Performance measurements of computer systems: tools and analysis

M2R PDES

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Metrics are criteria to compare the performances of a system. In general, the metrics are related to speed, accuracy, reliability and availability of services. The basic characteristics of a computer system that we typically need to measure are:

- a count of how many times an event occurs,
- the duration of some time interval, and
- the size of some parameter.

From these types of measured values, we can derive the actual value that we wish to use to describe the system: the performance metric.
Reliability  A system $A$ always outperforms a system $B \iff$ the performance metric indicates that $A$ always outperforms $B$.

Repeatability  The same value of the metric is measured each time the same experiments is performed.

Consistency  Units of the metrics and its precise definition are the same across different systems and different configurations of the same system.

Linearity  The value of the metric should be linearly proportional to the actual performance of the machine.

Easiness of measurement  If a metric is hard to measure, it is unlikely anyone will actually use it. Moreover it is more likely to be incorrectly determined.

Independence  Metrics should not be defined to favor particular systems.

Many metrics do not fulfill these requirements.
Performance as Time

- Time between the start and the end of an operation
  - Also called running time, elapsed time, wall-clock time, response time, latency, execution time, ...
  - Most straightforward measure: "my program takes 12.5s on a Pentium 3.5GHz"
  - Can be normalized to some reference time
- Must be measured on a “dedicated” machine
Performance as Rate

Used often so that performance can be independent on the “size” of the application (e.g., compressing a 1MB file takes 1 minute. compressing a 2MB file takes 2 minutes \(\sim\) the performance is the same).

**MIPS**

\[
\text{Millions of instructions / sec} = \frac{\text{instruction count}}{\text{execution time} \times 10^6} = \frac{\text{clock rate}}{\text{CPI} \times 10^6}.
\]

But Instructions Set Architectures are not equivalent

- 1 CISC instruction = many RISC instructions
- Programs use different instruction mixes
- May be ok for same program on same architectures

**MFlops**

Millions of floating point operations / sec

- Very popular, but often misleading
- e.g., A high MFlops rate in a stupid algorithm could have poor application performance

**Application-specific**

- Millions of frames rendered per second
- Millions of amino-acid compared per second
- Millions of HTTP requests served per seconds

Application-specific metrics are often preferable and others may be misleading
Resource vendors always talk about **peak performance rate**

- Computed based on specifications of the machine
- For instance:
  - I build a machine with 2 floating point units
  - Each unit can do an operation in 2 cycles
  - My CPU is at 1GHz
  - Therefore I have a $1 \times \frac{2}{2} = 1$ GFlops Machine

Problem:
- In real code you will never be able to use the two floating point units constantly
- Data needs to come from memory and cause the floating point units to be idle

Typically, real codes achieve only an (often small) fraction of the peak performance
Benchmarks

- Since many performance metrics turn out to be misleading, people have designed benchmarks.
- Example: SPEC Benchmark
  - Integer benchmark
  - Floating point benchmark
- These benchmarks are typically a collection of several codes that come from “real-world software”
- The question “what is a good benchmark” is difficult
  - A benchmark is representative of a given workload.
  - If the benchmarks do not correspond to what you’ll do with the computer, then the benchmark results are not relevant to you.
- Other typical benchmarks
  - Livermore loops, NAS kernels, LINPACK, stream, …
  - SPEC SFS, SPECWeb, …
How About GHz?

- This is often the way in which people say that a computer is better than another
  - More instruction per seconds for higher clock rate
- Faces the same problems as MIPS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Processor</th>
<th>Clock Rate</th>
<th>SPEC FP2000 Benchmark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IBM Power3</td>
<td>450 MHz</td>
<td>434</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intel PIII</td>
<td>1.4 GHz</td>
<td>456</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intel P4</td>
<td>2.4GHz</td>
<td>833</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Itanium-2</td>
<td>1.0GHz</td>
<td>1356</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- But somehow usable within a specific architecture
- Remember that if multi-cores, cache size, frequency scaling come into the picture...
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   - Indirect Metrics
Performance is poor because the code suffers from a performance bottleneck.

