

Chimera: Transparent and High-Performance ISAX Heterogeneous Computing via Binary Rewriting

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Abstract

ISAX heterogeneous processors integrate cores that share a common base ISA, with certain cores offering extensions ISAs (e.g., vector extension) to accelerate computation. ISAX balances performance and energy efficiency while facilitating the reuse of existing software ecosystems. RISC-V, which adopts the ISAX architecture, has gained extensive attention in both industry and academia. Binary translation via binary rewriting enables transparent ISAX heterogeneous computing by translating extension instructions when migrating a program to cores without extension support. However, current binary rewriting approaches still struggle to achieve both high performance and correctness.

We propose Chimera, an ISAX heterogeneous computing system via binary rewriting that achieves both correctness and high performance. Prior binary rewriting methods ensure correctness by proactive fault checking, incurring unnecessary runtime overhead in normal executions unlikely to encounter faults. Chimera introduces a new binary rewriting method that passively triggers fault-handling only when faults actually occur, minimizing runtime overhead. We evaluated Chimera and notable ISAX heterogeneous computing systems using real-world workloads. In mixed matrix computational workloads, Chimera achieved only 3.2% performance overhead compared to native compilation, and only 5.3% in real-world workloads like OpenCV. On SPEC CPU2017 benchmarks, our method achieved up to 42.5% performance improvement over existing binary rewriting approaches on average. Chimera’s code is released on <https://github.com/Eurosys26p57/Chimera>.

1 Introduction

As the open-source and modular ISA (Instruction Set Architecture) RISC-V [3, 7, 43] has seen increasing adoption in both industry and academia, ISAX (ISA eXtension) heterogeneity has gained significant popularity. ISAX heterogeneity is based on heterogeneous processors with the overlapping ISA: each core supports the same base ISA and can customize different extension ISAs for computation acceleration.

The overlapping-ISA heterogeneity offers unique strengths over single-ISA and disjoint-ISA heterogeneity. Compared to single-ISA heterogeneity (e.g., ARM big.LITTLE [39]), ISAX heterogeneity allows each core or processor to support instructions optimized for specific work-

loads, enabling a better performance-energy balance [17, 54–56]. Compared to disjoint-ISA heterogeneity, ISAX heterogeneity simplifies software porting. Porting software to disjoint-ISA heterogeneous processors requires developers to manage complex differences in application binary interfaces (ABIs) [19, 20, 23, 26, 50]. For instance, the notable disjoint-ISA heterogeneous computing system, Popcorn [20], requires implementing a new system infrastructure for communication between OS kernels for different ISAs, as well as specific support for compilation toolchains. In contrast, ISAX heterogeneous processors share a common ABI through their common base ISA [48], eliminating the need for extensive system modifications, and thus enhancing software portability.

Binary translation through static binary rewriting is especially suitable for ISAX heterogeneous computing. By translating *source instructions* into architecture-specific *target instructions* before execution, binary rewriting produces *rewritten binaries*, eliminating the interpretation or JIT overhead that plagues dynamic translators.

Binary rewriting offers both transparency and high performance for ISAX systems. First, extension instructions accelerate computations by batching the operations of base instructions [3, 8] and take only a tiny portion (5~10%) of all instructions in binaries (§2); translating this small subset into equivalent base sequences is therefore lightweight and preserves near-native speed, allowing tasks to migrate seamlessly across heterogeneous cores. Second, the original application binary, ABI, and toolchain remain unchanged, and no source-code modifications are required, avoiding the cumbersome dependency-resolving and re-build overhead inherent in compilation methods [53].

ISAX heterogeneous computing has two requirements on binary rewriting: **correctness** and **high performance**. For correctness, a rewritten binary must preserve the original binary’s semantics. For high performance, rewritten binaries must run efficiently without extensive performance overhead (defined in §3.2).

While ensuring correctness, existing binary rewriting methods fail to achieve high performance [21, 27, 29, 44]. In Figure 1a, rewriting an extension instruction often requires replacing it with multiple translated instructions, requiring shifting subsequent instructions for enough space. However, since binaries’ control flows are tightly coupled with fixed instruction addresses at compile time (e.g., many *jump* targets are prearranged), such shifting corrupts the semantics of the original binary (e.g., *jump* to an unintended instruc-

A note.

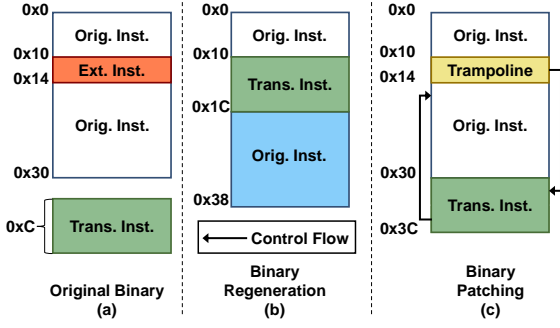


Figure 1. (a) When translating a **source** instruction to **target** instructions, binary regeneration (b) overwrites the source with target instructions by shifting **subsequent** instructions (0x1C~0x38); binary patching (c) replaces the source with a single-inst **trampoline** pointing target instructions.

tion, causing *erroneous jumps*). To preserve the original binary’s semantics, two methods exist: *binary regeneration* and *binary patching*, both incur high runtime overhead.

Binary regeneration [21, 44] ensures correctness through runtime checking, causing performance degradation. The method translates source instructions in place and corrects erroneous *jump* targets caused by instruction shifting. However, statically correcting all jump targets is impossible, as some can only be identified at runtime [31, 59]. For a *jump* with unidentified targets, the method performs runtime checks each time the jump is executed to detect and correct erroneous jump targets, resulting in 30-40% performance degradation [21].

Binary patching [27] replaces a source instruction with a *single-inst* trampoline targeting translated instructions (Figure 1c) without shifting the subsequent instructions, but introduces heavy, trap-based trampolines. Due to ISA encoding constraints, a *jump* instruction has limited bits to encode its target address, leading to a constrained jump range (e.g., $\pm 1\text{MB}$ in RISC-V). In a large binary such as the OpenCV Graph API compiled with the vector extension, about 70% of target instructions cannot be reached by a single jump instruction. RISC architectures do support long-distance trampolines. In RISC-V, for example, the multiple-inst long trampoline uses *auipc* to load the jump target and *jalr* to perform the jump (Figure 2a). However, since the vanilla trampoline contains two instructions, if control flow jumps to the second instruction, the target address not correctly set by the preceding *auipc* will cause an unintended jump and break correctness. Therefore, existing works propose trap-based trampolines that rely on runtime mechanisms to redirect control flow, causing up to 50% performance degradation (§2).

In summary, existing binary rewriting methods rely on runtime mechanisms to ensure correctness, at the cost of high performance overhead. We attribute this to their design philosophy of *proactively trading normal execution perfor-*

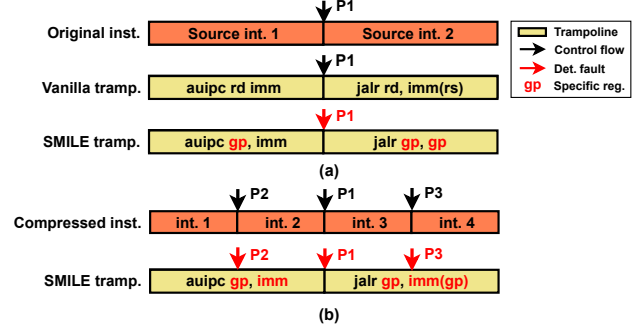


Figure 2. (a) Design of our *SMILE* trampoline. (b) Design of our *SMILE* trampoline for compressed instructions.

mance for security against potential control-flow faults caused by erroneous jumps. For example, binary regeneration inserts runtime checks before possible erroneous *jump* instructions in normal executions.

