

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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<http://entraproject.eu>

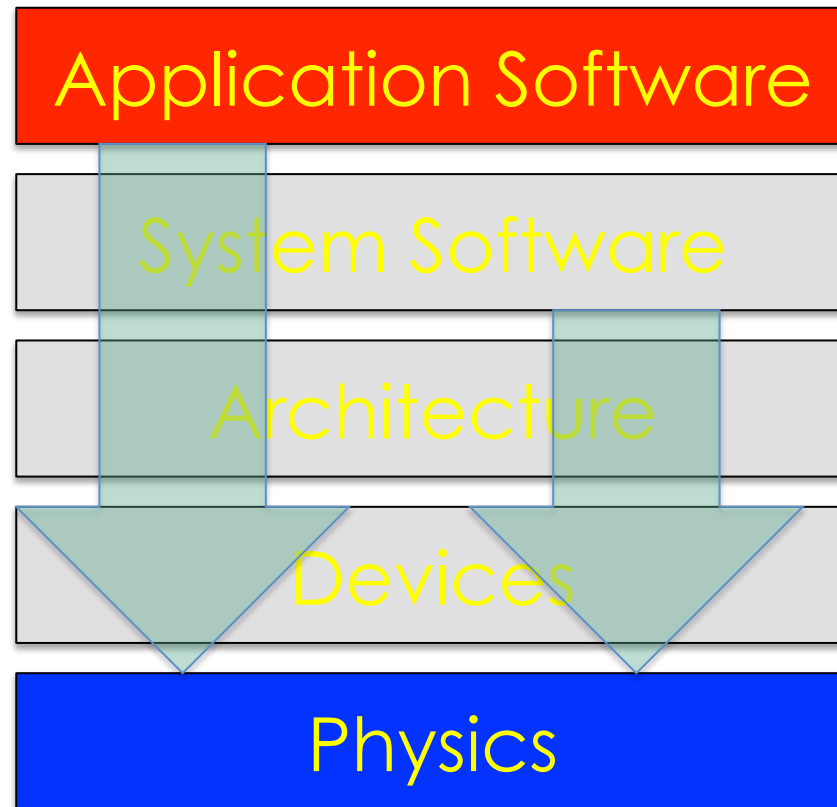
Whole-systems energy transparency

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?

- 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

- 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

- 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**

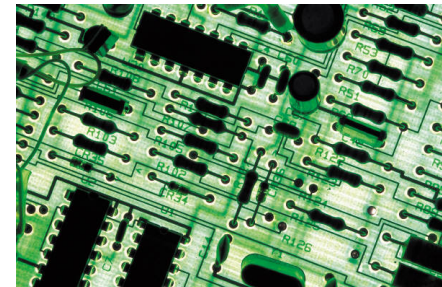
Reason 2 - continued

- 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

- 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

- 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

Important factors are

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

Computational efficiency

- 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)

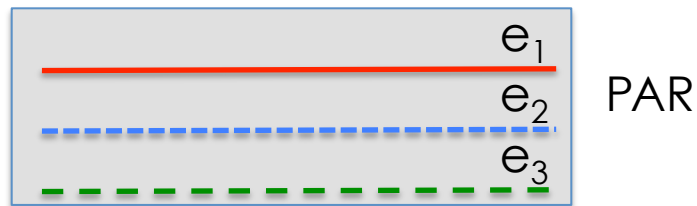
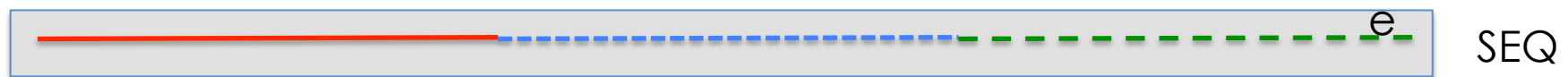
- Hence a large part of the energy-aware programmer's job for sequential code is the same as for performance-awareness
- Get the job done quickly, using efficient algorithms and data structures

Low-level code optimisation

- 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

- 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)

- 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?

- 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)