**Definition:**
- An application runs on a platform that has many components (CPU, Memory, Operating System, Network, Hard Drive, Video Card, etc.)
- Pick a component and make it faster
- If the application performance increases, that component was the bottleneck!
There are two main approaches to remove a bottleneck:

**Brute force  Hardware Upgrade**
- Is sometimes necessary
- But can only get you so far and may be very costly (e.g., memory technology)

**Modify the code**
- The bottleneck is there because the code uses a “resource” heavily or in non-intelligent manner
- We will learn techniques to alleviate bottlenecks at the software level
Identifying a Bottleneck

- It can be difficult
  - You’re not going to change the memory bus just to see what happens to the application
  - But you can run the code on a different machine and see what happens

- One Approach
  - Know/discover the characteristics of the machine
  - Instrument the code with time measurements everywhere
  - Observe the application execution on the machine
  - Tinker with the code
  - Run the application again
  - Repeat
  - Reason about what the bottleneck is
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A Monitor is a tool to observe the activities on a system. In general, a monitor:

1. makes measurements on the system (Observation)
2. collects performance statistics (Collection),
3. analyzes the data (Analysis),
4. displays results (Presentation).

Why do we want a monitor?

▶ A programmer wants to find frequently used segments of a program to optimize them.
▶ A system administrator wants to measure resource utilization to find performance bottlenecks.
▶ A system administrator wants to tune the system and measure the impact of system parameters modifications on the system performance.
▶ An analyst wants to characterize the workload. Results may be used for capacity planning and for creating test workloads.
▶ An analyst wants to find model parameters, to validate models or to develop inputs for models.
**Event**  A change in the system state (context switch, seek on a disk, packet arrival, . . .).

**Trace**  Log of events usually including the time of the events, their type and other important parameters.

**Overhead**  Measurement generally induce slight perturbations and consume system resources (CPU, storage,...).

**Domain**  The set of activities observable by the monitor (CPU time, number of bytes sent on a network card,...).

**Input Rate**  The maximum frequency of events that a monitor can correctly observe. One generally distinguishes between burst rate and sustained rate.

**Resolution**  Coarseness of the information observed.

**Input Width**  The number of bits of information recorded on an event.

**Portability**  Amount of system modifications required to implement the monitor.
The different types of metrics that an analyst may wish to measure can be classified into the following categories:

**Event-count metrics** Simply count the number of times a specific event occurs (e.g., number of page faults, number of disk I/O made by a program).

**Secondary-event metrics** These types of metrics record the values of some secondary parameters whenever a given event occurs (e.g., the message size, the time spent in a given function).

**Profiles** A profile is an aggregate metric used to characterize the overall behavior of an application program or of an entire system.
Observation is commonly performed with three mechanisms:

**Implicit spying** it is sometimes possible to spy the system without really interfering with it (listening on a local Ethernet bus or in wireless environments). Thus, there is almost no impact on the performance of the system being monitored. Implicit-spying is generally used with filters because many observed data are not interesting.

**Explicit Instrumenting** By incorporating trace points, probe points, hooks or counters, additional information to implicit-spying can be obtained. Some systems offer an API to incorporate such hooks or exports the values of internal counters.

**Probing** Making requests on the system to estimate its current performance.

Some activities can be observed by only one of the three mechanisms.
Activation Mechanisms

Event-driven  Record the information whenever a given event occurs. Generally done with counters. The overhead is thus proportional to the frequency of events.

Tracing  Similar to event-driven strategies, except that parts of the system state are also recorded. This is thus even more time-consuming and also requires much more storage.

Sampling  Recording of information occurs periodically. The overhead and the resolution of the sampling can thus be adjusted. This strategies produces a statistical summary of the overall behavior of the system. Events that occurs infrequently may be completely missed. Results may also be different from one run to the other.

