dumper* is built on top of CRIU, a Checkpoint-Restore tool for Linux. Using CRIU, it is possible to efficiently create incremental JVM heap snapshots.

Evaluation results are very encouraging as POLM2 can provide application pause times very similar to the ones achieved using NG2C (which requires developers' effort). In addition, POLM2 significantly reduces application pause times when compared to Garbage First (G1) [16], the new by-default GC for OpenJDK HotSpot JVM.

POLM2² represents an important contribution as it provides a way to automatically perform object lifetime-aware memory management. Thus, POLM2 solves the two main problems of NG2C: i) requiring developer's effort and knowledge, and ii) requiring source code access. This system and its usefulness are demonstrated through thorough evaluation experiments using real BGPLATs: Apache Cassandra [35], GraphChi [34], and Apache Lucene [40].

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 gives a concise background, introducing important concepts in which POLM2 is built upon. Section 3 presents POLM2 by discussing its architecture, used algorithms, and how to use it. Sections 4 and 5 contain a short description of the implementation details and the evaluation experiments (respectively). The paper closes with a study of the state-of-the-art and with some conclusions and future work directions.

2 Background

This section provides the necessary background to understand the motivation, goal, and design decisions in POLM2. The section starts with some background on generational GC, explaining its key insights and why most implementations, available in industrial JVMs, are not suited for low-latency BGPLATs. Then, we describe NG2C, a recently proposed pretenuring multi-generational collector.

2.1 Generational Garbage Collection

Nowadays, generational GC is a widely used solution [30]. It is based on the observation that objects have different lifetimes and that, in order to optimize the collection process, objects with shorter lifetimes should be collected more frequently than middle to longlived objects (simply because the short lived objects die first when compared to middle and long-lived objects). To take advantage of this observation, generational collectors divide the heap (memory space where application objects live) into generations, from youngest to oldest. Most generational collectors allocate all objects

²POLM2's code is available at github.com/rodrigo-bruno/polm2.

in the youngest generation and, as objects survive collections, survivor objects are copied to older generations, which are collected less frequently.

Most popular JVMs, and specifically the most recent HotSpot collector, Garbage First (G1) [16], also takes advantage of the weak generational hypothesis [49] that, as previously mentioned, states that most objects die young. By relying on this hypothesis, G1 divides heaps in two generations, young (where all objects are allocated in) and old (where all objects that survive a configurable number of collections are promoted/copied to).

While this solution works well for applications that follow the weak generational hypothesis, it raises some problems to applications that handle many middle to long-lived objects. These objects (which do not die young) will be promoted and compacted through time until they become unreachable (i.e., garbage). In the case of BGPLATs that hold massive amounts of middle to long-lived objects in memory, the cost of promoting and compacting these objects becomes prohibitive, leading to long and frequent application pauses.

In sum, all generational collectors either assume or estimate the lifetime of an object. Most common collectors simply assume that most objects will die young, and pay the price of promoting and compacting survivor objects. As discussed next, some collectors, in particular NG2C, require application-level knowledge to decide in which generation to allocate an object. By allocating objects directly into a specific generation (and not assuming that all objects die young), NG2C is able to greatly reduce the amount of promotion and compaction effort, reducing the number and duration of application pauses.

2.2 NG2C - Pretenuring GC with Dynamic Generations

NG2C [10] extends 2-generational collectors (which only contain two generations: young and old) into N generations (an arbitrary number dynamically changed at runtime). In addition, it allows objects to be pretenured into any of the N generations, i.e., objects can be allocated directly into any generation.

To decide where to allocate objects, NG2C relies mostly on programmer knowledge and effort to change application code. By default, i.e., with no code modification, all objects are allocated in the youngest generation (young generation). In order to allocate objects in older generations, NG2C provides a special code annotation @Gen and three JVM calls: System.newGeneration, System.getGeneration, and System.setGeneration. The annotation must be used to annotate allocation sites that allocate objects that should be allocated in a old generation. To control in which generation objects are allocated into, NG2C uses the concept of target generation, a thread-local variable that indicates where objects annotated with @Gen should be allocated in. To change a thread's target generation, System.setGeneration must be used. Finally, it is also possible to create an arbitrary number of generations at runtime by calling System.newGeneration.

As presented by the authors of NG2C, pretenuring objects with similar lifetimes into the same generation leads to significant reduction in the number of object promotions and less compaction cost, leading to reduced application pauses times. However, in order to present good results, NG2C relies on source code changes that require programmer's effort and knowledge to correctly understand how the code must be changed. In addition, it is very



Figure 1. POLM2 Architecture and Workflow

difficult to annotate/change application code that resides in thirdparty libraries/frameworks or even inside the Java Development Kit code.

3 Automatic Object Lifetime-aware GC

To reduce application pause times, POLM2 automatically instructs the GC to allocate objects with similar lifetimes in the same heap location (generation). By optimizing object distribution in the heap (partitioning objects by estimated lifetime), POLM2 reduces GC effort to promote and compact objects in memory (both the two main causes for frequent and long application pauses).

POLM2 works in two separate phases (more details in Section 3.5): profiling, and production. First, during the profiling phase, the application is monitored in order to perceive its allocation profile. Secondly, in the production phase, the application runs in a production setting while having its memory management decisions taken accordingly to its allocation profile (output of the profiling phase). As described in the next section, different components play distinct roles in each different phase.

NG2C [10], a recently proposed GC that supports object allocation in specific generations (i.e., pretenuring), is used to take advantage of the profiling information automatically extracted by POLM2. To take advantage of NG2C, POLM2 instruments the application bytecode (while it is being loaded into the JVM) to instruct NG2C on how to efficiently organize objects according to their estimated lifetime (thus reducing the GC effort, and consequently, application pause times number and duration). This is performed without any programmer intervention and with no source code modification. This process is explained in detail in the next sections.

3.1 Architecture

POLM2 is composed of several components which, combined, produce the application allocation profile (profiling phase), and change the application bytecode to give instructions to the collector regarding how objects should be placed in the heap (production phase). These two tasks are handled by four main components (see Figure 1):

Recorder - this component runs attached to the JVM where the application runs. It is responsible for two tasks: i) recording object allocations (i.e., the stack trace of the allocation plus a unique identifier of the allocated object), and ii) informing the *Dumper* component on when it should create a new heap snapshot (more details in Section 3.2);

Dumper - upon request from the *Recorder*, creates a JVM memory snapshot. The memory snapshots are incremental (regarding the previous one) and do not include unreachable objects (more details in Section 3.2);

Analyzer - this component takes as input: i) the allocation records created by the *Recorder* (that states which objects were allocated and where) and, ii) the memory snapshots created by the *Dumper*. By analyzing a sequence of memory snapshots, the Analyzer is able to detect when objects start and stop being included in the snapshot, meaning that it is possible to perceive the lifetime of every application object. By combining this information with the allocation records, it is possible to estimate the lifetime distribution for each allocation site (more details in Section 3.3). This information composes the application allocation profile;

Instrumenter - taking as input the application allocation profile produced by the *Analyzer*, this component instruments (rewrites) the application bytecode while it is being loaded into the JVM. Based on the allocation profile, the *Instrumenter* instructs the GC on how to improve the distribution of objects in the heap (more details in Section 3.4);

3.2 Object Lifetime Recording

To record object lifetimes, two pieces of information are required. First, all object allocations must be recorded, i.e., for each object allocation, both a unique object identifier and the stack trace of the corresponding allocation site must be included in the allocation record. Second, information regarding how long each allocated object lives is gathered through periodic memory snapshots, that include all live objects; thus, for each memory snapshot, it is possible to determine which objects are still reachable or not. By combining these two sources of information (where objects are allocated, and how long they live), POLM2 is able to estimate, for each allocation site, the lifetime distribution of objects allocated through that allocation site. This information is then used to instruct NG2C.

