

# Software and Energy-aware Computing

## Fundamentals of static analysis of software

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**ICT-Energy: Energy consumption in future ICT devices**

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# Acknowledgements

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Henk Muller and team

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<http://entraproject.eu>

# Whole-systems energy transparency

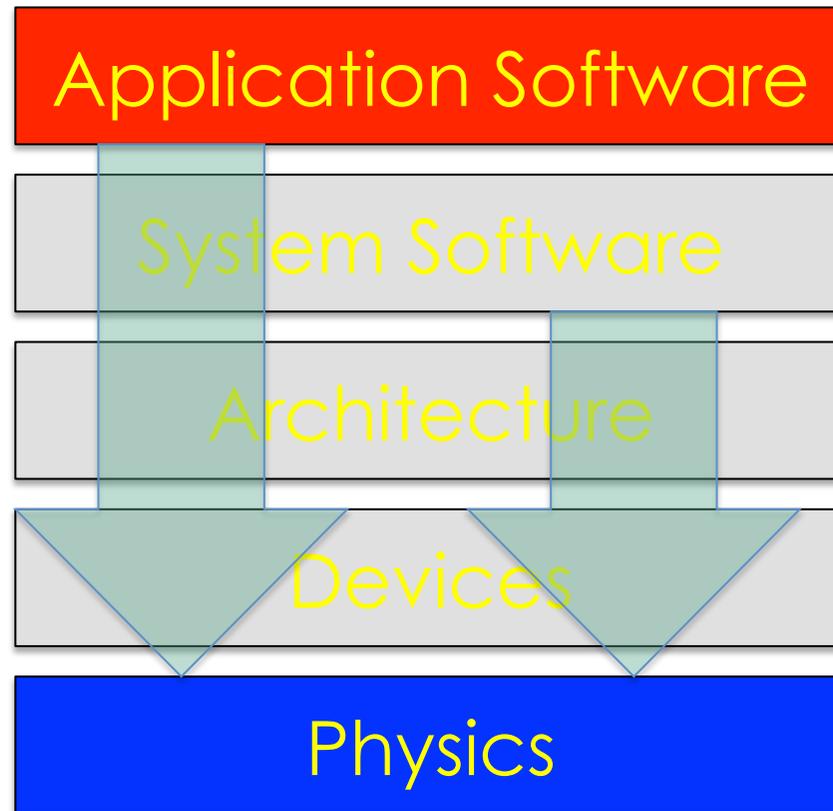
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Energy is consumed by **physical processes**.

Yet, application programmers should be able to “see” **through the layers** and understand energy consumption **at the level of code**.

The same applies to designers at every level.

**How is this possible?**



# Energy of software?

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- Energy is consumed by **hardware**
- But in these lectures we attribute energy cost to **software**
- **Why?**
  - (to summarise some of Kerstin's points)

# Reason 1

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- We take the **application programmer's** viewpoint
  - programmers don't know much about hardware
  - high-level languages **hide** the platform from the programmer
    - Which is usually a Good Thing, don't you agree?

# Reason 2

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- Energy efficiency as a design goal from the start
- Get an energy profile for a program as early as possible
- Analyse the code to find out how much energy a program **will** use
- Deliver software with **energy guarantees**

# Reason 2 - continued

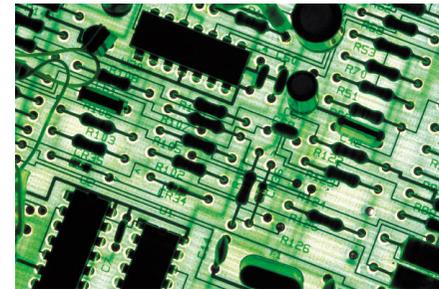
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- Don't wait to **test** energy efficiency on hardware, after the software is developed



Development machine

Deployment platform



- It might be too late to fix “energy bugs”

# Reason 3

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- You can save more energy at the software level than the hardware level
- There are more energy optimisation opportunities higher up the system stack.
- Much energy is **wasted** by application software

# Energy transparency

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- Our aim is to let the programmer “see” the energy usage of the code
  - without executing it
  - so that the programmer can “see” where the program wastes energy
  - experiment with different designs

# Software factors affecting energy

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Important factors are

- Computational **efficiency**
- Quality of **low-level** machine code
- **Parallelism**
- Amount and rate of **communication**

# Computational efficiency

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- There is a strong **correlation** between **time** and **energy** consumption (for a single thread)
- Execute as **few instructions** as possible to achieve the given task, saving energy
- Furthermore, the machine will return more quickly to an idle (low-energy) state

# Computational efficiency (2)

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- Hence a large part of the energy-aware programmer's job for sequential code is the same as for performance-awareness
- Get the job done quickly, using efficient algorithms and data structures

# Low-level code optimisation

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- Given the same high-level code (e.g. C++) there could be many different machine instruction programs.
- Lower energy can be achieved e.g.
  - using VLIW (Very Long Instruction Word) instructions and vectorisation
  - exploitation of low-power processor states using frequency and voltage scaling (DVFS).
- Energy-aware compiler's responsibility

# Parallelism

- Is it more energy-efficient to parallelise a task?
- The answer is not straightforward.
- Execution time might be reduced but more energy might be consumed



$$e > e_1 + e_2 + e_3 ???$$

If the processors for each process are identical, then the parallel program probably uses **more** energy. There is some overhead for managing threads and communication.

# Parallelism and clock speed

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- Let  $f$  = processor clock frequency
- Let  $P$  = power
- Let  $V$  = voltage
- $P = cV^2f$  (where  $c$  is a constant)
- $E = Pt$  (when we run the processor for  $t$  time units)
- Hence  $e = e_1 + e_2 + \dots + e_n$  for  $n$  processes, if the **same total number of instructions** is executed, at the same frequency  $f$ .
  
- But if we reduce  $f$ , the total energy will reduce **because  $V$  can also be reduced** and  $P$  is proportional to  $V^2!!!$

# Parallelism (cont'd)

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- Hence it is worth parallelising (to save energy) if
  - there is little or no idle time in each processor
    - a waiting processor is wasting energy
  - the clock speed can be reduced in some or all processors, compared to a single process execution

# How can static analysis help?

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- Automatic **complexity analysis**
  - understand the best, worst and average cases
  - focus on optimising hot loops
- **Timing** analysis in multi-threaded code
  - compare parallel algorithm performance, throughput, etc.
  - identify wait times, potential low-power states, etc.