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

SW developer's view

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

Example

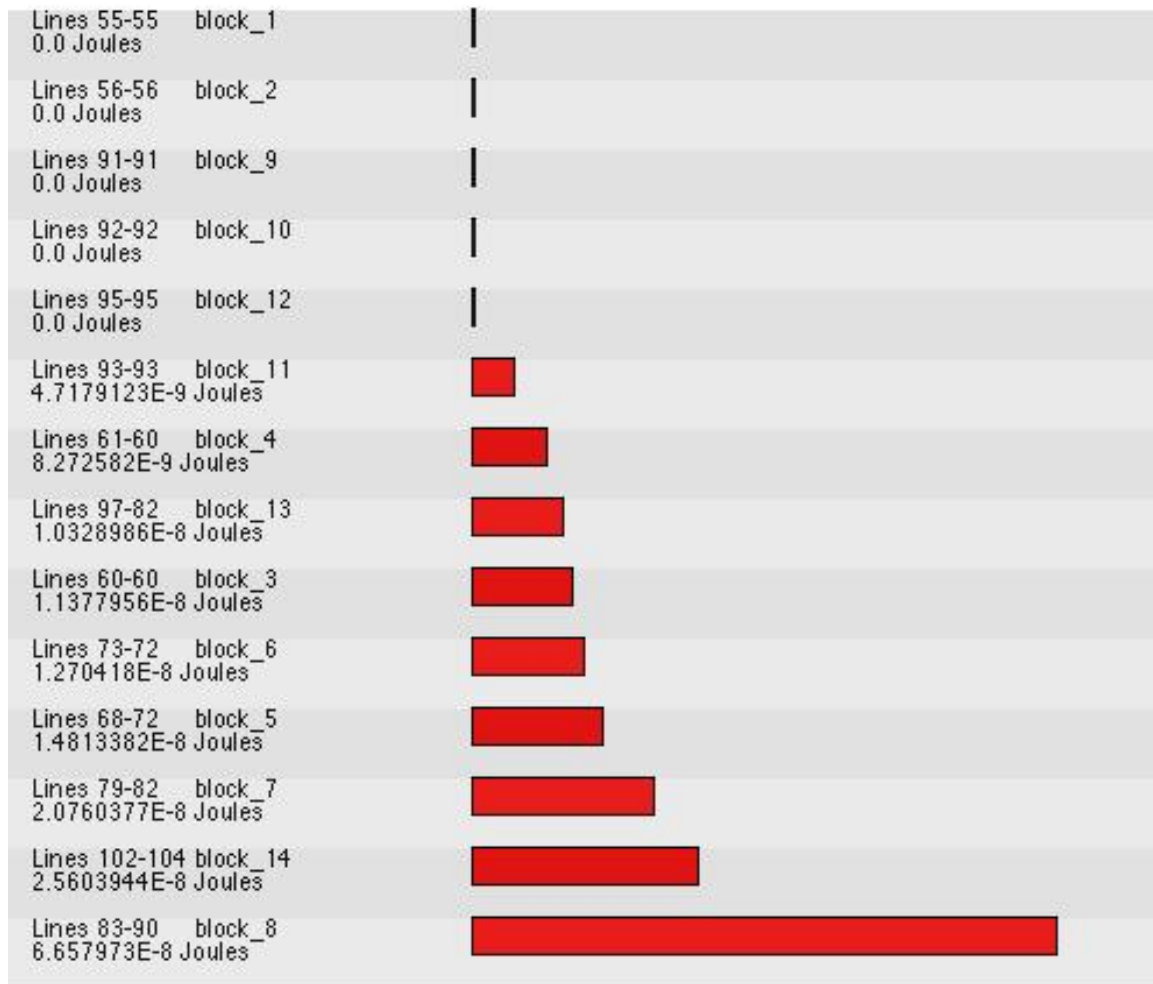
```
77.  #pragma unsafe arrays
78.  int biquadCascade(biquadState &state, int xn) {
79.      unsigned int ynl;
80.      int ynh;
81.
82.      for(int j=0; j<BANKS; j++) {
83.          ynl = (1<<(FRACTIONALBITS-1));
84.          ynh = 0;
85.          {ynh, ynl} = macs( biquads[j].b0, xn, ynh, ynl);
86.          {ynh, ynl} = macs( biquads[j].b1, state.b[j].xn1, ynh, ynl);
87.          {ynh, ynl} = macs( biquads[j].b2, state.b[j].xn2, ynh, ynl);
88.          {ynh, ynl} = macs( biquads[j].a1, state.b[j+1].xn1, ynh, ynl);
89.          {ynh, ynl} = macs( biquads[j].a2, state.b[j+1].xn2, ynh, ynl);
90.          if (sext(ynh, FRACTIONALBITS) == ynh) {
91.              ynh = (ynh << (32-FRACTIONALBITS)) | (ynl >> FRACTIONALBITS);
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

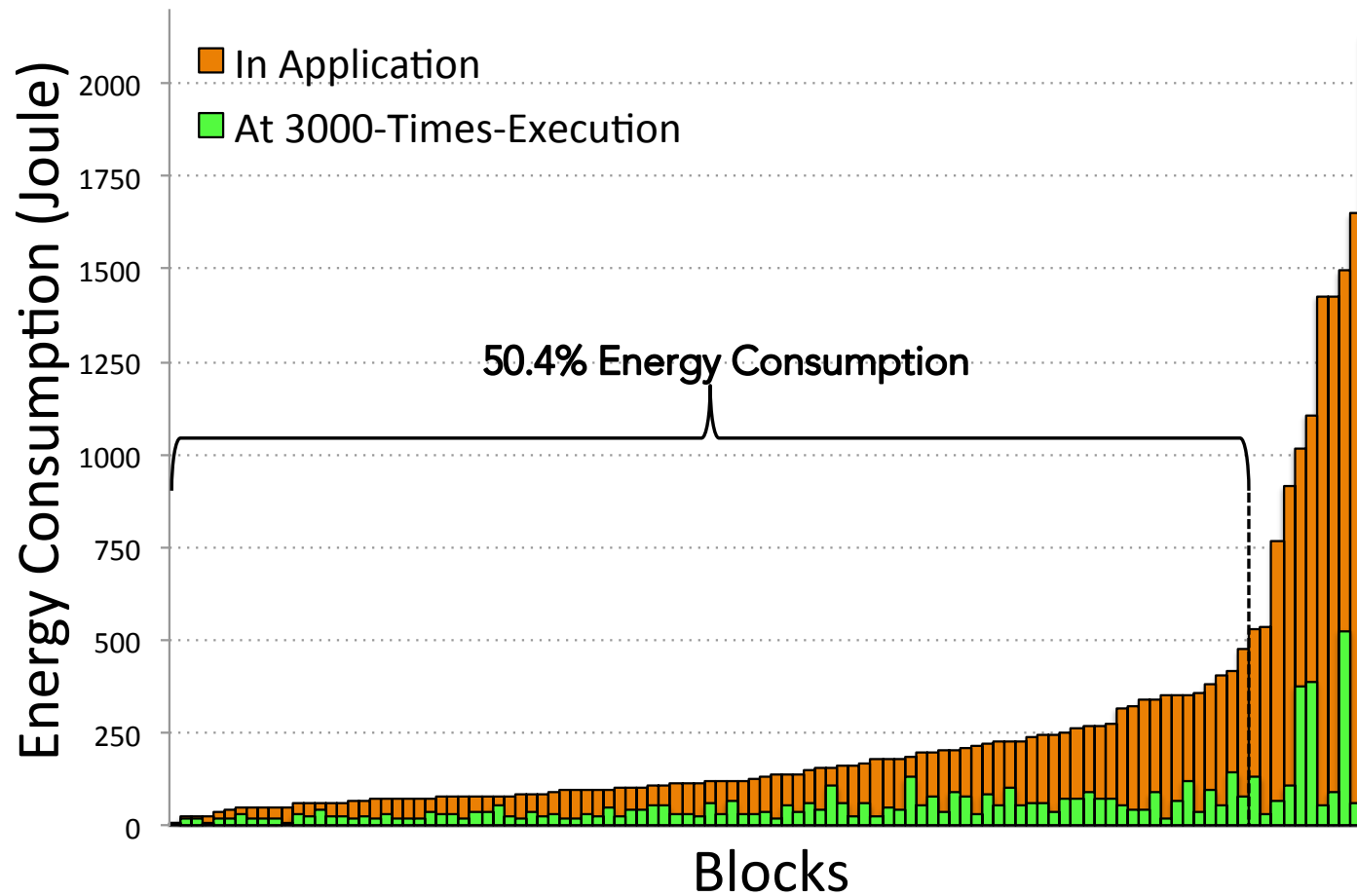
This is an estimate of the energy used by the function.

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;
```

