PARLE, APOORV. Heuristics Assisted Set Based Data Dependence Profiling. (Under the direction of Dr. James Tuck.)

Speculative optimizations unlock performance by relaxing conservative constraints which restrict various optimizations. Data dependence profiling enables such speculative optimizations by providing the runtime dependence profile, but most of the profilers suffer from very large performance overhead. Recent work on set-based profiling with software signatures has demonstrated potential to achieve low performance overhead for profiling. But this technique suffers from very poor accuracy in some of the evaluated benchmarks, and has scope for improvement in accuracy as well as performance overhead.

First some heuristics are introduced to predict load-store relations which are expected never to happen. These heuristics are pruned from the list of load-store relations that are profiled, thus reducing the performance overhead by 10% on average (geometric mean). Moreover, owing to the simplicity of the heuristics, the relations are predicted much more accurately, than as profiled by a software signature based profiler. This results in improved accuracy as the Normalized Average Euclidean Distance (NAED), with respect to perfect profiler, reduces from 0.09 to 0.06 on average across all benchmarks.

Next we introduce an alternative range based set representation, as a high-speed albeit approximate mechanism. This set representation is combined with software signatures to create a hybrid set representation, for a highly accurate profile. In addition, short-circuit optimization is built into the hybrid set reducing the performance overhead in some benchmarks. Combining this with the heuristics yields the most accurate profile so far, with the average NAED of 0.04 in comparison to the perfect profiler. The combined effect of the two also reduces the performance overhead of the profiler by 17%, on average (geometric mean) across all benchmarks.
Heuristics Assisted Set Based Data Dependence Profiling

by

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Dr. James Tuck
Chair of Advisory Committee
DEDICATION

To my parents.
BIOGRAPHY

The author pursued his Bachelor’s degree in College of Engineering, Pune, majoring in Electronics and Telecommunication. After completing his undergraduate degree, he joined Texas Instruments Inc. as a design engineer, and worked there for 3 years. Subsequently, he started his Master’s degree in Computer Engineering at North Carolina State University in 2014, and defended his thesis for the same, on 9th May 2016.
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Moore's law is slowing down, while the programs are getting bigger and bigger, increasing the importance of optimizing softwares for good performance. In software or compiler optimizations, only a limited amount of information is available at compile-time, limiting the scope of optimizations. Prior works have shown that leveraging runtime information speculatively can provide significant performance boost. One of the key factors for both compile-time optimizations and parallelization is the ability to distinguish independent memory references, or memory disambiguation.

**Data Dependence Problem**

**Data Dependence**

When a particular instruction depends on the result of a sequence of instructions, it is known as a data dependence. It is easy to track the data flow through registers, but it can
be tricky when the dependence flows through the memory.

**Code Snippet 1.1** Simple Data Dependence

```plaintext
1. R1 = R2 + 3
2. STORE R1, [R3]
3. R4 = LOAD [R3]
```

In Code Snippet 1.1 there is a data dependence from R2 to R1. Also, there is a dependence from R1 to R4 which flows through memory. Because the address being used here is exactly the same, the dependence relation is straightforward.

**Code Snippet 1.2** Ambiguous Memory Dependence

```plaintext
1. R1 = R2 + 3
2. R3 = R1 + 2
3. R4 = R1 + 3
4. STORE R6, [R3 + 1]
5. R7 = LOAD [R4]
```

In Code Snippet 1.2, there is a data dependence from R6 to R7. But here, the dependence relation cannot be obtained without the prior knowledge of R3 and R4. As programs get more complicated, the relations between the memory addresses become too complex or completely impossible to track.

**How it limits optimizations**

If we can clearly prove that two memory operations are independent, it gives us the freedom to move them independently in the code. Not only the specific two instructions but all their dependent instructions may be considered for restructuring.

**Code Snippet 1.3** Potential LICM opportunity

```plaintext
1. void myfunc(int *a, int *b, int *c) {
2.     int tmp;
3.     for (int i=0; i<1000000; i++) {
4.         tmp = (*a) / 3;
```
1.2. DATA DEPENDENCE PROFILING  

Code Snippet 1.3 presents a typical Loop Invariant Code Motion (LICM) opportunity. Here, if we can prove that \(a\) and \(b\) both point to different memory locations, the calculation of \(tmp\) can be done outside the loop. But since this information is unavailable, the compiler will conservatively generate a code where \(tmp\) will be calculated for each iteration, even if the exact same value, decreasing the performance significantly.

**Data Dependence Profiling**

In order to disambiguate such cases, runtime information has to be captured through profiling. Profiling is the technique of inserting extra code to capture the required information. Code Snippet 1.4 shows the profiled version of the Code Snippet 1.2.

**Code Snippet 1.4 Simple Profiling**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>R1 = R2 + 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>R3 = R1 + 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>R4 = R1 + 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>PROFILE_STORE(R3+1, ID1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>STORE R6,@[R3 + 1]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>PROFILE_LOAD(R4, ID2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>R7 = LOAD @[R4]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each memory operation is tagged with an unique identifier – represented here by ID1 and ID2. The identifier is passed to the PROFILE_LOAD or PROFILE_STORE function along with the address obtained at runtime. These functions are typically library calls which update the data structure used to track various dependence relations. Since this snippet can be a part of a loop, the touched memory locations can be quite large, and hence they have to be maintained in a large data structure. Because loads and stores are common events and at each of these events such large data structures are being manipulated, data dependence profiling has a heavy runtime cost.
Background

Quite a lot of work has gone into profiling data dependences [Bru00; Che04; Fax08; Kim10; VT12; Wu08; YL12b; Zha09]. At a high level, the approaches taken to track these memory locations can be classified as follows:

Shadow Memory based Profiling

This is the traditional approach, best described in [Che04], and used in many prior works [SM98; Liu06; Udu11]. The aim is to locate the closest prior instruction(s) which the current instruction depends on. As illustrated by Chen et al., a single data structure which is a representative of the whole memory space is used to keep track of the edges. Each location in the shadow memory, keeps track of the memory operations that have accessed it. Profiling operations corresponding to each load and store update this shadow memory with their unique IDs (assigned statically for all memory operations). Every new operation thus forms a link in the chain, and replaces the old value as the head in the shadow memory.