# How can static analysis help? (2)

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- Analysis of other energy-related resources
  - communication volume and frequency
  - analysis of cache behaviour
  - analysis of memory footprint

# SW developer's view

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- How do we visualise the results of analysis?
- This is a difficult question in itself.
- Here are some examples and thought experiments

# Example

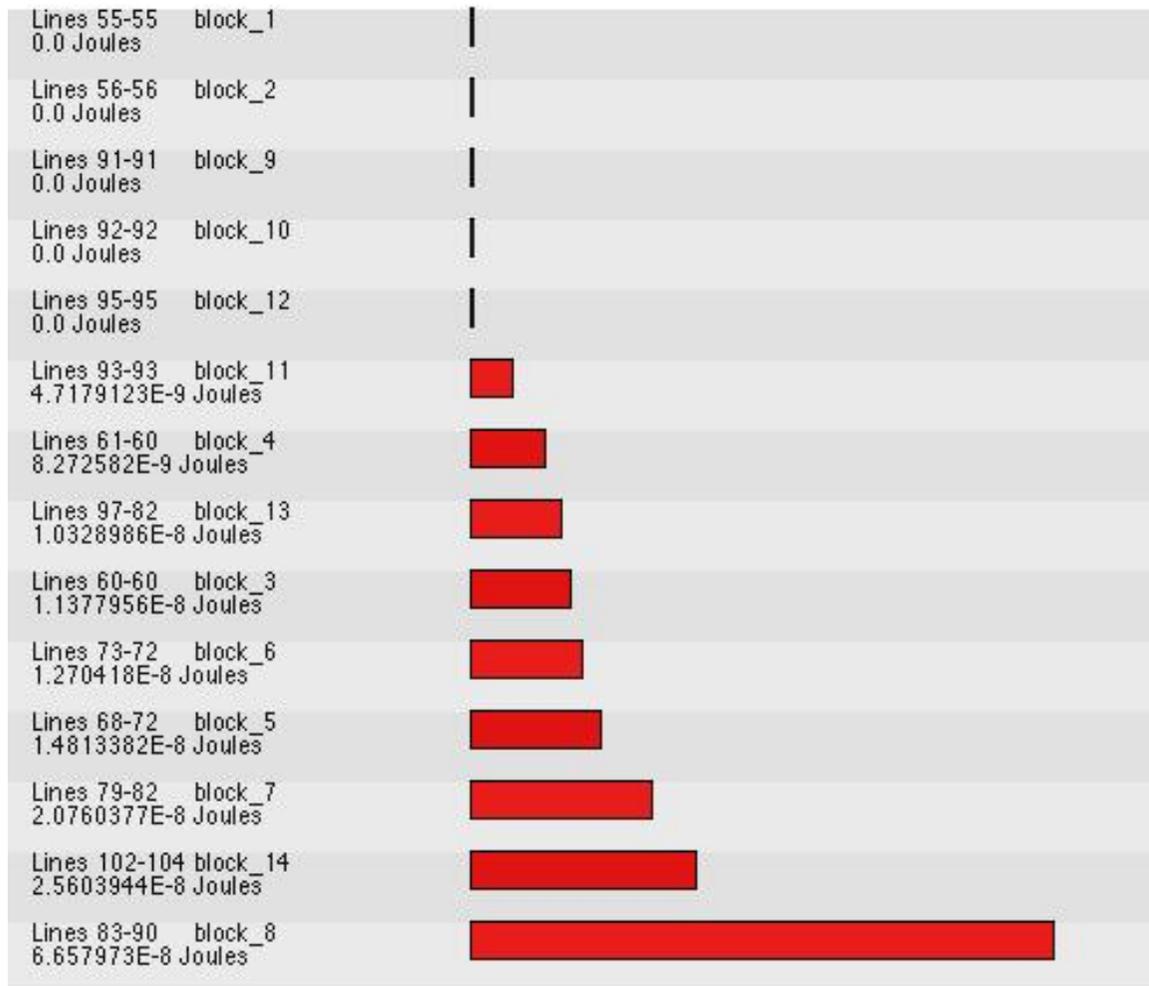
```
77. #pragma unsafe arrays
78. int biquadCascade(biquadState &state, int xn) {
79.     unsigned int ynl;
80.     int ynh;
81.
82.     for(int j=0; j<BANKS; j++) {
83.         ynl = (1<<(FRACTIONALBITS-1));
84.         ynh = 0;
85.         {ynh, ynl} = macs( biquads[j].b0, xn, ynh, ynl);
86.         {ynh, ynl} = macs( biquads[j].b1, state.b[j].xn1, ynh
87.         {ynh, ynl} = macs( biquads[j].b2, state.b[j].xn2, ynh
88.         {ynh, ynl} = macs( biquads[j].a1, state.b[j+1].xn1, y
89.         {ynh, ynl} = macs( biquads[j].a2, state.b[j+1].xn2, y
90.         if (sext(ynh, FRACTIONALBITS) == ynh) {
91.             ynh = (ynh << (32-FRACTIONALBITS)) | (ynl >> FRAC
92.         } else if (ynh < 0) {
93.             ynh = 0x80000000;
94.         } else {
95.             ynh = 0x7fffffff;
96.         }
97.         state.b[j].xn2 = state.b[j].xn1;
98.         state.b[j].xn1 = xn;
99.
100.        xn = ynh;
101.    }
102.    state.b[BANKS].xn2 = state.b[BANKS].xn1;
103.    state.b[BANKS].xn1 = ynh;
104.    return xn;
105. }
```

**biquadCascade(BANKS)**  
**=**  
**157 \* BANKS + 51.7**  
**nJoules**

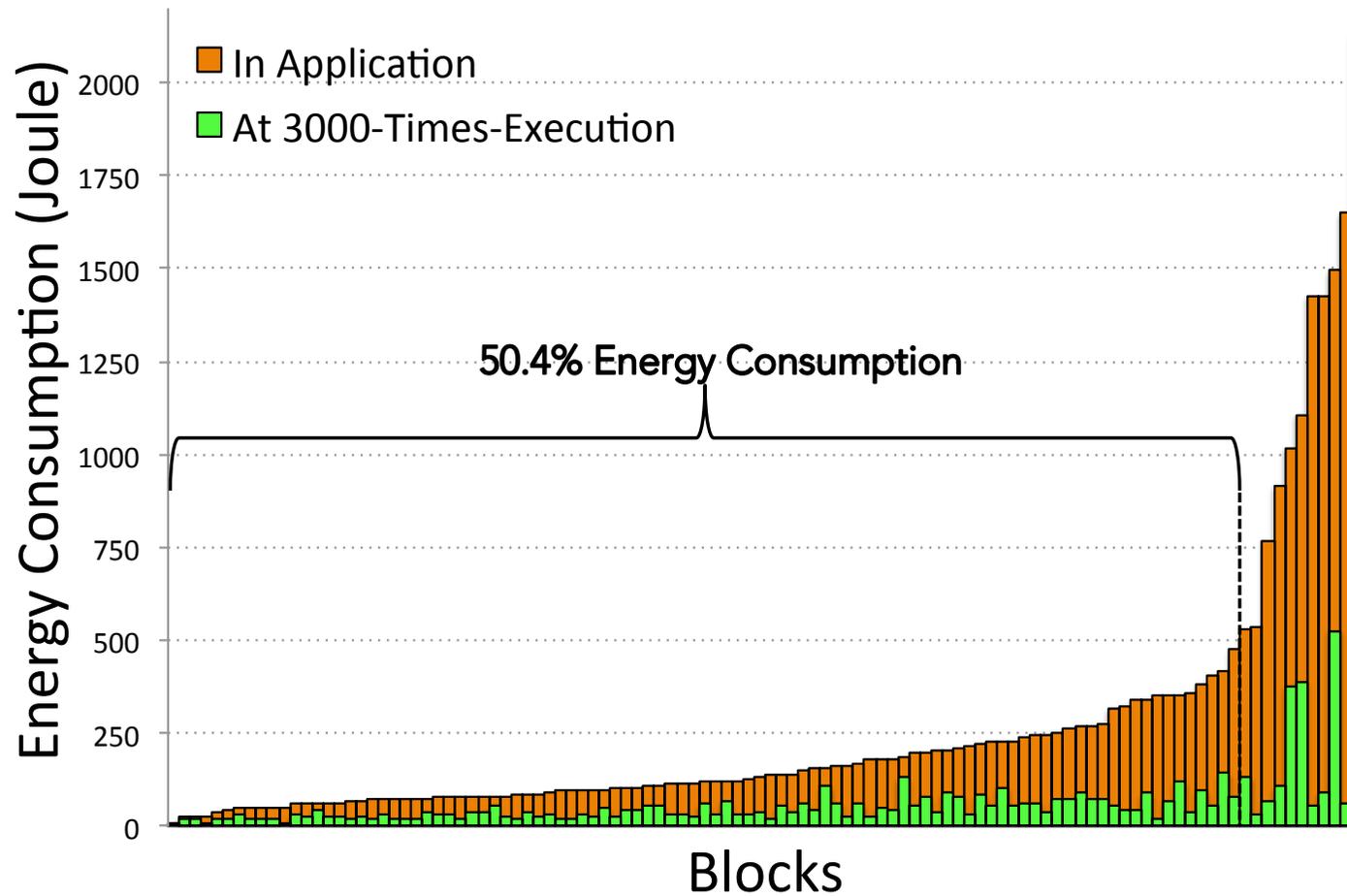
This is an estimate of the energy used by the function.

