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Branch Prediction and the Performance of Interpreters – Don’t Trust Folklore

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Abstract

Interpreters have been used in many contexts. They provide portability and ease of development at the expense of performance. The literature of the past decade covers analysis of why interpreters are slow, and many software techniques to improve them. A large proportion of these works focuses on the dispatch loop, and in particular on the implementation of the switch statement: typically an indirect branch instruction. Folklore attributes a significant penalty to this branch, due to its high misprediction rate. We revisit this assumption, considering state-of-the-art branch predictors and the three most recent Intel processor generations on current interpreters. Using both hardware counters on Haswell, the latest Intel processor generation, and simulation of the ITTAGE, we show that the accuracy of indirect branch prediction is no longer critical for interpreters. We further compare the characteristics of these interpreters and analyze why the indirect branch is less important than before.

1. Introduction

Interpreters go back to the infancy of computer science. At some point, just-in-time (JIT) compilation technology matured enough to deliver better performance, and was made popular by Java [6]. Writing a JIT compiler, though, is a complicated task. Conversely, interpreters provide ease of implementation, and portability, at the expense of speed.

Interpreters are still widely used. They are much easier to develop, maintain, and port applications on new architectures. Some languages used by domain scientists are executed mainly through interpreters, e.g. R, Python, Matlab... Some properties of widely adopted languages, such as dynamic typing, also make it more difficult to develop efficient JIT compilers. These dynamic features turn out to be heavily used in real applications [25]. On lower-end systems, where short time-to-market is key, JIT compilers may also not be commercially viable, and they rely on interpreters.

Scientists from both CERN and Fermilab report [23] that “many of LHC experiments’ algorithms are both designed and used in interpreters”. As another example, the need for an interpreter is also one of the three reasons motivating the choice of Jython for the data analysis software of the Herschel Space Observatory [36]. Scientists at CERN also developed an interpreter for C/C++ [7].

Although they are designed for portability, interpreters are often large and complex codes. Part of this is due to the need for performance. The core of an interpreter is an infinite loop that reads the next bytecode, decodes it, and performs the appropriate action. Naïve decoding implemented in C consists in a large \texttt{switch} statement (see Figure 1 (a)), that gets translated into a jump table and an indirect jump. Conventional wisdom states that this indirect jump incurs a major performance degradation on deeply pipelined architectures because it is hardly predictable (see Section 6 for related work).

The contributions of this paper are the following.

- We revisit the performance of \texttt{switch}-based interpreters, focusing on the impact the indirect branch instruction, on the most recent Intel processor generations (Nehalem, Sandy Bridge and Haswell) and current interpreted languages (Python, Javascript, CLI). Our experiments and measures show that on the latest processor generation, the performance of the predictors and the characteristics of interpreters make the indirect branch much less critical than before. The global branch misprediction rate observed when executing interpreters drops from a dramatic 12-20 MPKI range on Nehalem to a only 0.5-2 MPKI range on Haswell.

- We evaluate the performance of a state-of-the-art indirect branch predictor, ITTAGE [31], proposed in the literature on the same interpreters, and we show that, when executing interpreters, the branch prediction accuracy observed on Haswell and on ITTAGE are in the same range.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 motivates our work: it analyzes in more details the performance of \texttt{switch}-based interpreters, it introduces \textit{jump threading}, and measures its impact using current interpreters. Section 3 reviews the evolution of branch prediction over the last decades, and presents the state-of-the-art branch predictors TAGE for conditional branches and ITTAGE [31] for indirect branches. Section 4 presents experimental setup. In Section 5, we present our experimental results and our findings on branch prediction impact on interpreter performance. Section 6 reviews related work. Section 7 concludes.
2. Performance of Interpreters

Quoting Cramer et al. [6], *Interpreting bytecodes is slow*. An interpreter is basically an infinite loop that fetches, decodes, and executes bytecodes, one after the other. Figure 1 (a) illustrates a very simplified interpreter written in C, still retaining some key characteristics. Lines 1 and 13 implement the infinite loop. Line 2 fetches the next bytecode from the address stored in virtual program counter vpc, and increments vpc (in case the bytecode is a jump, vpc must be handled separately). Decoding is typically implemented as a large switch statement, starting at line 3.

Many interpreted languages implement an evaluation stack. This is the case of Java, CLI, Python (Dalvik is a notable exception [9]). Lines 5–7 illustrate an add

The principal overhead of interpreters comes from the execution of the dispatch loop. Every bytecode typically requires ten instructions when compiled directly from standard C (as measured on our own interpreter compiled for x86, described in Section 5.2.3). See Figure 1 (b) for a possible translation of the main loop to x86. This compares to the single native instruction needed for most bytecodes when the bytecode is JIT compiled. Additional costs come from the implementation of the switch statement. All compilers we tried (GCC, icc, LLVM) generate a jump table and an indirect jump instruction (line 7 of Figure 1 (b)). This jump has hundreds of potential targets, and has been previously reported to be difficult to predict [11, 12, 19], resulting typically in an additional 20 cycle penalty. Finally, operands must be retrieved from the evaluation stack, and results stored back to it (lines 9–10) and the stack adjusted (line 11), while native code would have operands in registers in most cases (when not spilled by the register allocator).