We observe that the root cause of this overhead lies in the non-deterministic behavior resulting from erroneous *jumps*, which forces the use of conservative fault-handling strategies. An erroneous jump can lead to unpredictable program behavior after executing several unintended instructions. To reconcile correctness with high performance, our key insight is that: **if all potential erroneous jumps can be made to trigger deterministic faults, then fault handling can perform passively in only erroneous executions, without impacting normal execution performance.**

We propose Chimera, a novel ISAX heterogeneous computing system via binary rewriting. The core of Chimera is CHBP, a Correct and High-performance Binary Patching method. CHBP leverages **special registers** in ABI (e.g., *gp* register in RISC-V [3, 48]) to design a *SMILE* trampoline (Secure Multiple-Instruction Long-distanceE trampoline), ensuring that erroneous executions always jump to an invalid address, such as the data segment, to raise deterministic faults.

As shown in Figure 2a, to avoid shifting subsequent instructions, Chimera replaces two adjacent instructions with RISC-V’s vanilla trampoline to enable long-distance jumps. However, the second trampoline instruction (*jalr*) becomes a potential jump target (P1) to partially execute the trampoline. To address this, our *SMILE* trampoline leverages the ABI-specified special register, the *gp* register in RISC-V, to perform the jump. In normal execution, *auipc* correctly modifies the *gp*’s value to the address of target instructions, allowing *jalr* to jump to the correct location. In erroneous execution, since the ABI ensures the *gp* register points to the data segment, executing only the *jalr* instruction triggers a deterministic segmentation fault.

CHBP still faces two challenges. First, many ISAX processors, such as RISC-V processors with the compression extension [3, 47], support compressed instructions, introducing extra potential jump targets within our *SMILE* trampoline. An original binary with compressed instructions con-

tains both 2-byte and 4-byte instructions. If an 8-byte *SMILE* trampoline is overwriting four 2-byte instructions, two extra jump targets, P2 and P3, appear in the trampoline instructions (Figure 2b). Since P2 and P3 point to the middle of the trampoline’s jump target address, we handle such erroneous executions by carefully arranging *SMILE* trampolines’ jump targets, ensuring that any attempt to execute from these targets triggers a deterministic illegal instruction fault.

The second challenge lies in selecting registers for *SMILE* trampolines. In RISC architectures, long jumps are register-based and require a dead register (whose value is not used by subsequent instructions [41]), to hold the jump target. Although *gp* can be used to jump to target instructions (§4.2), we need another dead register to jump back after execution. Existing methods use binary register liveness analysis to identify dead registers, which can fail due to the limitations in binary data flow analysis [31, 41] and high register pressure in compute-intensive tasks. To find a dead register in most cases, we reduce the registers used by subsequent instructions by including more subsequent instructions into the translated block.

We evaluated Chimera with a state-of-the-art compilation-based ISAX heterogeneous computing system MELF [53], and evaluated CHBP with state-of-the-art binary rewriting methods, including ARMORE [27] and Safer [44]. Our evaluation assesses the performance and correctness of Chimera using several real-world applications widely used in previous works, including Debian [1] packages and SPEC CPU2017 [11]. Our evaluation results show that:

- Chimera achieved high performance in ISAX heterogeneous computing, incurring only 3.2% performance overhead on average compared to MELF.
- CHBP achieved high performance in binary rewriting. The rewritten binaries achieved up to 42.5% higher performance than ARMORE and Safer.
- CHBP achieved correctness via the passive fault handling strategy, incurring only 2.1% performance overhead on average.

Our main contribution is CHBP, a novel binary rewriting method for ISAX heterogeneous computing that achieves both correctness and high performance through passive fault handling. Unlike prior works, the passive fault handling avoids performance penalties on normal executions, thereby achieving high performance. The innovations behind CHBP can be extended to other research areas (e.g., binary hardening [28, 30, 52, 59], binary hot-patching [22, 34, 46], and fuzzing [60]), because they also require correctly and efficiently applying binary patches.

2 Background

We compared Chimera with related works in Table 1.

Table 1. Comparison of Chimera and related works.

System	Need Source Code	Low Porting Effort	Correctness	High Perf.
SCHEDULING				
FAM [37]	No	Yes	Yes	No
COMPILATION				
MELF [53]	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
BINARY REGENERATION				
Multiverse [21]	No	Yes	Yes	No
Safer [44]	No	Yes	Yes	No
Egalito [59]	No	Yes	No	Yes
SURI [35]	No	Yes	No	Yes
BinRec [13]	No	Yes	No	Yes
BINARY PATCHING				
ARMORE [27]	No	Yes	Yes	No
PIFER [45]	No	Yes	Yes	No
Chimera (ours)	No	Yes	Yes	Yes

2.1 ISAX Heterogeneous Computing

Scheduling-based methods. A binary for ISAX heterogeneous computing system often includes extension instructions not supported by all cores. Scheduling-based methods [37] address this via fault-and-migrate (FAM): when a core encounters an unsupported instruction, it triggers an illegal instruction fault, prompting the scheduler to migrate execution to a compatible core. However, FAM cannot ensure every instruction has a compatible core, limits scheduling flexibility and under-utilizes hardware. Our evaluation shows that FAM introduces about 33.1% overhead in end-to-end latency compared to other methods (§6.1).

Compilation-based methods. Prior works proposed compiler-level support for ISAX heterogeneous computing [17, 37, 54–56]. They compile functions into multiple versions, allowing them to run on heterogeneous cores with high performance [53]. However, they require the source code. As ISAX processor extensions are increasingly diverse, developers may not know all available extensions on target machines. Thus, pre-compiling all possible ISA extensions is impractical, especially for legacy or closed-source applications whose source code is unavailable. Compilation can also be costly, for example, compiling SPEC CPU2017 costs 10 hours on Banana Pi BPI-F3 with a SpacemiT K1 8-core RISC-V 1.6GHz CPU [18], while Chimera just costs 40 minutes. Additionally, compiling source code is often complex, requiring specific toolchains and compatible libraries.

Motivation 1. *Binary rewriting* is suitable for ISAX heterogeneous computing. As extension instructions (or base instructions that can be upgraded to extension instructions) constitute only a small portion of the binary (about 3% in OpenCV [4]), most instructions do not need rewriting. Consequently, the overhead induced by trampolines is negligible (about 3.2% in Chimera, see §6.2). Moreover, binary rewriting does not require source code or customized compilation toolchains, making it more practical for ISAX heterogeneous computing with diverse extensions.

2.2 Binary Rewriting

Correctness of binary rewriting. Correctness of binary rewriting means rewritten binaries should have the same semantics as the original ones. However, accurate control flow

recovery (§1), especially accurately determining all potential targets of indirect jumps involving pointers and jump tables, is still an unsolved problem [15, 36, 44, 57, 59].

Although many binary regeneration methods [15, 25, 31, 35, 36, 57, 59] use heuristics and binary metadata, like relocation information (Egailtio [59]) or security metadata (SURI [36]), to recover control flow, the correctness issue still remains. The notable study BinRec [13] addresses this using dynamic and incremental regeneration to recover erroneous control flow when faults occur at runtime. However, BinRec is unsuitable for heterogeneous computing as runtime faults can cause unrecoverable side effects. In contrast, Chimera only triggers deterministic faults that are side-effect free.