The shadow memory can be implemented as a virtually unlimited hash-table (limited by the size of the main memory), keeping track of all previous operations. Alternatively, to limit the size of shadow memory, a fixed width hash-table can also be used, which maintains fixed number of prior accesses per memory location. New entries replace old entries as they occur, while edges are recorded separately for later usage.

Irrespective of the number of operations tracked per address, the length of the hash-table has to be limited to a fixed length. This causes multiple addresses to alias in the shadow memory, creating false dependence edges between completely independent instructions.

The biggest downside of such an approach is that if a handful number of memory operations inside a loop access a very large number of addresses, they end up polluting the whole hash-table. Now, completely unrelated memory operations also cannot be separated out, resulting in very poor accuracy of profiling. And even with a fixed length hash-table, each access and update involves a high operational overhead per memory operation. Fixed-width tables help reduce the operational overhead, but it still is significantly large.
Pattern-driven Profiling

Pattern driven profilers [Bru00; Kim10] focus on very specific dependences in loops, looking for access patterns like strides or inter-iteration dependences. They trade-off the coverage of the whole program with high-resolution tracking of fewer memory operations inside hot loops. Rather than just detecting simple presence of edges, such techniques try to determine which iteration such dependences will occur in, and which iterations can be parallelized. Owing to the high-resolution tracking of load-store pairs, such mechanisms are very expensive. [Kim10] suggests parallelizing the profiling tasks to bring down the overhead to only 10-20x slowdown with the help of 32 cores. Due to its high-resolution, such a technique is compelling, but the cost of required hardware resources limits its proliferation to broader applications.

Offloading Profiling for Efficiency

A variety of prior works [Kim10; YL12b] try to offload the profiling tasks for efficient program analysis, relying on parallelism to make the profiling cheap. Various techniques like slicing [YL12a; YL12b] and novel parallel algorithms [Kim10] have been proposed. Because the memory access pattern within a program’s dynamic execution sequence is rarely balanced, it becomes a challenge to balance the workload across different threads, for best efficiency. Moreover, dedicating large amount of resources just for profiling is not practical for many developers.

Set-based Profiling

In this approach, each memory operation or a group of memory operations use a separate data structure, called a set, to keep track of the addresses visited. This ensures that unrelated memory operations do not cause any interference with each other. The expectation here is that individual memory operations will not visit a lot of memory locations, and hence most of the sets will usually keep track of only few memory locations. Vanka & Tuck, in [VT12], show that data dependence can be tracked using relatively lightweight signatures, irrespective of the number of addresses visited.
**Profiling Cost**

At a high level, with any approach, the cost of profiling can be divided into following components:

1. Initialization: The cost of initializing the data structure(s) used to detect edges, as well as the data structure(s) which track the profiled edges.

2. Profile Operation: The actual cost of profile operation, which includes searching and updating the associated data structure. This is usually the main source of the performance overhead. It also includes the cost of updating the dependence edge counters with the recognized edges.

3. Destruction: The cost of post-processing the data structure, recording all the final results to file/database, and de-constructing the data structure.

4. Indirect Effects: Profiling can affect the existing program execution indirectly in many ways like cache pollution, branch predictor pollution, core IPC performance due to data structure updates etc.

All these costs have to be accounted for when building a profiling mechanism.

**DDP Design Trade-offs**

In addition to the above-mentioned costs, following trade-offs also have to be considered. The corresponding design choices taken in our implementation are presented Table 3.1 in chapter 3.

**Object Granularity**

Profiling, similar to Alias Analysis, can be designed to track memory objects at various granularities – just as bytes, simple data types or even complex structures. Usually, memory addresses are tracked, while data type granularity is augmented statically. But with this approach, updates to parts of complex data structures are difficult to track. For example,
profiling a load to store relation with addresses can suggest whether they access the same location or not. But if the addressed location is a structure, just tracking the addresses is not sufficient to determine if a portion of object has been updated, as that portion can have a different address (offset by few bytes). In order to track relations at the granularity of aggregates, the size of the access and its nesting inside an aggregate data structure has to be tracked along with the address (which can be complicated).

**Code Region Granularity**

It is essential to track the edges only in relevant regions of the code. Memory operations corresponding to a loop iterator are relevant only inside the loop. In a nested loop, the inner loop iterator will start afresh with each iteration of the outer loop, and edges corresponding to the inner iterator seen across iterations of the outer loop can be misleading. Similarly, edges corresponding to local variables inside a function might not be relevant when seen across different calls to same function.

**Flow Sensitivity**

The flow pattern of an edge can be an essential design choice for a profiler, as it affects what optimizations can use this data. Various options include, just the presence of an edge, probability of the edge, or even high resolution data like stride of the inter-iteration dependence. Different optimization rely on different profiles: LICM will utilize just the presence of the edge, while other loop optimizations like loop vectorization can utilize the probability of the edges as well the stride of the inter-iteration dependence.

**Call Graph Sensitivity**

Profiling the data dependences separately for each call context can be useful to track variation caused due to differences in inputs at various call sites. This information is highly relevant for optimizations which specialize functions for various call sites. But this involves tracking multiple call contexts as well as separate data structures to store edge data per context.
1.5. DDP DESIGN TRADE-OFFS

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Memory vs. Compute

The amount of memory used by the profiler vs. the amount of computations that have to be performed per memory operation is a choice directly affecting the performance overhead. The computations per profiling operation directly add to the performance overhead. The memory usage on the other hand does not directly add to the overhead, but can be limiting factor for a memory intensive applications. Additionally it also contributes to the overhead in the form of allocation, initialization and access (which translates to cache pollution).

Coverage

Which memory operations to profile is a design choice dependent on the optimization passes that consume the profile data. Profiling memory operations only relevant to specific optimization reduces the amount of profiling required, but the obtained profile is useless anywhere else but that optimization. On the other hand, profiling all the memory operations ensures that the obtained profile is useful for all the optimizations. How often to profile is another aspect of coverage that needs to be considered. Sampling [Che04] is a method where not all dynamic instances of a memory operation are profiled; a profile is taken every \( n \) executions of the code region. Higher the frequency of sampling, better will be the accuracy of the results, but higher will be the overhead – thus a classic accuracy vs. performance trade-off.

