Analysis of Temporal-based Program Behavior for Improved Instruction Cache Performance

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Abstract—In this paper we examine temporal-based program interaction in order to improve layout by reducing the probability that program units will conflict in an instruction cache. In that context, we present two profiles-guided procedure reordering algorithms. Both techniques use cache line coloring to arrive at a final program layout and target the elimination of first generation cache conflicts (i.e., conflicts between caller/callee pairs). The first algorithm builds a call graph that records local temporal interaction between procedures. We will describe how the call graph is used to guide the placement step and present methods that accelerate cache line coloring by exploring aggressive graph pruning techniques.

In the second approach we capture global temporal program interaction by constructing a Conflict Miss Graph (CMG). The CMG estimates the worst-case number of misses two competing procedures can inflict upon one another. We use a pruned CMG graph to guide cache line coloring. Using several C and C++ benchmarks, we show the benefits of letting both types of graphs guide procedure reordering to improve instruction cache hit rates.

To contrast the differences between these two forms of temporal interaction, we also develop new characterization streams based on the Inter-Reference Gap (IRG) model.

Keywords—instruction caches, program reordering, temporal locality, conflict misses, graph coloring, graph pruning

I. INTRODUCTION

CACHE memories are found on most microprocessors designed today. Caching the instruction stream can be very beneficial since instruction references exhibit a high degree of spatial and temporal locality. Still, cache misses will occur for one of three reasons [1]:

1. first time reference,
2. finite cache capacity, or
3. memory address conflict.

Our work here is focused on reducing memory address conflicts by rearranging a program on the available memory space. Analysis of program interaction can be performed at a range of granularities, the coarsest being an individual procedure [2]. We begin by considering the procedure Call Graph Ordering (CGO) associated with a program. The CGO captures local temporal interaction by weighting its edges with the number of times one procedure follows another during program execution.

We also consider the interaction of basic blocks contained within procedures by identifying the number of cache lines touched by each basic block in our Conflict Miss Graph (CMG). We do not attempt to move basic blocks or split procedures [3] though. We weight CMG edges by measuring global temporal interaction between procedures occurring in a finite window, containing as many entries as there are cache lines. Program interaction outside this window is not of interest because of the finite cache effect. We use these graphs as input to our coloring algorithm to produce an improved code layout for instruction caches.

To characterize the temporal behavior captured by these graphs, we extend the Inter-Reference Gap (IRG) model [4]. We define three new IRG-based streams that describe different levels of procedure-based temporal interaction. We show how we can use them to compare the temporal content between the CGO, CMG and the Temporal Relationship Graph (TRG) (as described by Gloy et al. in [5]).

There has been a considerable amount of work done on code repositioning for improved instruction cache performance [3], [5], [6], [7], [8], [9], [10]. In the following section we discuss some of this work, as it relates to our work here.

A. Related Work

Pettis and Hansen [3] employ procedure and basic block reordering as well as procedure splitting based on frequency counts to minimize instruction cache conflicts. The layout of a program is directed by traversing call graph edges in decreasing edge weight order using a closest-is-best placement strategy. Chains are formed by merging nodes, laying them out next to each other until the entire graph is processed.

A number of related techniques have been proposed, focusing on mapping loops [6], operating system code [10], traces [9], and activity sets [7]. Two other approaches discussed in [8] and [11] reorganize code based on compile-time information.

The profile-guided algorithms described above use calling frequencies to weight a graph and guide placement [3], [6], [9], [10]. Our first approach also uses calling frequencies but improves performance by intelligently placing procedures in the cache by coloring cache lines. The second algorithm described in this paper captures global temporal information and attempts to minimize conflicts present between procedures that do not immediately follow each other during execution. It is similar in spirit with the approach described in [5], with some differences that will be highlighted in Section V. Also, our graph coloring algorithm works at a finer level of granularity (cache line size instead
of cache size \([6, 11]\), and can avoid conflicts encountered when either forming chains with the closest-is-best heuristic \([3]\) or dealing with subgraphs having a size larger than the cache.

This paper is organized as follows. In Sections II and III we describe our graph construction algorithms. Section II describes an improved graph pruning technique. In Section IV we report simulation results. Section V reviews the IRG temporal analysis model and presents new methods for characterizing program interaction.