12.3%

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

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

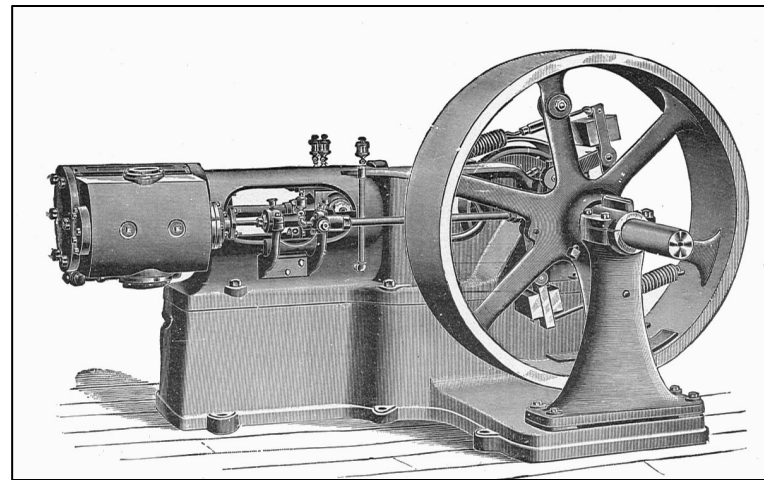
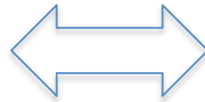
- Tools for the programmer
 - that give information about the energy usage of programs without running them (energy transparency)
 - that allow energy assertions to be checked (energy design goals)

