A Valgrind Tool to Compute
the Working Set of a Software Process

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This paper introduces a new open-source tool for the dynamic analyzer Valgrind. The tool measures the amount of memory that is actively being used by a process at any given point in time. While there exist numerous tools to measure the memory requirements of a process, the vast majority only focuses on metrics like resident or proportional set sizes, which include memory that was once claimed, but is momentarily disused. Consequently, such tools do not permit drawing conclusions about how much cache or RAM a process actually requires at each point in time, and thus cannot be used for performance debugging. The few tools which do measure only actively used memory, however, have limitations in temporal resolution and introspection. In contrast, our tool offers an easy way to compute the memory that has recently been accessed at any point in time, reflecting how cache and RAM requirements change over time. In particular, this tool computes the set of memory references made within a fixed time interval before any point in time, known as the working set, and captures call stacks for interesting peaks in the working set size. We first introduce the tool, then we run some examples comparing the output from our tool with similar memory tools, and we close with a discussion of limitations.

Additional Key Words and Phrases: Process, Memory Consumption, Working Set, Simulation

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Vol. 1, No. 1, Article . Publication date: February 2019.
1 INTRODUCTION

The Memory Wall [10] is arguably one of the biggest performance challenges in modern computer systems. Since the speed gap between processors and memory is currently several orders of magnitude and still diverging, it becomes more and more important to understand the memory bottlenecks of an application.

A naïve approach to measuring memory requirements would be to determine the total amount of memory that an application has claimed. While this can be useful as a first impression, it does not give any information about how much of that memory is actively being used. The principle of (temporal) locality tells us, that recently used memory is also more likely to be used soon in the future. Therefore, although an application may have occupied a large amount of memory, it is likely to only operate on a subset at any point in time. This, in turn, is important for the memory hierarchy: Fast memory needs to be small, and thus lower memory requirements will make a faster application. In summary, we should not be concerned with the total amount of memory that an application has claimed, but only whether we can bring the soon-to-be-required memory contents quickly enough into the fast memory.

In 1968, Peter Denning [3] introduced the concept of a working set, as a means to unify computation and memory management. It represents a process’ demand for memory, tightly coupled to the computation being performed. Specifically, at any point in time \( t \), it is defined as the memory that has been accessed within the last \( \tau \) time units, also known as the working set window. As such, the working set does not include momentarily disused memory, and thus its size is usually much smaller than the total number of pages mapped (“resident set size”). It also directly translates into how much precious cache and RAM is required in that time interval, and thus also allows for estimating memory throughput requirements to keep a program running. We refer the reader to Denning’s paper for a formal definition of the working set.

Surprisingly, while there are countless tools to measure resident set size (e.g., Linux’ top, Windows’ task manager) or virtual memory (same tools as above), only few tools are available today to measure the working set. One possible explanation is that estimating the working set would require tracking memory accesses, which can be costly and have side-effects. In fact, as long as no page faults occur, an operating system would not even be capable of seeing page accesses. Consequently, such tools often invalidate MMU entries and observe how they reappear over time, and thus they are intrusive. One recent, non-intrusive tool to measure the working set under Linux is wss [5]. It builds on kernel patches that were added in 2015 [1], which allow tracking of idle pages, without changing the state of the memory subsystem. This tool only works for Linux newer than 4.3, and is not enabled in mainline builds. Furthermore, it has several minor limitations, such as only tracking pages on the LRU list and only working with certain allocators (the slab allocator does not use an LRU list). Most importantly, in contrast to our tool, it does not give any introspection beyond the size of the working set, due to restrictive performance penalties for online implementations.