Many prior works [Du04; BF02; CW03; Udu11; Xek09; Wu08; Fah05; PO05; Kel09; Opl99; Kre00; Per00; Luk95; Con97; Joh04; Qui05; Liu06; BS06; Lin06; Tuc08; Bru00; Din07; Li05; Lin03; SM98; Hwu93] have highlighted the importance of data dependence profiling, to achieve efficient optimizations or parallelization on novel high performance architectures. Unlike edge profiling, which has been widely used due to simplicity, data dependence profiling has been severely limited due to its high cost. This in turn has limited the research and progress in the area of application specific optimization as well as speculative architecture design. Improvements in this area will translate to near term advancements like speculative optimizations in compilers, as well enable research on novel speculative hardware designs utilizing profiled data.
In this dissertation, the existing technique of set based profiling has been extended, to improve the accuracy while either maintaining or improving the performance overhead. Next chapter will explain set based profiling and its evaluation. Subsequent chapters will talk about different optimizations on top of set profiling, to improve its performance as well as accuracy.
As described in the previous chapter, conventional approach to dependence profiling utilizes a single global structure which is a representative of the memory space. Vanka & Tuck propose set profiling in [VT12], which creates small sets per instruction (or group of instructions), to track their memory references. These sets can be visualized as simple mathematical sets where each element is a memory address. Any new address, visited by the instructions corresponding to the set, is “inserted” into the set, and any instruction which needs to be disambiguated, is “checked for membership” in that set. Sets have two main advantages:

1. No interference from one set to another, irrespective of how many addresses are inserted in one set.

2. Since the number of addresses inserted will be relatively small, accessing the data structure should be relatively low-cost.
2.1. HOW IT WORKS  

How it works

The Set Profiler has three main stages:

Query Identification

The basic unit of granularity in a set profiler is a query, similar to querying a typical Alias Analysis pass. When two memory operations need to be disambiguated against each other, they form a query, which is then assigned a unique reference identifier (refid). The LHS and RHS of the query can be arbitrary memory operations, but our implementation forms a query with a load instruction as LHS and store instruction as RHS. All such queries which need to be resolved, are collected for the program under consideration.

Set Assignment

Once all queries have been gathered, each of them is assigned a set, allowing the freedom to group multiple queries into a single set. A simple grouping policy assigns all queries with same RHS (or alternatively LHS) to a single set. Multiple RHS (or LHS) can also be grouped together arbitrarily to reduce the number of sets, but at the cost of interference from each other. Various grouping policies can be explored in order to combine queries, such that they will cause least interference with each other.

Instrumentation

Once all sets are obtained, the code is instrumented to perform the following:

1. Initialize all the sets as empty, at the beginning of the regions of the code where they are used. In our implementation we do this at function boundaries by initializing the sets on a stack.

2. Perform set insertions at all the instructions corresponding to each set.

3. Perform set membership checks to disambiguate the instructions corresponding to the collected queries, against the sets.
4. Update dependence edge counters whenever an edge is detected.

Here is an example that illustrates this. Code Snippet 2.1 shows a function that needs to be profiled. Irrelevant details of the function have been skipped for the sake of illustration.

**Code Snippet 2.1** Unprofiled code (written in LLVM Intermediate Representation [Llv])

```
1  define i32 @myfunc() #0 {  
2      ...
3     BasicBlock3:
4         ...
5     store i32 %6, i32* %someAddress, align 4
6         ...
7     %20 = load i32* %unknown, align 4
8         ...
9     ...
10    }  
```

**Code Snippet 2.2** Same code with set profiling (written in LLVM Intermediate Representation [Llv])

```
1  define i32 @myfunc() #0 {  
2     %set = call i8* @allocateSet()
3     %dependence = alloc i32, align 4
4     store i32 0, i32* %dependenceCounter, align 4
5      
6      ...
7    BasicBlock3:
8        ...
9     call void @insert(%set, %someAddress)
10    store i32 %6, i32* %someAddress, align 4
11      ...
12    %dep = call i32 @membershipCheck(%set, %anotherAddress)
13    %old = load i32* %dependence, align 4
14    %new = or i32 %old, %dep
```
2.2. BLOOM FILTER SETS  

Code Snippet 2.2 shows the profiled version of the function shown in Code Snippet 2.1. For the load and store instruction that need to be disambiguated, a set has been allocated at the very beginning of the function. Next a dependence tracking variable has been allocated and initialized to zero. Whenever the store instruction executes, the address is inserted into the set. Whenever the load instruction executes, the particular address is checked for membership in the set, and the dependence tracking variable is updated accordingly. It does not matter whether the profiling is performed before or after the load or store instruction. For the sake of consistency, we’ve chosen to always do it before the instruction. Finally when the function completes, the dependence results are stored, and the set is deallocated.

The next section will cover how to efficiently represent sets and perform operations on them.

**Bloom Filter Sets**

In order to maintain a low cost of profiling, the set operations – allocation, insertion, membership checks and deallocation have to be fast. Moreover, since there can be a lot of sets in a program, each set should have a small memory footprint. Vanka & Tuck have proposed bloom filter based “software signatures” [VT12] to achieve this. A bloom filter [Blo70] is a probabilistic representation of large amount of data into a much smaller space. It is a simple array of bits which is indexed using hash functions. Figure 2.1 shows an example bloom filter with 8 bits. The input data set has two elements \( d_1 \) and \( d_2 \) which need to be inserted. Each of these data inputs is hashed using two hash functions \( H_1 \) and \( H_2 \) to calculate the
Input data set: \{d_1, d_2\}

\[ H_1(d_1) \quad H_2(d_1) \quad H_1(d_2) \quad H_1(d_1) \]

Membership Check (d_3) = False

\[ H_1(d_3) \quad H_2(d_3) \]

**Figure 2.1** A simple bloom filter with 8 bits, and two hash functions.

index into the bit array, and the corresponding bits are set. For a membership check, again
the hash functions are used to calculate the index, but now the bits are checked whether
they are set. If even one of the bits is not set, the membership check is deemed false. In
the current example, for \( d_3 \), the bit corresponding to \( H_1 \) is not set, and hence it fails the
membership check.