Performance of binary rewriting. For correctness, existing methods rely on runtime mechanisms but induce a significant performance degradation.

For binary regeneration, previous methods ensure correctness by proactively checking and correcting the target of each indirect jump in both erroneous and normal executions, causing significant performance overhead. For instance, Multiverse [21] uses a lookup table to correct all indirect jumps in regenerated binaries at runtime, causing above 30% performance overhead. Safer [44] encodes indirect jumps targets that have been statistically corrected and checks them at runtime. Encoded targets can jump directly, while only unencoded targets require correction via a table, reducing frequency of table queries. However, it still struggles with complex binaries, causing around 40% performance overhead in the perlbench benchmark of SPEC CPU2017 (§6.2).

For binary patching, to avoid *multiple-inst* long trampolines to corrupt correctness, previous approaches [45] use trap-based trampolines, but also introduce significant performance overhead. ARMore [27] relocates all original instructions to a new code section, where source instructions are translated while others remain unchanged. In the original code section, each instruction is replaced with a single-inst trampoline to maintain the mapping between original and relocated instructions. Indirect jumps in the relocated code still use original addresses as targets, which point to the corresponding trampolines in the original section. These trampolines then redirect control flow to the correct instructions in the relocated section. ARMore achieves a low performance overhead (about 1%) on ARM [2] binaries where a single jump instruction reaches up to 128MB. However, it is impractical for the next-generation RISC-V architecture, whose jumping distance of one *jump* instruction is only $\pm 1\text{MB}$ to reduce instruction encoding types for power saving and improving hardware extensibility [3]. For many applications (e.g., Vim [51] and Git [33]), code sections are larger than 1MB, ARMore must use trap-based trampolines to redirect control flows, inducing unacceptable performance overhead (§6.2).

Motivation 2. Compared to prior binary rewriting methods, Chimera achieves both high performance and correctness through *passive fault handling*. For high performance,

Chimera avoids heavy trap-based trampolines and proposes a novel *multiple-inst* trampoline, which triggers recoverable deterministic faults in only erroneous executions. Chimera adopts a passive fault-handling mechanism to recover these faults, ensuring correctness without degrading the normal execution performance.

3 Overview

3.1 System Setup

The architecture of Chimera is shown in Figure 3. Chimera aims heterogeneous processor environment (Figure 3a), which consists of heterogeneous ISAX **processors** (processor 1 ~ processor 3) and heterogeneous **cores** within a single processor (processor 2). Given an original binary compiled for a specific ISA (RISC-V in our experiments), Chimera first converts it into rewritten binaries by static binary rewriting (§4.1 and §4.2) and then guarantees execution correctness and high performance on heterogeneous cores through runtime mechanisms (§4.3).

3.2 Chimera’s Guarantee

An *execution flow* refers to the sequence of instructions executed at runtime, including control transfers such as jumps, branches, and calls. The *semantics* of a binary denotes the intended behavior it exhibits. The “*erroneous executions*” are the execution flows that corrupt the original binary’s semantics after rewriting. As discussed in §1, binary regeneration may cause erroneous execution flows, but the limitations in binary analysis (§2.2) hinder complete correction. In contrast, “*normal executions*” preserve the original binary’s semantics.

We categorize faults triggered by erroneous executions into two types: “*non-deterministic faults*” and “*deterministic faults*”. Non-deterministic faults may lead to unpredictable program behaviors. For instance, a jump to an incorrect target address can cause the program to execute unintended instructions. Deterministic faults trigger specific faults that immediately halt execution (e.g., illegal instruction faults).

Theorem 1 (Correctness of Chimera). *Chimera guarantees the correctness of all rewritten binaries by ensuring that any erroneous execution triggers a deterministic fault, which is detected and recovered at runtime.*

Therefore, the rewritten binaries generated by Chimera are consistent in semantics with the original binary and maintain their correctness.

3.3 Analysis of Chimera’s Performance Guarantee

Theorem 2 (High Performance of Chimera). *In normal executions, Chimera’s fault-handling incurs only the overhead of executing SMILE trampolines.*

Prior binary rewriting methods correct all erroneous executions by checking every control flow transfer (e.g., jumps), inducing high costs in both normal and erroneous execu-

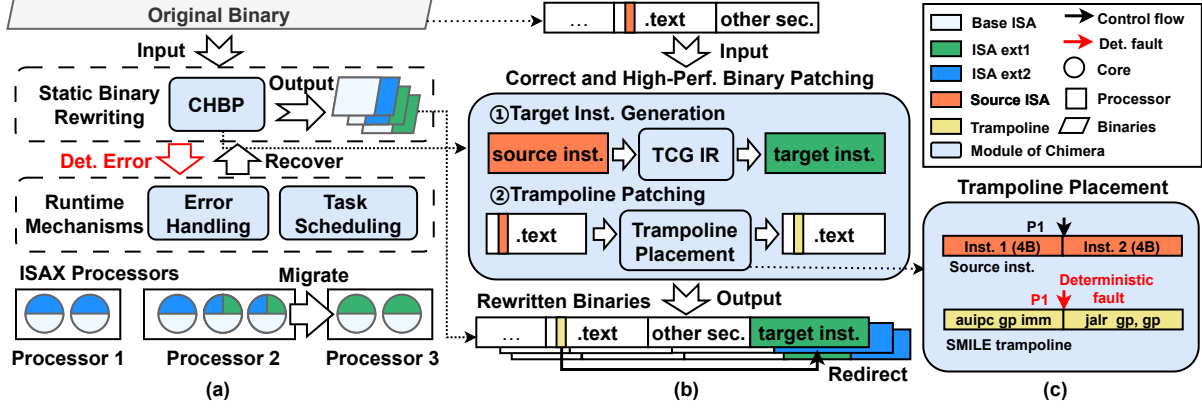


Figure 3. The architecture of Chimera. The *static binary rewriting* prepares the rewritten binaries for ISAX cores. The *runtime mechanisms* schedule tasks among ISAX processors and handles deterministic faults raised by erroneous executions.

tions (e.g., Safer, see §2.2). Chimera captures erroneous executions passively with its *SMILE* trampolines, introducing negligible overhead to normal executions (e.g., additional jump). By combining *SMILE* trampolines with its runtime fault handling mechanisms, Chimera achieves both correctness and high performance for all rewritten binaries.

Chimera’s requirements. Chimera is designed for RISC-V ISAX processors, but its principles are general to other RISC architectures with fixed instruction lengths. CHBP’s *SMILE* trampoline (§4.2) leverages the illegal instruction encoding and special registers such as *gp* in RISC-V.

- *Illegal instruction.* We use two types of illegal instruction encodings to trigger illegal instruction faults (§4.2). The first is an unsupported instruction prefix. RISC-V reserves a large encoding space for future extension instructions longer than four bytes, whose lower encoding is all “1111”. These extension instructions will not be enabled before the space is used up, because longer instructions induce power consumption and cache problem [48]. The second is the standard compressed extension, including 128 reserved instructions unlikely to be exhausted in future. *SMILE* uses one of them.

- *The gp register.* Chimera frequently overwrites and restores the value of *gp* (§4.2), requiring that the original binary never writes *gp* after initializing. The RISC-V standard ABI meets the requirement, preventing original binaries from writing *gp* so we can safely use it [48]. We also provide a protocol, detailed in the appendix, to ensure that *gp* can be safely used in certain cases like shared libraries or signal handling.