Allocation records are created by the *Recorder*, a component that runs attached to the JVM. The *Recorder* has two main purposes. First, it instruments application bytecode (during application bytecode loading) to add calls to the *Recorder* logging methods. This ensures that whenever an application thread allocates an object, that thread will immediately (after allocating the object) call the *Recorder* code to log the allocation. Upon each allocation log call, the *Recorder* records the current stack trace plus the id of the object that is being allocated (more details on how the id is obtained in Section 4).

To avoid extreme memory and CPU overhead, the *Recorder* only keeps in memory a table with all the stack traces that have been used for allocations (i.e., allocation sites) and continuously writes (to disk) the ids of the allocated objects (using a separate stream for each allocation site). Allocation stack traces are only flushed to disk at the end of the application execution (in the profiling phase). This ensures that POLM2 writes each allocation stack trace once to disk.

Apart from logging allocations, the *Recorder* is also responsible for periodically requesting new memory snapshots (by calling the *Dumper* component). By default (this is configurable), the *Recorder* asks for a new memory snapshot at the end of every GC cycle. In other words, after each heap collection (which collects all unreachable objects), a new memory snapshot is created. In order to optimize this process of creating a memory snapshot (which can take a long time for large heaps and, since collections can occur very frequently), POLM2 offers two optimizations:

- the snapshot includes memory that contains only reachable data. To accomplish this optimization, the NG2C collector is modified to include an additional method call (accessible to the *Recorder*) that marks (more details in Section 4) all heap memory pages which contain no reachable objects (i.e., unused heap memory). Thus, before calling the *Dumper* for creating a new memory snapshot, the *Recorder* calls NG2C to mark all unused pages. Upon snapshot creation, the *Dumper* is able to detect which pages are marked or not, and simply avoids marked pages;
- only memory modified since the last snapshot is included in the current one. Every time the *Dumper* creates a new memory snapshot, all memory pages that were part of the previous one, are marked clean (more details in Section 4). During application execution, changed memory pages are automatically marked dirty. Upon a new snapshot, the *Dumper* is able to create an incremental snapshot that contains only the pages dirtied since the last snapshot. This results in much smaller snapshots (containing only modified memory pages) that are much faster to create.

Using these two optimizations, the time required to take a JVM memory snapshot is greatly reduced (evidence of this performance optimization is shown in Section 5). Thus, by reducing the time required to take a memory snapshot, POLM2 reduces the negative impact on application profiling (more details in Section 3.5).

3.3 Estimating Object Lifetime Per Allocation Site

After profiling an application for some time, the *Analyzer* can be started, taking as input: i) allocation records that include, per allocation site, the corresponding stack traces and allocated object ids (provided by the *Recorder*), and ii) memory snapshots (created by the *Dumper*). Using this information, it is possible to obtain an object lifetime distribution for each allocation site, which enables the *Analyzer* to estimate the optimal generation to allocate objects per allocation site.

In order to determine the optimal generation for each allocation site, the *Analyzer* implements an algorithm with the following steps:

- load allocation stack traces and, for each one, associate a sequence of buckets/sets (each one representing a generation);
- load allocated object ids and insert them into the first bucket (generation zero) associated to the corresponding stack trace (where the object was allocated);
- load JVM memory snapshots (sorted by time of creation) and, for each reachable object included in the snapshot, move the object id into the next bucket.

After these steps, it is possible to know, for each stack trace, how many objects survived up to N collections (representing the number of created memory snapshots). With this information, it is possible to obtain the number of collections that most objects allocated in a particular stack trace survive, which is a good estimation for the optimal generation to use for objects allocated in the allocation site.

However, one problem remains: it is possible to have two stack traces, with different estimated generations, sharing the same allocation site. For example, if two different code locations use the same sequence of method calls to allocate objects with very different lifetimes, both stack traces will share the final stack trace

1 0

~

1 0 mm

Listing 1. Original Class1 Code

```
class Class1 {
 1
 2
3
         public int[] methodD(int sz) {
 4
             return new int[sz];
 5
         }
 6
 7
         public int[] methodC(boolean var) {
 8
             int[] arr = methodD(z);
 9
             if (var) {
10
                 int[] tmp = methodD(sz);
11
                 . . .
12
             }
13
14
             return arr;
15
         }
16
17
         public void methodB(int sz) {
18
             int[] arr;
19
             if(...) {
20
                 . . .
                 arr = methodC(true);
2.2
23
             }
24
             else {
25
                 . . .
26
                 arr = methodC(false);
27
                 . . .
28
             }
29
             . .
30
         }
31
32
        public void methodA() {
33
             . . .
34
             methodB();
35
36
         }
37
    }
```



Figure 2. STTree for Class1 Source Code Allocations

elements, thus creating a conflict. An example of such a scenario can be found in Listing 1, where method methodD is used by a sequence of methods that allocate objects with possibly very different lifetimes.

To solve this problem, a stack trace tree (STTree) is built by the *Analyzer* to find a solution for each conflict. The STTree organizes stack traces as paths composed of a number of nodes. Each node is associated to a 4-tuple composed of: i) class name, ii) method

Alg	gorithm I ST free Conflict Detection and Resolution
1:	procedure Detect Conflicts(sttree)
2:	seen_4tuples \leftarrow empty
3:	$conflicts \leftarrow empty$
4:	for leaf in sttree do
5:	<pre>if leaf in seen_tuples then</pre>
6:	<pre>conflicts.add(leaf.4tuple, leaf)</pre>
7:	return conflicts
8:	procedure Solve Conflicts(sttree, conflicts)
9:	for conflict in conflicts do
10:	while true do
11:	<pre>for node in conflict.nodes do</pre>
12:	<pre>conflicts.replace(node, node.parent)</pre>
13:	for node in conflict.nodes do
14:	<pre>if noConflic(node, conflict.nodes) then</pre>
15:	<pre>conflicts.remote(node)</pre>
16:	<pre>sttree.update(conflict, node)</pre>
17:	procedure NoConflict(tnode, nodes)
18:	for node in nodes do
19:	if tnode not node then
20:	<pre>if tnode.4tuple = node.4tuple then</pre>
21:	return false
22:	return true

name, iii) line number, and iv) target generation. Nodes can either be intermediate (method call) or leaf (object allocation). Starting from any leaf, it is possible to reconstruct the allocation path (stack trace) of any allocation. By default, the target generation of all the intermediate nodes is zero (meaning that objects should be allocated in the youngest generation). Leaf nodes' target generation is obtained by using the estimated target generation that results from analyzing the objects included in the memory snapshots.

If one or more conflicts exist, it means that one or more leaf nodes belonging to different sub-trees contain the same class name, method name, and line number, but different target generations. By design, these conflicting nodes belong to different sub-trees, meaning that it is possible to find at least one node in the allocation path that differs between each conflicting sub-trees. To solve existing conflicts, each of the conflicting nodes must push to its parent node its target generation. This operation must be repeated until parent nodes pointing to different code locations (combination of class name, method name, and line number) are found for each of the conflicting leaf nodes.

The resulting STTree for the code presented in Listing 1 is shown in Figure 2. Note that leaf nodes point to the same code location (class name, method name, and line of code) but contain different target generations. To solve this conflict, each leaf node propagates its target generation to the parent node until a node pointing to a different code location is found.