An alternate design is to use banked bloom filters. Here the bit array is split into banks,
and a different hash function is used for each bank. This simplifies the design as each hash
function accesses a much smaller range of bits, and each bank is accessed by only one
hash function. Further, because only one hash function can access each bank, there is
no interference between different hash functions. Such a design would be referred to as
“banked signature” in this dissertation.
Bloom Filter Design Trade-offs

In order to use bloom filters for set profiling, following factors have to be taken into consideration:

1. Larger the size of the bloom filter, better is the accuracy. But the size of the bloom filter corresponds to the amount of extra memory needed for the profiling, which translates to following cost
   - Larger the memory has to be cleared during initialization.
   - Since the set operations are interleaved with actual application execution, the cache locality of the original application is affected.

2. The hash functions cannot be too complex since they have to sequentially execute on the CPU and they have to be computed for every memory operation. Furthermore, the input data to a typical set does not follow a purely random distribution, but instead, a very localized distribution dependent on the application being profiled. This has to be taken into account while tuning the hash functions.

3. The number of banks in the bloom filter (or additional hash functions) provide additional accuracy. But they also directly correspond to the amount of work that needs to be performed per set operation.

Fast Set Profiling

The set based profiling approach allows us the freedom to selectively profile portions of the program. This opens up some opportunities to reduce the profiling work.

Static Alias Analysis

Compilers perform Static Alias Analysis, which broadly classifies queries into MustAlias, MayAlias and NoAlias. The MustAlias and NoAlias relations are definite relations that can be proven statically by the compiler, and hence they need not be profiled. We can discard
the queries which can be proven statically, and only profile queries which have a MayAlias relation.

**Diverging Control Paths**

A program presents many different control paths, and a lot of paths are mutually exclusive. Figure 2.2 shows an example control graph of a program. Here the instructions “Ld A” and “St B” are present on different control paths. They can both never occur during single instance of execution, and hence need not be profiled. The instructions “Ld C” and “St D” are also present on different control paths, but they are present inside a loop. Even though they can never occur in the same iteration of the loop, they may have data dependence carried through iterations, so they need to be profiled.

![Figure 2.2 Control graph with diverging paths](image)
The next chapter will discuss the implementation of the set profiling infrastructure and the mechanism to evaluate it.
The memory dependence profiling can be performed at three stages:

1. ISA/Binary Instructions
2. Intermediate Representation
3. High Level Language

Profiling at the level of a high level language has a downside that we'll profile potentially unnecessary information. As the program passes through optimizations, many memory operations will be promoted to register operations based on statically available information. On the other extreme, profiling the binary instructions is again a waste as almost all the high-level information is lost. And any subsequent information needed by the optimizations will be unavailable. Also, the registers which are spilled to memory operations are unnecessarily profiled, even though we know that they will not conflict with anything. Since
the optimizations are going to be performed on the IR, it is best to insert the instrumentation code at the IR level itself. Also, in order to avoid profiling unnecessary loads, it is best to profile the IR which has already gone through most of the optimizations.

Our implementation is based on the LLVM Compiler Infrastructure. Figure 3.1 shows the work-flow for profiling and feedback directed optimizations. We’ll focus on the portion corresponding to Set Profiling here. The Set Profiling infrastructure is built as an LLVM tool which takes LLVM IR as input and generates instrumented IR. The first two parts, query
analysis and set allocation are performed as an analysis pass. Each Load-Store pair (query) which needs to be profiled is assigned a refID. As discussed earlier, at the very least all refIDs corresponding to the same store instruction are grouped together and assigned a set. More advanced grouping policies can be implemented. A subsequent instrumentation pass generates the instrumentation code corresponding to all the queries and sets in the program, function by function. In order to avoid the overhead of function calls, various variables are allocated on stack as needed, and the set operations are generated directly in the IR. Finally module destructors are used to write the collected data to the SQLite database. Library functions are used here to aid database access, since it is one time overhead at the end of the program. Any storage mechanisms like files or databases can be chosen; we've used SQLite database in order to simplify analysis of the data.

Table 3.1 presents various choices taken as per the design trade-offs explained in chapter 1.

### Set Implementation

Since the granularity of a 32-bit machine is 4 byte elements, we've used the same to build set based bloom filters. Based on the desired size of the bit set, an array of 32-bit integers is created. For example, to obtain a 512-bit set, an array of 16 elements can be created. Using bit-wise operations, the index is also split into array index and bit index (to index inside 32 bits).

### Signature Configurations

When implementing banked Signatures, the hashing work increases with each bank. In order to reduce the hashing work, a single hash is computed for the whole 32-bit address, using simple bit-wise operations. Lower two bits are discarded as most addresses are aligned on a 4 byte boundary. The next bits are used to index each bank. For example, with 512-bit banks, the first bank will use bit 2-10 from the hashed address, the second bank will use bit 11-19 and so on. Since the hash is computed using the whole 32-bit address, information for all the bits is utilized in the index, even though some bits of the hash are unused in some cases. Table 3.2 shows different bloom filter configurations that we've chosen after
Table 3.1 Design choices taken in our implementation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trade-off</th>
<th>Design Choice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Object Granularity</td>
<td>Memory addresses are tracked numerically in profiler, while data type granularity will be augmented statically when the profile is utilized.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Code Region Granularity</td>
<td>Function boundaries are considered as code regions for memory disambiguation. This simplifies implementation as all temporary variables required for profiling can be allocated on stack, and de-allocated when function exits.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flow Sensitivity</td>
<td>Only the presence of the edge is tracked. But the design of the profiler is such that it can be modified to track the probability of the edge with very minor change, and no loss in performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Call Graph Sensitivity</td>
<td>The profiler is call graph insensitive, to simplify the amount of data that needs to be tracked.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Memory vs. Compute</td>
<td>In our implementation, the hashing adds to the compute load, while each set implementation requires memory. Hence our profiler takes a moderate compromise between memory and compute load.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coverage</td>
<td>Our implementation aims for more or less complete coverage, yielding an optimization agnostic profile. Sampling capability has been implemented at function call granularity, but it has not been enabled for any of the presented results.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.2 Signature Configurations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Signature</th>
<th>Banks</th>
<th>Bits/bank</th>
<th>Index bits per bank</th>
<th>Utilized bits of hash</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1K</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>512</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2K</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1024</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3K</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1024</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8K</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4096</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
exploring various options.

Accuracy

Same methodology as illustrated in [VT12] is used to evaluate the accuracy of the profiler. We use a fully accurate profiler as a comparison point.