Indirect  An indirect measurement must be used been the metric that is to be determined is not directly accessible (e.g., for portability reasons or for practical reasons). In this case, one must find another metric that can be measured directly, from which one can deduce or derive the desired performance metric. Generally, a model of the system is underlying the deduced metric and the quality of this model is fundamental.
The collection mechanism highly depends on whether we are working on a on-line monitor (system state is displayed during monitoring) or on a batch monitor (system state is stored for later analysis). Most data need to be recorded in buffers, hence buffer management issues:

- buffer size is a function of input rate, input width and emptying rate,
- larger number of buffers allows to cope with variations in filling and emptying rates,
- buffer overflow management and tracking,
- data compression, on-line analysis,

Abnormal events should also be monitored and even handled at higher priority (low probability → low overhead, possibility to take preventive action before the system becomes unavailable).
The problem of communication between $m$ collectors and $n$ observers often arises.

We generally resort to hierarchy of collectors/observers for a better scalability. This intensifies all previous buffer management issues.

When collecting data from several observers, clock synchronization often becomes an important issue. The tolerance or maximum allowed clock skew is often related to the round-trip delay. The larger the system, the more problematic clock skews.
This layer is closely tied to the applications for which the monitor is used (performance monitoring, configuration monitoring, fault monitoring,...).

- **Presentation frequency** (for on-line monitors).
- **Hierarchical representation/aggregation** (space/time/states/values).
- **Alarm mode** (thresholds, abnormal events).
Measurement Induces Perturbations

- The system resources consumed by the measurement tool itself as it collects data will strongly affect how much perturbation the tool will cause in the system.
- Tracing produces the highest level of perturbation (both CPU and disk are used), in particular on time measurements, spatial and temporal memory access (cache flush, different paging,...), or on system response time (and thus on workload characterization).
- The largest the overhead, the more likely the system behavior will be modified.

**Measuring a system alters it**

Remain alert to how these perturbations may bias your measurements and, ultimately, the conclusions you are able to draw from your experiments.
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Exercise

Try to find the main characteristics, advantages and drawbacks of the following monitors.
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One possibility would be to do this by just “looking” at a clock, launching the program, “looking” at the clock again when the program terminates.

This of course has some drawbacks:

- Poor resolution
- Requires the user’s attention

Therefore operating systems provide ways to time programs automatically.

UNIX provide the `time` command.
The UNIX time Command

- You can put `time` in front of any UNIX command you invoke.
- When the invoked command completes, time prints out timing (and other) information.

```
surf:~$ /usr/bin/X11/time ls -la -R ~/ > /dev/null
4.17user 4.34system 2:55.83elapsed 4%CPU
(0avgtext+0avgdata 0maxresident)k
0inputs+0outputs (0major+1344minor)pagefaults 0swaps
```

- \(4.17\) seconds of user time
- \(4.34\) seconds of system time
- \(2\) minutes and \(55.85\) seconds of wall-clock time
- \(4\)% of CPU was used
- \(0+0\)k memory used (text + data)
- \(0\) input, \(0\) output output (file system I/O)
- \(1344\) minor pagefaults and \(0\) swaps
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- User Time: time that the code spends executing user code (i.e., non system calls)
User, System, Wall-Clock?

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- User Time: time that the code spends executing user code (i.e., non system calls)
- System Time: time that the code spends executing system calls

Wall-Clock ≥ User + System. Why?
- because the process can be suspended by the O/S due to contention for the CPU by other processes
- because the process can be blocked waiting for I/O
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It’s interesting to know what the user time and the system time are. For instance, if the system time is really high, it may be that the code does too many calls to malloc(), for instance. But one would really need more information to fix the code (not always clear which system calls may be responsible for the high system time).

Wall-clock - system - user ≈ I/O + suspended

- If the system is dedicated, suspended ≈ 0
- Therefore one can estimate the cost of I/O
- If I/O is really high, one may want to look at reducing I/O or doing I/O better

Therefore, time can give us insight into bottlenecks and gives us wall-clock time.

Measurements should be done on dedicated systems.

time relies on times(2), getrusage(2) and clock(3).
surf:~$ /usr/bin/time ./parallelQuicksort2
9.76user 10.51system 0:06.11elapsed 331%CPU
(avgtext+0avgdata 158268maxresident)k
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➤ Wall-Clock ≪ User + System. Why?
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  - because there are several processors... the %CPU is simply (User + System)/Wall-Clock
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**Beware:** The resolution of `getrusage` is very low (a few ms) so you can eventually use it to time very large regions of code but no more.
Measuring the performance of a code must be done on a “quiescent”, “unloaded” machine (the machine only runs the standard O/S processes).