The pseudocode of the algorithm used for detecting and solving conflicts is presented in Algorithm 1. The code is divided in two main procedures that detect and solve conflicts. Detection (*Detect Conflicts*) is done by searching for leaf nodes with identical 4-tuple values. Once a set of identical leafs has been found, the *Solve Conflicts* procedure is used to identify, for each leaf node, a parent node

Listing 2. Class1 Code after Byte Code Instrumentation

```
class Class1 {
 1
 2
 3
        public int[] methodD(int sz) { return new @Gen
              int[sz]; }
 4
 5
        public int[] methodC(boolean var) {
            int[] arr = methodD(z);
 6
 7
            if (var) {
                Generation gen = setGeneration(Gen1);
 8
 9
                int[] tmp = methodD(sz);
10
                setAllocGen(gen);
11
                . . .
12
            }
13
14
            return arr:
15
        }
16
17
        public void methodB(int sz) {
18
            int[] arr;
19
            if(...) {
20
                Generation gen = setGeneneration(Gen2);
21
                arr = methodC(true);
                setAllocGen(gen);
22
23
            }
24
            else {
                Generation gen = setGeneration(Gen3);
25
26
                arr = methodC(false);
27
                setAllocGen(gen);
28
            }
29
30
        }
31
32
        public void methodA() {
33
            . . .
34
            methodB();
35
36
        }
37
    }
```

belonging to its allocation path which is unique. This parent node will be used to solve the conflict.

In Figure 2, each subtree associated with a different target generation is painted with a different color. For example, all leaf nodes that fall within the subtree painted in red (dotted line) will allocate objects in generation three. Also note that it is possible to override the target generation for a particular subtree, as it is illustrated in the subtree painted in yellow (dashed line), that allocates objects in generation one, although being part of the blue subtree (solid line, that allocates objects in the generation two).

3.4 Application Bytecode Instrumentation

Up until now, POLM2 is able (during the profiling phase) to profile and extract application allocation profiles. This section describes how to apply a given application allocation profile (during production phase) into the application bytecode at load time.

As mentioned before, POLM2 uses NG2C, a recently proposed GC that supports multi-generational pretenuring, meaning that it can pretenure (allocate) objects in multiple generations. NG2C provides a simple API that contains three methods: i) newGeneration,

that creates a new generation; ii) getGeneration, that returns the actual target generation for allocations; iii) setGeneration, that sets the current generation (and returns the previous one).

In addition to these methods, NG2C provides an annotation (@Gen) that is used to annotate allocation sites. Object allocated through allocation sites annotated with @Gen are pretenured/allocated in the target generation (that was previously set with one of the methods of the provided API). Non-annotated object allocations are not pretenured, and are allocated in the youngest generation.

To automatically take advantage of an application allocation profile, POLM2 proposes the *Instrumenter*, a component that intersects bytecode loading and rewrites/instruments it to and insert calls (and annotations) to instruct NG2C. Following the previous example of Listing 1 and Figure 2, Listing 2 presents the Java code representation of the bytecode generated by the *Instrumenter*. Note that POLM2 does not change/require access to the Java source code; the listing is shown just for clarifying the description; it would be obtained if the bytecodes were disassembled.

Taking into consideration the application allocation profile, the *Instrumenter* added a @Gen annotation in line 3 that results in the pretenuring of an Integer array into the current generation. The current generation is controlled by calling setGeneration in lines 8, 10, 20, 22, 25, and 27. These calls are used whenever the execution steps into a subtree (from the STTree described in Figure 2) that contains a different color (target generation) regarding the current one.

The generations necessary to accommodate application objects (Gen1, Gen2, and Gen3) are automatically created (by calling the newGeneration NG2C API call) at launch time, and are available to use in any point of the application.

3.5 Profiling and Production Phases

As already mentioned, using POLM2 can be divided in two phases: i) profiling, and ii) production. The profiling phase is necessary to monitor the application in order to extract its allocation profile. During this phase, the *Recorder*, *Dumper*, and *Analyzer* components record allocation data and analyze it. The output of the profiling phase is a file containing all the code locations that will be instrumented and how (annotate allocation site or set current generation).

The production phase represents the execution of the application in production environments. During this phase, only the *Instrumenter* component is required to instrument the bytecode according to the provided allocation profile. The instrumentation overhead is only present while the application is loading (during which the bytecode is being loaded and instrumented). After a short period, most of the code of the application is already loaded, and the performance overhead associated to the *Instrumenter* is negligible (see Section 5).

The separation between these two phases (profiling and production) is important for one main reason: a profiling phase generates an allocation profile for a particular combination of application and workload, meaning that whenever a particular workload is expected in the production phase, an already existing allocation profile can be used. This also means that it is possible to create multiple allocation profiles for the same application, one for each possible workload. Then, whenever the application is launched in the production phase, one allocation profile can be chosen according to the estimated workload (for example, depending on the client for which the application is running).

4 Implementation

POLM2 is composed of a collection of components that, as described in Section 3, work towards the same goal. This section describes some implementation techniques that are relevant for POLM2 being efficiently implemented.

4.1 Java Agents

Both the *Recorder* and *Instrumenter* are implemented as Java Agents. These are pluggable components that run attached to the JVM. Both agents (*Recorder* and *Instrumenter*) use ASM³, a Java bytecode manipulation library, to rewrite bytecode at load time. The *Recorder* uses ASM to add callbacks to the recording code on every object allocation while the *Instrumenter* uses NG2C API to direct object allocations to different generations.

In addition to recording allocations, the *Recorder* also serves a second purpose. It prepares the heap for a memory snapshot, and signals the *Dumper* component for creating a new snapshot. By default (this is configurable), upon each GC cycle finish, the *Recorder* instructs the *Dumper* to create a new snapshot. However, to avoid snapshotting memory pages that are not being used by the application and therefore to reduce the size of the snapshot, the *Recorder* traverses the Java heap and sets a special bit in the kernel page table (from here on called no-need bit) for all pages containing no live objects. This no-need bit that is set using the madvise system call, is used by the *Dumper* to avoid pages with the bit set (i.e., unnecessary pages) while creating the memory snapshot.

4.2 Efficient JVM Snapshots with CRIU

To perform JVM snapshots, POLM2 uses CRIU⁴. CRIU allows any process to be checkpointed, i.e., all its resources (including its memory pages) are captured in a snapshot.

CRIU supports incremental checkpoints by relying on a kernel memory page table dirty bit that indicates if a particular page was dirtied or not, since the last snapshot. Upon each memory snapshot, CRIU cleans the bit and therefore, when a new snapshot is requested again, only pages with the dirty bit captured into the snapshot.

Finally, CRIU also ignores pages which are marked as not necessary by checking the no-need bit in the page table of a particular process. This no-need bit is set by the *Recorder* and is used to discard every page that contains no live objects.

By combining CRIU with the *Recorder*, POLM2 is able to create snapshots whose size (and consequently the time necessary to create them) is greatly reduced when compared to a usual approach using usual JVM tools such as jmap⁵ (see results in Section 5).

4.3 Finding Recorded Objects in JVM Snapshots

Matching the objects' ids recorded by the *Recorder* with the ids of the objects included in the JVM memory snapshot is also a nontrivial implementation challenge. In particular, simply using the jmap tool would not be possible because the ids of objects included in the heap dumps produced by jmap change over time as they are generated using their corresponding memory addresses. Since an object might be moved (promoted or compacted), its id might change, therefore breaking the goal of tracking the object until it becomes unreachable. Thus, in order to properly match the ids provided by the *Recorder* and the *Dumper*, another solution is used.

The objects' ids recorded by the *Recorder* are obtained by calling the method System. identityHashCode for each recorded object. Each id is generated by hashing the corresponding object and is stored internally in the JVM in the object's header. In order to successfully match object ids included in the snapshot, the *Analyzer* must read each object header in order to extract the object id and match it with the ids reported by the *Recorder*. Note, however, that it is possible that many objects recorded by the *Recorder* did not appear in the JVM snapshots since the *Analyzer* only traverses live objects.