3.4 Chimera’s Workflow Overview

Chimera’s workflow comprises the static binary rewriting which prepares rewritten binaries for ISAX cores, and runtime mechanisms which correctly and transparently execute tasks on ISAX cores.

Chimera’s static binary rewriting. Given an original binary, Chimera uses CHBP to prepare a rewritten binary for each heterogeneous core by *upgrade* and *downgrade*. Instruction *downgrade* translates unsupported extension instruc-

tions into semantically equivalent base instructions, while instruction *upgrade* optimizes base instructions to more efficient extension instructions. Therefore, CHBP allows a program to efficiently run on ISAX processors and cores. CHBP prepares a rewritten binary in two steps (Figure 3b).

- *Step 1: target instruction generation.* Depending on which ISA extensions the core supports, CHBP first scans the original binary to identify all instructions that need binary rewriting (*upgrade* or *downgrade*). We refer to these instructions as *source instructions* and the corresponding translated instructions as *target instructions*. The target instructions preserve semantics as the source instructions and use only supported extensions. CHBP statically translates source instructions, generating both target instructions and necessary instructions to use/simulate additional registers (§4.1).

- *Step 2: trampoline patching.* CHBP creates a copy of the original binary and patches the copy by replacing source instructions with trampolines targeting the corresponding target instructions (§4.2). During patching, it is challenging to achieve both correctness and high performance (§3.2). Chimera tackles this challenge with its novel *SMILE* trampoline.

The *SMILE* trampoline passively triggers deterministic faults on erroneous jumps at runtime without sacrificing the normal execution performance. We design the trampoline in two steps: First, we place RISC-V’s vanilla multiple-inst long-distance trampoline by overwriting the source instruction and its adjacent instructions (inst 1 and 2 in Figure 3c), allowing erroneous executions targeting these original instructions to partially execute the trampoline (e.g., jump to P1 and execute only the *jalr* instruction). Second, we ensure that such partial execution triggers a deterministic fault. In Figure 3c, partially executing the *SMILE* trampoline will use the unmodified *gp* register as the jump target. Since *gp* points to the non-executable data segment, this results in a deterministic segmentation fault.

Chimera’s runtime mechanisms. Chimera’s runtime loads rewritten binaries, transparently schedules program tasks among ISAX cores, and handles deterministic faults triggered

in only erroneous executions (§4.3).

Overall, Chimera achieves correct and high-performance heterogeneous computing via binary rewriting. Previous studies [21, 27, 44] ensure correctness by introducing substantial traps or proactive fault checks, incurring about 30.7% performance overhead [21]. Chimera passively handles runtime faults that actually occur, significantly reducing the invocation frequency of the fault-handling mechanism. This is achieved by our novel *SMILE* trampoline which guarantees that any erroneous execution triggers a deterministic recoverable fault. The heavy fault-handling is restricted to rare erroneous executions, keeping normal executions largely unaffected, and incurring only a 5.3% overhead due to trampoline-based control flow redirection (§2.2).

4 Protocol Design

4.1 Target Instructions Generation

Chimera recursively disassembles a binary using IDA Pro [5] to ensure the recognized instructions are correct. However, it does not ensure completeness, meaning some instructions may remain unrecognized. If an unrecognized extension instruction is executed on an unsupported core, it triggers an illegal instruction fault. Chimera detects such faults and rewrites the unrecognized instructions at runtime (§4.3). Given source instructions, Chimera’s CHBP produces corresponding target instructions consisting of (1) computation instructions, and (2) register manipulation instructions. We leverage translation templates in Qemu TCG [6] to produce computation instructions, which may require additional registers beyond those used in source instructions due to two types of register mismatches.

Use extra base registers. A batch processing extension instruction can be translated into a sequence of base instructions requiring additional base registers to store intermediate results. For example, the RVB extension instruction *sh1add a0, a1, a2* (shift left by one and add), can be translated into two base instructions: *slli a3, a2, 1*, which shifts *a2* left by one and saves the result to *a3*, and *add a0, a3, a2*, which adds *a3* and *a2*, saving the result to *a0*. Here, register *a3* temporarily holds the shifted result and overwrites its previous value. For correctness, we insert stack manipulation instructions to save and restore *a3* in the stack around the computation. When multiple registers are involved, their saves/restores are ordered in a first-in, last-out manner to ensure correct restoration.

Simulate unsupported extension registers. Source instructions may use extension-specific registers whose lengths are larger than 64-bit base registers (e.g., the 256-bit vector registers in the RISC-V V extension [8]). These registers maintain the computation context across instructions and must be accurately simulated by CHBP. For instance, the output vector register of a *vadd* instruction can serve as input to a following *vadd* instruction. To preserve this context on cores without the extension, we simulate extension regis-

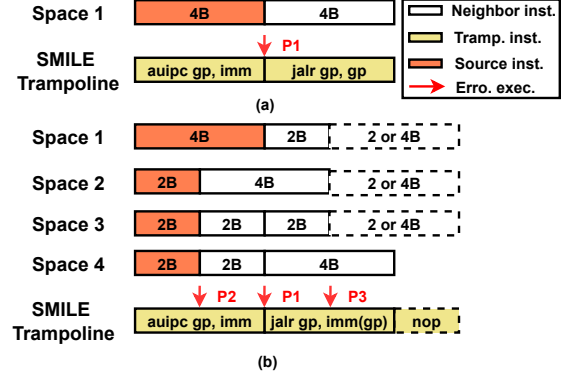


Figure 4. Trampoline placement of Chimera. A space contains a **source** instruction and its adjacent instructions. Our **SMILE** trampoline overwrites instructions in the space. For a space larger than 8-byte, we insert an extra 2-byte *nop*. All erroneous potential jumps falling within the trampoline trigger a deterministic fault (§4.2) and are handled at runtime (§4.3).

ters using a dedicated readable/writable data section in the rewritten binary. Each simulated register maps to a reserved memory region. During translation, register accesses are replaced by memory accesses to this region, ensuring consistent behavior across heterogeneous cores.

4.2 Trampoline Patching

CHBP leverages the special register *gp* to design the *SMILE* trampoline, ensuring erroneous jumps that partially execute the trampoline to trigger a deterministic fault.

Trampoline construction. Chimera extends RISC-V’s vanilla trampoline to construct a *SMILE* trampoline that triggers deterministic faults on partial execution.

- *RISC-V’s vanilla multiple-inst trampoline.* The vanilla *multiple-inst* trampoline has $\pm 2\text{GB}$ *pc*-relative jumping range. The trampoline contains two 4-byte instructions, an *auipc* and a *jalr*. The first instruction sets the target address based on *pc*, and the second one adds an offset to the target address and then jumps to it. Specifically, “*auipc, rd₁, imm*” sets the target address by adding an immediate number to the value of *pc* (i.e., the address of *auipc*). The immediate number’s upper 20 bits are *imm* and lower 12 bits are zero. The target address is written in *rd₁*; “*jalr rd₂, imm(rd₁)*” reads the address in *rd₁*, adds a sign-extended immediate number *imm*, and then jumps to the resulting target address. After the jump, *jalr* writes *pc* + 4 to its *rd₂* register as the return address.