It is a **linear function** of the value of BANKS

# Visualise energy of program blocks



# Which code blocks are hot?



# Example

```
in port inP = XS1_PORT_4A;  
out port led_port = XS1_PORT_1E;
```

```
void consumer(chanend couts) {  
  int j;
```

```
  while (1) {  
    couts := j;  
    for (int i=0;i<j;i++)  
      led_port <: (i & 1);  
  }
```

12.3%

72.4%

Simulation with random 0..15 values on input port.

```
void producer(int n, chanend couts) {
```

```
  for (int i=0;i<n;i++) {  
    printf("i=%d\n",i);  
    couts <: i;  
  }
```

13.8%

```
int main () {  
  chan a; int x;  
  par {
```

```
    while (1){  
      inP := x;  
      producer(x,a);  
    }
```

1.5%

```
    consumer(a);  
  }
```

# Energy a design goal for programmers

---

```
#pragma check energy (proc (x) ) <5pJ  
int proc (int x) {  
...  
}
```

Output:

Checked  $0 \leq x \leq 5 \Rightarrow \text{energy}(\text{proc}(x)) < 5\text{pJ}$

# Summary of goals

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- **Tools** for the programmer
  - that give information about the energy usage of programs without running them (**energy transparency**)
  - that allow energy assertions to be checked (**energy design goals**)

# Semantics and program analysis

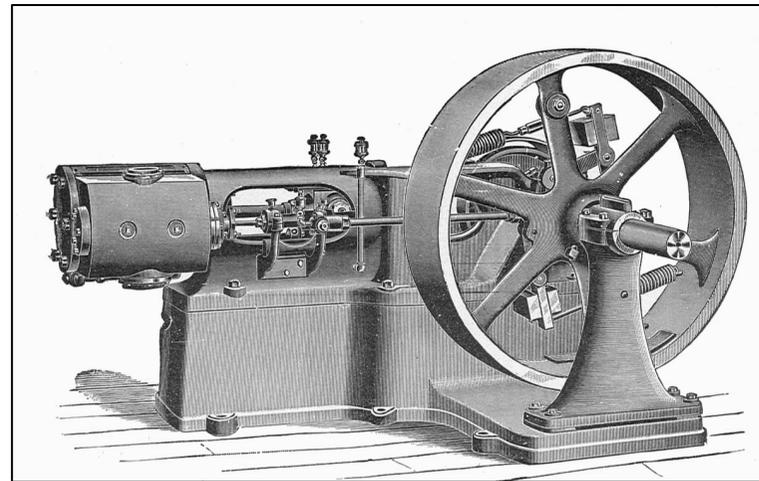
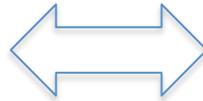
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- To achieve the goals we need tools for **program analysis**
- Program analysis is based on formal **program semantics**
  - the mathematical study of program meanings

# Programs are machines (that consume energy)

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```
n = 4;  
z = 1;  
while (n > 0) {  
    z = z * n;  
    n = n - 1;  
}  
print(z);
```



Semantics gives the “machine” defined by a program.

# Analysis of programs

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- A program is a **physical** object. e.g.
  - some symbols on paper
  - a pattern of bits in memory
- But what is the **meaning** of a program?
- This is program **semantics**.

# Tiwari's Energy Equation (from Kerstin's slides)

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$$E_P = \sum_i (B_i \times N_i) + \sum_{i,j} (O_{i,j} \times N_{i,j}) .$$

- $N_i$  is the number of times instruction  $i$  is executed.
- $N_{i,j}$  is the number of times instruction  $i$  is followed by instruction  $j$  in the program execution.
- The aim of static analysis is to determine  $N_i$  and  $N_{i,j}$  for all possible program executions

# Program semantics

---