A minor overhead consists in two instructions that compare the opcode value read from memory with the range of valid bytecodes before accessing the jump table (lines 4–5). By construction of a valid interpreter, values must be within the valid range, but a compiler does not have enough information to prove this. However, any simple branch prediction will correctly predict this branch.

This paper addresses the part of the overhead due to the indirect branches. We revisit previous work on the predictability of the branch instructions in interpreters, and the techniques proposed to address this cost. Other optimizations related to optimizing the dispatch loop are briefly reviewed in Section 6.

2.1 Jump threading

As mentioned, a significant part of the overhead of the dispatch loop is thought to come from the poorly predicted indirect jump that implements the switch statement. *Jump threading* is the name of an optimization that addresses this cost. It basically bypasses the mechanism of the switch, and jumps from one case entry to the next. Figure 2 illustrates how this can be written. Jump threading, though, cannot be implemented in standard C. It is commonly implemented with the GNU extension named Labels as Values1. And while many compilers now support this extensions (in particular, we checked GCC, icc, LLVM), older versions and proprietary, processor specific compilers may not support it.

The intuition behind the optimization derives from increased branch correlation: firstly, a single indirect jump with many targets is now replaced by many jumps; secondly, each jump is more likely to capture a repeating sequence, simply because application bytecode has patterns (e.g. a compare is often followed by a jump).

Many interpreters check if this extension is available in the compiler to decide whether to exploit it, or to revert to the classical switch-based implementation. Examples include Javascript and Python, discussed in this paper. Previous work [12] reports that it is also the case for Ocaml, YAP and Prolog. This double implementation, however, results in cumbersome code, #ifdefs, as well as the need to disable several code transformations that could de-optimize it (the source code of Python mentions global common sub-expression elimination and cross-jumping).

1 Alternatively, inline assembly can be used, at the expense of portability.

---

**Figure 1.** Main loop of naive interpreter

**Terminology** This work is concerned with interpreters executing bytecodes. This bytecode can be generated statically before actual execution (as in the Java model), just before execution (as in Python, which loads a pyc file when already present, and generates it when missing), or at runtime (as in Javascript). What is important is that the execution system is not concerned with parsing, the code is already available in a simple intermediate representation. Throughout this paper, the word bytecode refers to a virtual instruction (including operands), while opcode is the numerical value of the bytecode (usually encoded as a C enum type). Instructions refer to native instructions of the processor. The virtual program counter is the pointer to the current executed bytecode. Dispatch is the set of instructions needed to fetch the next bytecode, decode it (figure out that it is e.g. an add) and jump to the chunk of code that implements its semantics, i.e. the payload (the code that adds of the appropriate values).

```
1 while (1) {          loop:
  2  opc = *vpc++;     2  add 0x2, esi
  3  switch (opc) {   3  movzw1 (esi), edi
  4     case ADD:      4  cmp 0x299, edi
  5         x = pop(stack); 5  ja <loop>
  6         y = pop(stack); 6  mov 0x2, ({edi,4}, eax)
  7     push(stack,x+y):7 7  jmp +eax
  8     break:          8
  9         case SUB: ... 10 10 add eax,-0x10(ebx)
  11      ...          11 11 add 0xfffffff0, ebx
  12   }                12 12 jmp <loop>
(a) C source code      (b) x86 assembly
```

---

1 Alternatively, inline assembly can be used, at the expense of portability.
void *labels[] = { &ADD, &SUB ... };
...
goto *labels[*vpc++];

ADD:
  x = pop(stack);
  y = pop(stack);
  push(stack, x+y);
  goto *labels[*vpc++];

SUB:
  ...
  goto *labels[*vpc++];

Figure 2. Token threading, using a GNU extension

2.2 Motivation Example

Current versions of Python-3 and Javascript automatically take advantage of threaded code when supported by the compiler. The implementation consists in two versions (plain switch and threaded code), one of them being selected at compile time, based on compiler support for the Labels as Values extension. Threaded code can be easily disabled though the configure script or a #define.

In 2001, Ertl and Gregg [11] observed that:

"for current branch predictors, threaded code interpreters cause fewer mispredictions, and are almost twice as fast as switch based interpreters on modern superscalar architectures".