Semantics and program analysis

- 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)

```
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

- 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)

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

- 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

- 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

1. Syntax analysis (parsing)

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

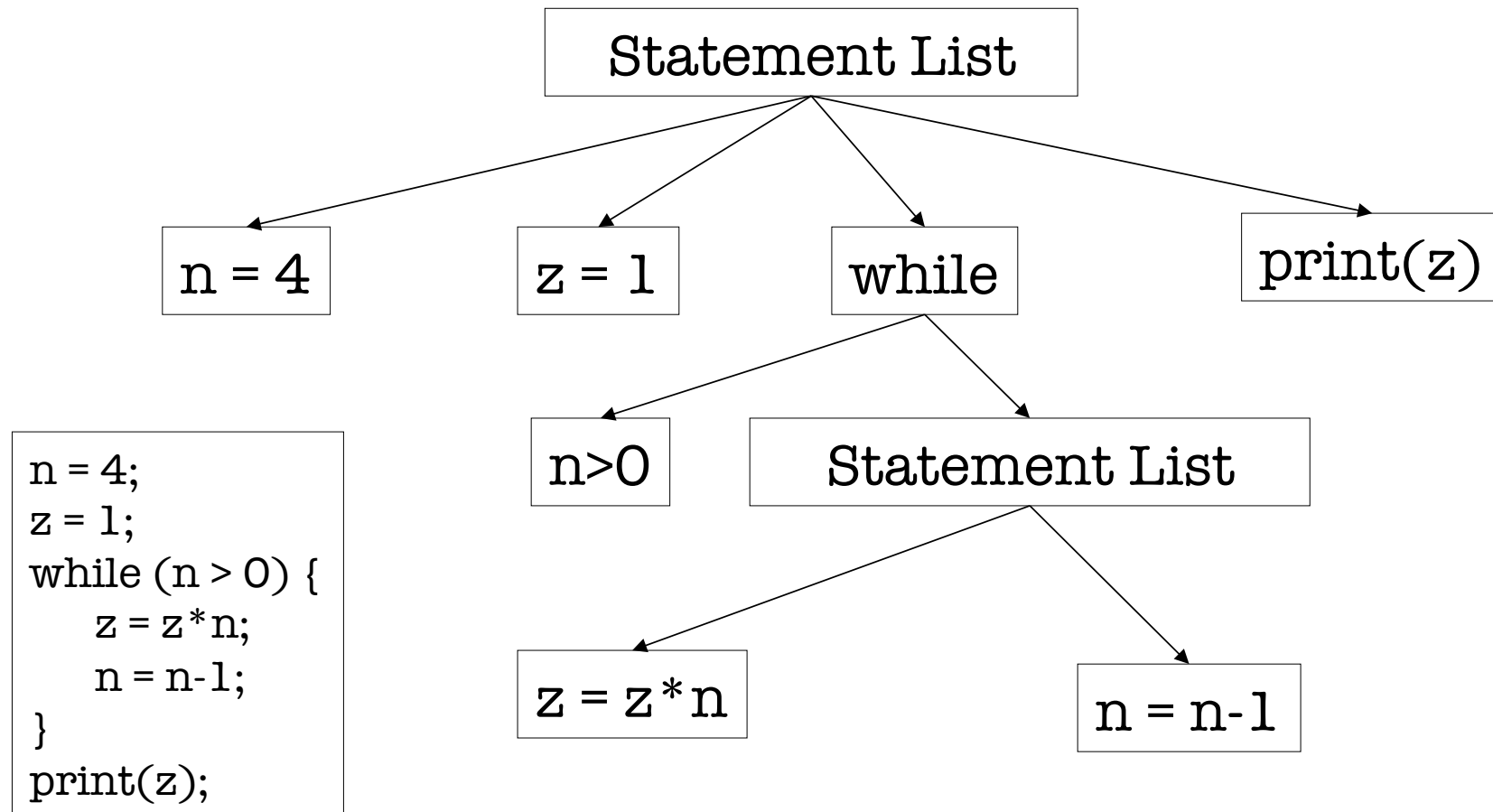
2. Semantic translation