```
n = 4;  
z = 1;  
while (n > 0) {  
    z = z * n;  
    n = n - 1;  
}  
print(z);
```

To execute or analyse this program, we need to understand the meaning of the symbols such as “while”, “>”, “\*”, “;”, “{”, “}”, etc.

# Different styles of program semantics

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- Operational semantics
  - **small steps** (from one state to the next)
  - big steps (from the start to the end state)
  - Hoare-Floyd conditions
- Denotational semantics
  - the mathematical function represented by a program
  - obtained by composing the functions representing its parts

# Phases of semantic analysis

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## 1. Syntax analysis (parsing)

- breaking the program into its basic parts and determining its structure

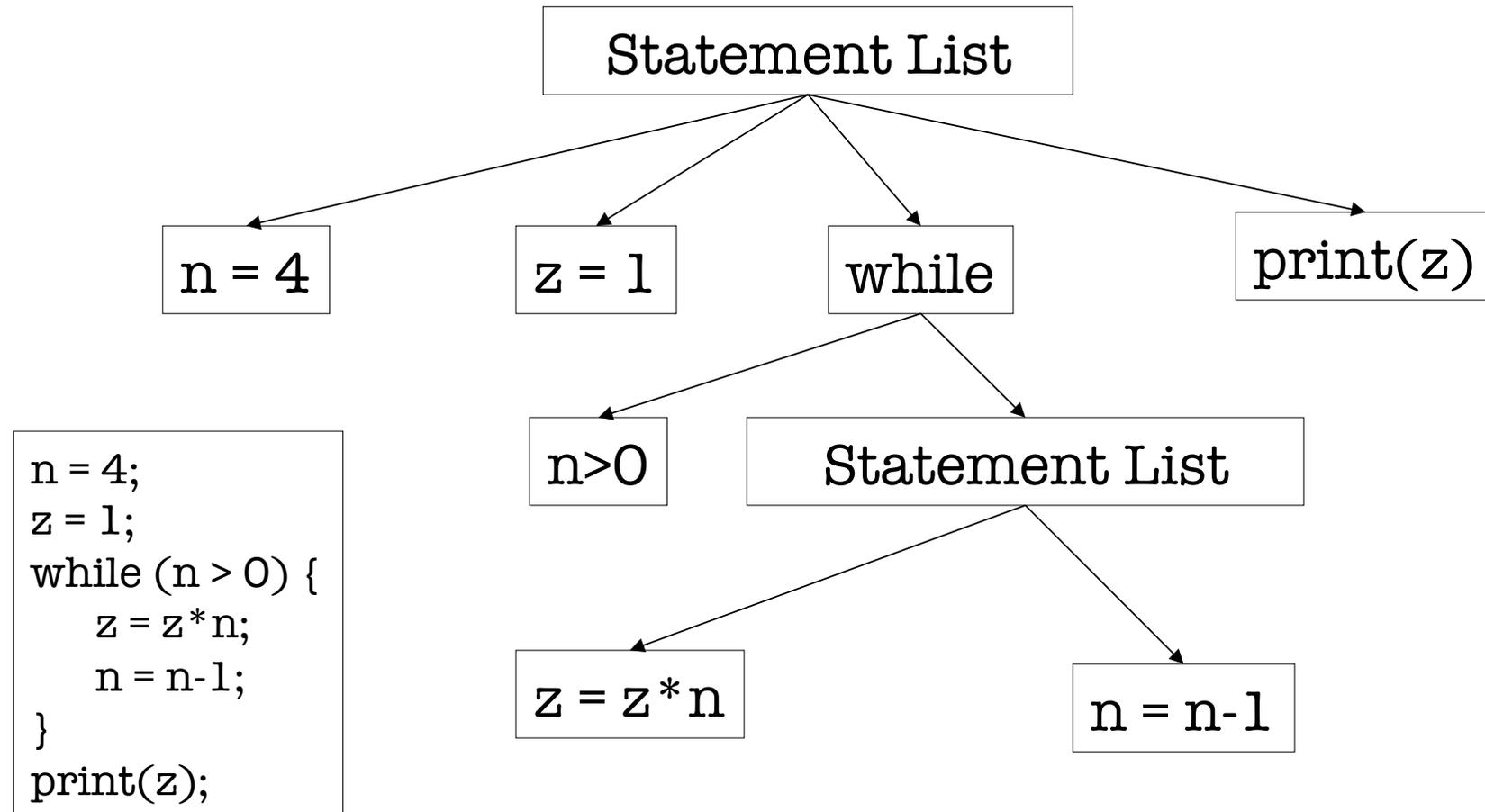
## 2. Semantic translation

- representation of the program in some suitable mathematical or logical form

## 3. Semantic interpretation

- using the semantic representation to analyse the program execution

# Program syntax tree (parsing)



# From syntax tree to flow graph

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## Grammar Rules

If  $\rightarrow$  if E then  $S_1$  else  $S_2$

While  $\rightarrow$  while E  $S_1$

StatementList  $\rightarrow$   $S_1 S_2 \dots S_n$

$S \rightarrow$  StatementList | If | While | Print | Assign

## Semantic Rules for flow of control

E.true :=  $S_1$

E.false :=  $S_2$

$S_1$ .next := If.next

$S_2$ .next := If.next

E.true :=  $S_1$

E.false := While.next

$S_1$ .next := While

$S_j$ .next =  $S_{j+1}$  ( $j = 1$  to  $n-1$ )

$S_n$ .next := StatementList.next

StatementList.next := S.next

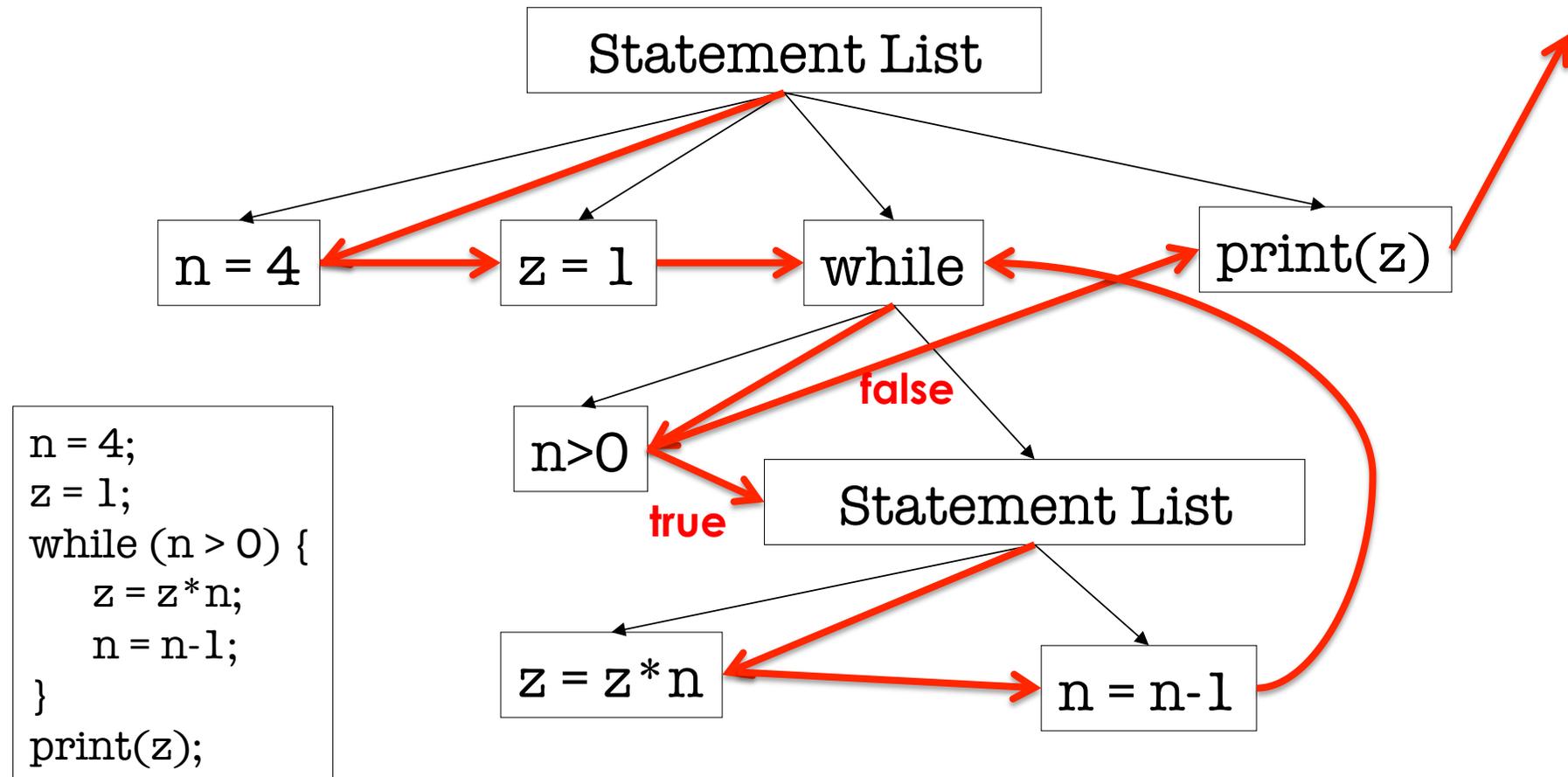
If.next := S.next

While.next := S.next

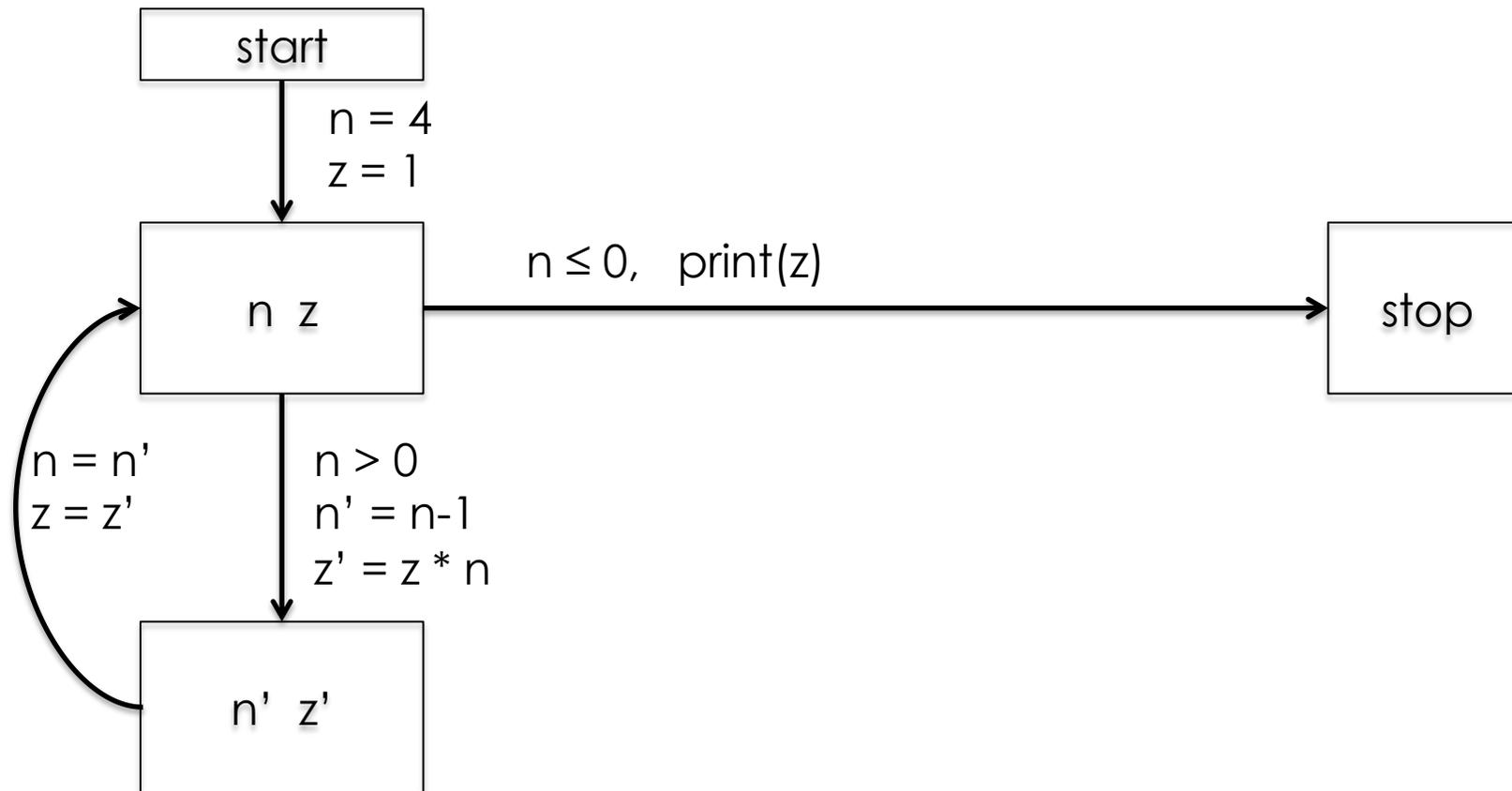
Print.next := S.next

Assign.next := S.next

# From syntax tree to flow graph



# From flow graph to state automata



# Exercise

---

1. Draw the syntax tree
2. Draw the control flow graph
3. Draw the state automaton