The machine must be dedicated.

- No other user can start a process.
- The user measuring the performance only runs the minimum amount of processes (basically, a shell).

Nevertheless, one should always present measurement results as averages over several experiments (because the (small) load imposed by the O/S is not deterministic).
The `time` command has poor resolution
- “Only” milliseconds
- Sometimes we want a higher precision, especially if our performance improvements are in the 1-2% range

`time` times the whole code
- Sometimes we’re only interested in timing some part of the code, for instance the one that we are trying to optimize
- Sometimes we want to compare the execution time of different sections of the code
Timing with **gettimeofday**

- **gettimeofday** from the standard C library
- Measures the number of microseconds since midnight, Jan 1st 1970, expressed in seconds and microseconds

```c
struct timeval start;
...
gettimeofday(&tv,NULL);
printf("%ld,%ld\n",start.tv_sec, start.tv_usec);
```

- Can be used to time sections of code
  - Call gettimeofday at beginning of section
  - Call gettimeofday at end of section
  - Compute the time elapsed in microseconds:
    
    ```c
    (end.tv_sec*1000000.0 + end.tv_usec - start.tv_sec*1000000.0 - start.tv_usec) / 1000000.0
    ```
Timing with `clock_gettime`,

- `clock_gettime` (POSIX, linux)
- Measures the number of nanoseconds since midnight, Jan 1st 1970, expressed in seconds and microseconds
- Obviously not precise at the nanosecond level but much better than `gettimeofday`

```c
struct timespec tv;
...
clock_gettime(CLOCK_REALTIME,&tv);`
```

- Should be used to time sections of code
Other Ways to Time Code

- **ntp_gettime()** (Internet RFC 1589)
  - Sort of like `gettimeofday`, but reports estimated error on time measurement
  - Not available for all systems
  - Part of the GNU C Library

Java: `System.currentTimeMillis()`
- Known to have resolution problems, with resolution higher than 1 millisecond!
- Solution: use a native interface to a better timer

Java: `System.nanoTime()`
- Added in J2SE 5.0
- Probably not accurate at the nanosecond level

- Tons of “high precision timing in Java” on the Web
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A profiler is a tool that monitors the execution of a program and that reports the amount of time spent in different functions. Useful to identify the expensive functions.

Profiling cycle:
- Compile the code with the profiler
- Run the code
- Identify the most expensive function
- Optimize that function (i.e. call it less often if possible or make it faster)
- Repeat until you can’t think of any ways to further optimize the most expensive function.
Using gprof

- Compile your code using gcc with the -pg option
- Run your code until completion
- Then run gprof with your program’s name as single command-line argument
- Example:
  ```
  gcc -pg prog.c -o prog; ./prog
gprof prog
  ```
- The output file contains all profiling information (amount and fraction of time spent in which function)
Using gprof

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Performance measurements

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Callgrind is a tool that uses runtime code instrumentation framework of Valgrind for call-graph generation.

Valgrind is a kind of emulator or virtual machine.

- It uses JIT (just-in-time) compilation techniques to translate x86 instructions to simpler form called ucode on which various tools can be executed.
- The ucode processed by the tools is then translated back to the x86 instructions and executed on the host CPU.

This way even shared libraries and dynamically loaded plugins can be analyzed but this kind of approach results with huge slowdown (about 50 times for callgrind tool) of analyzed application and big memory consumption.
Data produced by callgrind can be loaded into KCachegrind tool for browsing the performance results.
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Valgrind actually includes several tools:

- Memcheck (check the validity of every memory access)
- Cacheegrind (memory access profiler/simulator)
- Callgrind (instruction profiler)
- Massif (heap profiler)
- Helgrind (a thread error detector)
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```
top - 11:05:41 up 3 days, 1:01, 1 user, load average: 0.22, 0.23, 0.38
Tasks: 177 total, 2 running, 166 sleeping, 0 stopped, 9 zombie
Cpu(s):  5.8%us,  1.7%sy,  0.0%ni, 89.9%id, 0.0%wa, 0.0%hi, 2.7%si, 0.0%st
Mem:    1035156k total, 983544k used, 51612k free, 30320k buffers
Swap:   1984016k total, 67020k used, 1916996k free, 365876k cached