II. CALL GRAPH ORDERING

Program layout may involve two steps: 1) constructing a graph-based representation of the program and 2) using the graph to perform layout of the program on the available memory space. A Call Graph is a procedure graph having edges between procedures that call each other. The edges are weighted with the call/return frequency captured in the program profile. Each procedure is mapped to a single vertex, with all call paths between any two procedures condensed into a single edge between the two vertices in the graph. Edge weights can be derived from profiling information or estimated from the program control flow \([8, 12]\). In this paper we concentrate on profile-based edge weights.

After constructing the Call Graph we lay out the program using cache line coloring. We start by dividing the cache into a set of colors, one color for each cache line. For each procedure, we count the number of cache lines needed to hold the procedure, record the cache colors used to map the procedure, and keep track of the unavailable-set of colors (i.e., the cache lines where the procedure should not be mapped to).

We define the popular procedure set as those procedures which are frequently visited. The popular edge set contains the frequently traversed edges. The rest of the procedures (and edges) will be called unpopular. Unpopular procedures are pruned from the graph. Pruning reduces the amount of work for placement, and allows us to focus on the procedures most likely to encounter misses. A discussion of the base pruning algorithm used can be found in \([2]\).

Note, there is a difference between popular procedures and procedures that consume a noticeable portion of a program’s overall execution time. A time consuming procedure may be labeled unpopular because it rarely switches control flow to another procedure. If a procedure rarely switches control flow, it causes a small number of conflicts misses with the rest of procedures.

The algorithm sorts the popular edges in descending edge weight order. We then traverse the sorted popular edge list, inspect the state (i.e., mapped or unmapped) of the two procedures forming the edge and map the procedures using heuristics. Figure 1 provides a pseudo code description of color mapping. A more complete description can be found in \([2]\). This process is repeated until all of the edges in the popular set have been processed. The unpopular procedures fill the holes left from coloring using a simple depth-first traversal of the unpopular edges joining them.

The algorithm in Fig.1 assumes a direct-mapped cache organization. For associative caches our algorithm breaks up the address space into chunks, equal in size to \((\text{number of cache sets} \times \text{cache line size})\). Therefore, the number of sets represents the number of available colors in the mapping. The modified color mapping algorithm keeps track of the number of times each color \((\text{set})\) appears in the procedure’s unavailable-set of colors. Mapping a procedure to a color \((\text{set})\) does not cause any conflicts as long as the number of times that color \((\text{set})\) appears in the unavailable-set of colors is less than the degree of associativity of the cache.

Next, we look at how to efficiently eliminate a majority of the work spent on coloring by using an aggressive graph pruning algorithm.

A. Pruning Rules For Procedure Call Graphs

Pruning a call graph is done using a fixed threshold value (selected edge weight) \([2]\). In this section we present pruning rules that can reduce the size of the graph that is used in cache coloring. They are specifically designed to reduce
C = number of lines in the cache;  
N = number of procedures P (nodes) in graph G;  
NodeWeight_i = Sum of all incident edges on  
procedure Pi in Graph G;  
Sort procedures based on increasing  
NodeWeight order;  
DO WHILE (at least one procedure in pruned) {  
FOR EACH unpruned procedure Pi {  
   num_i = number of neighbors of Pi;  
   size_i = number of cache lines comprising Pi;  
   sum_size_i = sum of the sizes of the num_i  
   neighbors of Pi;  
   C = (num_i * (size_i - 1)) * sum_size_i;  
   if (C < C_0) {  
      Prune procedure Pi and all edges  
      incident on Pi;  
      N--;  
    }  
   }  
} END_IF  
} END_FOR_EACH  
} END_DO WHILE

Fig. 2. Pseudo code for our C* pruning rule.

the number of first-generation cache conflicts.

We assume we are using a direct-mapped cache containing  
C cache lines. The program is represented as an undi- 
drected graph (P,E) where nodes i ∈ P represent procedures  
and each edge (i,j) ∈ E represents a procedure call in the  
program. The number of cache lines spanned by each pro- 
cedure is size_i. For each edge (i,j), weight[i,j] is the num- 
ber of times procedures i and j follow one another in the  
control flow (in either order).