```
while (m != n) {  
    if (m > n) {  
        m = m-n;  
    }  
    else {  
        n = n-m;  
    }  
}
```

# Phases of semantic analysis

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1. Syntax analysis (parsing)
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# From automaton to predicate logic

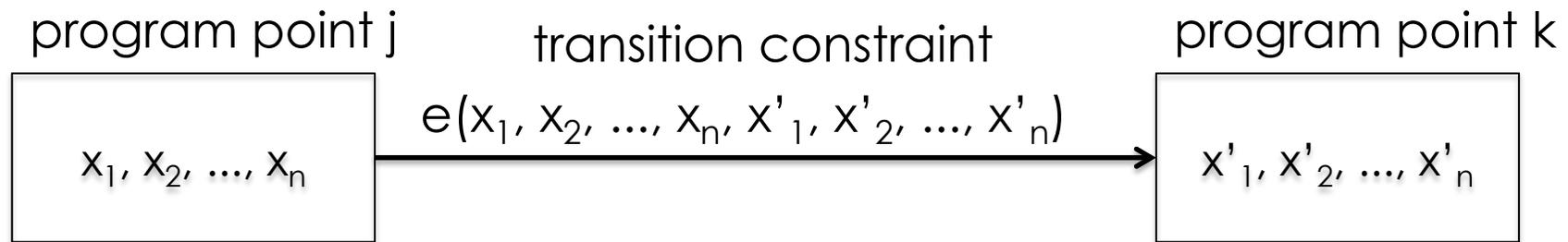
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Horn clauses

$\text{true} \rightarrow \text{reachable}_1$   
 $(\text{reachable}_1 \wedge n=4 \wedge z=1)$   
     $\rightarrow \text{reachable}_2(n,z)$   
 $(\text{reachable}_2(n,z) \wedge n < 0 \wedge z'=z*n \wedge n'=n-1)$   
     $\rightarrow \text{reachable}_3(n',z')$   
 $(\text{reachable}_3(n',z') \wedge n=n' \wedge z=z')$   
     $\rightarrow \text{reachable}_2(n,z)$   
 $\text{reachable}_2(n,z) \wedge n \geq 0 \wedge \text{print}(z)$   
     $\rightarrow \text{stop}$

# Logical representation

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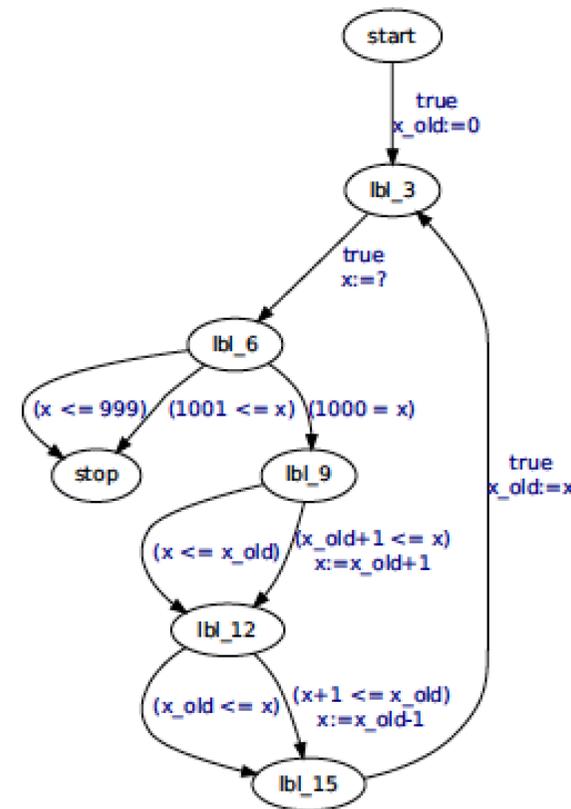
$$\left( \text{reachable}_j(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \wedge e(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, x'_1, x'_2, \dots, x'_n) \right) \rightarrow \text{reachable}_k(x'_1, x'_2, \dots, x'_n)$$

# Example: A rate limiter\*

\*Example by Monniaux

**Listing 5.** Rate limiter

```
void main() {  
    float x_old, x;  
    x_old = 0;  
    while (1) {  
        x = input(-1000,1000);  
        if (x >= x_old+1)  
            x = x_old+1;  
        if (x <= x_old-1)  
            x = x_old-1;  
        x_old = x;  
    }  
}
```



# Rate limiter – logic representation

---