4.4 Reducing Changes Between Generations

As discussed in Section 3.4, for each *STTree* leaf node (object allocation) that is not included in any conflict, there are two calls to the NG2C API: one to change the target generation of the leaf node, and one to go back to the previous target generation.

In order to reduce the overhead associated to calling NG2C multiple times, POLM2 avoids many of these calls by pushing the target generation to parent nodes in the hope that other leaf nodes in the same subtree also share the same target generation. Thus, if no conflicts are created, the target generation is set only when the execution enters into a specific subtree, and all the leaf nodes included in the subtree inherit the target generation; thus, there is no need to call NG2C multiple times.

This optimization leads to a significant reduction in the number of calls to NG2C, therefore reducing the overhead associated with selecting the correct generation for object allocations.

4.5 Profiling Information for Generational GCs

As already mentioned, the overall goal of this work is to reduce Big Data application pause times by performing lifetime-aware memory management. To this end, POLM2 uses NG2C, a GC which exports an API to specify where objects should be allocated, decision that must take into consideration the expected lifetime of each object. However, it is important to note that POLM2 is completely independent of the GC that is being used. In other words, POLM2 can be used with any generational GC that supports pretenuring. The only code that would have to be changed is the GC-specific code in the *Instrumenter* (that specifies in which generation objects should be allocated in).

5 Evaluation

This section presents the results of several experiments regarding the three most relevant metrics for POLM2: i) the size of JVM snapshots, and the time to create them; ii) application pause times; and iii) application throughput and memory usage.

Thus, for the first set of results, we compare the size and time to create JVM snapshots with *Dumper*, and the widely used JVM tool jmap. Then, application pause times obtained with POLM2 are analyzed and compared to the pauses obtained with: i) NG2C with manual code modifications, i.e. with programmers' knowledge of the application and the corresponding source code modifications (to allocate objects with similar lifetimes close to each other), and ii) G1, the default collector for recent OpenJDK versions that uses no profiling information or programmers' help to estimate objects lifetime, and therefore simply assumes that most objects die young. Note that the use of NG2C with manual code modifications should

³ASM is a bytecode manipulation library that is available at asm.ow2.org

⁴CRIU is a Checkpoint-Restore tool for Linux processes. It is available at criu.org, ⁵Java Memory Map, or jmap, is a tool for Java applications that can create application heap dumps.

WOIKIOau	# Instrumented Anoc Sites	# Useu Generations	# Commers Encourereu		
Cassandra-WI	11/11	4/N	2/2		
Cassandra-RW	11/11	4/N	2/2		
Cassandra-RI	10/11	4/N	3/2		
Lucene	2/8	2/2	2/0		
GraphChi-CC	9/9	2/2	1/0		
GraphChi-PR	9/9	2/2	1/0		

Workload	# Instrumented Alloc Sites	# Used Generations	# Conflicts Encoutered

Table 1. Application Profiling Metrics for POLM2/NG2C

correspond to the best performance results that can be obtained as the programmer knows the application code and requires objects to be allocated in a way that minimizes pause times. Although we also use C4 [47] in our experiments, pause time results are not shown as there are no significant pause times (the duration of all pauses fall below 10 ms).

We use three relevant platforms (that are used in large-scale environments) to exercise each collector: i) Apache Cassandra 2.1.8 [35], a large-scale Key-Value store, ii) Apache Lucene 6.1.0 [40], a high performance text search engine, and iii) GraphChi 0.2.2 [34], a large-scale graph computation engine. Section 5.2 presents a complete description of each workload.

The main goal of these evaluation experiments is to show that POLM2: i) greatly reduces application pause times when compared to current industrial collectors (such as G1); ii) does not have a negative effect neither on throughput nor on memory utilization; and iii) replaces programmer's knowledge by automatic profiling, thus achieving equivalent performance or even outperforming NG2C.

5.1 Evaluation Setup

The evaluation was performed using a server equipped with an Intel Xeon E5505, with 16 GB of RAM. The server runs Linux 3.13. Each experiment runs in complete isolation for at least 5 times (i.e., to be able to identify outliers). All workloads run for 30 minutes each. When running each experiment, the first five minutes of execution are ignored; this ensures minimal interference from JVM loading, JIT compilation, etc.

Fixed heap and young generation sizes are always enforced (12GB and 2GB, respectively). We found that these sizes are enough to hold the working set in memory and to avoid premature en masse promotion of objects to older generations. Besides, according to our experience, leaving young generation or total heap sizes unlimited leads to non-optimal pause times since the JVM will always try to limit/reduce memory utilization, eventually leading to extra GC effort that results in longer pause times.

5.2 Workload Description

This section provides a complete description of the workloads used to evaluate POLM2.

5.2.1 Cassandra

Cassandra is used with three different workloads: i) write intensive workload, from here on Cassandra WI, (2500 read queries and 7500 write queries per second); iii) write-read workload, from here on Cassandra WR, (5000 read queries and 5000 write queries per second); and iv) read intensive workload, from here on Cassandra RI, (7500 read queries and 2500 write queries per second). All workloads

are synthetic but mirror real-world settings by the YCSB benchmark tool.6

5.2.2 Lucene

Lucene is used to build an in-memory text index using a Wikipedia dump from 2012.⁷ The dump has 31GB and is divided in several 33M documents. Each document is loaded into Lucene and can be searched. The workload is composed of 20000 writes (document updates) and 5000 reads (document searches) per second; note that this is a write intensive workload that represents a worst case scenario for GC pauses. For reads (document queries), the test loops through the 500 top words in the dump; this also represents a worst case scenario for GC pauses.

5.2.3 GraphChi

When compared to the previous systems (Cassandra and Lucene), GraphChi is a more throughput oriented system (and not latency oriented). GraphChi is used for two reasons: i) first, it is important to show that POLM2 does not significantly decrease throughput even in a throughput oriented system; and ii) with POLM2, systems such as GraphChi can now be used for applications providing latency oriented services, besides performing throughput oriented graph computations.

For the evaluation of POLM2, we use two well-known algorithms: i) page rank (GraphChi PR), and ii) connected components (GraphChi CC). Both algorithms use as input a 2010 twitter graph [33] consisting of 42 millions vertexes and 1.5 billions edges. These vertexes (and the corresponding edges) are loaded in batches into memory; GraphChi calculates a memory budget to determine the number of edges to load into memory before the next batch. This represents an iterative process; in each iteration a new batch of vertexes is loaded and processed.

5.3 Application Profiling

This section shows the results obtained during the profiling phase (while the next section present results obtained during the production phase).

Because each workload stabilizes very fast after the JVM loading, we found that profiling each workload for only five minutes is sufficient (the first minute of execution is always ignored to avoid load-time noise; hence, the profiling phase lasts for six minutes per workload). If other workloads take more time to stabilize, the duration of the profiling phase might increase.

⁶The Yahoo! Cloud Serving Benchmark (YCSB) is an open-source benchmarking tool often used to compare NoSQL database systems.

⁷Wikipedia dumps are available at dumps.wikimedia.org

5.3.1 Profiling Allocation Sites

For each application and workload, a number of allocation sites are identified as candidates for instrumentation. Each allocation site can be selected for a different generation, according to the estimated lifetime of objects allocated through that particular allocation site. Finally, encountered conflicts are also solved, resulting in additional code changes (see Section 3.3 for more details).

Table 1 shows the above mentioned applications profiling metrics for each workload, for both POLM2 and NG2C (with manual code modifications). Regarding the number of instrumented allocation sites, both POLM2 and NG2C are very similar. For Cassandra-RI and Lucene, POLM2 did not consider as many allocation sites as NG2C which, as discussed in the next sections, is a correct decision. Regarding the number of generations used, the only difference is on how Cassandra workloads are handled; POLM2 uses only four generations while NG2C uses an undetermined number of generations (in fact, NG2C creates one generation each time a memory table is flushed; the new generation is used to accommodate the new memory table). As can be seen in the next sections, this difference has no performance impact (neither positive nor negative).