To offer a more generic and precise way of measuring the working set for both instruction and data memory, we have developed a tool for the popular instrumentation framework Valgrind [7]. It seamlessly integrates into the latest Valgrind version, and thus works on many Linux platforms, such as x86, ARM/Android, MIPS32, etc. Computing the working set is achieved by tracking all memory accesses of a process (both instruction and data), and counting the number of pages that have been accessed within the last \( \tau \) (user-defined) time units at equidistant sampling points \( t = kT \), with \( k \in \mathbb{N} \) and \( T \) being the sampling interval. The output is the size of the instruction and data working sets over time, for each individual thread, annotated with additional information.
2 TOOL DETAILS

Our tool for measuring the working set is made open source, and available at https://github.com/mbeckersys/valgrind-ws. It tracks the number of page accesses over time, calculates the working set size (WSS) individually for each process, and separately for data and instruction memory. It is a plugin for Valgrind [7], and thus the program under analysis is effectively being instrumented and simulated, while using the host ISA.

2.1 Interaction with Valgrind Core

Valgrind tools work by instrumenting and observing a process that is interpreted by the Valgrind core. In particular, the Valgrind core provides a stream of an architecture-independent intermediate representation (IR), which carries markers relating the IR to the original instruction stream. Figure 2 shows how we interact with the core. We log all page references for both instruction and data, and count recently accessed pages, i.e., the WSS, at equidistant time intervals.

The time intervals are based on the number of instructions simulated, because the simulation slows down the process under analysis, and thus wall-clock time would be meaningless. Towards that, we instrument the IR stream with IR statements that increment a counter every time an instruction marker is reached. Page accesses are registered only by observing the incoming IR statements. For every data access and every instruction marker (indicating a new original instruction) we query the referenced addresses, translate them to page addresses, and maintain a table holding all seen pages together with a time stamp of the last access.

Every time the instruction counter reaches a multiple of the sampling interval $T$, we compute the working set by counting all pages that have been accessed within the last $\tau$ instructions. Additionally, a peak detection algorithm can be enabled, which records additional information when the WSS exhibits peaks, and is described in the following section.

![Fig. 2. Interaction with Valgrind core](image-url)
2.2 Online Peak Detection and Annotation

For a developer it is important to understand why her program exhibits a certain WSS behavior so that it can be analyzed and improved. Therefore, additional information about the WSS samples, such as the current call stack, shall be recorded. However, this cannot be done for every sample, since it would significantly increase the memory footprint of our tool, and thus slow down the simulation unfavorably. Thus, the tool detects peaks in the WSS of either instructions or data, and records additional information only for those peaks. Such additional information is indicated in the output by boxed numbers, e.g., [1] and [3], see Figure 1.

Peak detection must be quick to respond to peaks, otherwise we blame the wrong code location. It also must have a low memory footprint, since it otherwise fails its own purpose. Therefore, we build on the principle of dispersion and use signal filters that do not require storing a window of samples. The threshold for peak detection depends on the current signal properties; if the memory usage is high, a certain distance from the moving average is used as threshold, otherwise, we compare the deviation from mean against the variance. In between, the threshold is a mixture of both.

This strategy allows us to identify meaningful peaks in both stationary and non-stationary memory usage settings. Specifically, we first compute an exponential moving average $\mu$ and moving variance $\sigma^2$; both of them do not require storing a list of recently seen samples. Then, for every new sample $x$, we calculate its distance $e = |x - \mu|$, and the ratio $F = \sigma^2/\mu$, also known as the Fano factor. The new sample $x$ is considered a peak if $e > E$, where $E$ is the time-varying detection threshold, calculated as $E = c\sigma^2 + (1 - c)\mu$, with $c = 1 - \exp(F/2)$, and $g$ being a parameter to influence detection sensitivity.

Finally, we apply an exponential filtering to the signal before updating the moving average/variance, which prevents that single huge peaks skyrocket these statistics and prevent detection of subsequent peaks. To satisfy the requirement of quick response to peaks, we only apply filtering as long as a peak is present.

2.3 Hot Pages

The tool also yields a list of the most frequently accessed pages, both for instruction and data. We use debug information to provide additional information about the pages, such as source locations. For example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code pages (57 entries):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>count</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90312000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>112640</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be seen that one single page of instructions is the target of most page accesses. Since we only track at page granularity, the information here is only approximate. It refers to the first instruction/data access that falls into the given page. A similar output is produced for data pages.