```
r1(X,X_old) :-  
    X_old=0,  
    r0(_,_).  
r1(X,X_old) :-  
    r5(X,X_old).
```

```
r2(X,X_old) :-  
    X >= -1000,  
    X <= 1000,  
    r1(_X_old).
```

```
r3(X,X_old) :-  
    X1 >= X_old+1,  
    X = X_old+1,  
    r2(X1,X_old).
```

```
r3(X,X_old) :-  
    X < X_old+1,  
    r2(X,X_old).
```

```
r4(X,X_old) :-  
    X1 <= X_old-1,  
    X = X_old-1,  
    r3(X1,X_old).
```

```
r4(X,X_old) :-  
    X > X_old-1,  
    r3(X,X_old).
```

```
r5(X,X_old) :-  
    X_old=X,  
    r4(X,_).
```

# More examples from ENTRA tool

708 process finished: cp tst/ex.pl tmp/mac.pl

Entra Front-end version 0.2

Source Model/Compiler LLVM ISA **Control flow** Horn clause

### Control flow graph

Input

Output

```
graph TD; N1["(1) 44-68: compound_statement"] --> N2["(2) 46: vardecl('Outer'), vardecl('Inner')"]; N2 --> N3["(3) 47: vardecl('Ptotal #')"]; N3 --> N4["(4) 48: vardecl('Ntotal #')"]; N4 --> N5["(5) 49: vardecl('Pout #')"]; N5 --> N6["(6) 50: vardecl('Nout #')"]; N6 --> N7["(7) 51: compound_statement"]; N7 --> N8["(8) 51: 'Outer'=0"]; N8 --> N9["(9) 51: for"]; N9 --> N10["(10) 52: 'Outer'-size"]; N9 --> N11["(11) 52: 'Inner'=0"]; N10 --> N12["(12) 52: for"]; N11 --> N12; N12 --> N13["(13) 54: if"]; N12 --> N21["(21) 51: '+='Pos('Outer')"]; N13 --> N21; N13 --> N22["(22) 67: return 'Ptotal'+'Ntotal'"]; N21 --> N23["(23) 67: null"]; N22 --> N23; N23 --> N30["(30) 54: array(array('Array', 'Outer'), 'Inner')=0"]; N30 --> N1;
```

Run

**XC source basic block energy** Run

Source Block Energy

../xc2ast.sh -r xcprg/count.xc

Output

Lines	Block	Energy (Joules)
Lines 59-60	block_4	0.0
Lines 63-64	block_5	0.0
Lines 52-52	block_6	0.0
Lines 51-51	block_7	0.0
Lines 52-52	block_2	3.483765E-9
Lines 67-67	block_8	1.7418843E-8
Lines 54-54	block_3	2.1096625E-8
Lines 46-51	block_1	2.1762443E-8

# Identification of basic blocks

---

- A basic block is a section of “straight-line” code.
  - The **start** of a block is a branch or merge point
  - The **end** of a block is a branch or jump
- Basic blocks can be extracted from the control flow graph
- Every statement in a basic block is executed the same number of times

# Phases of semantic analysis

---

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# Program analysis

---

- Program properties
- Program invariants
- Global properties that depend on summary of an **infinite number** of behaviours
- Prove absence of bugs (verification) rather than presence (testing/simulation)

# Invariants

---

- Many program analysis and verification tasks involve proving **invariants**.
- An invariant is an assertion that is true at a given program point.
- We consider invariants on energy usage.

# Example invariant

---