PID USER   PR NI VIRT  RES  SHR  S %CPU %MEM   TIME+ COMMAND
4571 alegrand    15   0  328m  178m   30m R   7 17.7 162:10.23 firefox-bin
3794 gkrellmd    15   0 118444 1152  936 S    5 0.1 104:25.48 gkrellmd
4225 alegrand    16   0  73936  11m  3344 S    4  1.2  54:02.17 xmmms2d
4210 alegrand    16   0  42732  14m  10m S    2  1.5  20:26.84 gkrellm
3792 root        15   0  236m  176m  8972 S   1 17.5 141:55.30 Xorg
4211 alegrand    15   0  47424   27m  10m S    0  2.7  3:59.48 esperanza
16982 alegrand   15   0  2360 1200  860 R    0  0.1  0:00:12 top
  1 root         15   0 1944   652  556 S    0  0.1  0:01:55 init
  2 root         15   0   20   0    0 R    0  0.0  0:00:02 migration/0
  3 root         15   0  3419  19    0 S    0  0.0  0:00:03 ksoftirqd/0
  6 root         15   0  100    0    0 S    0  0.0  0:04:12 events/0
  8 root         15   0  100    0    0 S    0  0.0  0:00:06 khelper
  9 root         15   0  100    0    0 S    0  0.0  0:00:00 kthread
 13 root         15   0  100    0    0 S    0  0.0  0:00:04 blk0md/0
 15 root         15   0  100    0    0 S    0  0.0  0:05:38 kacpid
 155 root        15   0  100    0    0 S    0  0.0  0:00:04 kseriod
 201 root        15   0  100    0    0 S    0  0.0  0:07:06 kswapd0
 202 root        15   0  100    0    0 S    0  0.0  0:00:09 aio/0
 358 root        15   0  100    0    0 S    0  0.0  0:00:01 kirdq
 704 root        15   0  100    0    0 S    0  0.0  0:13:58 ata/0
 706 root        15   0  100    0    0 S    0  0.0  0:00:14 ata_aux
 709 root        15   0  100    0    0 S    0  0.0  0:00:04 scsi_0
 758 root        15   0  100    0    0 S    0  0.0  0:00:04 khubd
 773 root        15   0  100    0    0 S    0  0.0  0:26:36 scsi_1
1068 root        15   0  100    0    0 S    0  0.0  0:05:91 kjournal
1256 root        15   0 2720 1276  464 S    0  0.1  0:00:80 udev
1720 root        15   0  100    0    0 S    0  0.0  0:00:00 kpsmoused
1756 root        15   0  100    0    0 S    0  0.0  0:00:00 pccard
1837 root        15   0  100    0    0 S    0  0.0  0:00:00 hda_codec
1840 root        15   0  100    0    0 S    0  0.0  0:06:39 ipw3945/0
1842 root        15   0  100    0    0 S    0  0.0  0:00:24 ipw3945/0
```
How does top get all these information?

It uses /proc!

kanza: $ ldd ‘which top’
    linux-gate.so.1 libproc-3.2.7.so.5
    libncurses.so libc.so.6
    libdl.so.2 /lib/ld-linux.so.2

/proc is a way for the kernel to provide information about the status of entries in its process table. On systems where /proc is available, there is no need to instrument the kernel or the application to get these information. Measures are always but it doesn’t mean that top does not induce perturbations. Other tools (e.g., gkrellm) rely on the same API.
Getting finer information

TCPdump is based on libpcap and enables to dump the traffic on a network card.

/proc is rather common but accessing such information requires specific access permissions. Such library does not work on high performance cards such as MyriNet, InfiniBand, . . .
SNMP-based tools

- The Simple Network Management Protocol (SNMP) is an application layer protocol that facilitates the exchange of management information between network devices. It is part of the Transmission Control Protocol/Internet Protocol (TCP/IP) protocol suite. SNMP enables network administrators to manage network performance, find and solve network problems, and plan for network growth.

- Many tools build upon SNMP to gather information on routers.

- SNMP can even be used to build maps of the network. However, SNMP requires specific access permissions and is often closed for network security reasons.
A few HPC tools

**PAPI** Performance Application Programming Interface

PAPI is a tool developed by UTK that provides a portable access to hardware performance counters available on most modern microprocessors (AMD Opteron, CRAY XT Series, IBM POWER, IBM Cell Intel Pentium, Core2, i7, Atom,..., recently CUDA).
A few HPC tools

PAPI  Performance Application Programming Interface
mpiP  MPI profiling

- mpiP is a link-time library (it gathers MPI information through the MPI profiling layer)
- It only collects statistical information about MPI functions
- All the information captured by mpiP is task-local