A procedure mapping M is an assignment of each pro- 
cedure i to size[i] adjacent cache lines within the cache  
(with wraparound). The cost of a procedure mapping is  
the sum of all weight[i,j] for all procedures i and j, such  
that (i,j) ∈ E and i and j overlap in the cache. An optimal  
mapping is one that is less costly than any other mapping.

Note that the cost of a mapping depends only on the  
number of immediately adjacent procedures whose map- 
pings in the cache conflict. Conflicts between procedures  
that do not call one another are not considered. Further- 
more, the cost of assigning two adjacent procedures i and  
j to conflicting cache lines is a constant, equal to the num- 
ber of conflicts, even though the actual number of replaced  
cache lines may be smaller.

B. C* Pruning Rule

Consider a cache mapping problem P. It is possible to  
determine in some cases that a particular node i will be  
able to be mapped to the cache without causing any con- 
flicts, regardless of where in the cache all adjacent nodes  
are eventually mapped. In this case, i, and all edges con- 
ected to i, can be deleted from the graph, creating a new  
cache mapping problem P' with one less node. Figure 2  
provides pseudo code for our pruning algorithm.

This pruning rule is a generalization of the rules de- 
scribed in [13] to perform graph coloring. The graph col- 
oring problem is to assign one of K colors to the nodes of  
the graph such that adjacent nodes are not assigned the  
same color. If a node has K - 1 neighbors it can be deleted  
because, regardless of how its neighbors are eventually col- 
ored, there will definitely be at least one color left over that  
can be assigned to it. The deleted nodes are then colored  
in the reverse order of their deletion.

The remaining (non-prunable) graph is passed to our col-
oring algorithm. Once coloring has been performed, each  
pruned node must be mapped. The nodes are laid out in  
the opposite order of their deletion.

III. Conflict Miss Graphs

Next we consider cache misses which can occur between  
procedures many procedures away in the call graph, as well  
as on different call chains [14]. We capture temporal in-
formation by weighting the edges of a procedure graph with  
an estimation of the worst case number of conflict misses  
that can occur between any two procedures. We then use  
the graph to apply cache line coloring to place procedures  
in the cache address space. We call this graph a Conflict  
Miss Graph (CMG).

The complete algorithm is described in [14]. We sum-
marize it here and will contrast it with the CGO in Section V  
using Inter-Reference Gap analysis.

A. Conflict Miss Graph Construction

The CMG is built using profile data. We assume a worst-
case scenario where procedures completely overlap in the  
cache address space every time they interact. Given a cache  
configuration we determine the size of a procedure P_i  
in cache lines. We also compute the number of unique cache  
lines spanned by every basic block executed by a procedure,  
l_i. We identify the first time a basic block is executed, and  
label those references as globally unique accesses, g_i.

The CMG is an undirected procedure graph with edges  
being weighted according to our worst case miss model [14].  
The edge weights are updated based on the contents of an  
N-entry table, where N is the number of cache lines. The  
table is fully-associative and uses an LRU replacement pol- 
cy. Every entry (i.e., cache line) in the table is called  
live. A procedure that has at least one live cache line is  
also called live. When P_i is activated, we update the edge  
weights between P_i and all procedures that have at least  
one live cache line and were activated since the last acti-
vation of P_i (if this last activation is captured in the LRU  
table). The LRU table allows us to estimate the finite cache  
effect.

We increment the CMG edge weight between P_i and a  
live procedure P_j by the minimum of: (i) the accumulated  
number of unique live cache lines of P_j (since P_i’s last oc-
currence) and (ii) the number of unique cache lines of P_j’s  
current activation (excluding cold-start misses). A detailed  
example of updating CMG edge weights can be found in  
[14].

CMG edge weights are more accurate than CGO edge  
weights because (i) CGO edge weights do not record the  
number of cache lines that may conflict per call, and (ii)  
interaction between procedures that do not directly call  
each other is not captured.
IV. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

We use trace-driven simulation to quantify the instruction cache performance of the resulting layouts. Traces are generated using ATOM [15] on a DEC 3000 AX P workstation running Digital Unix V4.0. All applications are compiled with the DEC C V5.2 and DEC C++ V5.5 compilers. The same input is used to train the algorithm and gather performance results. We simulated an 8KB, direct-mapped, instruction cache with a 32-byte line size (similar in design to the DEC Alpha 21064 and 21164 instruction caches). Our benchmark suite includes perl from SPECINT95, flex (generator of lexical analyzers), gs (ghostscript postscript viewer) and bison is a C parser generator. It also includes PC++2dep (C++ front-end written in C/C++), f2dep (Fortran front-end written in C/C++), dep2C++ (C/C++ program translating Sage internal representation to C++ code) and ixx (IDL parser written in C++).