```
void main() {  
    float x_old, x;  
    x_old = 0;  
    while (1) {  
        x = input(-1000,1000);  
        if (x >= x_old+1)  
            x = x_old+1;  
        if (x <= x_old-1)  
            x = x_old-1;  
        x_old = x; ←  
    }  
}
```

Check assertion

$-1000 \leq x\_old \leq 1000$

# Proving invariants

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- To prove that invariant  $P$  holds at program point  $j$ , prove the following implication

$$\text{reachable}_j(x_1, \dots, x_n) \rightarrow P$$

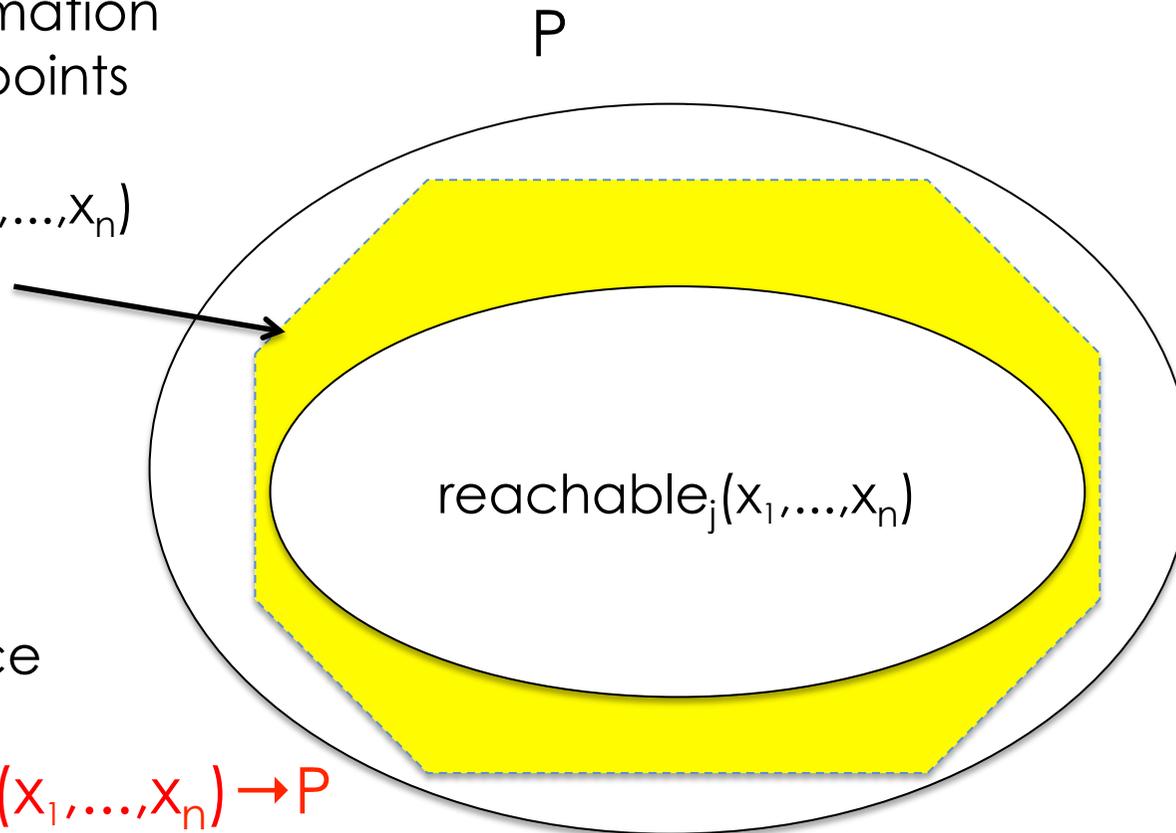
which is equivalent to

$$\neg(\text{reachable}_j(x_1, \dots, x_n) \wedge \neg P)$$

# Proof by approximation

---

Overapproximation  
of the set of points  
where  
 $\text{reachable}_j(x_1, \dots, x_n)$   
is true.



Contained  
within P, hence

$\text{reachable}_j(x_1, \dots, x_n) \rightarrow P$

# Energy invariants

---

- The program state can contain resource counters.
- $\text{reachable}_k(x_1, \dots, x_n, e)$  means that the total energy consumed is  $e$ , when the program reaches point  $k$
- So we can express and prove assertions about energy (or other resources)
- More on this later...

# Two basic techniques

---

- How to capture all reachable states?
  - answer, **fixpoint** techniques
- How to capture an infinite set of states?
  - answer, **abstract interpretation**
- These two methods underlie much program analysis

# Fixpoint computation

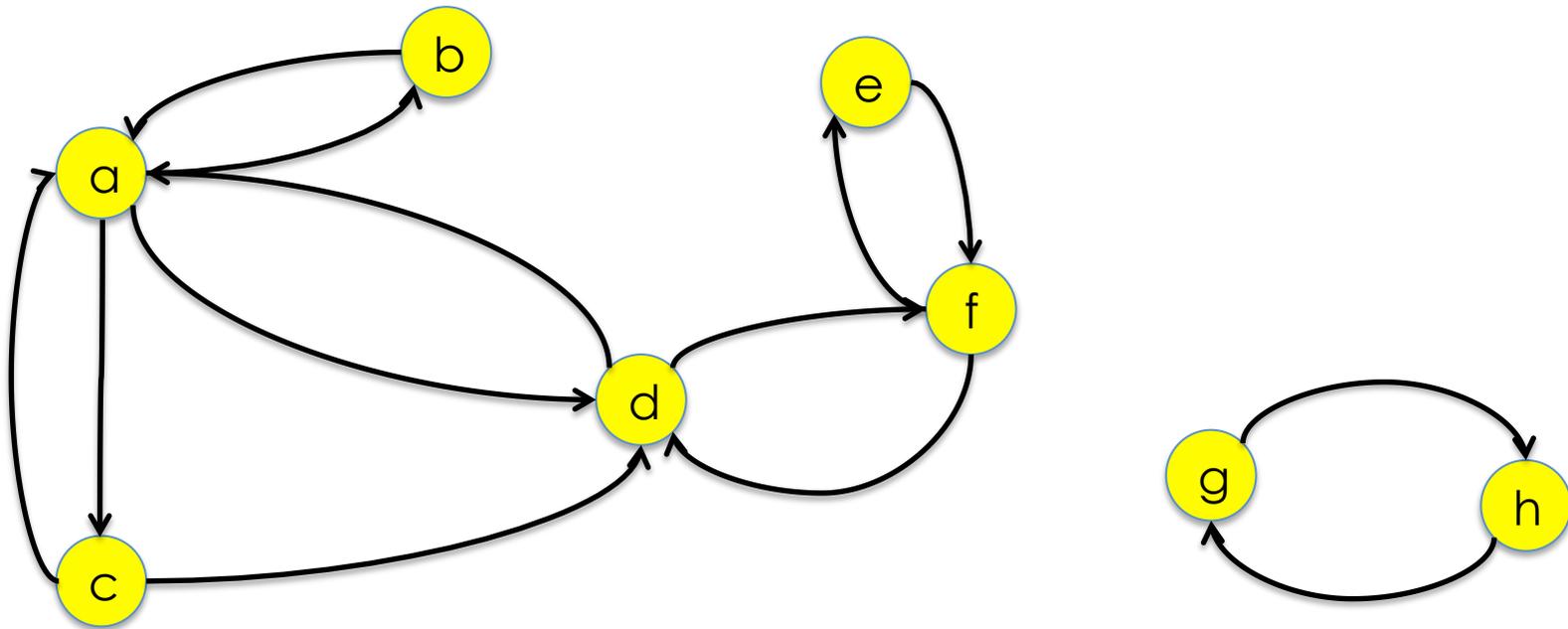
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- Sounds complicated, but it is a very simple procedure
- It is a **closure** or **saturation** procedure

# Fixpoint example

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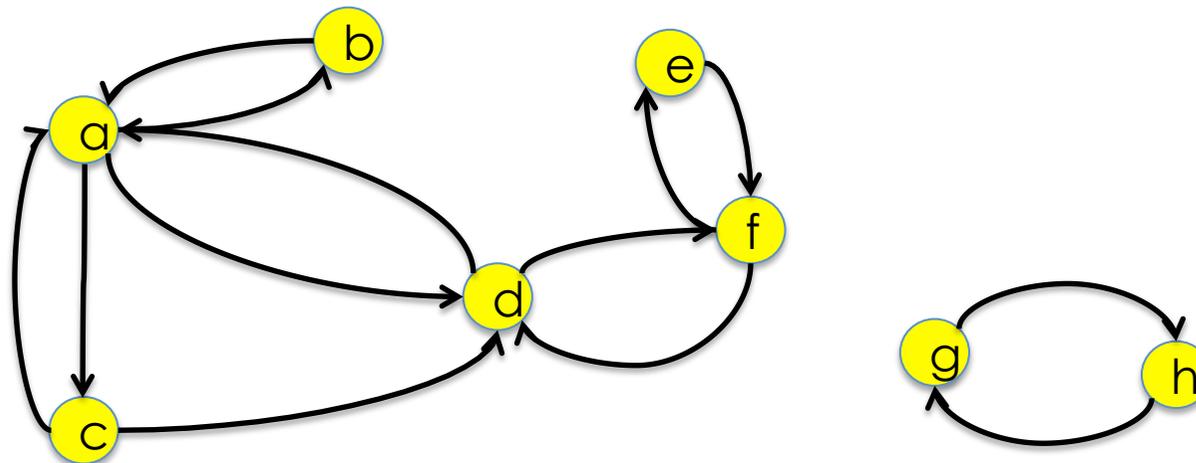
- Consider a route network, with stations a,b,...,h



# post(S) function

---

- Let  $S$  be a set of stations.
- $\text{post}(S)$  is the set of stations reachable in one step from  $S$ . E.g.  $\text{post}(\{a,h\}) = \{b,c,d,g\}$



# Reachability as a fixpoint

---

- The set of stations reachable from an initial set  $S$ , called  $\text{Reach}(S)$  is defined as the smallest set  $Z$  such that  $Z = F(Z)$

where  $F(Z) = S \cup \text{post}(Z)$

- This can be computed as the **limit** of a sequence  $\emptyset, F(\emptyset), F(F(\emptyset)), \dots$

# Example

- Find the stations reachable from a.

$$F(Z) = \{a\} \cup \text{post}(Z)$$

$\emptyset$

$$F(\emptyset) = \{a\}$$

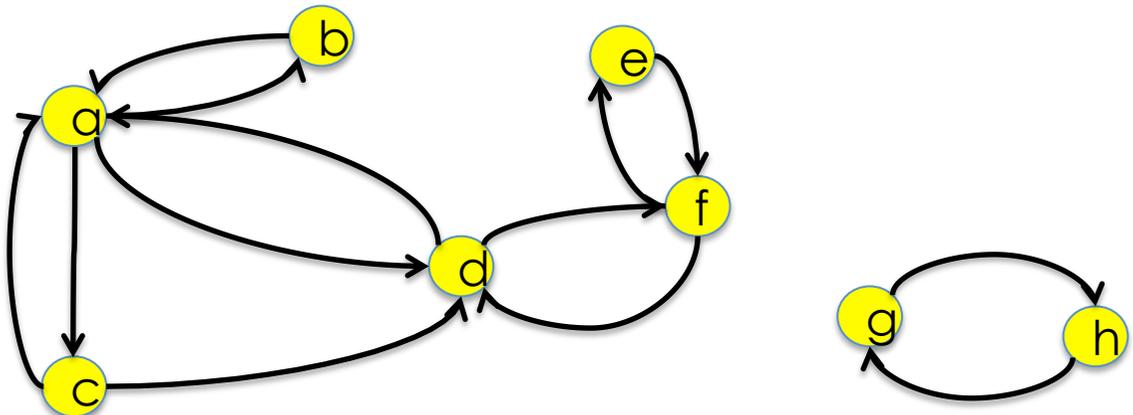
$$F(\{a\}) = \{a,b,c,d\}$$

$$F(\{a,b,c,d\}) = \{a,b,c,d,f\}$$

$$F(\{a,b,c,d,f\}) = \{a,b,c,d,e,f\}$$

$$F(\{a,b,c,d,e,f\}) = \{a,b,c,d,e,f\}$$

fixpoint found  $\{a,b,c,d,e,f\}$



# Exercise

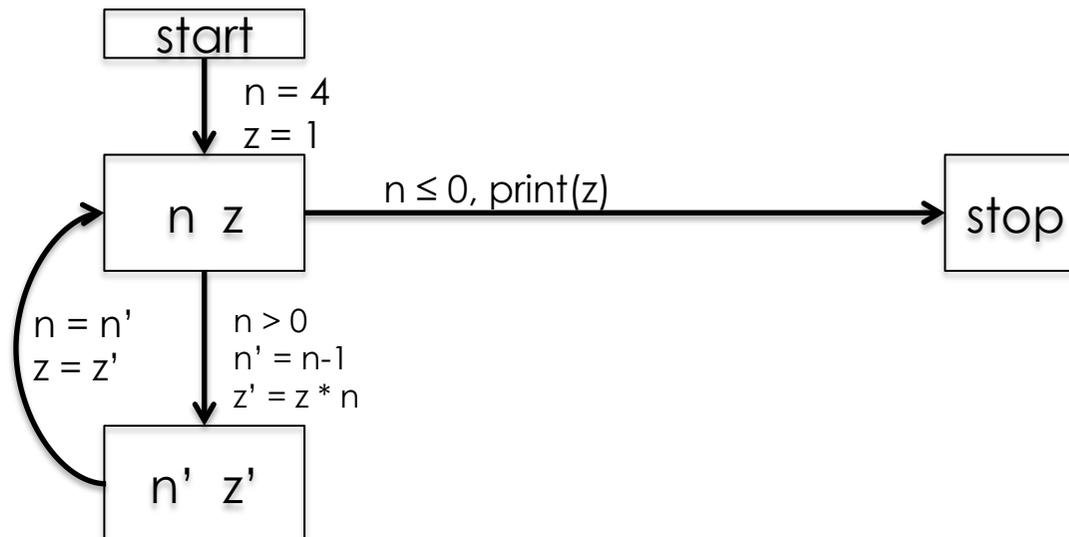
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- Using the same graph, compute the set of states reachable from  $e$ , using a fixpoint computation.

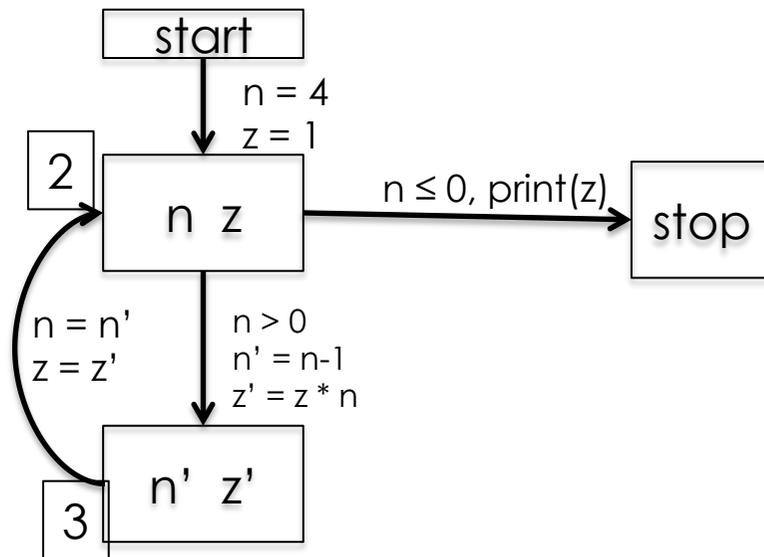
# The reachable states of a program

---