The current source code of Python-3 also says:

"At the time of this writing, the threaded code version is up to 15-20% faster than the normal switch version, depending on the compiler and the CPU architecture."

We tracked this comment back to January 2009.

We experimented with Python-3.3.2, both with and without threaded code, and the Unladen Swallow benchmarks (selecting only the benchmarks compatible with Python 2 and Python 3, with flag -b 2n3). Figure 3 (a) shows the performance improvement due to threaded code on three microarchitectures: Nehalem, Sandy Bridge, and Haswell.

Nehalem shows a few outstanding speedups (in the 30%–40% range), as well as Sandy Bridge to a lesser extent, but the average speedups (geomean of individual speedups) for Nehalem, Sandy Bridge, and Haswell are respectively 10.1 %, 4.2 %, and 2.8 % with a few outstanding values for each microarchitecture. The benefits of threaded code decreases with each new generation of microarchitecture.

Python-2 also supports a limited version of threading, implemented in standard C, aimed at the most frequent pairs of successive opcodes. Nine pairs of opcodes are identified and hard-coded in the dispatch loop. The speedups are reported in Figure 3 (b). Respective averages are 2.8 %, 3.2 % and 1.8 % for Nehalem, Sandy Bridge, and Haswell.

As illustrated by this simple experiment, the speedup brought by jump threading on modern hardware is much less it used to be. And a better branch prediction is not the single factor contributing to the speedup. As already observed by Piumarta and Riccardi [24] threaded code also executes fewer instructions because part of the dispatch loop is bypassed. For example, on Python-3, we measured the average reduction in number of instructions to be on average 3.3 %, in the same range as the performance gain on the three tested architectures.

2.3 Revisiting Conventional Wisdom

Conventional wisdom considers that the indirect branch that drives the dispatch loop of a switch-based interpreter is inherently difficult to predict. Much effort has been devoted – in the literature and in actual source code – to improving its predictability and reducing its overhead. This was certainly true in the past, and we review related work in Section 6. However, branch predictors have significantly evolved, and they achieve much better performance. In this paper, we study the properties of current interpreters and state-of-the-art branch prediction, and we show that the behavior of the main indirect branch is now a minor issue.

3. (Indirect) Branch Predictors

3.1 State-of-the-art

Many proposals have been introduced for improving the accuracy of conditional branch prediction during the two past decades, e.g. two-level branch prediction [37], hybrid predictors [20], de-aliased predictors [16, 21, 33], multiple history length use [30], and more recently perceptron-inspired predictors [15] and geometric history length predictors [28, 31]. All these propositions have influenced the design of the predictors embedded in state-of-art processors.
While effective hardware predictors probably combine several prediction schemes (a global history component, a loop predictor and maybe a local history predictor), TAGE [29, 31] is generally considered as the state-of-the-art in global history based conditional branch prediction. TAGE features several (partially) tagged predictor tables. The tables are indexed with increasing global history length, the set of history lengths forming a geometric series. The prediction is given by the longest hitting table. TAGE predictors featuring maximum history length of several hundreds of bits can be implemented in real hardware at an affordable storage cost. Therefore TAGE is able to capture correlation between branches distant by several hundreds or even thousands of instructions.

For a long time, indirect branch targets were naively predicted by the branch target buffer, i.e. the target of the last occurrence of the branch was predicted. However the accuracy of conditional branch predictors is becoming higher and higher. The penalties for a misprediction on a conditional branch or on an indirect branch are in the same range. Therefore even on an application featuring a moderate amount of indirect branches, the misprediction penalty contribution of indirect branches may be very significant if one neglects the indirect branch prediction. Particularly on applications featuring switches with many case statements, e.g. interpreters, the accuracy of this naive prediction is quite low. To limit indirect branch mispredictions, Chang et al. [4] propose to leverage the global (conditional) branch history to predict the indirect branch targets, i.e. a gshare-like indexed table is used to store the indirect branch targets. However Driesen and Holzle [8] point out that many indirect branches are correctly predicted by a simple PC-based table, since at execution time they feature a single dynamic target. They proposed the cascaded indirect branch predictor to associate a PC-based table (might be the branch target buffer) with a tagged (PC+global branch history) indexed table.

More recently, Seznec and Michaud [31] derived ITTAGE from their TAGE predictor. Instead of simple conditional branch directions, ITTAGE stores the complete target in tagged tables indexed with increasing history lengths which form a geometric series. As for TAGE, the hitting table featuring the longest history length provides the prediction. At the recent 3rd championship on branch prediction in 2011\(^2\), TAGE-based (resp. ITTAGE-based) predictors were shown to outperform other conditional branch predictors (resp. indirect predictors).