- *Chimera’s SMILE trampoline.* A *SMILE* trampoline differs from the vanilla one in two aspects. First, we replace *rd₁* with *gp* to store the target address. This is because the unmodified value stored in *gp* points to the data segment, so erroneous executions executing only *jalr* will jump to the data segment and try to execute an instruction from there. Such behavior is considered unsafe and forbidden by modern operating systems. The OS sets the data segment as non-executable,

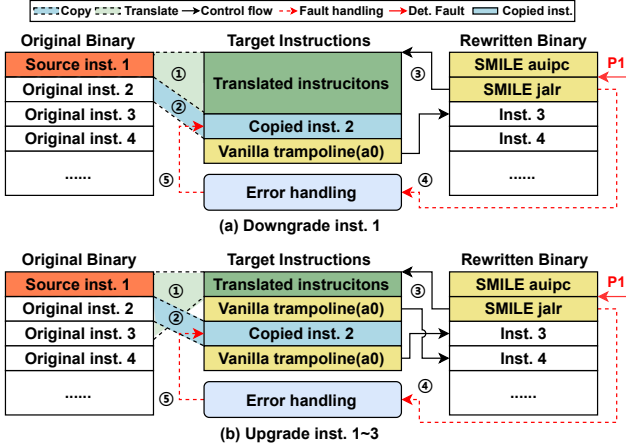


Figure 5. Chimera translates source instructions (①) and copies their neighbors (②). After executed target instructions, a normal execution (③) either executes copied instructions (a) or skip copied instructions (b). For an erroneous execution (P1), Chimera determines its fault address (④) and redirects it to the copied neighbor (⑤).

and any execution attempt from it triggers a segmentation fault [58]. Second, we replace rd_2 with gp to store the return address, because the unmodified value of gp can be statically fetched during compilation, so gp can be safely overwritten. **Trampoline placement.** To avoid shifting subsequent instructions, Chimera places a *SMILE* trampoline by overwriting the source instruction in place. Since an 8-byte *SMILE* trampoline is longer than a 4-byte source instruction, Chimera must additionally overwrite the succeeding adjacent instruction of the source instruction (referred to as “neighbor”).

For correctness, Chimera copies the overwritten neighbor into the target instructions. In Figure 5a, suppose the translated instructions *downgrade* source inst. 1. Chimera places a copy of the neighbor (copied inst. 2) after the translated instructions, followed by a trampoline that jumps back to inst. 3 in the rewritten binary. In normal executions, the neighbor executes after the translated instructions. In erroneous executions that jump to P1, Chimera’s runtime redirects control flow to the neighbor (§4.3). If the target instructions *upgrade* a sequence of source instructions (e.g., inst. 1 ~ 3 in Figure 5b), CHBP also copies inst. 2 into the target instructions, but inserts another trampoline between the translated instructions and the copied neighbor. This ensures that normal executions skip the copied inst. 2, while erroneous executions can still be safely redirected to it.

Challenge 1: instruction compression. Since the compression extension is widely enabled on ISAX processors (Arm and RISC-V), both a source instruction and its neighbor can be 2-byte. Overwriting 2-byte instructions introduces more potential jump targets in the middle of trampoline instructions (e.g., P2 and P3 in Figure 4b). It is challenging to

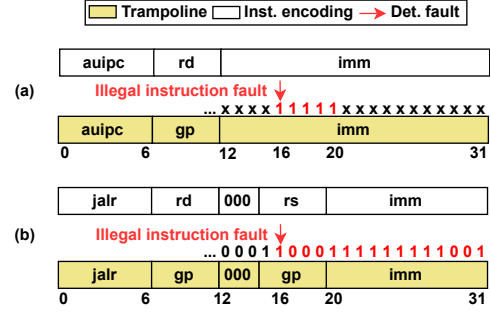


Figure 6. Trampoline placement and encoding.

trigger deterministic faults for the extra jump targets.

Chimera tackles this challenge by meticulously arranging the target addresses of trampoline instructions. P2 and P3 only appear when the compression extension is enabled. Since they point to bit 16 of both *auipc* and *jalr*, and the processor parse instructions from lower to higher address, we encode the higher 16 bits of the trampoline instructions as a 2-byte illegal instruction, triggering an illegal instruction fault. For *auipc* (Figure 6a), since it determines *SMILE* trampoline’s jump range (upper 20 bits in the target address), we only confine bits 16-20 of *auipc* as “1111”, without reducing the max jump range of our *SMILE* trampoline compared to the vanilla trampoline. A *SMILE* trampoline obtains a $\pm 2\text{GB}$ jumping range by changing the higher bits 21-32 of *auipc* and thus can jump out of the original code section. Furthermore, *auipc* obtains the jump target by adding its own address with its *imm* field as an offset. By setting the offset of each *SMILE* trampoline, Chimera flexibly arranges all target instructions.

For *jalr* (Figure 6b), because the trampoline needs *gp* to jump, which restricts bits 15-19 of *jalr* to “11000”, we encode bits 16-31 of *jalr* to a 2-byte illegal instruction starting with “1000”. This instruction is reserved by RISC-V (§3.2). The encoding adds an immediate offset to trampoline’s target address, and we position target instructions accordingly.

Challenge 2: register selection. The second challenge is the register selection for *SMILE* trampolines. In ISAX architectures (e.g., RISC-V), one trampoline requires an *auipc*, which uses a register to store the target address. This register must be a dead register whose *current value* is not used by any subsequent instructions following control flows [41]. Overwriting a dead register will not corrupt the semantics of subsequent instructions. In Figure 7, each patching requires two long-distance trampolines, the first is a *SMILE* trampoline for jumping to the head of target instructions (*entry position*) and the second can be a vanilla trampoline for jumping back from the tail of target instructions (*exit position*).

Although *SMILE* trampolines can directly use *gp* for *entry position*, we cannot use *gp* for *exit position* because the value of *gp* must be restored before jumping out to the *exit position*. CHBP sequentially employs two strategies for selecting a dead register for the returning trampoline. First, CHBP uses

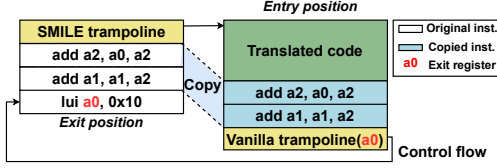


Figure 7. Exit register selection. We copy subsequent instructions to be executed as target instructions (blue instructions) and thus alter the *exit position*, thereby increasing the possibility of finding exit registers (red registers).

register liveness analysis to find a dead register for *exit position*. However, the register liveness analysis techniques [41] may fail to find a dead register for *exit position* due to the limitations of binary data flow analysis [31, 41] and high register pressure in compute-intensive tasks. Second, if the register liveness analysis fails, CHBP adjusts the target instructions to shift the *exit position* to a subsequent position that confirms a dead register. Specifically, CHBP tries finding an instruction having a dead register, by following the control flow after current *exit position*. Then, CHBP shifts the *exit position* to the found instruction, copying instructions between the old and new *exit position* into target instructions.

In Figure 7, shifting the *exit position* to the *lui* instruction helps select *a0* as a dead register. Two extra instructions are copied into target instructions. After executing target instructions, the program jumps to the new *exit position* and overwrites the value of *a0*. We also analyze other situations when shifting the *exit position* and integrate them into a heuristic algorithm, detailed in the appendix. While this strategy find dead registers in most cases (98.97% on average, see §6.2), it may fail under high register pressure. CHBP then falls back to a trap-based trampoline, following prior work [41].

4.3 Runtime Mechanism

Task scheduling. Unlike the conventional process model [38], Chimera loads a program as a process with multiple address spaces, each of which is instantiated from a rewritten binary corresponding to an ISAX core. All address spaces of a process share the same data segmentation. Chimera achieves this process model using MMViews [49, 53]. Chimera can integrate with existing schedulers (e.g., heterogeneous-ware CFS schedulers [37]) by correctly saving/restoring a task context, including real and simulated registers (§4.1).