Finally, POLM2 is able to detect conflicts in Lucene, GraphChi-CC, and GraphChi-PR, that were not correctly identified in NG2C. As discussed in the next section, this leads to some performance penalties for NG2C.

5.3.2 JVM Memory Snapshots

As discussed in Section 3.2, the *Dumper* component uses two optimizations to reduce the overhead associated to taking snapshots: i) it avoids pages with no reachable objects, and ii) it avoids pages that were not modified since the last snapshot. Figures 3 and 4 show the results for the first 20 memory snapshots obtained for each workload. Both plots compare the performance of the *Dumper* with jmap, a widely used tool that takes JVM heap dumps (in this case, only live objects are dumped with jmap). Results are normalized to jmap.

From both figures, it is clear that, when compared to jmap, POLM2: i) is more efficient creating memory snapshots as it reduces the time necessary to take a snapshot by more than 90% for all work-loads, and ii) reduces the size of the snapshots by approximately 60% for all workloads. By enabling faster and cheaper memory snapshots, POLM2 reduces the time applications are stopped to let the profiler snapshot the memory, thus reducing the profiler impact on application performance. As an example, GraphChi (both PR and CC) snapshotted using jmap results in a 3.8GB heap dump (on average), taking 22 minutes to create the snapshot (on average). Using the *Dumper*, the size of the snapshot is reduced to approximately 700 MB, taking approximately 32 seconds to create the snapshot.

5.4 GC Pause Times

This section shows results for the GC pause times, i.e., the amount of time during which an application is stopped to let the collector work (collect dead objects). The goal of this section is to demonstrate that, with POLM2, the GC pause times are: i) shorter when compared to G1 (which uses no information regarding objects lifetimes), and ii) as good as those obtained with NG2C (which requires manual code changes).



Figure 3. Memory Snapshot Time using *Dumper* normalized to jmap



Figure 4. Memory Snapshot Size using Dumper normalized to jmap

5.4.1 Pause Time Percentiles

Figure 5 presents the results for application pauses times across all workloads for POLM2, NG2C, and G1. Pauses are presented in milliseconds and are organized by percentiles (from percentile 50 to percentile 99.999). The worst observable pause is also included.

As can be seen in Figure 5, POLM2 clearly outperforms G1, the default collector in OpenJDK HotSpot JVM, across all pause time percentiles. For Cassandra, the worst observable pause times are reduced by 55%, 67 %, and 78% (for WI, RW, and RI respectively). The same applies to the other workloads, where POLM2 also outperforms G1: 78%, 80%, and 58% reduction in the worst observable pause time for GraphChi CC, GraphChi PR, and Lucene (respectively).

When comparing POLM2 to NG2C, it is possible to conclude that both solutions achieve similar pause times across all percentiles. However, note that with POLM2, the programmer does not have to change the code; we believe that this is a very important aspect as long as the overall performance of applications is not affected (which is the case). The two workloads that have slightly different results are Cassandra RI, and Lucene. For these workloads, POLM2 is able to outperform NG2C for most percentiles. After analyzing the results, it was possible to determine that the reason behind this difference is related to some misplaced manual code changes.

This an interesting result; it shows that it is very difficult, even for an experienced developer who spends many hours working on the code, to be able to accurately tell: i) which objects live longer than others, and ii) how to set the target generation for each allocation site, taking into consideration that the same allocation site might be used through different allocation paths. This problem is solved by POLM2 using STTrees (as described in Section 3.3) that detects these conflicts and properly place calls into NG2C to change the current generation.

In sum, even experienced developers can (and will probably) fail to take into account all the possible allocation paths into a given allocation site. This will result in less optimal object location in the heap, leading to long application pauses. POLM2 solves this problem automatically with no programmer effort.



Figure 6. Number of Application Pauses Per Duration Interval (ms)

5.4.2 Pause Time Distribution

The previous section presented application pause times organized by percentiles, which is good for analyzing worst case scenarios but might hide the real pause time distribution. Hence, this section presents the same metric (pause times) but organized in pause time intervals. Figure 6 presents the number application pauses that occur in each pause time interval. Pauses with shorter durations appear in intervals to the left while longer pauses appear in intervals to the right. In other words, the less pauses to the right, the better.

As seen in the pause time percentiles, POLM2 brings significant improvements when compared to G1 as it leads to less application pauses in longer pause intervals. This is true for all workloads. This is an important result because it shows that POLM2 leads to reduced application pauses not only in worst case scenarios (higher percentiles) but also in shorter pause intervals. Thus, it is possible to conclude that POLM2 automatically reduces the duration of all pauses and not only the longer ones.

When comparing POLM2 with NG2C, the same conclusion taken in the previous section holds: POLM2 outperforms NG2C for Cassandra RI and Lucene because of the difficulty in correctly applying NG2C calls/annotations; this can be extremely tricky because of multiple allocation paths for the same allocation site.

5.5 Throughput and Memory Usage

This section shows results on application throughput and max memory usage for G1, NG2C, and POLM2. In addition, throughput results for C4 are also shown for Cassandra workloads. Results for max memory usage are not presented for C4 since this collector pre-reserves all the available memory at launch time, meaning that, in practice, its memory usage is equal to the max available memory



Figure 7. Application throughput normalized to G1



(c) Cassandra RI

Figure 8. Cassandra Throughput (transactions/second) - 10 minutes sample

at all time. The goal of this section is to demonstrate that POLM2: i) does not inflict a negative throughput impact, and ii) does not negatively impacts the max memory usage.

Figure 7 shows the application throughput for NG2C, C4, and POLM2. Results are normalized to G1 (meaning that if G1 was also plotted, it would have one in all bars). Results show that, not only POLM2 does not negatively impacts throughput, but even improves it. Comparing POLM2 to G1, POLM2 is able to improve throughput by 1%, 11%, and 18% for Cassandra WI, WR, and RI, respectively. G1 leads to improved performance in Lucene (1% loss), GraphChi PR (5% loss), and GraphChi (4% loss). The throughput achieved with POLM2 and NG2C is very similar, with no relevant positive or negative impact on any workload. Once again, the difference is that with POLM2 there is no extra programmer effort. C4 is the collector with worst performance. This overhead comes from the fact that C4 relies on several techniques such as a combination of read and write barriers to provide near to zero pause times.

Figure 8 shows more detailed throughput values for all three Cassandra workloads (WI, WR, and RI). Each plot presents a 10 minute sample containing the number of executed transactions per second. The main conclusion to take from these plots is that the throughput is approximately the same for each approach (G1, NG2C,



Figure 9. Application Max Memory Usage normalized to G1

and POLM2). This means that, for Cassandra, POLM2 does not present any throughput limitation; therefore, it is a better solution compared to NG2C (that requires developer effort), and it is a better solution than G1 since is reduces application pauses. As pointed previously, C4 is the collector with worst performance.

Finally, Figure 9 presents the results for max memory usage across all workloads. Again, results are normalized to G1 (meaning that it would have one in all columns). For this particular metric, G1, NG2C, and POLM2 lead to very similar memory usages, meaning that the memory needed to run each workload is not increased by any of the solutions. This is an interesting result because it shows that it is possible to perform a lifetime-aware memory management without increasing the application memory footprint. This also means that the effect of fragmentation (that can happen if many generations are being used) is not noticeable and therefore is negligible. C4 results are not shown as it pre-reserves all available memory at launch time. If plotted, results for C4 would be close to 2 for Cassandra benchmarks.