### 3.2 Intuition of ITTAGE on interpreters

TAGE performs very well at predicting the behavior of conditional branches that exhibit repetitive patterns and very long patterns. Typically when a given (maybe very long) sequence of length \(L\) branches before the current program counter was always biased in a direction in the past, then TAGE – provided it features sufficient number of entries – will correctly predict the branch, independently of the minimum history \(le\) needed to discriminate between the effective biased path and another path. This minimum path is captured by one of the tables indexed with history longer than \(le\). With TAGE, the outcomes of branches correlated with close branches are captured by short history length tables, and the outcomes of branches correlated with very distant branches are captured by long history length tables. This optimizes the application footprint on the predictor. The same applies for indirect branches.

When considering interpreters, the executed path is essentially the main loop around the execution of each bytecode. When running on the succession of basic block bytecodes, the execution pattern seen by the switch reflects the control path in the interpreted application: in practice the history of the recent targets of the jump is the history of opcodes. For instance, if this history is –load load add load mul store add– and if this sequence is unique, then the next opcode is also uniquely determined. This history is in some sense a signature of the virtual program counter, it determines the next virtual program counter.

When running interpreters, ITTAGE is able to capture such patterns and even very long patterns spanning over several bytecode basic blocks, i.e. to “predict” the virtual program counter. Branches bytecodes present the particularity to feature several possible successors. However, if the interpreted application is control-flow predictable, the history also captures the control-flow history of the interpreted application. Therefore ITTAGE will even predict correctly the successor of the branch bytecodes.

### 4. Experimental Setup

This section details our interpreters and benchmarks. We discuss how we collect data for actual hardware and simulation, and we make sure that both approaches are consistent.

#### 4.1 Interpreters and Benchmarks

We experimented with switch-based (no threading) interpreters for three different input languages: Javascript, Python, and the Common Language Infrastructure (CLI, aka .NET), and several inputs for each interpreter. Javascript benchmarks consist in Google’s octane suite\(^3\) as of Feb 2014, and Mozilla’s kraken\(^4\). For Python, we used the Unladen Swallow Benchmarks. Finally, we used a subset of SPEC 2000 (train input set) for CLI. All benchmarks are run to completion (including hundreds of hours of CPU for the simulation). See Table 1 for an exhaustive list.

We used Python 3.3.2. The motivation example of Section 2 also uses Python 2.7.5. Unladen Swallow benchmarks were run with the flag --rigorous. We excluded iterative_count, spectral_norm and threaded_count

\(^2\)http://www.jilp.org/jwac-2/

\(^3\)http://code.google.com/p/octane-benchmark

\(^4\)http://krakensquality.mozilla.org/kraken-1.1/
Table 1. Benchmarks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Python</th>
<th>Benchmark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>call_method</td>
<td>regex_v8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>call_method_slots</td>
<td>Richards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>call_method_unknown</td>
<td>simple_logging</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>call_simple</td>
<td>telco</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chaos</td>
<td>unpack_sequence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>django_v2</td>
<td>Javascript (kraken)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fannkuch</td>
<td>ai-astar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fastpickle</td>
<td>audio-beat-detection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fastunpickle</td>
<td>audio-dft</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>float</td>
<td>audio-flit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>formatted_logging</td>
<td>audio-oscillator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>go</td>
<td>imaging-darkroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hexiom2</td>
<td>imaging-desaturate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>json_dump_v2</td>
<td>imaging-gaussian-blur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>json_load</td>
<td>json-parse-financial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meteor_contest</td>
<td>json-stdliby-tinderbox</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nbody</td>
<td>crypto-aes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nqueens</td>
<td>crypto-cmc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pathlib</td>
<td>crypto-pbkdf2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pidigits</td>
<td>crypto-sha256-iterative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>raytrace</td>
<td>Javascript (octane)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regex_compile</td>
<td>box2d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regex_effbot</td>
<td>code-load</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Table 2. Branch predictor parameters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
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<th>ITTAGE 2</th>
<th>ITTAGE 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>max history length</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>num tables (N)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>num entries table T₀</td>
<td>4096</td>
<td>256</td>
<td>512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>num entries tables T₁ – Tₙ₋₁</td>
<td>1024</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>storage (kilobytes)</td>
<td>8 KB</td>
<td>6.31 KB</td>
<td>12.62 KB</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2 Branch Predictors

We experimented with both commercially available hardware and recent proposals in the literature. Section 4.2.3 discusses the coherence of actual and simulated results.

4.2.1 Existing Hardware – Performance Counters

Branch prediction data is collected from the PMU (performance monitoring unit) on actual Nehalem (Xeon W3550 3.07 GHz), Sandy Bridge (Core i7-2620M 2.70 GHz), and Haswell (Core i7-4770 3.40 GHz) architectures running Linux. Both provide counters for cycles, retired instructions, retired branch instructions, and mispredicted branch instructions. We relied on Tiptop [26] to collect data from the PMU. Events are collected per process (not machine wide) on an otherwise unloaded workstation. Only user-lad events are collected (see also discussion in Section 4.2.3).