Chimera then performs migration according to the *pc* value. Although rewritten binaries have the same semantics, the instructions pointed to by the same *pc* value might not be semantically equivalent. If the *pc* value is within the original code section that is not rewritten by CHBP, Chimera immediately migrates this task. If the *pc* value is within the target instructions, Chimera delays the migration by inserting a probe [16] at the *exit position* of the target instructions (in Figure 7). Chimera migrates the task once the probe is triggered.

Runtime fault handling. Deterministic faults in Chimera arise from either unrecognized extension instructions or partially executed *SMILE* trampolines. For each fault, Chimera determines its address and root cause, then handles the fault according to the fault-handling table of the rewritten binary.

- **Fault-handling table construction.** The fault-handling table maps potential fault addresses (e.g., P1 in Figure 5a) to their corresponding redirection targets (e.g., Copied inst. 2). When placing a *SMILE* trampoline, CHBP copies neighboring instructions to new locations and overwrites the originals. CHBP records the original address, such as P1, P2, and P3 in Figure 4b, as keys in the table, and maps each key to the new address of the copied instruction (e.g., ② in Figure 5a).
- **Determine the fault address.** When a deterministic fault occurs, Chimera determines its address based on its execution context and fault type. For an illegal instruction fault, the fault address is directly available in the *pc* register. For a segmentation fault, the erroneous execution must have partially executed the latter instruction (a *jalr*) of a *SMILE* trampoline, pointing the *pc* to the data segment. Chimera then determines the fault address using the return address stored in *gp* (§4.2): before jumping, the *jalr* stores the address of its next instruction into the *gp* register. The fault address is then computed by subtracting 4 from this return address.
- **Redirection/Rewriting.** Once identifying the fault address, Chimera further discriminates its root cause with the fault-handling table. If a fault address is an existing key, it points to a neighbor instruction overwritten by a *SMILE* trampoline (§4.2). Chimera then gets the value as the redirection target and then resumes execution (⑤ in Figure 5a). Otherwise, it points to an unrecognized extension instruction (§4.1). Chimera rewrites the instruction and resumes execution.

5 Analysis

5.1 Analysis of Chimera’s Correctness Guarantee

Lemma 1. *In Chimera, any erroneous execution that occurs in the rewritten binary is guaranteed to trigger a deterministic fault, which can be always detected at runtime.*

Proof. After trampoline placement, all non-trampoline instructions remain identical to those in the original binary, ensuring correct execution for control flows that do not encounter trampolines. Control flows executing trampolines fall into two categories: (1) Completely executing the trampoline and jumping to the corresponding target instructions can preserve correctness without triggering faults. (2) Partially executing a trampoline due to an unexpected indirect jump will lead to an erroneous execution. In Chimera’s *SMILE* trampolines (§4.2), all partially executed trampolines are designed to induce immediate and deterministic faults (either an illegal instruction fault or a segmentation fault) without executing any unintended instructions. Therefore, any erroneous executions in Chimera trigger deterministic faults. □

Lemma 2. *Chimera’s runtime fault handling mechanism can correctly recover execution from any deterministic fault.*

Proof. When a fault’s address and its execution context are correctly identified, this fault can be solved if the fault handling mechanism can recover the execution context to the correct address. Chimera achieves this by maintaining a per-written-binary fault-handling table for correcting erroneous execution contexts. When overwriting a neighbor instruction (whose address is i), CHBP must have copied i to a new address i' in target instructions (§4.2). Since a potential erroneous jump can originally target i , CHBP records i and the new i' as a key-value pair into a table (§4.3), which then acts as a runtime read-only data structure. Chimera corrects any erroneous executions according to this table. \square

Theorem 1 (Correctness of Chimera). *Chimera guarantees the correctness of all rewritten binaries by ensuring that any erroneous execution triggers a deterministic fault, which is detected and recovered at runtime.*

Proof. By Lemma 1, any erroneous execution triggers a deterministic fault. By Lemma 2, any deterministic fault can be recovered by Chimera’s runtime fault handling mechanism. Therefore, Chimera guarantees that each rewritten binary maintains the same semantics as the original binary. \square

5.2 Analysis of Chimera’s Performance Guarantee

Theorem 2 (High Performance of Chimera). *In normal executions, Chimera’s fault-handling incurs only the overhead of executing SMILE trampolines.*

Proof. Normal executions divide into: (1) execution flows without executing trampolines, and (2) execution flows that execute complete trampolines. The first type incurs no overhead. The second type incurs only the overhead of executing our SMILE trampoline instead of the expensive *trap-based trampolines* used in prior binary patching methods, with no additional cost for *proactive fault checking* (high invoking frequency, see §6.2) for all indirect jumps as existing binary regeneration methods (§2.2). \square

6 Evaluation

Setup. We deployed Chimera on two devices: A Banana Pi BPI-F3 board [18] for general tests and a SOPHGO SG2042 board [42] for scalability tests (only §6.4). The Banana Pi BPI-F3 board contains a SpacemiT K1 8-core RISC-V 1.6GHz CPU [10], supporting RV64GCV ISA with RVV v1.0 and 256-bit vector registers. The board has 16GB RAM and a 128GB SD card. SOPHGO SG2042 has 64-core 2.0GHz CPU, equipped with 128GB DDR4 DRAM and a 128GB SSD.

Our heterogeneous computing evaluation involved two types of cores: base cores supporting the RV64GC ISA, and extension cores supporting the RV64GCV ISA, which additionally included RISC-V Vector (RVV) extensions. We chose them because the RV64GC ISA is the most widely sup-

ported ISA, and the RVV extension is the most used optional RISC-V extension, offering significant performance acceleration [9, 10, 12]. As the cores in each board are homogeneous, to simulate ISAX heterogeneous processor, we disabled the vector extension on four cores (base cores) on Banana Pi by clearing the bit in the RISC-V CSR *misa*, while retaining it on the other four cores (extension cores). Similarly, for SG2042, we disabled the vector extension on 32 cores and kept it on the others. All experiments without specific mention of SG2042 were conducted by default on Banana Pi.

Baselines. We compared Chimera with two kinds of baselines: (1) heterogeneous computing baselines, and (2) binary rewriting baselines, since the performance of rewritten binaries generated by CHBP determines the overall performance of Chimera. We compared the heterogeneous computing performance of Chimera with the following baselines: (1) Fault and migrate (FAM [37]). Binaries with extension instructions could only run on extension cores. This baseline revealed the performance of a heterogeneous computing system without flexible scheduling (§2.1). (2) The SOTA compilation-based heterogeneous computing system MELF [53]. It compiled the source code into two versions of binaries, a base ISA and an extension ISA version, enabling them to run on both base and extension cores. As Chimera rewrote the binaries without the source code, MELF revealed the ideal performance of Chimera. (3) We adapted Safer [44], which is the binary rewriting method with best performance while ensuring correctness, to our environment to compare the performance of Chimera with that of SOTA binary rewriting methods (§2.2).

We compared the performance of rewritten binaries generated by CHBP with the following baselines: (1) native compilation, representing the performance of binary rewriting under ideal conditions; (2) the SOTA binary patching method, ARMORE [27], because ARMORE does not support jumping over 1MB, so we use trap-based trampolines in such cases; (3) the SOTA binary regeneration method, Safer [44]; (4) a strawman binary patching method which utilized trap-based trampolines to jump over 1MB. We used this method to evaluate the performance improvements by replacing trap-based trampolines with the SMILE trampolines.