3 EXAMPLES

In this section we demonstrate several examples, to illustrate the tool’s output and use cases. We compare our output to the following tools: (1) psutil [8] (a Python script to programmatically query process details) and (2) wss [5] (a recent Linux tool to measure the working set size). One notable difference is that our simulation has a different time base than the other two tools. Both of them measure at wall-clock time, but incur different overhead. Our tool, in contrast, uses the number of executed instructions as a time basis. Therefore, in a practical setting, all three tools have different time bases and the output should not be compared directly. Another difference is that the other tools are quite limited in their temporal resolution. For the examples given here, we had them sample the memory state every 2ms, which already keeps our machine busy for these simple example programs.
3.1 “Pageramp” Demo

This is a simple workload requesting and releasing data pages in a sawtooth pattern. The program starts with zero data pages, and successively claims more and more pages, until an upper bound of 1024 pages is reached. Subsequently, it releases the pages again, until we arrive back to zero. During the entire time, it writes one byte of data to every second page, to ensure that half of the claimed memory is actively used. This process is repeated 10 times before the program exits.

We expect that both our tool and wss tools show similar output, and that psutil overestimates the memory requirements roughly by a factor of two. As it can be seen in Fig. 3, our tool clearly yields the expected output. The output from psutil and wss are depicted in Fig. 4. Both programs miss some part of the execution, since they can only be started after the process has come to life. Additionally, they have a worse temporal resolution. More importantly, while wss delivers the expected result (yet without any introspection), psutil can only provide an
upper bound on the working set size by means of the resident set size (RSS). Last but not least, the other tools do not separate between instruction and data.

Only our tool provides further information about the WSS. Two peaks have been detected, marked as 0 and 1 in the output. The latter one is a peak in the instruction WSS, due to OS cleanup actions. The first one is caused by user code, and the information recorded for 0 is

```
[0] refs=2, loc=pageramp.c:37|pageramp.c:77
```

saying that the call stack at this peak was pageramp.c line 37, called by line 77. The corresponding code is

```c
36: static int touch_pages(pagetab_t *pt, int stride) {
37:     for (int p=0; p<(pt->num-stride); p+=stride) {
...
77:     touch_pages(&pt, stride);
```

and thus the tool is pointing the user directly to the piece of code that caused the latest access.

Finally, the tool also provides some summaries, which give a first impression about average (avg), maximum WSS (peak) and the total number of unique pages being accessed:

```
Insn avg/peak/total : 2.1/40/57 pages (8/160/228 kB)
Data avg/peak/total : 348.5/534/1098 pages (1394/2136/4392 kB)
```

Note that our example program apparently uses 74 data pages that are not requested by the user, but by the C library.

3.2 Working Set Window $\tau \neq$ Sampling Period $T$

```
valgrind --tool=ws --ws-tau=10000 ./pageramp
...
valgrind --tool=ws --ws-tau=100000000 ./pageramp
```

So far, the working set window $\tau$ has been the same length as the sampling interval $T$, since the other tools cannot measure when $\tau \neq T$: psutil does not measure the working set, so $\tau$ is meaningless here, and wss modifies bits in the page table every time a sample is taken, and therefore cannot handle this case. However, it is important for scalability of the measurements to separate these two aspects. While for long-running programs the sampling interval should be increased to reduce the amount of measurement overhead, the working set window should be chosen according to a maximum memory bandwidth, which is independent of the program under analysis.

We now exercise the test program "pageramp" again with our tool, while choosing different working set windows $\tau$. The results are shown in Figure 5. For $\tau = 10,000$ instructions, the working set size never exceeds 600
pages. The pages cannot be accessed fast enough to include all the 1024 pages in the working set; or conversely, it takes more than 10,000 instructions to touch all 1024 pages. For larger $\tau$, the upper peaks become clearly visible, since now $\tau$ is large enough so that at least briefly all pages are considered active before they leave the working set again. In turn, the lower bound of the working set is now increased, because the already released pages are still considered to be active. The latter behavior could in principle be fixed by tracking the release of pages, but this would deviate the definition of the working set.