Unfortunately, neither architecture has hardware counters for retired indirect jumps, but for “speculative and retired indirect branches” [14]. It turns out that non-retired indirect branches are rare. On the one hand, we know that the number of retired indirect branches is at least equal to the number of executed bytecodes. On the other hand, the value provided by the counter may overestimate the number of retired indirect branches in case of wrong path execution. That is:

\[ n_{\text{bytecodes}} \leq n_{\text{retired}} \leq n_{\text{speculative}} \]

or equivalently:

\[ 1 \leq \frac{n_{\text{retired}}}{n_{\text{bytecodes}}} \leq \frac{n_{\text{speculative}}}{n_{\text{bytecodes}}} \]

where \( n_{\text{speculative}} \) is directly read from the PMU, and \( n_{\text{bytecodes}} \) is easily obtained from the interpreter statistics.

In most cases (column \( \text{ind/bc} \) of Tables 3, 4, 5), the upper bound is very close to 1, guaranteeing that non retired indirect branches are negligible. In the remaining cases, we counted the number of indirect branches with a pintool [17] and confirmed that the PMU counter is a good estimate of retired indirect branches.

4.2.2 TAGE – Simulation

We also experimented with a state-of-the-art branch predictor from the literature: TAGE and ITTAGE [31]. The performance is provided through simulation of traces produced by Pin [17]. We used two (TAGE+ITTAGE) configurations. Both have 8 KB TAGE. TAGE1 assumes a 12.62 KB ITTAGE, TAGE2 assumes a 6.31 KB ITTAGE (see Table 2).

4.2.3 Coherence of Measurements

Our experiments involve different tools and methodologies, namely the PMU collected by the Tiptop tool [26] on existing hardware, as well as results of simulations driven by traces obtained using Pin [17]. This section is about confirming that these tools lead to comparable instruction counts, therefore experiment numbers are comparable. Potential discrepancies include the following:
• non determinism inherent to the PMU [35] or the system/software stack [22];
• the x86 instruction set provides a rep prefix. The PMU counts prefixed instructions as one (made of many microops), while pintools may count each separately;
• Pin can only capture events in user mode, while the PMU has the capability to monitor also kernel mode events;
• tiptop starts counting a bit earlier than Pin: the former starts right before the execvp system call, while the latter starts when the loader is invoked. This difference is constant and negligible in respect of our running times;
• applications under the control of Pin sometimes execute more instructions in the function d1_relocate_symbol. Because Pin links with the application, more symbols exist in the executable, and the resolution may require more work. This happens only once for each executed symbol, and is also negligible for our benchmarks.

Since Pin only traces user mode events, we configured the PMU correspondingly. To quantify the impact of kernel events, we ran the benchmarks in both modes and we measured the number of retired instructions as well as the instruction mix (loads, stores, and jumps). Not surprisingly for an interpreter, the difference remains under one percentage point. For jumps, it is even below 0.05 percentage point.

The main loop of interpreters is identical on all architectures, even though we instructed the compiler to generate specialized code. The average variation of the number of executed instructions, due to slightly different releases of the operating system and libraries, is also on the order of 1%. Finally, PMU and Pin also report counts within 1%.

5. Experimental Results

5.1 Overview

Figures 4, 5 and 6 illustrate the branch misprediction rates measured in our experiments on respectively Python, Javascript and CLI interpreters. The branch misprediction rates are measured in MPKI, misprediction per kilo instructions. MPKI is generally considered as a quite illustrative metric for branch predictors, since it allows to get at a first glance a very rough estimation of the lost cycles per kiloinstructions:

\[
\frac{\text{lost_cycles}}{\text{KI}} = \text{MPKI} \times \text{average\_penalty.}
\]

For the sake simplicity and for a rough analysis, we will assume on the considered architectures an average penalty of 20 cycles. Our measures clearly show that, on Nehalem, on most benchmarks, 12 to 16 MPKI are encountered, that is about 240 to 320 cycles are lost every 1 kiloinstructions.

On the next processor generation Sandy Bridge, the misprediction rate is much lower: generally about 4 to 8 MPKI on Javascript applications for instance, i.e. decreasing the global penalty to 80 to 160 cycles every Kilo instructions.

On the most recent processor generation Haswell, the misprediction rate further drops to 0.5 to 2 MPKI in most cases, that is a loss of 10 to 40 cycles every kiloinstructions. Interestingly, the misprediction rates simulated assuming at TAGE + ITTAGE branch predictor scheme are in the same range as the misprediction rates measured on Haswell. This rough analysis illustrates that, in the execution time of interpreted applications, total branch misprediction penalty has gone from a major component on Nehalem to only a small fraction on Haswell.