6 Related Work

Profiling plays a key role in managed runtimes, either for code optimization or memory management decisions [1, 2, 26, 27, 44, 51, 52]. This work focus on getting quality profiling information to drive object pretenuring, taking advantage of application behavior to adapt automatic memory management in applications that use large heaps. POLM2 is, to the best of our knowledge, the first profiler that automatically adapts memory management to make it object lifetime-aware. This section compares the proposed work with state-of-art profilers (either online or offline) that improve memory management to reduce the impact of GC in the application performance. It ends with a comparative analysis of systems that demand a more profound change, either to the application/framework or the runtime itself, in some cases manipulating application-defined types and/or organizing the heap in special purpose regions, and placing data directly in an off-heap space.

6.1 Application Allocation Profiling

Hertz et al. [27] introduced an algorithm where an object lifetime is tracked based on timestamps assigned when the object looses an incoming reference, and when the GC identifies it as an unreachable object. This is implemented in a tracing tool called Merlin; compared to a non-profiled run, when Merlin analyzes a program, it makes the application execution up to 300 times slower. Ricci et al. [44] uses the same algorithm but adds new functionalities to his Elephant Tracks tool in terms of precision and comprehensiveness of reference sources (i.e., weak references). Another system, Resurrector [51], relaxes on precision to provide faster profiling

Rodrigo Bruno, Paulo Ferreira

but still introduces a 3 to 40 times slowdown depending on the workload.

Blackburn et al. [6] extends the profile-based pretenuring of Cheng et al. [12] using the Merlin tracing tool [27]. Blackburn's solution has a two stage profiling. The first stage happens during the build of the JVM. Profiling at this stage is used to improve the performance of JVM itself, since Jikes RVM, formerly known as Jalapeño [1], is a meta-circular JVM.

Li et al. [36] proposes a set of metrics to drive object lifetime profiling and characterizes the local and global memory behavior regarding object reachability and death, giving average counts of live and dead objects, across program execution divided in windows. Armed with this information, the system running on top of Merlin and Elephant Tracks is able to determine the best nursery and full heap sizes, that optimize GC frequency. It is complex and although additional overhead is limited, it incurs in baseline overhead due to Elephant Tracks (up to 500 times slowdown) and the approach has only been tested with DaCapo [5] programs with small input.

Cohen and Petrank [15] extends the operation of the Immix garbage collector in Jikes RVM [8], via programmer hints, with typeawareness in order to manage application data structures (namely collections) more efficiently. These hints include Java annotations (e.g., to identify collection node types) and invocation of specific API methods (e.g., to notify after removing an item from a collection, helpful for performance but not required to uphold safety). The main advantages come from reducing the occurrence of highly entangled deep-shaped data structures lay-out in memory, thus improving performance of parallel tracing.

A few systems employ online profiling. Clifford et al. [14] performs online profiling to optimize memory allocation operations; it performs a single allocation of a block big enough to fit multiple objects that are allocated in sequence. Objects need not have parent-child or sibling relationships among them because it is the control-flow relations between hot code flows and locations that are monitored. So, while allocations may take place in different methods, equivalent GC behavior is ensured. However, while doing online profiling, this solution only addresses initial allocation and not the issue of pretenuring objects.

Memento [13] gathers online temporal feedback regarding object lifetime by instrumenting allocations, and leaving *mementos* alongside objects in the nursery, so that the allocation site of an object can be recorded. When objects are eventually tenured, Memento is able to avoid later the overhead of scanning and copying for objects allocated in the same allocation site. As in our work, it attempts to allocate these objects directly in the tenure space, as they will be long lived; however, it is only able to manage one tenured space, therefore applying a binary decision that will still potentially co-locate objects with possibly very different lifetimes, incurring in additional later compaction effort. Our work manages multiple spaces; therefore, it is able to allocate objects directly in the space where objects with similar lifetime will also reside.

To sum up, many proposed solutions, with many different techniques have been proposed to acquire information of the application and apply it to improve its performance. Comparing POLM2 with previous works, no solution provides techniques: i) to determine the lifetime distribution for each allocation site without disrupting application behavior, and ii) that take advantage of allocation profiling information, and use recent GCs to automatically perform lifetime-aware memory management in BGPLATs.

6.2 Big Data-oriented Memory Management

Others system employ a less transparent approach (from the source code perspective) to handle large heaps while taking into account the organization of typical big data applications. These systems either depend on: i) large modifications to the heap organization and collection, and/or ii) an important collaboration of the programmer to mark parts of the code (in some cases the framework) to be treated specially.

Facade [42] is a compiler — an extension to Soot [50] — that reduces the number of objects in the heap by separating data (fields) from control (methods), and puts data objects in an off-heap structure without the need to maintain the bloat-causing header [11]. However, the programmer is responsible for a time consuming task, which has to be repeated for each new application or framework: to identify the control path and the list of classes that make up the data path.

A similar approach is followed by Gog et al. [22] in Broom where the heap is split in regions [48], explicitly created by the programmer who knows best which codebase creates related objects.

Yak [41] minimizes this effort but still relies on the programmer to identify epochs, which is another way to identify objects that have a similar lifetime. These objects can be allocated in the same region, avoiding a full heap or generation tracing to identify dead objects. However, it requires not only the programmer to have access to the source code and understand where to place the limits of each region/epoch, but also new bookkeeping structures for inter-reference spaces to be put in place.

POLM2's observable benefit is the reduction of application pause times. Note that our contribution is orthogonal to other techniques used to implement low pause time collections such as incremental (e.g., Immix [8] and G1 [17]) or concurrent compaction (e.g., C4 [47]), and to real-time collectors (e.g., the work in Fiji VM [43] and the Metronome [3] collector).

To conclude, POLM2 represents a significant improvement regarding other Big Data-oriented approaches since it does not require programmer effort and knowledge to improvement memory management decisions.

7 Conclusions

This paper presents POLM2, a profiler that analyzes application allocation behavior and, based on recorded data during a profiling phase, creates an application profile. This profile is used in the production phase to improve memory management decisions by making it object lifetime-aware. POLM2 is implemented for the OpenJDK 8 and uses NG2C, a recently proposed GC that is able to pretenure objects into multiple generations. Results are very encouraging as POLM2 automatically achieves significant reductions in application pause times. In addition, POLM2 does not have any negative impact neither on application throughput nor on memory usage.

8 Acknowledgments

This work was supported by national funds through Fundação para a Ciência e a Tecnologia (FCT) with reference UID/CEC/50021/2013 and through the FCT scholarship SFRH/BD/103745/2014.