- 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

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

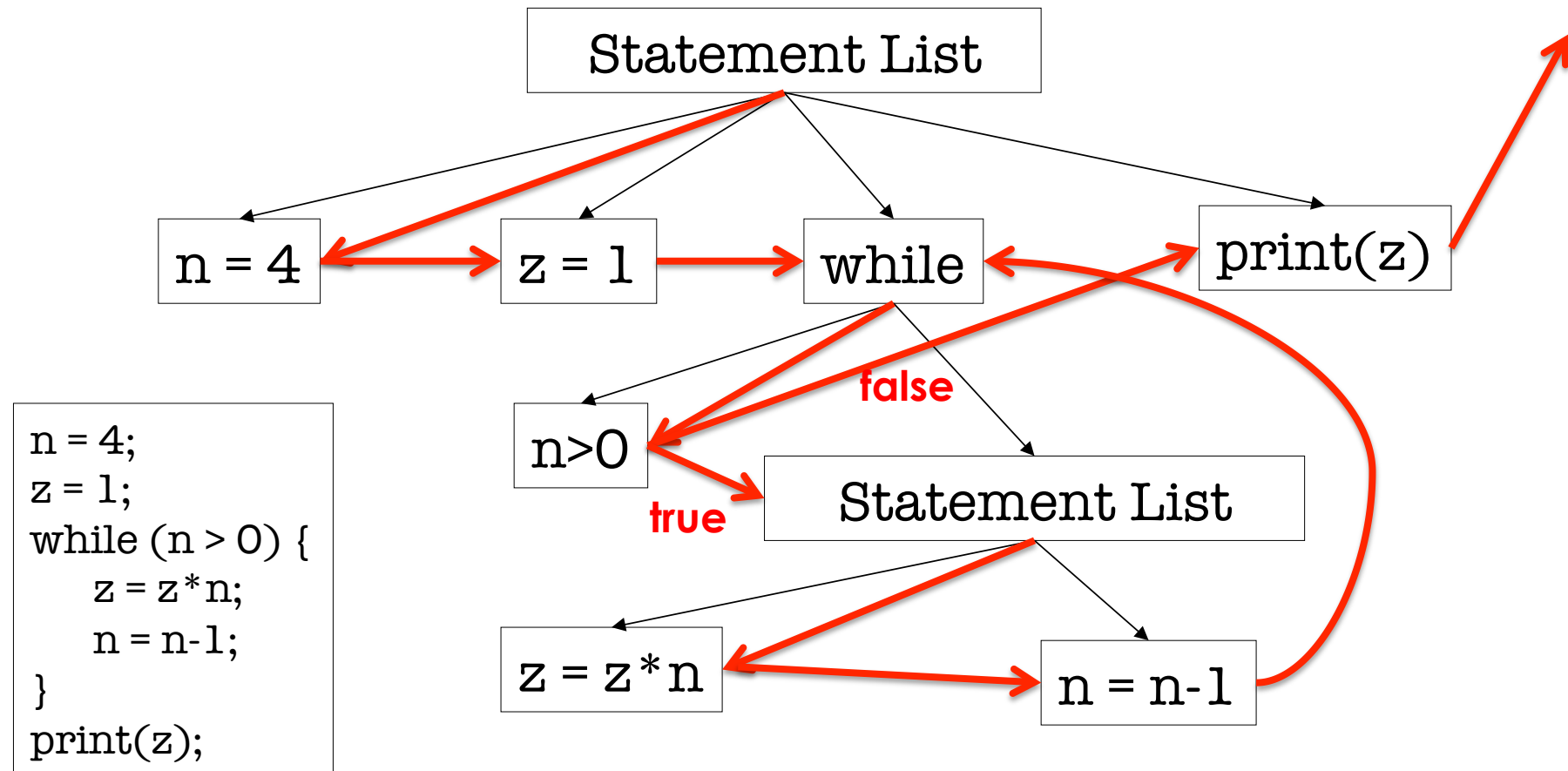
If.next := S.next

While.next := S.next

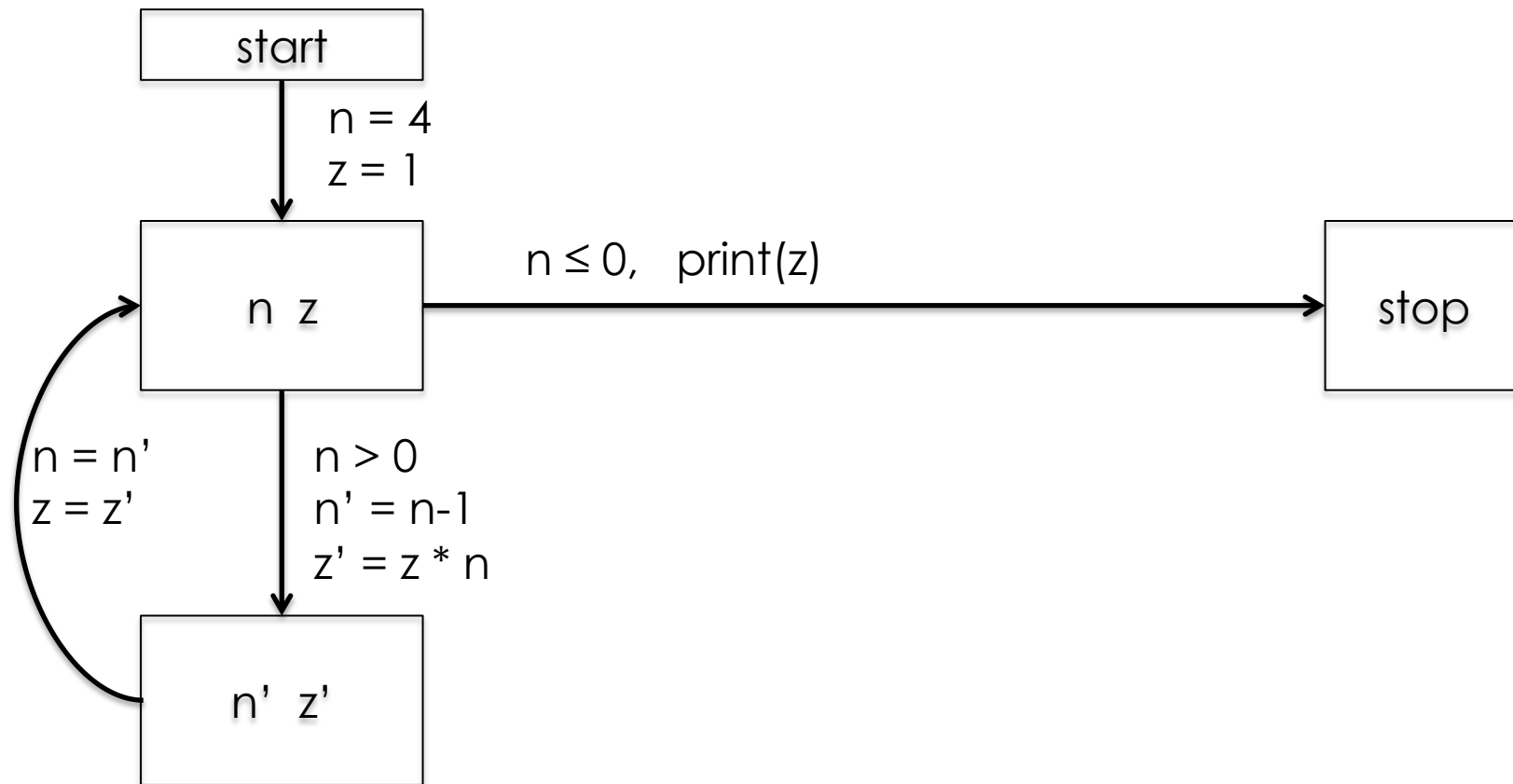
Print.next := S.next

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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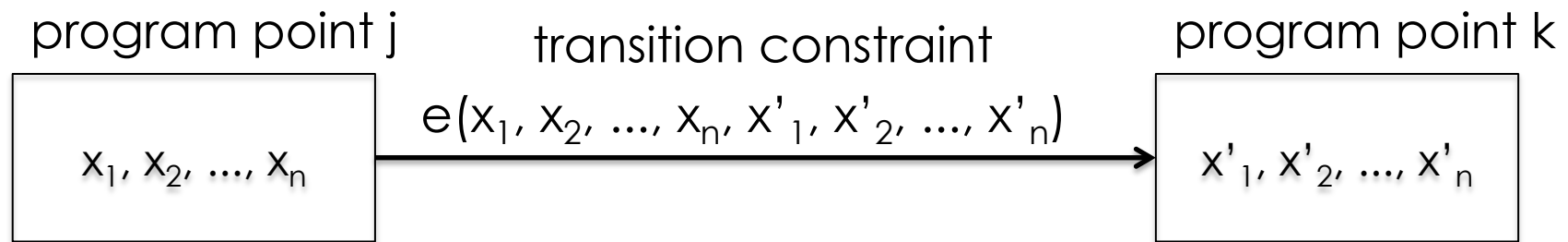
- using the semantic representation to analyse the program execution

From automaton to predicate logic

Horn clauses