Perfect Profiling

To evaluate the profiling accuracy, a perfect profiler is required, which has knowledge of all the edges. Such a perfect profiler can be implemented using dynamic data structures. The set based implementation is augmented with the STL sets in C++ [ISO14], to build a perfect profiler. STL sets allow perfect insertion and membership checks, but at the cost of speed. Any perfect profiler has to use such dynamic data structures, which are slow to allocate and traverse. So, this also serves as a reasonable performance comparison point.

Normalized Average Euclidean Distance

We use Normalized Average Euclidean Distance (NAED) [SS06] for our accuracy comparisons. All the results of the profiler are placed into a vector, such that each dimension in the vector represents a unique query (static data dependence edge). The value of this dimension is the probability of the edge occurring as per the profiler under consideration. The probability is calculated by dividing the number of times that edge occurs, with the number of times that code-region executes (normalization). Once the data dependence vectors are obtained, a Euclidean distance is calculated i.e. distance between components along corresponding dimensions is calculated. Next, Average Euclidean Distance is obtained by dividing the ED with $\sqrt{n}$ where $n$ is the length of the vector. This can be represented in Equation 3.1

$$NAED = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(perfect_i - profiler_i)^2}{n}}; range = [0, 1] \quad (3.1)$$
Since each vector is a vector of probabilities ranging from 0 to 1, the final NAED will also have a range of 0 to 1. This can be visualized with following examples. If a program has 100 queries, and the profiler predicts each query off by 20%, the final NAED would be 0.2. On the other hand, if 20 of them were 100% wrong, the resulting NAED would be 0.447.

**Experimental Setup**

The performance evaluation of the instrumented binaries was done natively, using equivalent nodes on a High Performance Computing systems. Each node sports a Intel EE5520 quad-core machine with two-way hyper-threading, paired with 24GB of memory, running a RHEL7 OS. In order to ensure that other jobs on the HPC systems do not affect the performance evaluation, each job is executed with exclusive access to the machine.

Both integer and floating-point benchmarks from SPEC2000 and SPEC2006 benchmark suites are used to study accuracy as well as performance. Only the benchmarks written in C and C++ are selected because LLVM/Clang frontend supports GNU toolkit compatible compilation for these two languages. Some benchmarks which exhibit too long runtimes with perfect profiling are omitted. LLVM version 3.6.2 is used for all the evaluation.

Performance is measured as the slowdown in comparison to the -O3 optimized non-instrumented code.

**Evaluation**
Figure 3.2 Accuracy of the profiler with different signature configurations. [lower is better]
Figure 3.2 shows the accuracy of the profiler for different benchmarks, along with the arithmetic mean. The benchmark-configuration pairs with no bars imply a perfect accuracy of NAED=0. The signature based profiler provides moderate accuracy – a NAED of 0.2 with 1K bits per signature and 0.09 with 8K bits per signature on average. The size of the signature presents the expected trend with bloom filters i.e. accuracy improves with the size of the bloom filter. But the accuracy does not linearly increase with increased size; it rather improves suddenly depending on the benchmark. This is because the address patterns input to the sets do not follow a random distribution, but depend on the program accesses. Because 3K configuration uses an extra bank (and a hash) above 8K configuration, sometimes it provides higher accuracy. Depending on the sensitivity of the benchmark to the higher order bits of the address, 3K can be more effective, as observed on 183.equake and 300.twolf. Though the average NAED is quite low, not all benchmarks have good accuracy individually. Benchmarks like 188.ammp show a very poor or inaccurate profile at 1K; even with the 8K configuration the NAED is 0.5, which is too large to be useful. For the benchmarks 179.art, 181.mcf, 183.equake the inaccuracy is quite high when using low signature sizes, but it improves to some extent with higher signature sizes. For other benchmarks as well, even though the current NAED values are not too high, there is scope for improvement.
Figure 3.3 Performance of the profiler for different signature configurations.
Figure 3.3 shows the performance of various configurations with respect to the perfect profiler, along with the geometric mean across all benchmarks. The Y axis presents the factor of slowdown compared to the uninstrumented code. The performance overhead of signature profiling is much lower than perfect profiling, for most of the benchmarks – on average it has a 7x runtime while the perfect profiler has a 24x runtime. In some cases like 253.perlbmk the performance overhead of signature based profiler is almost at par or even worse than perfect signature. A possible explanation for this is that these benchmarks have small functions being called repeatedly, which results in initialization costs to accumulate. Even simple operations like clearing the memory initially add up. The perfect set implementation on the other hand allocates memory on-the-fly and hence does not have high initialization cost. A comparison with just the memory clearing disabled in the signatures, confirms this intuition. The generated profile however, would be garbage and hence it is not presented as a point of comparison. The performance is highly sensitive to the number of banks, as the amount of computation required per set operation increases with each bank. This is visible as the overhead of 3K configuration is higher than other configurations, even 8K, due to its extra bank. The overhead does increase from 1K to 8K, but the increase is not very significant. As the accuracy gains are much more significant going from 1K to 8K, the slight increase in performance overhead is acceptable.
Set based profiling achieves fast profiling with reasonable accuracy as compared to perfect profiling. But what can be improved to achieve lower performance overhead and improve the accuracy of the generated profile?

**What to profile**

One strategy to select queries is to profile every load-store edge which can't be statically proven. This allows the profiler to be optimization agnostic – any speculative optimizations can use this profile. This is the current policy used to select queries.

The other extreme is to build a list of edges that cause optimizations to give up, and then only profile these edges. This strategy reduces the amount of information that needs to be captured by the profiler, reducing its overhead. Though this may seem like a good strategy, it sometimes cannot be sufficient. Optimizations usually work in an incremental
fashion, where they give up as soon as a possible dependence is found. Even if that edge is probabilistically dis-proven, there’s a high chance that there are more edges which will block the optimization, and we have not profiled them yet. Moreover, this strategy makes the obtained profile usable only with the optimization under consideration.

A reasonable middle ground would be to profile only the useful information, without losing the generality of the profile. Many edges in the programs are relatively easy to predict statically, even though the predictions do not meet the strict correctness policy of compilers. This information can be leveraged, to avoid profiling these edges and reduce the profiling overhead, while still maintaining profile generality and completeness. Next chapter will introduce few such heuristics to prune the query list for the profiler.