Table I presents the static and dynamic characteristics of the benchmarks. Column 2 shows the input used to both test and train our algorithms. Columns 3-5 list the total number of instructions executed, the static size of the application in kilobytes and the number of static procedures in the program. Column 6 presents the percentage of the program that contains popular procedures in the CMG while column 7 contains the percentage of procedures that were found to be popular (for CMG). The last column presents the percentage of unactivated procedures used to fill in the gaps left from the color mapping.

To prune the CMG graph, we form the popular set from those procedures that are connected by edges that contribute up to 80% of the total sum of edge weights in the CMG [14]. Notice that the pruning algorithm reduces the size of the CMG by 80-97%, and reduces the size of the executable by 77.7-94.5% of the executable. This allows us to concentrate on the important procedures in the program.

A. Simulation Results

We compare simulation results against the ordering produced by the DEC compiler (static DFS ordering of procedures) and CGO using a fixed threshold value for pruning (no aggressive pruning was employed).

Table II shows the instruction cache miss rates. In all cases, the same inputs were used for both training and testing. The first column denotes the application while columns 2-4 (7-9) shows the instruction cache miss rates (number of cache misses) for DFS, CGO and CMG respectively. Columns 5 and 6 show the relative improvement of CMG over DFS and CGO respectively.

As we can see from Table II, the average instruction cache miss rate for CMG is reduced by 30% on average over the DFS ordering, and by 21% on average over the CGO ordering. CMG improves performance against both static DFS and CGO over all benchmarks except bison, flex and gs. Bison and flex already have a very low miss rate and no further improvement can be achieved. gs has a large number of popular procedures that can not be mapped in the cache with significant reduction of the miss rate.

Next, we apply the pruning C* pruning rule to CGO for four benchmarks, bison, flex, gs, and perl. We have also tried to apply this approach to CMG, but found we were unable to significantly reduce the size of the graph. As shown in Tables III and IV, the pruning rule deletes all 125 nodes from bison and completely eliminates all first-generation conflict misses. Similarly, most of the nodes are pruned from the other benchmarks, accompanied by a significant drop in the number of first-generation conflict misses. However, this drop is most of the times followed by an increase in the total number of misses. By deleting nodes and edges that do not contribute to first-generation conflict misses, the coloring algorithm is deprived of information that can be used to prevent higher order misses. In the case of the bison benchmark, the nodes are inserted into the mapping with complete disregard for higher order conflicts.

These results suggest that node pruning rules such as C* can be useful as part of a cache conflict reduction strategy, but only when paired with other techniques that prevent higher order cache conflicts from canceling out the benefits of reducing first-order conflicts.

B. Input training sensitivity

Since our procedure reordering algorithm is profile-driven, we tried different training and test input files as shown in Table V. Column 2 (3) has the training (test) input while column 4 shows the size of the traces in millions of instructions for the test and the training inputs (the last one in parentheses). The last three columns present the miss ratios for each of the algorithms simulated.

As we can see from Table V, although the performance of both the CGO and the CMG approach drops compared to the simulations using the same inputs, the relative advantage of CMG against CGO and static DFS still remains. In fact the performance gain is of the same order for all benchmarks, i.e. CGO and CMG achieve similar performance for bison and gs, while CMG improves significantly the miss ratio of ixx.

V. TEMPORAL LOCALITY AND PROCEDURE-BASED IRG

Next we characterize the temporal interaction exposed by CGO, CMG and the Temporal Relationship Graph (TRG) [5] using an extended version of the Inter-Reference Gap (IRG) model [4].