```
true → reachable1
(reachable1 ∧ n=4 ∧ z=1)
    → reachable2(n,z)
(reachable2(n,z) ∧ n<0 ∧ z'=z*n ∧ n'=n-1)
    → reachable3(n',z')
(reachable3(n',z') ∧ n=n' ∧ z=z' )
    → reachable2(n,z)
reachable2(n,z) ∧ n ≥ 0 ∧ print(z) )
    → stop
```

Logical representation



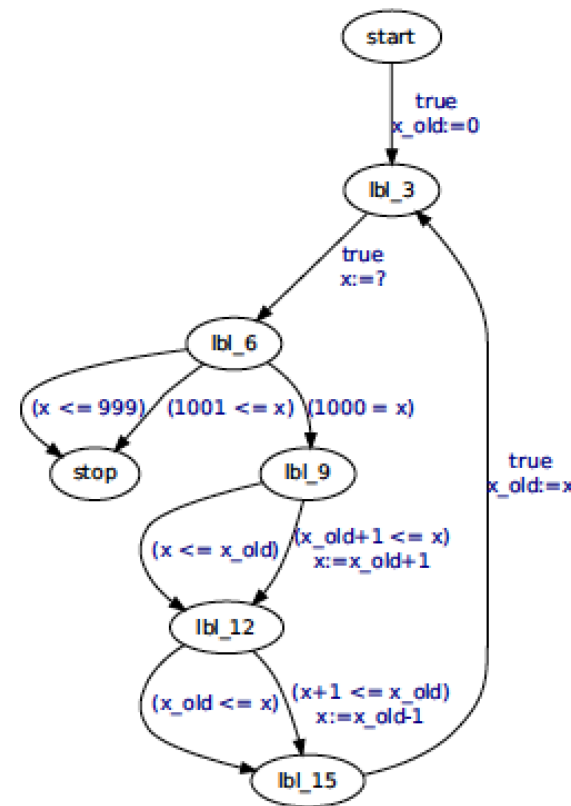
$$(\text{reachable}_j(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \wedge e(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, x'_1, x'_2, \dots, x'_n)) \\ \rightarrow \text{reachable}_k(x'_1, x'_2, \dots, x'_n)$$

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).
```