Workloads. We evaluated the performance and correctness of Chimera and baselines under three representative workloads: (1) A widely used heterogeneous workload suite [32, 53], consisting of matrix and integer tasks with varying proportions (e.g., 40% matrix and 60% integer, see §6.1). (2) SPEC CPU2017 [11], a standard benchmark commonly used in prior binary rewriting studies [27, 41, 44]. (3) Real-world applications, such as Vim [51] and OpenBLAS [24].

We focus on the following questions:

- §6.1: How efficient is Chimera in heterogeneous computing?
- §6.2: How efficient is CHBP’s binary rewriting methods?
- §6.3: Can CHBP guarantee correctness on real applications?
- §6.4: Can Chimera achieve high performance on real applications?

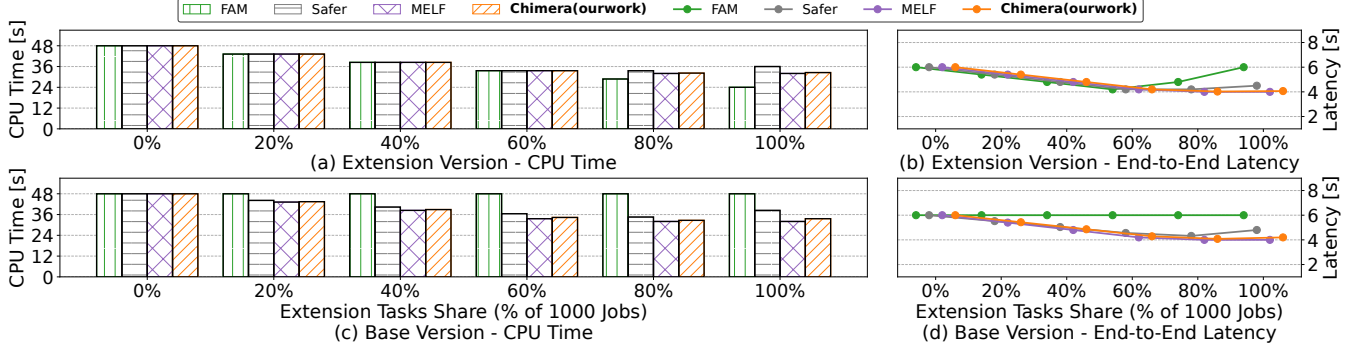


Figure 8. The CPU time and end-to-end latency of Chimera and baselines on a 8-core ISAX heterogeneous processor.

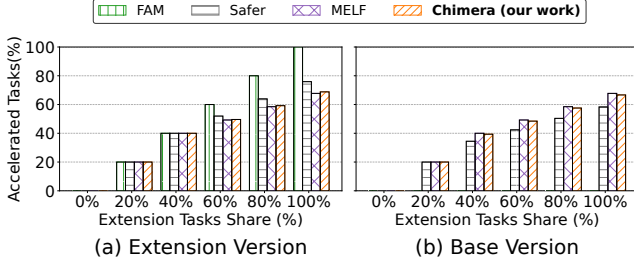


Figure 9. The proportion of extension tasks accelerated by vector extension.

6.1 Heterogeneous Computing Performance

We evaluated the heterogeneous computing performance of Chimera and the baselines on Banana Pi. Our workload comprised two types of tasks: (1) Base tasks, comprised of Fibonacci sequence calculations, which could not be accelerated by RVV extension, had the same performance across all cores. (2) Extension tasks, comprised of matrix multiplication, which could be accelerated by RVV extension, had different performance across different cores. The workload had 1000 mixed tasks. By varying the proportion of tasks with RVV extension instructions (from 0% to 100%), we systematically assessed the acceleration capabilities of both Chimera and the baselines under different loads.

We compiled this workload into both base (use only RV64GC instructions) and extension versions (with RVV extension instructions enabled). These versions were the input for Chimera and baselines, allowing us to evaluate the performance of *downgrading* and *upgrading* (§3.4).

We used work-stealing, a widely used load-balancing policy across multiple cores [40], as our scheduling policy. It comprised two thread pools: a base core thread pool and an extension core thread pool, each with four workers. Workers with empty task queues could steal tasks from others in the same pool. Tasks with extension instructions were first allocated to the extension core pool, while tasks without extension instructions were allocated to the base core pool. If all workers in a thread pool were idle, they steal tasks from the other pool and execute the corresponding rewritten binary. In the FAM baseline, base core workers migrated the

stolen task back to the extension core workers when meeting an unsupported extension instruction. In the Safer baseline, since it is non-trivial to implement migration in binary regeneration approaches (e.g., function addresses may change and stack synchronization is required), the base pool workers can only steal extension tasks that have not yet started.

Result. The accumulated CPU time and end-to-end latency for execution are shown in Figure 8. Compared to MELF, the performance overhead of Chimera in accumulated CPU time and end-to-end latency was about 3.2% in *downgrading* and 5.3% in *upgrading*. These results demonstrate that Chimera’s binary rewriting achieves almost the same performance as compilation-based methods.

Compared to Safer, Chimera reduced computation time by 10.1% and end-to-end latency by 12.5% on average in *downgrading* and *upgrading*. Unlike Safer’s proactive fault checks on all indirect jumps, Chimera’s passive fault handling avoids overhead in normal executions.

MELF, Safer, and Chimera achieved up to 33.1% lower end-to-end latency with up to 50.0% longer CPU time than FAM, because these system can fully utilize idle base cores, which results in more CPU time.

Breakdown. Figure 9 shows the proportion of extension tasks accelerated by vector extension. The results indicate that in heterogeneous systems such as MELF and Chimera, approximately 30–40% of tasks containing extension instructions can be offloaded to base cores when extension tasks comprise 100% of the workload, explaining why heterogeneous computing systems have lower end-to-end latency.

Overall, Chimera achieves high heterogeneous computing performance compared to the native-compilation-based methods, demonstrating the efficiency of Chimera in ISAX heterogeneous computing.

6.2 Binary Rewriting Efficiency

We compared Chimera’s binary rewriting performance with the baselines on SPEC CPU2017 [11]. We compiled SPEC CPU2017 with the *-O3* optimization flag, RVV auto-vectorization enabled [14], and compressed instruction support. We selected benchmarks with code sections larger than

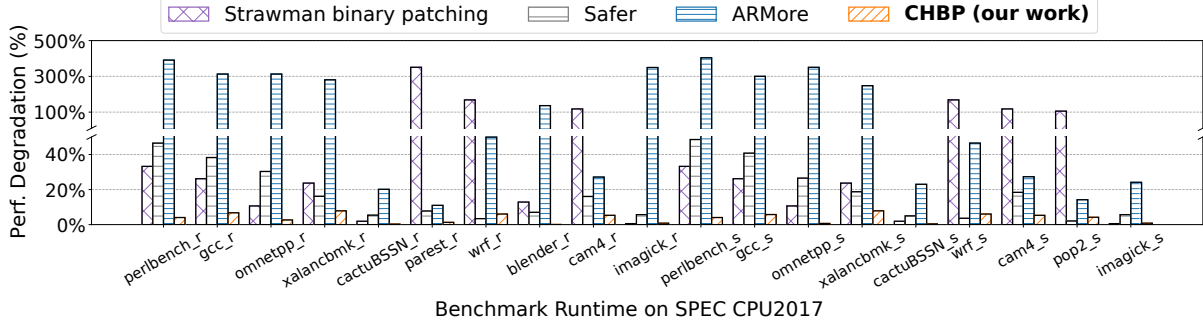


Figure 10. The performance comparison between our work and the SOTA on SPEC CPU2017. The results demonstrate that CHBP had the best performance among all baselines, showing the effectiveness of our passive fault handling mechanism.