The rough analysis presented above can be refined with models using performance monitoring counters. Intel [18] describes such methodology to compute wasted instruction issue slots in the processor front-end. We relied on Andi Kleen’s implementation pmu-tools\(^5\) and backported the formulas. Unfortunately, only Sandy Bridge and Haswell are supported. In the front-end, issue slots can be wasted in several cases: branch misprediction, but also memory ordering violations, self modifying code (SMC), and AVX-

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\(^5\)https://github.com/andikleen/pmu-tools
related events. We confirmed that AVX never occurs and SMC is negligible in our experiments. Moreover, apart from very few cases, the number of memory ordering violations is two to three orders of magnitude less than the number of branch mispredictions. Nearly all wasted issue slots can be attributed to branch mispredictions.

Figure 7 shows, for all our benchmarks, how MPKI relates to wasted slots. Lower MPKI correlates with fewer wasted slots. On average Haswell wastes 7.8% of the instruction slots due to branch mispredictions, while Sandy Bridge wastes 14.5%. Better branch prediction on Haswell results in 50% fewer wasted slots.

This confirms that, on last generation Intel processors, Haswell, branch misprediction penalty has only a limited impact on interpreted applications execution time.

In the remainder of this section, we present a detailed analysis of the measures and simulations for each interpreter separately. We also debunk the folklore on the “hard to predict” branches in the interpreter loop.

5.2 Detailed Analysis

We present results for each interpreter (Tables 3, 4, 5). The left part reports general characteristics of the interpreter. For each benchmark, the tables show the number of executed bytecodes (in millions), the number of native instructions (in billions), the overall measured performance reported as IPC (instructions per cycle), the fraction of branch instructions, the fraction of indirect branch instructions, and finally the number of executed instructions per bytecode.

The second half of the tables report on the performance of each architecture in terms of branch prediction (MPKI) of each architecture in terms of branch prediction (MPKI) of each architecture in terms of branch prediction (MPKI) of each architecture in terms of branch prediction (MPKI). The dispatch loop is identical on Nehalem, Sandy Bridge and Haswell (with the exception of stack offsets), it consists in 24 instructions for bytecodes without arguments, and 6 additional instructions to handle an argument. These instructions check for exit and tracing conditions, loading the next opcode, accessing the jump table, and directing control to the corresponding address. A few instructions detect pending exceptions, and handle objects allocation/deallocation. Only one indirect branch is part of the dispatch loop.

Table 3 report our results with the Python interpreter. The performance (measured as IPC) on Nehalem and Sandy Bridge is fairly good, showing that no serious problem (such as cache misses or branch misprediction) is degrading performance. It is even better on Haswell, with a median value of 2.4 IPC, and up to 3.4 IPC.

It takes 120 to 150 instructions to execute a bytecode. Considering the overhead of the dispatch, about 100 instructions are needed to execute the payload of a bytecode. This rather high number is due to dynamic typing. A simple add must check the types of the arguments (numbers or strings), and even in the case of integers, an overflow can occur, requiring special treatment.

In a few cases, the number is much higher, as for the fastpickle or regex benchmarks. This is because they apply heavier processing implemented in native libraries for performance. In the case of fastpickle, the benchmark serializes objects by calling a dedicated routine.

There is generally a single indirect branch per bytecode. Values significantly larger than 1 are correlated with a high number of instructions per bytecode, revealing that the execution has left the interpreter main loop proper to execute a dedicated routine.

Figure 4 plots the MPKI for each benchmark and branch predictor. It is clear that the Sandy Bridge predictor significantly outperforms Nehalem’s, and the same applies for Haswell and TAGE when compared to Sandy Bridge.

5.2.1 Python

Python is implemented in C. The syntax of the Python language differs slightly between versions 2 and 3 (a converter is provided), and so does the bytecode definition. Still, both have a similar set of roughly 110 opcodes.

The dispatch loop is identical on Nehalem, Sandy Bridge and Haswell (with the exception of stack offsets), it consists in 24 instructions for bytecodes without arguments, and 6 additional instructions to handle an argument. These instructions check for exit and tracing conditions, loading the next opcode, accessing the jump table, and directing control to the corresponding address. A few instructions detect pending exceptions, and handle objects allocation/deallocation. Only one indirect branch is part of the dispatch loop.

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In practice, one can note that when the average payload is around 120 to 150 instructions and there are no (or very few) indirect branches apart the main switch, i.e., \( \text{ind}_{\leq 1.02} \leq 1.02 \), then TAGE+ITTAGE predicts the interpreter quasi-perfectly. When the average payload is larger or some extra indirect branches are encountered then misprediction rate of TAGE+ITTAGE becomes higher and may become in the same order as the one of Haswell.