**Set Representation**

This is one of the most critical pieces for the profiler, as it directly controls the accuracy as well as the performance per query. Bloom filters provide a relatively lightweight mechanism to capture the memory locations access, but can this information be represented in any other form?

Subsequent chapters will introduce a simple yet effective range mechanism to represent sets. Further this range mechanism will be combined with bloom filters to obtain high accuracy.
The compilers and the Alias Analysis passes operate on a strict correctness principle, which makes them pessimistic in many cases. Though a particular program pattern might be easy to predict in most cases, due to some corner cases, it cannot be leveraged. Profilers on the other hand are inherently probabilistic. And each memory operation being profiled can add to the profiling overhead. Furthermore, since we are using probabilistic signatures to profile each query, any information obtained from the profiler, can possibly be inaccurate, depending on the population of the sets. Such program patterns available statically, can be leveraged to predict dependence relations. And because these patterns are quite simple, they can be predicted more accurately as compared to the profile obtained from a probabilistic profiler. In this chapter, some heuristics to prune the number of queries are proposed and evaluated against the perfect profiler. All the code examples presented are written in LLVM Intermediate Representation [Llv].
5.1. HEURISTICS

CHAPTER 5. HEURISTIC PRUNING

Heuristics

Constant Data Space

An alias analysis pass being conservative, treats an unknown address as a possible conflict with any other address. But in any correctly designed program, a load which is accessing a constant memory space will never conflict with a store.

Code Snippet 5.1 Constant Data Space Heuristic

```plaintext
1 @a = internal constant [5 x i32] [i32 1, i32 2, i32 3, i32 4, i32 5], align 16
2
3 define i32 @_Z6squarei(i32 %num) #2 {
4 ... 5 %5 = getelementptr inbounds [5 x i32]* @a, i32 0, i64 %4
6 %6 = load i32* %5, align 4
7 ... 8 store i32 %6, i32* %unknown, align 4
9 ... 10 }
```

Code Snippet 5.1 presents an example of such code pattern. The “load” instruction is accessing a truth table which resides in a constant data space, while the memory location accessed by the store is unknown. The only situation where this load and store can conflict, is when the store tries to write to constant data space, in which case, program will crash due to illegal memory access. So, the profiler can avoid instrumenting all queries which exhibit this pattern.

Structure Type Mismatch

Different structures in memory should never conflict. Even if the actual address of a structure cannot be traced, as long as they are different structures, they should never conflict. Code Snippet 5.2 presents such a code pattern. The store instruction is trying to access
a member of the structure “%struct.idl”, while the load instruction is trying to access a member of the structure “%struct.uuuuu”. Even though the base address of both these structures (%5 and %15 respectively) are unknown statically, as they are different structure types, they’ll be different locations in memory. Subsequently, the addresses accessing their elements (%6 and %16 respectively) should be different. In LLVM IR, this is easy to track since GetElementPtr are the only instructions which can be used to index into structures in memory.

In most cases, this will be true, but in some corner cases this will not be true:

1. Nested Structures: In case of nested structure, the first element of the inner structure, and the address of an inner structure as accessed from outer structure will have the same address, even though they have different base structure types.

2. Casting: In case of equivalent structures that are casted from one type to the other, two different structure base types may refer to the same memory location.

But as presented in the evaluation of the heuristics, such occurrences are not very common. It might be tempting to apply the same logic to simple data types, but unlike structures, they are casted in between themselves much more frequently, making them unpredictable.
5.1. HEURISTICS

**Structure Index Mismatch**

Different elements of any given structure should never conflict with each other, whether they are part of the same instance or another.

**Code Snippet 5.3** Structure Index Mismatch

```
1  %struct.xyz = type { i32, i32, i32 }
2
3  define i32 @test(int)(i32 %x) #0 {
4    ...
5    %6 = getelementptr inbounds %struct.xyz* %5, i32 0, i32 2
6    store i32 %4, i32* %6, align 4
7    ...
8    %16 = getelementptr inbounds %struct.xyz* %15, i32 0, i32 1
9    %17 = load i32* %16, align 4
10   ...
11  }
```

Code Snippet 5.3 shows one such scenario. The “%struct.xyz” is a structure with three elements. The store instruction accesses the last element, while the load instructions accesses the second element of the structure. Irrespective of whether both of the elements are a part of the same instance of that structure or a different instance, they should not conflict.

One of the rare cases when this heuristic will not hold true is when a structure is used to walk an array of elements. For example, a structure containing only 2 integer elements, is used to walk an array of 1000 integers, where in each iteration, the array index is incremented only by one integer, and casted to the structure. But this is a very rare case situation.

**Local Variables vs. Unknown Aggregates**

Programs allocate local variables (simple data types) on the stack, specific to functions or regions of code. These variables are cannot conflict with any aggregates, even if unknown, because they are simple data types, and can be traced back to their allocation on the stack.
5.1. HEURISTICS

CHAPTER 5. HEURISTIC PRUNING

Code Snippet 5.4 Local Variables vs. Unknown Aggregates

```cpp
%struct.xyz = type { i32, i32, i32 }
define i32 @test(int)(i32 %x) #0 {
  ...%3 = alloca i32, align 4
  ...%6 = getelementptr inbounds %struct.xyz* %5, i32 0, i32 2
  store i32 %4, i32* %6, align 4
  ...
%
%17 = load i32* %3, align 4
  ...
}
```

Code Snippet 5.4 illustrates an example function. The load instruction can be traced back to an alloca instruction, which allocates a variable on the stack. The store instruction on the other hand accesses an unknown memory location, but we know that it is indexing into an aggregate of type “%struct.xyz”. This heuristic can be incorrect only when programmer is relying on the order of the variables on the stack, or the program has an overflowing pointer, which causes memory corruption. Various optimizations in compilers move variables around, and sometimes even promote them to registers. So, such an access would be illegal for a programmer to implement anyway.

**Local Structures vs. Function Arguments**

Programs also allocate data structures on stack, which are specific to functions or regions of code. These data structures cannot conflict with the arguments passed through the arguments of the function, since they are freshly allocated on the stack.