References

- [1] Matthew Arnold, Stephen Fink, David Grove, Michael Hind, and Peter F. Sweeney. 2000. Adaptive Optimization in the Jalapeňo JVM. In Proceedings of the 15th ACM SIGPLAN Conference on Object-oriented Programming, Systems, Languages, and Applications (OOPSLA '00). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 47–65. DOI: https: //doi.org/10.1145/353171.353175
- [2] M. Arnold, S. J. Fink, D. Grove, M. Hind, and P. F. Sweeney. 2005. A Survey of Adaptive Optimization in Virtual Machines. Proc. IEEE 93, 2 (Feb 2005), 449–466.
- [3] David F. Bacon, Perry Cheng, and V. T. Rajan. 2003. Controlling Fragmentation and Space Consumption in the Metronome, a Real-time Garbage Collector for Java. In Proceedings of the 2003 ACM SIGPLAN Conference on Language, Compiler, and Tool for Embedded Systems (LCTES '03). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 81–92. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1145/780732.780744
- [4] William S Beebee Jr and Martin Rinard. 2001. An implementation of scoped memory for Real-Time Java. In International Workshop on Embedded Software. Springer, 289–305.
- [5] Stephen M. Blackburn, Robin Garner, Chris Hoffmann, Asjad M. Khang, Kathryn S. McKinley, Rotem Bentzur, Amer Diwan, Daniel Feinberg, Daniel Frampton, Samuel Z. Guyer, Martin Hirzel, Antony Hosking, Maria Jump, Han Lee, J. Eliot B. Moss, Aashish Phansalkar, Darko Stefanović, Thomas VanDrunen, Daniel von Dincklage, and Ben Wiedermann. 2006. The DaCapo Benchmarks: Java Benchmarking Development and Analysis. In Proceedings of the 21st Annual ACM SIGPLAN Conference on Object-oriented Programming Systems, Languages, and Applications (OOPSLA '06). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 169–190. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1145/1167473.1167488
- [6] Stephen M. Blackburn, Matthew Hertz, Kathryn S. Mckinley, J. Eliot B. Moss, and Ting Yang. 2007. Profile-based Pretenuring. ACM Trans. Program. Lang. Syst. 29, 1, Article 2 (Jan. 2007). http://doi.acm.org/10.1145/1180475.1180477
- [7] Stephen M Blackburn, Richard Jones, Kathryn S. McKinley, and J Eliot B Moss. 2002. Beltway: Getting Around Garbage Collection Gridlock. In Proceedings of the ACM SIGPLAN 2002 Conference on Programming Language Design and Implementation (PLDI '02). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 153–164. DOI: https: //doi.org/10.1145/512529.512548
- [8] Stephen M. Blackburn and Kathryn S. McKinley. 2008. Immix: A Mark-region Garbage Collector with Space Efficiency. Fast Collection, and Mutator Performance. In Proceedings of the 29th ACM SIGPLAN Conference on Programming Language Design and Implementation (PLDI '08). ACM, 22–32. http: //doi.acm.org/10.1145/1375581.1375586
- [9] Chandrasekhar Boyapati, Alexandru Salcianu, William Beebee, Jr., and Martin Rinard. 2003. Ownership Types for Safe Region-based Memory Management in Real-time Java. In Proceedings of the ACM SIGPLAN 2003 Conference on Programming Language Design and Implementation (PLDI '03). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 324–337. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1145/781131.781168
- [10] Rodrigo Bruno, Luís Picciochi Oliveira, and Paulo Ferreira. 2017. NG2C: Pretenuring Garbage Collection with Dynamic Generations for HotSpot Big Data Applications. In Proceedings of the 2017 ACM SIGPLAN International Symposium on Memory Management (ISMM 2017). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 2–13. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1145/3092255.3092272
- [11] Yingyi Bu, Vinayak Borkar, Guoqing Xu, and Michael J. Carey. 2013. A Bloataware Design for Big Data Applications. In Proceedings of the 2013 International Symposium on Memory Management (ISMM '13). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 119–130. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1145/2464157.2466485
- [12] Perry Cheng, Robert Harper, and Peter Lee. 1998. Generational Stack Collection and Profile-driven Pretenuring. In Proceedings of the ACM SIGPLAN 1998 Conference on Programming Language Design and Implementation (PLDI '98). 162–173. http://doi.acm.org/10.1145/277650.277718
- [13] Daniel Clifford, Hannes Payer, Michael Stanton, and Ben L. Titzer. 2015. Memento Mori: Dynamic Allocation-site-based Optimizations. *SIGPLAN Not.* 50, 11 (June 2015), 105–117. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1145/2887746.2754181
- [14] Daniel Clifford, Hannes Payer, Michael Starzinger, and Ben L. Titzer. 2014. Allocation Folding Based on Dominance. In Proceedings of the 2014 International Symposium on Memory Management (ISMM '14). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 15–24. DOI:https://doi.org/10.1145/2602988.2602994
- [15] Nachshon Cohen and Erez Petrank. 2015. Data Structure Aware Garbage Collector. In Proceedings of the 2015 International Symposium on Memory Management (ISMM '15). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 28–40. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1145/ 2754169.2754176
- [16] David Detlefs, Christine Flood, Steve Heller, and Tony Printezis. 2004. Garbage-first Garbage Collection. In Proceedings of the 4th International Symposium on Memory Management (ISMM '04). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 37–48. DOI: https: //doi.org/10.1145/1029873.1029879
- [17] David Detlefs, Christine Flood, Steve Heller, and Tony Printezis. 2004. Garbage-first Garbage Collection. In Proceedings of the 4th International Symposium on Memory Management (ISMM '04). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 37–48. DOI: https: //doi.org/10.1145/1029873.1029879
- [18] David Gay and Alex Aiken. 2001. Language Support for Regions. In Proceedings of the ACM SIGPLAN 2001 Conference on Programming Language Design and Implementation (PLDI '01). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 70–80. DOI: https://doi. org/10.1145/378795.378815

- [19] David Gay and Bjarne Steensgaard. 2000. Fast Escape Analysis and Stack Allocation for Object-Based Programs. In Proceedings of the 9th International Conference on Compiler Construction (CC '00). Springer-Verlag, London, UK, UK, 82–93.
- [20] Lokesh Gidra, Gaël Thomas, Julien Sopena, and Marc Shapiro. 2012. Assessing the Scalability of Garbage Collectors on Many Cores. SIGOPS Oper. Syst. Rev. 45, 3 (Jan. 2012), 15–19. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1145/2094091.2094096
- [21] Lokesh Gidra, Gaël Thomas, Julien Sopena, and Marc Shapiro. 2013. A Study of the Scalability of Stop-the-world Garbage Collectors on Multicores. In Proceedings of the Eighteenth International Conference on Architectural Support for Programming Languages and Operating Systems (ASPLOS'13). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 229–240. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1145/2451116.2451142
- [22] Ionel Gog, Jana Giceva, Malte Schwarzkopf, Kapil Vaswani, Dimitrios Vytiniotis, Ganesan Ramalingam, Manuel Costa, Derek G. Murray, Steven Hand, and Michael Isard. 2015. Broom: Sweeping Out Garbage Collection from Big Data Systems. In 15th Workshop on Hot Topics in Operating Systems (HotOS XV). USENIX Association, Kartause Ittingen, Switzerland. https://www.usenix.org/conference/ hotos15/workshop-program/presentation/gog
- [23] Ionel Gog, Jana Giceva, Malte Schwarzkopf, Kapil Vaswani, Dimitrios Vytiniotis, Ganesan Ramalingan, Derek Murray, Steven Hand, and Michael Isard. 2015. Broom: Sweeping out Garbage Collection from Big Data Systems. In Proceedings of the 15th USENIX Conference on Hot Topics in Operating Systems (HOTOS'15). USENIX Association, Berkeley, CA, USA, 2–2.
- [24] Dan Grossman, Greg Morrisett, Trevor Jim, Michael Hicks, Yanling Wang, and James Cheney. 2002. Region-based Memory Management in Cyclone. In Proceedings of the ACM SIGPLAN 2002 Conference on Programming Language Design and Implementation (PLDI '02). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 282–293. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1145/512529.512563
- [25] Niels Hallenberg, Martin Elsman, and Mads Tofte. 2002. Combining Region Inference and Garbage Collection. In Proceedings of the ACM SIGPLAN 2002 Conference on Programming Language Design and Implementation (PLDI '02). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 141–152. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1145/512529.512547
- [26] Timothy L. Harris. 2000. Dynamic Adaptive Pre-tenuring. In Proceedings of the 2nd International Symposium on Memory Management (ISMM '00). ACM, 127–136. http://doi.acm.org/10.1145/362422.362476
- [27] Matthew Hertz, Stephen M. Blackburn, J. Eliot B. Moss, Kathryn S. McKinley, and Darko Stefanović. 2006. Generating Object Lifetime Traces with Merlin. ACM Trans. Program. Lang. Syst. 28, 3 (May 2006), 476–516. http://doi.acm.org/ 10.1145/1133651.1133654
- [28] Michael Hicks, Greg Morrisett, Dan Grossman, and Trevor Jim. 2004. Experience with Safe Manual Memory-management in Cyclone. In Proceedings of the 4th International Symposium on Memory Management (ISMM '04). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 73–84. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1145/1029873.1029883
- [29] Richard L. Hudson, Ron Morrison, J. Eliot B. Moss, and David S. Munro. 1997. Garbage Collecting the World: One Car at a Time. In Proceedings of the 12th ACM SIGPLAN Conference on Object-oriented Programming, Systems, Languages, and Applications (OOPSLA '97). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 162–175. DOI: https: //doi.org/10.1145/263698.264353
- [30] Richard Jones, Antony Hosking, and Eliot Moss. 2016. The garbage collection handbook: the art of automatic memory management. CRC Press.
- [31] Richard E. Jones and Chris Ryder. 2008. A Study of Java Object Demographics. In Proceedings of the 7th International Symposium on Memory Management (ISMM '08). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 121–130. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1145/1375634. 1375652
- [32] Sumant Kowshik, Dinakar Dhurjati, and Vikram Adve. 2002. Ensuring Code Safety Without Runtime Checks for Real-time Control Systems. In Proceedings of the 2002 International Conference on Compilers, Architecture, and Synthesis for Embedded Systems (CASES '02). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 288–297. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1145/581630.581678
- [33] Haewoon Kwak, Changhyun Lee, Hosung Park, and Sue Moon. 2010. What is Twitter, a Social Network or a News Media?. In Proceedings of the 19th International Conference on World Wide Web (WWW '10). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 591–600. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1145/1772690.1772751
- [34] Aapo Kyrola, Guy Blelloch, and Carlos Guestrin. 2012. GraphChi: Large-scale Graph Computation on Just a PC. In Proceedings of the 10th USENIX Conference on Operating Systems Design and Implementation (OSDI'12). USENIX Association, Berkeley, CA, USA, 31–46. http://dl.acm.org/citation.cfm?id=2387880.2387884
- [35] Avinash Lakshman and Prashant Malik. 2010. Cassandra: A Decentralized Structured Storage System. SIGOPS Oper. Syst. Rev. 44, 2 (April 2010), 35–40. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1145/1773912.1773922
- [36] Pengcheng Li, Chen Ding, and Hao Luo. 2014. Modeling Heap Data Growth Using Average Liveness. In Proceedings of the 2014 International Symposium on Memory Management (ISMM '14). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 71–82. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1145/2602988.2602997
- [37] Lu Lu, Xuanhua Shi, Yongluan Zhou, Xiong Zhang, Hai Jin, Cheng Pei, Ligang He, and Yuanzhen Geng. 2016. Lifetime-based Memory Management for Distributed Data Processing Systems. Proc. VLDB Endow. 9, 12 (Aug. 2016), 936–947. DOI: https://doi.org/10.14778/2994509.2994513
- [38] Simon Marlow, Tim Harris, Roshan P. James, and Simon Peyton Jones. 2008. Parallel Generational-copying Garbage Collection with a Block-structured Heap. In Proceedings of the 7th International Symposium on Memory Management (ISMM '08). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 11–20. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1145/1375634.