- We apply the same idea to find the reachable states of a program, starting with the initial state.



# The reachable states of a program



2	3
{}	{}
{(4,1)}	{}
{(4,1)}	{(3,4)}
{(4,1),(3,4)}	{(3,4)}
{(4,1),(3,4)}	{(3,4),(2,12)}
....	....
{(4,1),(3,4), (2,12),(1,24), (0,24)}	{(3,4),(2,12),(1,24)}

(n,z) represents the values of n and z at a given point

# Infinite fixpoints

---

- However, usually the set of reachable states of a program is **infinite**, and the sequence could keep on growing
- We might never reach the fixpoint
- In this case we use **abstraction**

# Abstract interpretation

---

## Example

- $476305 \times -576 = 274351680$
- Is the above equation correct?

# Rule of signs

---

- The **rule of signs** is an **abstraction** of the multiplication relation

$$+ \times + = +$$

$$+ \times - = -$$

$$- \times + = -$$

$$- \times - = +$$

We can check **incorrectness**, but not correctness with the rule of signs.

# The interval abstraction

---

- The value of a variable is abstracted by an **interval**
  - The variable has any value within the interval
- We can perform operations on intervals, as we did for signs
- E.g.  $[3,10] + [-2,6] = [3+(-2), 10+6] = [1,16]$
- Exercise. What is  $[3,10] - [-2,6]$ ?

# Example: interval abstraction

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- The set of pairs of values  $\{(4,1), (3,4), (2,12), (1,24), (0,24)\}$  can be abstracted by the pair of intervals  $([0,4], [1,24])$
- So  $n$  is between 0 and 4,  $z$  is between 1 and 24.
- But information has been lost
  - the pair  $(3,19)$  is also consistent with the intervals.
  - the intervals give an **over-approximation** of the reachable states.

# Convex polyhedra

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- A more precise abstraction than intervals is given by **convex polyhedra**
- Convex polyhedra are linear inequalities among the state variables

# Example convex polyhedron abstraction

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```
var i,j:int;  
begin  
  i=0; j=10;  
  while i<=j do  
    i = i+2;  
    j = j-1;  
  done;  
end
```

```
r1(I,J) :-  
  I=0,J=10.  
r2(I,J) :-  
  r1(I,J).  
r2(I,J) :-  
  I1 =< J1,  
  I = I1+2,  
  J = J1-1,  
  r2(I1,J1).  
r3(I,J) :-  
  I >= J+1,  
  r2(I,J).
```

# Approximate reachable states

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$$r1(I, J) = [I=0, J=10].$$

$$r2(I, J) = [-I \geq -16, I \geq 0, I+2*J=20].$$

$$r3(I, J) = [-3*I \geq -26, 3*I \geq 22, I+2*J=20].$$

This result is computed fast, using the Parma Polyhedra Library to perform the operations on convex polyhedra.

# Summary so far...

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- We can translate a **program** to a **state automaton**
- We can compute over-approximation of the **reachable states** of the program
  - using fixpoint computation and abstraction
- We can use the approximation to check **assertions about the program.**