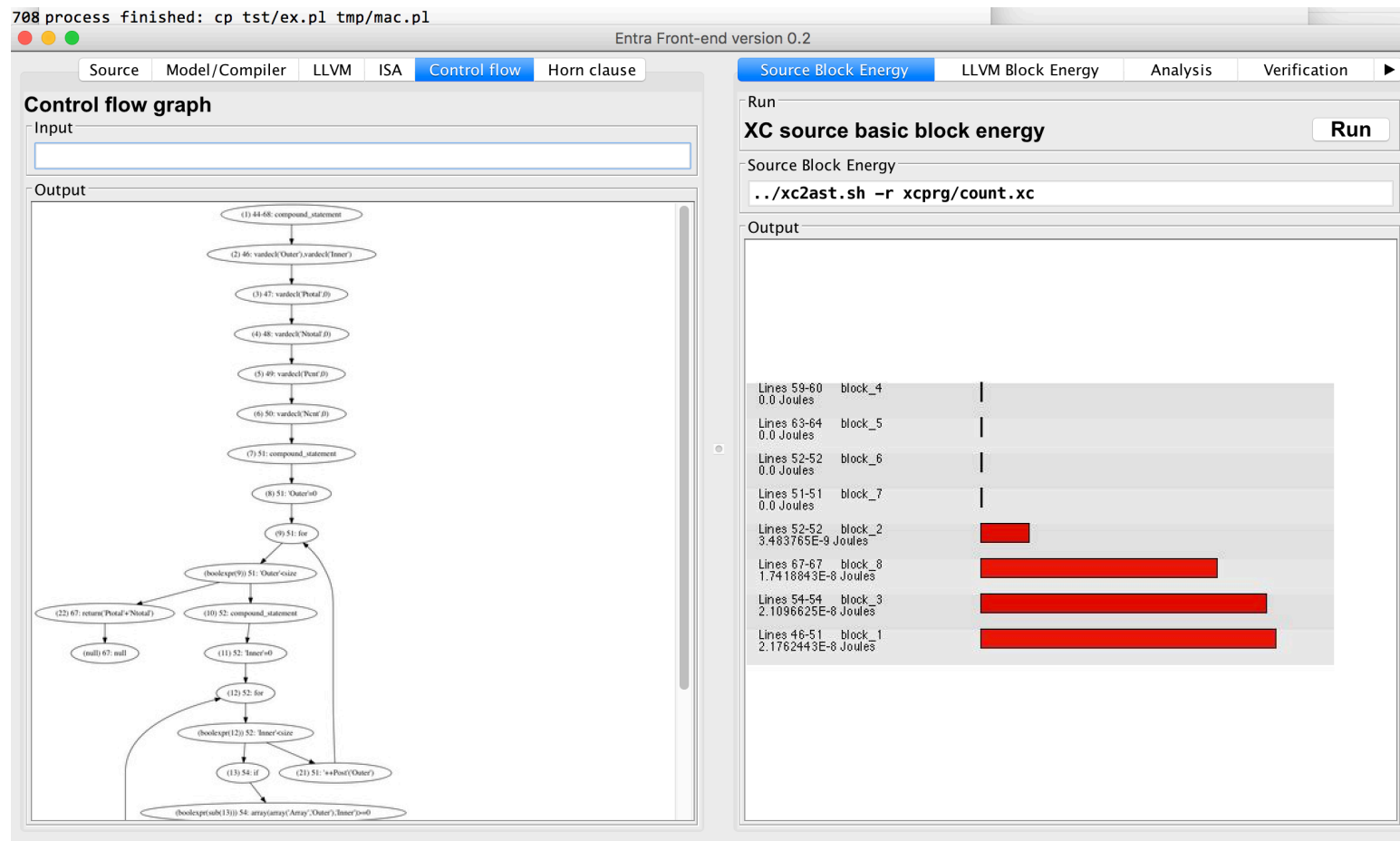
```
r3(X,X_old) :-  
    X < X_old+1,  
    r2(X,X_old).
```

```
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



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

- 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

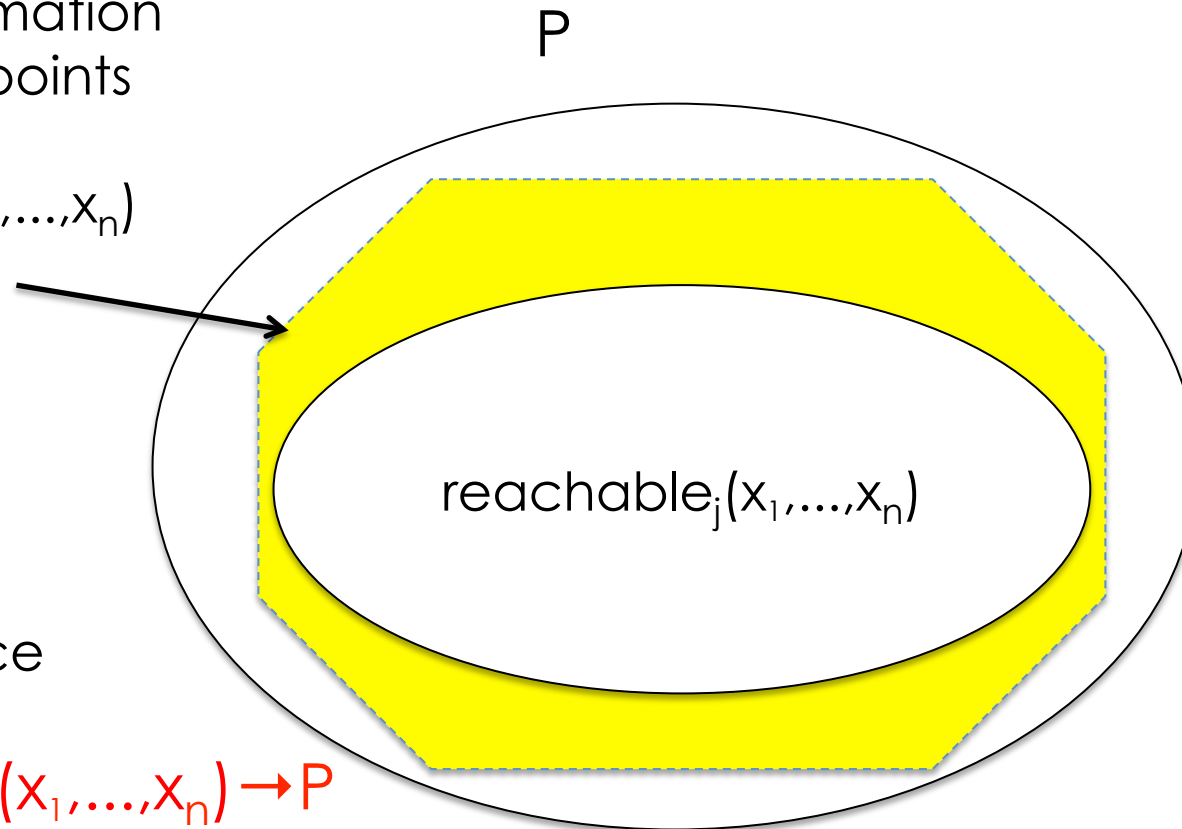
$$\neg(\text{reachable}_j(x_1, \dots, x_n) \wedge \neg P)$$

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

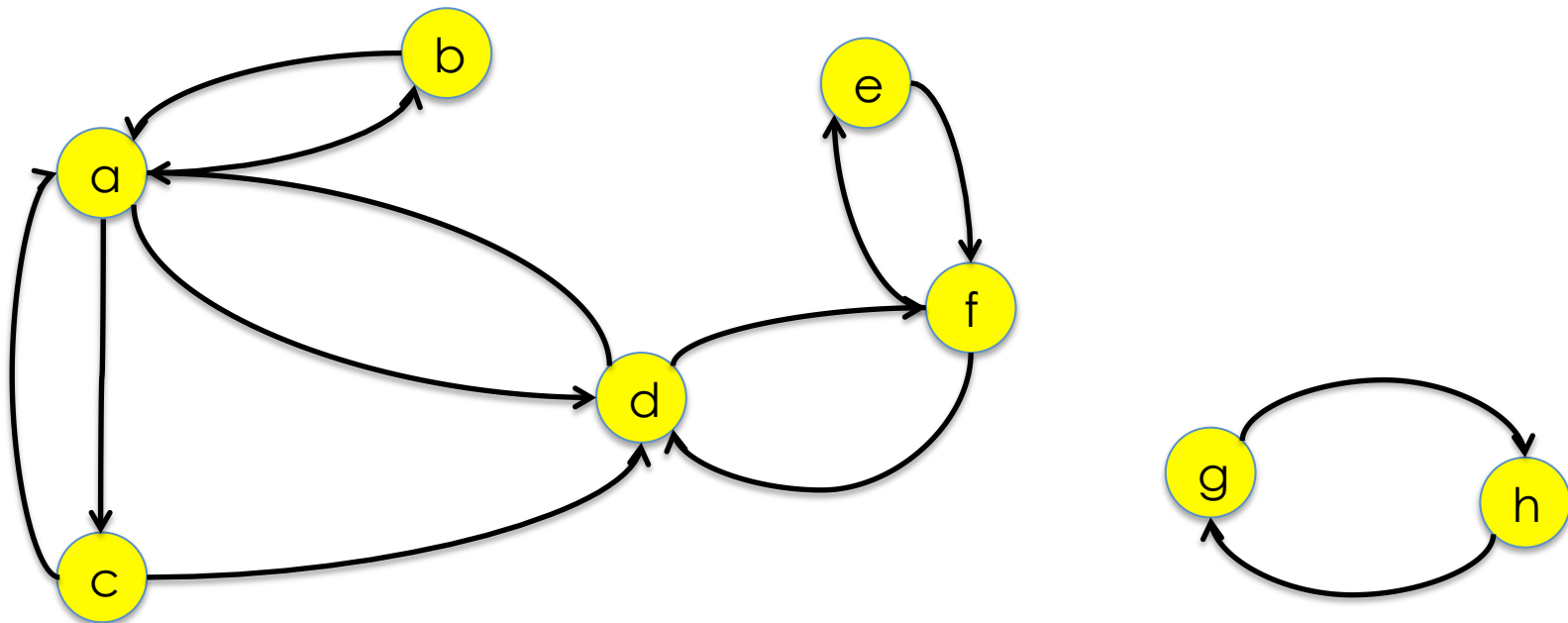
- How to capture all reachable states?
 - answer, **fixpoint** techniques
- How to capture an infinite set of states?
 - answer, **abstract interpretation**
- These two methods underlie much program analysis

Fixpoint computation

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

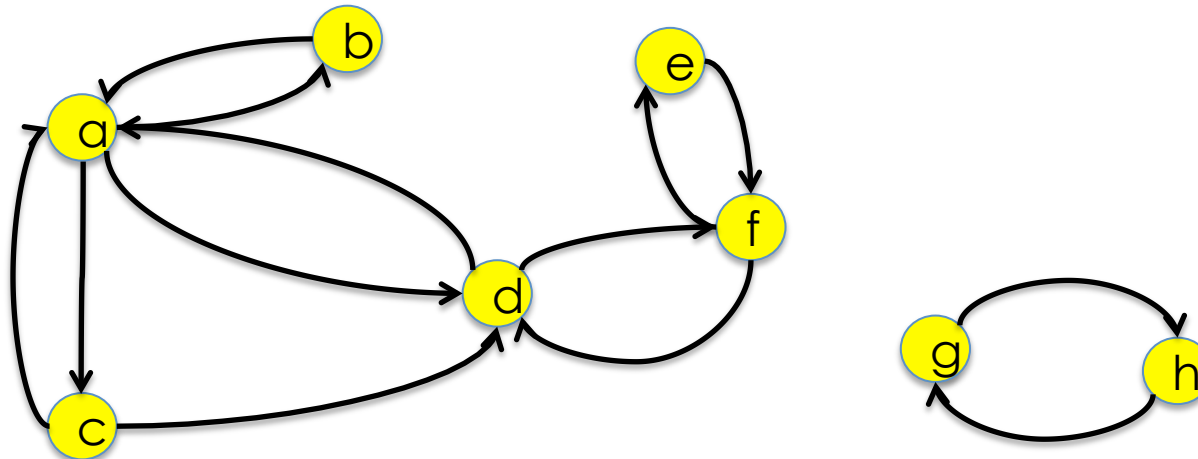
Fixpoint example

- 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

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