```c
sleeptime = 10;
MPI_Init (&argc, &argv);
MPI_Comm_size (comm, &nprocs);
MPI_Comm_rank (comm, &rank);
MPI_Barrier (comm);
if (rank == 0) sleep (sleeptime);
MPI_Barrier (comm);
MPI_Finalize ();
```

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<th>AppTime</th>
<th>MPPTime</th>
<th>MPI%</th>
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A few HPC tools

- **PAPI**: Performance Application Programming Interface
- **mpiP**: MPI profiling
- **vaMPIr**: MPI tracing

- Generate **traces** (i.e., not just collect statistics) of MPI calls.
- These traces can then be visualized and used in different ways.
An API to access monitoring information is often available but not always...

Even when these monitors are “built-in”, they are generally low-level and building a usable high-level monitoring tool requires a lots of work on:
- Sampling
- Collection
- Analysis and Presentation

When such an API is not available you can:
- either design a low-level monitor if possible,
- to try to evaluate the metric you are interested in an other way.
1 Introduction, Definitions, Classifications
   - Performance Metric
   - Finding Bottlenecks
   - Monitors & Measurements

2 Monitoring Examples
   - Measuring Time: Practical Considerations
   - Sequential Program Execution Monitoring: Profiling
   - “API-based” Monitoring Examples
   - Indirect Metrics
ATLAS (Automatically Tuned Linear Algebra Software) is an approach for the automatic generation and optimization of numerical software (BLAS and a subset of the linear algebra routines in the LAPACK library).

To produce such kernels, ATLAS needs to know the number of cache levels, their respective sizes, whether the processor has the ability to perform additions and multiplications at the same time, whether it can make use of vector registers or specific instruction sets (e.g., 3dnow, SSE1, or SSE2 extensions)...

There is no portable API providing such information, therefore ATLAS runs some probes to guess these values.
Network probing

**NWS** The Network Weather Service is the de facto standard of the emerging Grid community to monitor the system availability. It provides high-level metrics to help applications and schedulers. It also provides trends thanks to a set of statistical forecasters.

- Available CPU share for a new process ((system+user)/(total)): due to the process priorities and other scheduling tricks, this value is hard to guess from the `/proc` values without actually probing. As probes are intrusive, NWS uses `/proc` values and uses a correcting factor based on regular probes.

- Available bandwidth between two hosts: how much bandwidth would get an application using a single standard socket? Active probes are performed.

**Pathchar** What about the capacity of network links between two hosts? Pathchar infers the characteristics of links along an Internet path by sending series of probes with varying values of TTL and of size and using statistical analysis.
Peer-to-peer systems:

- Having good evaluations of the current number of peers is a crucial problem and an active research domain.
- “Probabilistic games” give good results.

**Main Issue**

All the previous approach rely on a model of the system and on parameters estimation based on the expected model prediction. When the model is incorrect, the estimation is likely to be incorrect as well.
Take-away message

▶ **Do not reinvent the wheel**: do not build your own monitoring infrastructure unless you are absolutely certain there is no other choice. Instead learn to use already existing tools.

▶ Make sure that you **understand** how such tools work to be aware of their limitations and impact on the measurements you want to perform.
R. K. Jain.  

David J. Lilja.  