### 5.2.2 Javascript

SpiderMonkey Javascript is implemented in C++. We compiled it without JIT support, and we manually removed the detection of Labels as Values. The bytecode consists in 244 entries. The dispatch loop consists in 16 instructions, significantly shorter than Python.

Table 4 reports the characteristics of the Javascript interpreter. With the exception of code-load in octane, and parse-financial and stringify-tinderbox in kraken, indirect branches come from the switch statement. These benchmarks also have a outstanding number of instructions per bytecode. Excluding them, it takes on average in the order of 60 instructions per bytecode.

Table 4 also reports on the performance of the branch predictors, and Figure 5 illustrates the respective MPKI. As for Python, Haswell and TAGE consistently outperform Sandy Bridge, which also outperforms Nehalem.

As for the Python interpreters, with the exception of three outliers, TAGE predict quasi perfectly the interpreter.

### 5.2.3 CLI

The CLI interpreter is written in standard C, hence dispatch is implemented with a switch statement. The internal IR consists in 478 opcodes. This IR resembles the CLI bytecode from which it is derived. CLI operators are not typed, the same add (for example) applies to all integer and floating point types. The standard, though, requires that types can be statically derived to prove the correctness of the program before execution. The interpreter IR specializes the operators with the computed types to remove some burden from the interpreter execute loop. This explains the rather large number of different opcodes. As per Brunthaler’s definition [3], the CLI interpreter is a low abstraction level interpreter.

The dispatch loop consists in only seven instructions, illustrated on Figure 8. This is possible because each opcode is very low level (strongly typed, and derived from C operators), and there is no support for higher abstractions such as garbage collection, or exceptions.

Table 5 reports on the characteristics of the CLI interpreter and the behavior of the predictors. The number of speculative indirect jumps is between 1.01 and 1.07 bytecodes. In fact, most of the code is interpreted, even libraries such as libc and libm. Execution goes to native code at a cutpoint similar to a native libc does a system call. The short loop is also the reason why the fraction of indirect branch instructions is higher than Javascript or Python.

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**Figure 8. Dispatch loop of the CLI interpreter (+ADD)**

The compiler could not achieve stack caching, probably due to the limited number of registers. Figure 8 illustrates the x86 assembly code of the dispatch loop, as well as entry for the ADD bytecode. The dispatch consists in seven instructions. Two of them (lines 2 and 3) perform the useless range check that the compiler could not remove. Note the instructions at line 9–11: the compiler chose to replicate the code typically found at the top of the infinite loop and move it at the bottom of each case entry (compare with Figure 1).

Across all benchmarks, 21 instructions are needed to execute one bytecode. Nehalem, Sandy Bridge and TAGE are ranked in the same order as for the other two interpreters. Hawell’s predictor is comparable to TAGE, with occasional wins for TAGE (2.6 vs 0.21 MPKI on 177.mesa) and for Haswell (0.2 vs 0.38 on 179.art).

However, with the CLI interpreter, the accuracy of TAGE+ITTAGE is particularly poor on vpr and crafty, i.e. misprediction rate exceeds 1 MPKI. We remarked that in these cases the accuracy of the smaller ITTAGE (TAGE2) is much lower than the one with the larger ITTAGE (TAGE1). Therefore the relatively low accuracy seems to be associated with interpreter footprint issues on the ITTAGE predictor. To confirm this observation, we run an extra simulation TAGE3 where the ITTAGE predictor is 50 KB. A 50KB ITTAGE predictor allows to reduce the misprediction rate to the “normal” rate except for crafty which would still need a larger ITTAGE. The very large footprint required by the interpreter on the ITTAGE predictor is also associated with the huge number of possible targets (478) in the main switch of the interpreter.

### 5.3 Folklore on “hard to predict” branches

The indirect branch of the dispatch loop in each interpreter is generally considered as the one that is very hard to predict. Simulation allows us to observe the individual behavior of specific branch instructions. We measured the misprediction ratio of the indirect branch of the dispatch loop in each interpreter. Moreover the source code of Python refers to two “hard to predict” branches. The first is the indirect branch that implements the switch statement. The second comes for the macro HAS_ARG that checks whether an opcode has an argument. For Python, we also considered this conditional branch.

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6 despite a number of attempts...
branch. Table 6 reports the misprediction numbers for these branches for all benchmarks for the three sizes of ITTAGE predictors, 6 KB, 12 KB and 50 KB.