4 DISCUSSION

4.1 Performance

As any Valgrind tool, the execution is slowed down. The slowdown depends on the number of memory accesses, and also on the sampling interval. A larger sampling interval should be chosen for long-running programs, which reduces the memory footprint and the simulation time.

In line with other Valgrind tools, all the results (e.g., the working set size over time) need to be stored in memory before they can be written to file. Therefore, our tool’s memory requirements increase with the run-time of the workload. Because the workload itself is simulated in the Valgrind core, this has no influence on the output.

4.2 Precision

The sampling interval is not exactly equidistant, but happens only at the end of superblocks or exit IR statements. Thereby, a small jitter must be expected, which is usually in the order of a few dozen of instructions. In our implementation, the jitter is strictly positive, i.e., the sampling interval given by the user is never undercut.

4.3 Limitations

Sharing pages between threads or processes is currently ignored, therefore the working set is overestimated for multi-threaded programs sharing data.

If pages are unmapped and a new page is later mapped under the same address, they are counted as the same page, even if the contents are different. This is less critical for the working set size at any given point in time, but affects the summaries given in the end.

Finally, we want to explicitly warn that OS- and hardware mechanisms, such as read-ahead and prefetching, are not being considered by virtue of Valgrind’s execution model. This program only counts demand accesses, as logically required by the running process.

5 RELATED WORK

Most attempts to measure the working set size in a running system are based on MMU invalidation, as the wss tool [5] mentioned earlier. Under the Windows™ operating system, the equivalent tools are the Windows Performance Recorder and Xperf [2]. Such measurements are intrusive, since the tools actively remove pages from the MMU, and observe how they are being loaded back again. Also, they cannot track instruction memory. Another mentionable example for tracking the working set size via MMU invalidation is [11].

Gregg [4] mentions other ways to estimate the WSS, among them the hardware performance monitoring counters (PMCs) in modern CPUs. Deducing the working set size from the PMCs would require measuring cache and DRAM in/out traffic, and possibly MMU accesses, and deducing from that which pages are being used. Since counters are processor-specific, such an approach would have to be developed for each processor family individually, and likely not yield precise results due to lacking implementation details. Other approaches he mentions are memory breakpoints (slow), processor traces and bus snooping (needs hardware).

Another approach for taking WSS measurements is via virtualization. Since full virtualization or tracking every memory access would be too slow, these approaches are typically also based on MMU invalidation. Efficient
implementations for such environments have been presented recently [9]. An approach based on soft PMCs of the Windows guest operating in a virtualization environment has recently been proposed in [6]. However, virtualization in general requires more setup work than our tool, and thus is less convenient for daily use.

The tool presented here falls under the simulation category, and thus offers more insights than the mentioned methods, for the price of slower execution. It is, however, a generic tool for an instrumentation framework that is widely used on many Linux platforms, and does not depend on the caching hardware. We are not aware of any publicly available tool with similar functionality.

6 CLOSING REMARKS

We have introduced a new tool for the popular Valgrind suite, which determines the active memory requirements of a process, known as the working set size, and allows associating peaks in the working set size with call stack information. The measurements are taken at page-level granularity, at a user-defined interval and working set window. This tool can be used to monitor the time-varying memory requirements of an application, and subsequently leverage this information for performance debugging.

This first release has some limitations that need to be considered by a user. At the moment, we do not track release and re-use of pages, and we do not consolidate the working sets of several threads in multi-threaded applications. All of that results in a slight overapproximation of the working set, especially when shared memory is used. Future work entails addressing these shortcomings, and possibly also introducing models to measure spatial locality of memory accesses.

REFERENCES