1375637

- [39] Luis Mastrangelo, Luca Ponzanelli, Andrea Mocci, Michele Lanza, Matthias Hauswirth, and Nathaniel Nystrom. 2015. Use at Your Own Risk: The Java Unsafe API in the Wild. In Proceedings of the 2015 ACM SIGPLAN International Conference on Object-Oriented Programming, Systems, Languages, and Applications (OOPSLA 2015). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 695–710. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1145/ 2814270.2814313
- [40] Michael McCandless, Erik Hatcher, and Otis Gospodnetic. 2010. Lucene in Action, Second Edition: Covers Apache Lucene 3.0. Manning Publications Co., Greenwich, CT, USA.
- [41] Khanh Nguyen, Lu Fang, Guoqing Xu, Brian Demsky, Shan Lu, Sanazsadat Alamian, and Onur Mutlu. 2016. Yak: A High-performance Big-data-friendly Garbage Collector. In Proceedings of the 12th USENIX Conference on Operating Systems Design and Implementation (OSDI'16). USENIX Association, Berkeley, CA, USA, 349–365. http://dl.acm.org/citation.cfm?id=3026877.3026905
- [42] Khanh Nguyen, Kai Wang, Yingyi Bu, Lu Fang, Jianfei Hu, and Guoqing Xu. 2015. FACADE: A Compiler and Runtime for (Almost) Object-Bounded Big Data Applications. In Proceedings of the Twentieth International Conference on Architectural Support for Programming Languages and Operating Systems (ASPLOS '15). ACM, 675–690. http://doi.acm.org/10.1145/2694344.2694345
- [43] Filip Pizlo, Lukasz Ziarek, and Jan Vitek. 2009. Real Time Java on Resourceconstrained Platforms with Fiji VM. In Proceedings of the 7th International Workshop on Java Technologies for Real-Time and Embedded Systems (JTRES '09). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 110–119. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1145/1620405.1620421
- [44] Nathan P. Ricci, Samuel Z. Guyer, and J. Eliot B. Moss. 2011. Elephant Tracks: Generating Program Traces with Object Death Records. In Proceedings of the 9th International Conference on Principles and Practice of Programming in Java (PPPJ '11). 139–142. http://doi.acm.org/10.1145/2093157.2093178
- [45] Jacob Seligmann and Steffen Grarup. 1995. Incremental mature garbage collection using the train algorithm. In European Conference on Object-Oriented Programming. Springer, 235–252.
- [46] Codruţ Stancu, Christian Wimmer, Stefan Brunthaler, Per Larsen, and Michael Franz. 2015. Safe and Efficient Hybrid Memory Management for Java. In Proceedings of the 2015 International Symposium on Memory Management (ISMM '15). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 81–92. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1145/2754169.2754185
- [47] Gil Tene, Balaji Iyengar, and Michael Wolf. 2011. C4: The Continuously Concurrent Compacting Collector. In Proceedings of the International Symposium on Memory Management (ISMM '11). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 79–88. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1145/1993478.1993491
- [48] Mads Tofte and Jean-Pierre Talpin. 1997. Region-Based Memory Management. Inf. Comput. 132, 2 (Feb. 1997), 109–176. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1006/inco.1996.2613
- [49] David Ungar. 1984. Generation Scavenging: A Non-disruptive High Performance Storage Reclamation Algorithm. In Proceedings of the First ACM SIG-SOFT/SIGPLAN Software Engineering Symposium on Practical Software Development Environments (SDE 1). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 157–167. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1145/800020.808261
- [50] Raja Vallée-Rai, Etienne Gagnon, Laurie J. Hendren, Patrick Lam, Patrice Pominville, and Vijay Sundaresan. 2000. Optimizing Java Bytecode Using the Soot Framework: Is It Feasible?. In Proceedings of the 9th International Conference on Compiler Construction (CC '00). Springer-Verlag, London, UK, UK, 18–34. http://dl.acm.org/citation.cfm?id=647476.727758
- [51] Guoqing Xu. 2013. Resurrector: A Tunable Object Lifetime Profiling Technique for Optimizing Real-world Programs. In Proceedings of the 2013 ACM SIGPLAN International Conference on Object Oriented Programming Systems Languages & Applications (OOPSLA '13). ACM, 111–130. http://doi.acm.org/10.1145/ 2509136.2509512
- [52] Yudi Zheng, Lubomír Bulej, and Walter Binder. 2015. Accurate Profiling in the Presence of Dynamic Compilation. In Proceedings of the 2015 ACM SIGPLAN International Conference on Object-Oriented Programming, Systems, Languages, and Applications (OOPSLA 2015). ACM, New York, NY, USA, 433–450. http: //doi.acm.org/10.1145/2814270.2814281