A. Procedure-based IRG

In [4], Phalke and Gopinath define the IRG for an address as the number of memory references between successive references to that address. An IRG stream for an address in a trace is the sequence of successive IRG values for that address and can be used to characterize its temporal locality. Similarly, we can measure the temporal locality of larger program granules such as basic blocks, cache lines or procedures. The accuracy of the newly generated IRG stream depends on the interval granularity. In this work we set the program unit under study to be a procedure while we vary the interval definition.
TABLE I
Attributes of traced applications. The attributes include the number of executed instructions, the application executable size, the number of static procedures, the percentage of program's size occupied by popular procedures, the percentage of procedures that were found to be popular and the percentage of unactivated procedures that were used to fill memory gaps left after applying coloring.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program</th>
<th>Input</th>
<th>Exec Size</th>
<th># Static Pros</th>
<th>Pop Pros</th>
<th>Unpop Pros</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>perl</td>
<td>primes</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>512</td>
<td>671</td>
<td>4.9 (20.1K)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flex</td>
<td>fstat</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>14.8 (16.6K)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bison</td>
<td>objparse</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>22.4 (25.1K)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pC+++2dep</td>
<td>sample</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>9.5 (45.7K)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f2dep</td>
<td>f77.3</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>456</td>
<td>700</td>
<td>7.7 (35.2K)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dep2C++</td>
<td>sample</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>560</td>
<td>1358</td>
<td>4.8 (27.1K)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gs</td>
<td>tiger</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>496</td>
<td>1410</td>
<td>12.9 (64.0K)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ixx</td>
<td>layout</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>472</td>
<td>1581</td>
<td>5.7 (27.2K)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE II
Instruction cache performance for static DFS, CGO and CMG-based reordering. Column 1 lists the application. Columns 2-4 show the instruction miss rates. The next two show the percent improvement over each by our algorithm. The last three columns show the number of instruction cache misses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program</th>
<th>DFS</th>
<th>CGO</th>
<th>CMG</th>
<th>Reduction</th>
<th># 1-Cache Misses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>perl</td>
<td>4.72%</td>
<td>4.40%</td>
<td>3.77%</td>
<td>1.04%</td>
<td>798.251</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flex</td>
<td>0.53%</td>
<td>0.45%</td>
<td>0.45%</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>308.123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bison</td>
<td>0.04%</td>
<td>0.04%</td>
<td>0.05%</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>30.179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pC+++2dep</td>
<td>4.72%</td>
<td>4.04%</td>
<td>3.68%</td>
<td>1.04%</td>
<td>606.376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f2dep</td>
<td>1.39%</td>
<td>1.71%</td>
<td>1.48%</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>1.680.610</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dep2C++</td>
<td>3.82%</td>
<td>3.86%</td>
<td>3.11%</td>
<td>1.00%</td>
<td>1.680.610</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gs</td>
<td>3.45%</td>
<td>2.09%</td>
<td>2.10%</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>1.680.610</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ixx</td>
<td>4.85%</td>
<td>4.49%</td>
<td>3.59%</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>1.680.610</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE III
The results of applying the $C^*$ pruning rules to Call Graphs for four applications. Passes refer to pruning iterations over the graph. The algorithm is finished when no more nodes can be pruned in the graph.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program</th>
<th>Input</th>
<th>Pruned</th>
<th>Pruned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1st pass</td>
<td>2nd pass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bison</td>
<td>objparse</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flex</td>
<td>fstat</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gs</td>
<td>tiger</td>
<td>512</td>
<td>513</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>peri</td>
<td>primes</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE IV
The results of applying the $C^*$ pruning rules to Call Graphs for four applications. Cache parameters are the same as those used above.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program</th>
<th>CGO</th>
<th>first order</th>
<th>higher order</th>
<th>$C^*$</th>
<th>first order</th>
<th>higher order</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bison</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>1316</td>
<td>19812</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>70888</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flex</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>55004</td>
<td>30280</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>12407</td>
<td>55233</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gs</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td>530908</td>
<td>668066</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>25933</td>
<td>791567</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>peri</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>99327</td>
<td>473070</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>92914</td>
<td>462066</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The original IRG model exploits the temporal locality of a single procedure, but not the temporal interaction between procedures. Therefore, we redefine the IRG value for a procedure pair \( A, B \) as the number of unique activated procedures between invocations of \( A \) and \( B \). We refer to this value as the \textit{Inter-Reference Procedure Gap} (IRPG). The CGO edge weights record part of the IRPG stream since they capture the IRPG values of length 1.