Code Snippet 5.5 Local Structures vs. Function Arguments

```cpp
%struct.list_el = type { i32, %struct.list_el* }
```
In Code Snippet 5.5, the load instruction (line number 11) is indexing into a local data structure “%2”, and the address for the store (line number 8) can be traced back to a function argument. These instructions will not conflict as an argument passed to the function will not conflict with the local stack. A situation where this heuristic can be incorrect is when the caller function relies on specific memory layout of function’s local structures which will be created in future, when the call instruction actually executes. Since optimizations can move or promote these aggregates to individual elements, or even registers, this is an illegal assumption. Note that the tracing is not done through a load instruction. Tracing is performed only through pointer manipulation instructions like BitCast and GetElementPtr.

This heuristic differs from the previous one in the sense that previous one is restricted to only simple data types, but in this heuristic even complex data types like aggregates can be compared to function arguments.

**Local Variables with No Pointers**

Lastly, many of the local variables or structures allocated are only used as temporary storage elements, specific to regions of code. No pointers are created to point at them i.e. no store instructions store their addresses into the memory (at some other location). Since these memory locations are never indirectly accessed, it can be safely concluded that these
structures will not conflict with other addresses.

**Code Snippet 5.6** Local Variables with No Pointers

```c
1  %struct.list_el = type { i32, %struct.list_el* }  
2  
3  define i32 @test(int)(%struct.list_el* %x) #0 {    
4      ...  
5      %2 = alloca %struct.list_el, align 4  
6      %3 = alloca %struct.list_el, align 4  
7      ...  
8      %6 = getelementptr inbounds %struct.list_el* %3, i32 0, i32 1  
9      store %struct.list_el %x, %struct.list_el* %6, align 4  
10     ...  
11     %next = getelementptr inbounds %struct.list_el* %2, i32 0, i32 1  
12     store %struct.list_el %3, %struct.list_el* %next, align 4  
13     ...  
14     %20 = load %struct.list_el* %unknown, align 4  
15     ...  
16  }
```

In Code Snippet 5.6, let’s assume that all the uses of “%2” and “%3” are shown. The address “%2” is not used in a store instruction as a data operand; it is used only as the address operand on line number 12 (traced through a GetElementPtr). So the query formed by the store instruction on line number 12 and load instruction on line number 14, can never form an edge. On the other hand, the address “%3” has been used as the data value in store instructions. So, the query between the store on line number 9 and load on line number 14, is a possible conflict and needs profiled.
Table 5.1 Queries detected by heuristics across all benchmarks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Heuristic</th>
<th>Number of Queries Found</th>
<th>Queries with Dependence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Structure Type Mismatch</td>
<td>68305</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structure Index Mismatch</td>
<td>27665</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant Data Space</td>
<td>5734</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Variables vs. Unknown Aggregates</td>
<td>17783</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Variables with No Pointers</td>
<td>1902</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Structures vs. Function Arguments</td>
<td>3464</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>124853</strong></td>
<td><strong>80</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Evaluation

These heuristics are not perfect and need to be evaluated for correctness. The perfect profiler has the accurate data for all these edges, and can be used verify these heuristics.

Table 5.1 shows the number of queries detected by the heuristics, and the number of actual dependences as per the perfect profiler. These are combined numbers for all the benchmarks. Figure 5.1 shows the distribution of each heuristic for each benchmark. The heuristics are applied in the same order as specified in the table, each query is counted only for one of the heuristics. As we can observe, the number of statically predictable queries is quite significant. Different heuristics are prominent on different benchmarks. The Structure Type Mismatch and Structure Index Mismatch heuristics are most commonly observed.

The inaccuracy introduced due to the heuristics is negligibly small – only 0.06% edges are incorrectly skipped. All other edges are correctly predicted, thus eliminating the need to profile these edges.

The 4 dependence queries found for the Structure Index Mismatch heuristic occur in 176.gcc benchmark, which has a union containing packed data structures. So it is possible that seemingly different indices might be pointing to the same address, misleading the heuristic. Out of the 76 failed cases for the Structure Type Mismatch heuristic, 48 queries are from 176.gcc, 17 are from 253.perlbmk, 8 are from 450.soplex and 3 are from 473.astar. All
these benchmarks use casting among different structures which have the same or similar type layout, thus triggering the heuristic wrongly. Nevertheless, such occurrences are also very rare as visible from the table, and do not affect the accuracy significantly.

Figure 5.1 Distribution of different heuristics on each benchmark, as a percentage of total queries.
Figure 5.2 Accuracy observed with Signatures on only those queries which can be statically predicted with the heuristics. [lower is better]
5.2. EVALUATION

Figure 5.2 shows the accuracy when these queries are profiled with bloom filter based profilers. Bloom filters perform poorly when they are highly populated, and that’s most likely the reason behind such inaccuracy. These queries contribute to overall inaccuracy of the profiler, especially in benchmarks like 188.ammp and 179.art. Overall it is quite clear, that static predictions of these heuristics are much more accurate.
Figure 5.3 Accuracy for various benchmarks with and without the heuristics. [lower is better]
Figure 5.4 Performance overhead on various benchmarks with and without the heuristics.
5.2. EVALUATION

Figure 5.3 shows the impact of the heuristics on overall accuracy. On an average the NAED (w.r.t perfect profiler) is reduced by 32% as compared to the 8K configuration, which had best accuracy till now. On specific benchmarks like 188.ammp, the difference is drastic, as the profiler goes from being completely unusable to reasonably accurate.

Figure 5.4 shows the performance of the profiler with and without the heuristics. Only 8K configuration has been presented here for the sake of simplicity; other configurations show a similar trend. The performance overhead is reduced by roughly 10%. The reduction in performance overhead is not very significant, given the large number of discarded queries as shown in Figure 5.1. This is due to the fact that performance is affected by the amount of queries removed from the critical region, and not just any queries.

The next chapter explores an alternative set representation.
In most cases, the memory is allocated for variables in a consecutive fashion, either on stack or heap. Furthermore, most of the memory operations operate on a small range of memory. For example, the iterator in a loop typically walks over an array. Even when objects are allocated on heap, they are allocated in large chunks, or at least on nearby chunks. This information can be represented in the form of a range.