On Python, the indirect jumps are most often very well predicted for most benchmarks, even by the 6 KB ITTAGE. However, in several cases the prediction of indirect jump is poor (see for example the Python chaos, django-v2, formatted-log, go). However, these cases except go are in practice near perfectly predicted by the 12 KB ITTAGE: that is in practice the footprint of the Python application on the indirect jump predictor is too large for the 6 KB configuration, but fits the 12 KB configuration. go needs an even larger predictor as illustrated by the results on the 50 KB configuration. HAS_ARG turns out to be very easily predicted by the conditional branch predictor TAGE at the exceptions of the same few outliers with 1% to 4% mispredictions.

For Javascript, the indirect branch also appears as quite easy to predict with misprediction rates generally lower than 1% with the 12 KB ITTAGE. More outliers than for Python are encountered, particularly code-load and type_script. However these outliers are all amenable to low misprediction rates with a 50 KB predictor at the exception of code-load. However, code-load executes more than 4,000 instructions per bytecode on average (see Table 4) and therefore the predictability of the indirect jump in the interpreter dispatch loop has a very limited impact on the overall performance.

With the CLI interpreter, the main indirect branch suffers from a rather high misprediction rate when executing vpr and crafty (and bzip2 to some extent) with a 12 KB ITTAGE. But a 50 KB ITTAGE predictor strictly reduces this misprediction rate except for crafty which would need an even larger ITTAGE predictor.

Therefore the folklore on the unpredictability of the indirect branch in the dispatch loop is rather unjustified: this indirect branch is very predictable provided the usage of a large enough efficient indirect jump predictor.

6. Other Related Work

This paper is about the interaction of interpreters with branch predictors. The most relevant work on branch prediction is covered by Section 3. The overhead of interpreters compared to native code derives mostly from two sources: the management of the evaluation stack and the dispatch loop.

Very recent work by Savrun-Yenic¸eri et al. [27] still references the original work of Ertl and Gregg [12]. Their approach, however, is very different: they consider host-VM targeted interpreters, i.e. interpreters for languages such as Python or Javascript implemented on top of the Java VM. Performance results are difficult to compare with ours.

Vitale and Abdelrahman [34] eliminate the dispatch overhead with a technique called catenation. It consists in copying and combining at run-time sequences of native code produced when the interpreter was compiled. Half the bench-
marks, however, run slower, because of the induced code bloat, and the instruction cache behavior degradation. They report the switch dispatch to be 12 instructions and 19 cycles on an UltraSparc-III processor, and on average 100 cycles per bytecode for the factorial function written in Tcl.

With the notable exception of the Dalvik virtual machine [9], most current interpreters perform their computations on an evaluation stack. Values are stored in a data structure which resides in memory (recall Figure 1 for illustration). Ertl proposed stack caching [10] to force the top of the stack into registers. Together with Gregg, they later proposed to combine it with dynamic superinstructions [13] for additional performance. Stack caching is orthogonal to the behavior of the branch predictor. While it could decrease the number of cycles of the interpreter loop, and hence increase the relative impact of a misprediction, this data will typically hit in

6.1 Stack Caching and Registers

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As an alternative to stack caching, some virtual machines are register-based. Shi et al. [32] show they are more efficient when sophisticated translation and optimizations are applied. This is orthogonal to the dispatch loop.

### 6.2 Superinstructions and Replication

Sequences of bytecodes are not random. Some pairs are more frequent than others (e.g., a compare is often followed by a branch). Superinstructions [24] consist in such sequences of frequently occurring tuples of bytecode. New bytecodes are defined, whose payloads are the combination of the payloads of the tuples. The overhead of the dispatch loop is unmodified but the gain comes from a reduced number of iterations of the loop, hence a reduced average cost. Ertl and Gregg [12] discuss static and dynamic superinstructions.

Replication, also proposed by Ertl and Gregg, consists in generating many opcodes for the same payload, specializing each occurrence, in order to maximize the performance of branch target buffers. Modern predictors no longer need it to capture patterns in applications.

### 7. Conclusion

Despite mature JIT compilation technology, interpreters are very much alive. They provide ease of development and portability. Unfortunately, this is at the expense of performance: interpreters are slow. Many studies have investigated ways to improve interpreters, and many design points have been proposed. But many studies go back when branch predictors were not very aggressive, folklore has retained that a highly mispredicted indirect jump is one of the main reasons for the inefficiency of switch-based interpreters.

In this paper, we shed new light on this claim, considering current interpreters and state-of-the-art branch predictors. We show that the accuracy of branch prediction on interpreters has been dramatically improved over the three last Intel processor generations. This accuracy on Haswell, the most recent Intel processor generation, has reached a level
where it can not be considered as an obstacle for performance anymore. We have also shown that this accuracy is on par with the one of the literature state-of-the-art ITTAGE. While the structure of the Haswell indirect jump predictor is undisclosed, we were able to confirm with simulations of ITTAGE that the few cases where the prediction accuracy is relatively poor are due to footprint issues on the predictor and not inherent to the prediction scheme.

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