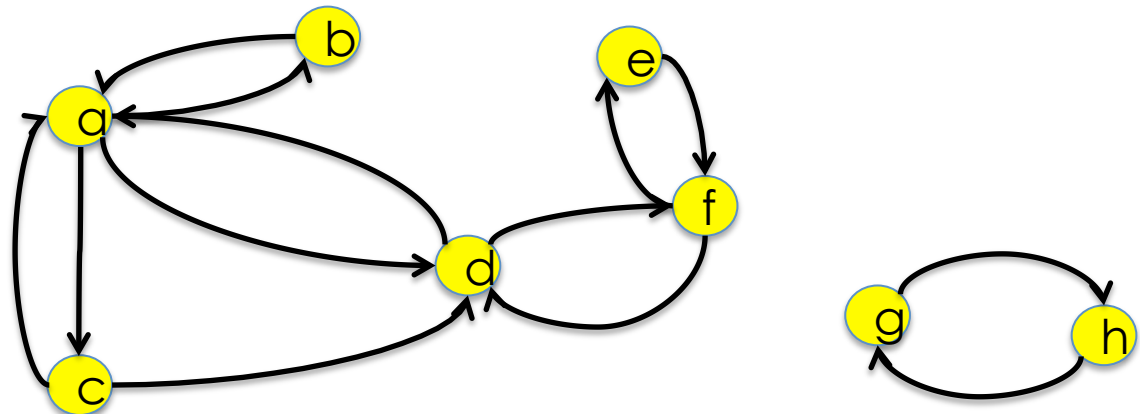
$$F(\{a\}) = \{a, b, c, d\}$$

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

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

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

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

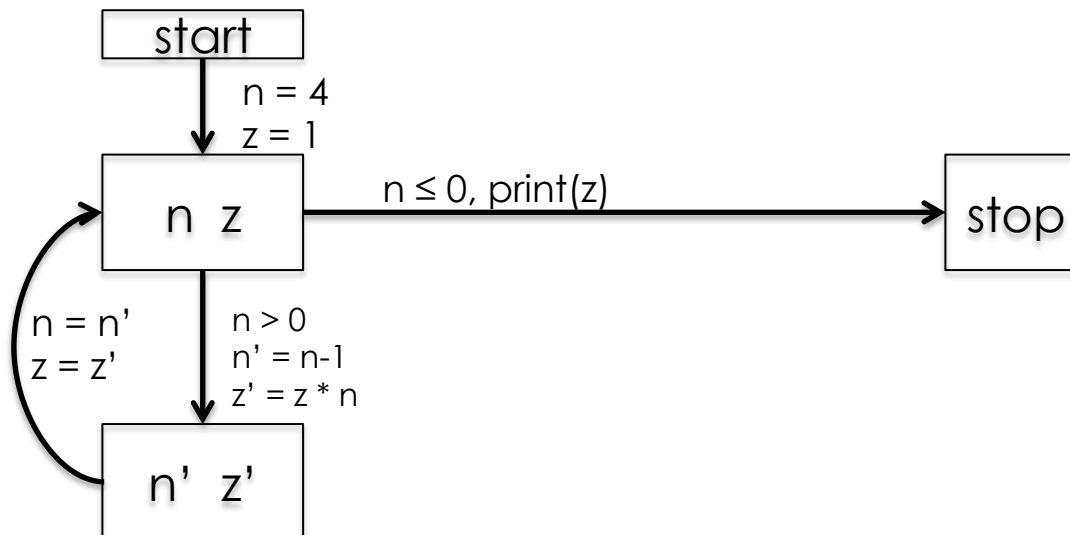


Exercise

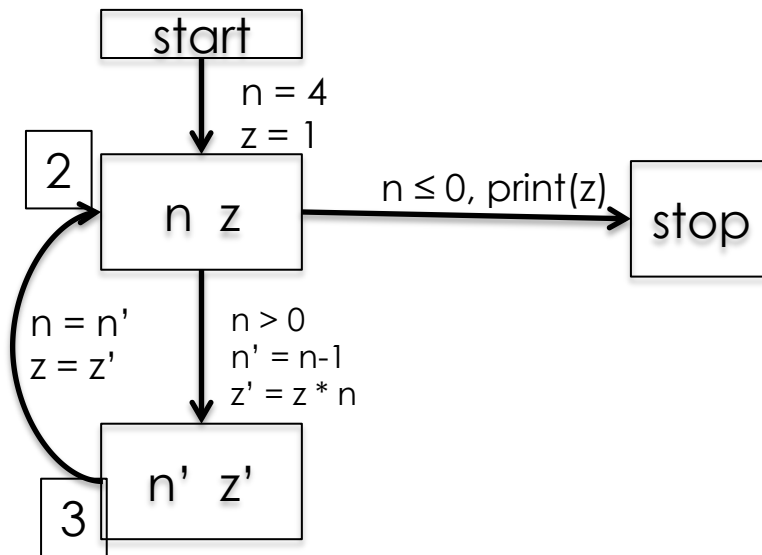
- Using the same graph, compute the set of states reachable from e , using a fixpoint computation.

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

- 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

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

Example convex polyhedron abstraction

```
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

```
r1(I,J) = [I=0,J=10].  
r2(I,J) = [-I >= -16,I >= 0,I+2*J=20].  
r3(I,J) = [-3*I >= -26,3*I >= 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....

- 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**.