In the TRG every node represents a procedure and every edge is weighted by the number of times procedure \( A \) follows \( B \) and vice versa only when both of them are found inside a moving time window. The window includes previously invoked procedures and its size is proportional to the size of the cache. The window's contents are managed as an LRU queue. The temporal interaction recorded by a TRG can be characterized by the \textit{Inter-Reference Intermediate Line Gap} (IRILG) whose elements are equal to the number of unique cache lines activated between successive \( A \) and \( B \) invocations. The decision of when to update a TRG edge depends on the size of the window, or equivalently on the values present in the IRILG stream. The edge weight is simply the count of all IRILG elements with a value less than the predefined window size. The TRG captures temporal interaction at a more detailed level than CGO because the IRILG stream is richer in content than the IRPG stream.

The CMG edge weight between procedures \( A \) and \( B \) is updated only when \( A \) and \( B \) follow one another inside a moving time window proportional in size to the cache size. A CMG edge weight is updated whenever the IRILG value is less than the window size. In both the TRG and the CMG, procedures interact as long as they are found inside the time window. A CMG, however, replaces procedures in the time window based on the age of individual lines in a procedure [14], while a TRG manages replacement on an entire procedure basis [5].

In addition, a CMG edge weight between \( A \) and \( B \) is incremented by the minimum of the unique live cache lines of the successive invocations of \( A \) and \( B \). The TRG simply counts the number of times \( A \) and \( B \) follow each other. We define the \textit{Inter-Reference Active Line Set} (IRALS) for a procedure pair as the sequence of the number of unique live cache lines referenced between any successive occurrences of \( A \) and \( B \). Each IRALS element value is computed according to the \textit{Worst Case Miss} analysis presented in Section III. A CMG edge weight is equal to the sum of the IRALS values whose corresponding IRILG values are less than the window size.

Table VI shows the IRPG, IRILG, and IRALS element frequency distribution for two edges in the ixz benchmark. The selected edges have the 4th and 12th highest calling frequency in the CGO popular edge list and are labeled as \( e_4 \) and \( e_{12} \) respectively. We classify the stream values in the ranges shown in columns 1, 4 and 7, and present per stream frequency distributions in columns 2-3, 5-6 and 8-9. The numbers in parentheses indicate how closely CGO approximates the temporal information captured by the stream under consideration. For example, while 66.1% of IRILG elements for \( e_{12} \) lie in the range between 2 and 10 unique cache lines, only 62.4% of them are recorded in the CGO.

The 3 different approaches to edge weighting have significant impact on the global edge ordering and the final procedure placement.

![Fig. 3. Relative edge ordering for the intersection of the CMG and CGO popular edge orderings in ixz.](image-url)
the CGO one) and the different pruning algorithms used. Although a lot of highly weighted edges maintained their relative positions, the significant performance improvement for CMG came from edges that were promoted higher in the edge list ordering.

Table VII shows the intersection between the CMG and CGO popular procedure and edge sets. Columns 2-4 (5-7) list the CGO and CMG popular procedure (edge) sets along with their intersection. The numbers shown in Table VII are sensitive to the pruning algorithm, but they are compared to better illustrate the differences between the CMG and CGO approach. Although one procedure set is always the superset of the other, the CMG edge list is always larger than the CGO edge list.

VI. ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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VII. CONCLUSIONS

The performance of cache-based memory systems is critical in today's processors. Research has shown that compiler optimizations can significantly reduce memory latency, and every opportunity should be taken by the compiler to do so.

In this paper we presented two profile-guided algorithms for procedure reordering which take into consideration not only the procedure size but the cache organization as well. While CGO attempts to minimize first-generation conflicts, CMG targets higher generation misses. Both approaches use pruned graph models to guide procedure placement via cache line coloring. The CMG algorithm improved instruction cache miss rates on average by 30% over a static depth first search of procedures, and by 21% over CGO.

We also introduced three new sequences (IRPG, IRILG and IRALS) based on the IRG model, to better characterize the contents of each graph model.

REFERENCES


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TABLE VII

INTERSECTIONS OF THE CMG AND CGO POPULAR PROCEDURE AND EDGE SETS.