**Range Set**

A range set is simply a set which keeps track of the range of addresses accessed by a given instruction. The bloom filters try to hash a full 32 bit address space into a small set of bits. In reality, the actual range of addresses accessed by any instruction in a single instance of dynamic region of code, is usually very limited. The range set leverages this fact to provide reasonably accurate set operations without keeping track of a lot of bits. This
Technique is reminiscent of previous work in debugging [HL02; Zho04b; DZ09; Zho04a]. It is implemented using two variables which keep track of the minimum and maximum value of the elements inserted into the set. Figure 6.1 shows the insertions into a range set during multiple iterations of a loop. Each insertion grows the range, if the address is outside the current range. The membership check simply checks whether the address falls within the

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 6.1** Operation of the range set: “a)” to “c)” show insertion and “d)” shows membership check.
minimum and maximum values.

This set cannot distinguish if any intermediate addresses have been accessed or not. For example, in Figure 6.1 the address 0xABCD20 might not have been accessed at all, but a membership check will be positive. This is the main source of inaccuracy in the range set. The range set performs well with densely packed memory access pattern, but poorly with sparse access patterns. This would be especially detrimental when distinguishing between elements of a structure, inside an array of structures. Inside a loop, the range set will grow up to the size of the whole array. Any memory operations on different elements of the structure will alias with each other as they’ll have more or less the same range. This is where Structure Index Mismatch heuristic will help, as it will be able to statically differentiate between different elements of the structure. This difference is visible on the 188.ammp benchmark significantly as the NAED for the range set reduces from 0.56 to 0.15 with the heuristics applied.

**Hybrid Set**

Bloom filters provide a simple way to compress a very large address space into small bits, with the downside of aliasing. Because of this, memory accesses to completely different regions like stack and heap can also alias to the same bits, resulting in the false edges. Range set on the other hand provides a very accurate mechanism to separate different memory regions like stack and heap, or even chunks of memory allocated at different places in the same region. But it cannot distinguish between sparse memory accesses in that range. Hybrid set combines these mechanisms with following set operations.

1. Insertion: Any new entry updates the minimum and maximum, as well as the corresponding bits in the bloom filter.

2. Membership Check: First the address is checked whether it falls in the minimum or maximum range. Only if it does fall in the range, it is checked for membership inside the bloom filter.

Since the bloom filter check is not executed all the time, the performance overhead should be less than the combined overhead of range sets and bloom filter based signatures. Due
to the combined effect, the accuracy should be at least as much as the best of both, or sometimes even better than both of them.

**Evaluation**

Same methodology is used for evaluation, as explained in chapter 3. For the sake of comparison simplicity, only the 8K signature configuration is compared. Also, all the heuristics explained in chapter 5 are also applied to reduce unnecessary profiling.
Figure 6.2 Accuracy of Range and Hybrid Sets. [lower is better]
Figure 6.3 Performance of Range and Hybrid Sets
Figure 6.2 shows the comparison of range and hybrid sets. Range Set provides us very good accuracy, much better than one would expect from such a simple mechanism. The heuristics help in reducing the queries which will hit the holes in range set, improving its accuracy. Many of the benchmarks like 401.bzip2, 433.milc and 473.astar show an accuracy much better than bloom filter, sometimes even near perfect. On others like 164.gzip, 183.equake, 188.ammp, 300.twolf, range set shows poorer accuracy in comparison to bloom filters. This suggests that both these mechanisms are suited for different set of memory patterns. The hybrid configuration combines the two, yielding best of the two techniques. It is more accurate than both the techniques individually, and provides the best accuracy observed so far, across all benchmarks.

The performance overhead of both the techniques is shown in Figure 6.3. Due to its simplicity, the performance overhead of the range set is the least. Notably, even though hybrid has to do additional work, it has less performance overhead than an equivalent bloom filter configuration, except a few benchmarks. This is because most of the membership checks fail at the range check itself, short circuiting all the work for hashing and checking the bloom filter. The overhead saved due to this, absorbs any additional overhead in insertion and membership checks in case of actual dependencies, yielding better performance.

On an average, hybrid gives us roughly 5% lower performance overhead, and 38% more accurate profile.
CONCLUSION

Data dependence profiling as a problem can be addressed with a low performance overhead using set based profiling. To improve accuracy of the same with minimal performance overhead, static heuristics + dynamic profiling approach has been proposed. This achieves an average improvement in accuracy of the profiler by 32%, while reducing the performance overhead by 10% on average.

Additionally, a new technique of range based profiling has been proposed, which provides us with the fastest performance for its accuracy. Extending it further, a hybrid set based approach has been proposed which achieves 38% more accurate profile as compared to an equivalent software signature, while also improving the performance by 5% on average.

Figure 7.1 shows the accuracy vs. performance profile for all the different configurations explored. The geometric mean slowdown across all benchmarks is shown on the Y axis, while the arithmetic mean of the NAED across all benchmarks is plotted on the X axis. Overall, closer the data point is to the origin, better is the performance of the profiler.
Figure 7.1 Performance vs. Accuracy for various configurations
7.1. **FUTURE WORK**

The heuristics shift the curve of software signatures towards the origin by improving both accuracy as well as performance. The range set provides the best performance vs. accuracy trade-off, though not as accurate as hybrid. The hybrid approach has better accuracy. Though not as fast as range, it is still faster than software signatures.

The combined speed and improvement of our dependence profiler are encouraging for wide adoption of data dependence profiling. As advanced features like transactional memories gain ground in recent architectures like Intel Broadwell, speculative optimizations enabled by data dependence profilers will gain popularity.

**Future Work**

The range set shows promise in profiling with minimal overhead, but at the cost of accuracy. Rather than aiming for a one-size-fits-all approach, query specific set configuration needs to be explored. Heuristics can be developed to select ultra-fast approaches like range, or very accurate approaches like hybrid with very large signature sizes, in different parts of the program to achieve a favorable accuracy vs. performance trade-off.

Also, the question of what to profile has not been completely answered yet. Rather than trying to select what needs to be profiled to enable an optimization, an elimination based strategy needs to be explored. Queries which are useless from an optimization standpoint (either a particular optimization or all of them generally), can be eliminated to reduce the profiling overhead.

With the advent of transactional memories in real hardware, truly speculative optimizations with hardware assisted rollbacks can be created. This area needs to be explored for speculative scalar optimizations as well as speculative vectorization in conjunction with our data dependence profiler.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


BIBLIOGRAPHY