1MB (§2.2), as smaller code sections (within ± 1 MB) fall within the jump range of single-instruction trampolines and do not require long-distance trampolines (§1).

For fairness, we adopted the commonly used empty patching method in binary rewriting evaluations [27, 41, 44]. Specifically, CHBP and baselines directly rewrote source instructions (RVV extension instructions) into target instructions which replicated these extension instructions. This method ensured that the performance overhead only originated from binary rewriting. Then we compared the performance of the rewritten binary by CHBP and baselines.

Result. Figure 10 shows the performance degradation of CHBP and baselines compared to the original binary. The results showed that compared to original binary, CHBP achieved a 5.3% performance degradation on average, while Safer experienced a 15.6% degradation on average. The worst performance degradation of CHBP was 9.6%, but the worst performance degradation of Safer was 42.5%. This is because CHBP does not affect normal executions, whereas Safer impacts normal execution by requiring checks on all indirect jumps (§2.2) and lacks support for transparent migration.

ARMore incurred a 171.5% performance degradation as all its trampolines are trap-based. Compared to strawman binary patching, CHBP improved performance by 60.2%, highlighting the importance of using the *SMILE* trampoline.

Breakdown. Table 2 shows the number of times additional runtime mechanisms were triggered on benchmarks. For our CHBP, it referred to the number of deterministic faults handling. For strawman binary patching and ARMore, it referred to the number of traps. For Safer, it referred to the number of pointer checking and corrections.

Chimera triggers the fewest fault-handling events—only 0.005% on average of those in the baselines. This is because prior works proactively trigger fault handling on all indirect jumps even in normal executions, resulting in a frequent runtime fault-handling events. In contrast, Chimera adopts a passive strategy that invokes fault handling only in erroneous executions, which are rare in rewritten binaries. This leads to fewer fault-handling events and better performance.

Table 2. The count of correctness guarantee mechanism triggering of CHBP and baselines. CHBP triggered the correctness guarantee mechanism the least.

	Fault Handling Trigger Count (10^9)			
	CHBP	Safer	ARMore	Strawman
Real-world Application				
Git	1.4×10^{-7}	0.23	0.23	0.011
Vim	6.9×10^{-7}	0.18	0.18	1.9×10^{-4}
GIMP	2.7×10^{-6}	0.44	0.32	0.44
CMake	9.7×10^{-6}	4.12	4.12	1.74
CTest	7.4×10^{-6}	3.98	3.98	2.16
Python	4.5×10^{-6}	0.82	0.82	0.021
Libopenblas	2.4×10^{-6}	4.1	4.1	1.2
SPEC CPU2017				
cactuBSSN_r	2.5×10^{-7}	6.0×10^{-3}	6.0×10^{-3}	3.0×10^{-4}
cactuBSSN_s	2.7×10^{-7}	5.3×10^{-3}	5.3×10^{-3}	2.0×10^{-4}
cam4_r	1.3×10^{-5}	1.02	1.07	10.66
cam4_s	4.5×10^{-4}	4.51	4.57	40.21
gcc_r	4.2×10^{-4}	16.87	16.87	0.77
gcc_s	7.3×10^{-4}	35.55	35.57	1.124
xalancbmk_r	9.1×10^{-4}	13.12	13.15	0.92
xalancbmk_s	9.2×10^{-4}	13.12	13.15	0.88
imagick_r	3.3×10^{-4}	16.07	16.10	0.57
imagick_s	1.4×10^{-4}	5.34	5.51	0.36
omnetpp_r	3.9×10^{-4}	23.29	23.29	1.26
omnetpp_s	3.9×10^{-4}	23.29	23.34	1.34
perlbench_r	1.7×10^{-3}	65.66	65.56	6.74
perlbench_s	1.7×10^{-3}	65.23	64.56	6.74
pop2_s	7.0×10^{-5}	2.10	2.17	20.16
wrf_r	1.5×10^{-5}	1.12	1.11	5.11
wrf_s	8.4×10^{-4}	6.31	6.21	30.35
blender_r	3.2×10^{-5}	3.87	3.90	0.124

Overall, CHBP achieves better performance than existing binary rewriting methods, especially in complex binaries that are pervasive in heterogeneous computing.

6.3 Correctness of Chimera

We evaluated the correctness of Chimera using SPEC CPU and real-world applications with large code sections compiled with the RVV extension. These binaries were translated to the base ISA and executed with their respective test suites.

Results. The results show that our method correctly trans-

Table 3. The code section size, the number of exit trampolines and cases where the dead register could not be found (our method/traditional register liveness analysis) of Chimera’s CHBP in real applications and SPEC CPU2017.

	Code Size (MB)	Ext. Inst.	Trampoline Num	Dead Reg. Not Found.
Real-world Application				
Git	3.11	2.7%	3270	21/993
Vim	2.91	2.31%	2915	30/1308
CMake	7.60	3.32%	28128	78/9213
CTest	8.50	3.30%	30990	20/1129
Python	2.31	1.77%	4311	54/1482
Libopenblas	6.72	0.59%	3305	15/628
SPEC CPU2017				
cactuBSSN_r	3.49	3.24%	13281	112/6024
cactuBSSN_s	3.49	3.24%	13293	112/6024
cam4_r	4.29	3.37%	17086	301/7846
cam4_s	4.47	3.27%	17449	401/7846
gcc_r	6.88	0.44%	5482	89/2080
gcc_s	6.88	0.44%	5482	89/2080
xalancbmk_r	2.91	1.36%	8798	107/3923
xalancbmk_s	2.91	1.36%	8798	107/3923
imagick_r	1.41	1.63%	2055	70/860
imagick_s	1.46	1.47%	2136	65/867
omnetpp_r	1.14	0.95%	2688	23/860
omnetpp_s	1.14	0.95%	2688	21/867
perlbench_r	1.52	0.58%	1521	12/583
perlbench_s	1.52	0.58%	1521	12/583
pop2_s	3.57	3.71%	15560	132/7722
wrf_r	16.79	3.21%	41408	103/11121
wrf_s	16.78	3.20%	41468	112/11098
blender_r	7.31	1.51%	15085	154/5395

lated all binary files and passed all test suites (the test suites are presented in the appendix due to space limitations), proving that our work can guarantee correctness.

Breakdown. In Table 3, extension instructions are a small part of the workload, so most instructions retain their original performance after binary rewriting. This supports our binary patching method. We also evaluated CHBP’s ability to identify dead registers. The results show that traditional register liveness analysis failed to find dead registers in about 35.9% of cases. In contrast, our *exit position* shifting method (§4.3) efficiently reduced this failure rate to just 1.1%. Overall, the results show that Chimera could guarantee the correctness of binary rewriting.

6.4 Real-World Applications

To evaluate Chimera’s performance in real-world applications, we used openBLAS, a widely utilized library that can be accelerated with vector extensions. We selected four representative matrix computations: dgemm, sgemm, dgemv, and sgemv, and used Chimera to rewrite the vector versions of these workloads. To further evaluate scalability, we evaluated sgemm on SG2042 under varying thread counts, as its performance is sensitive to multi-threading.

Result. As shown in Figure 11, the results show that the per-

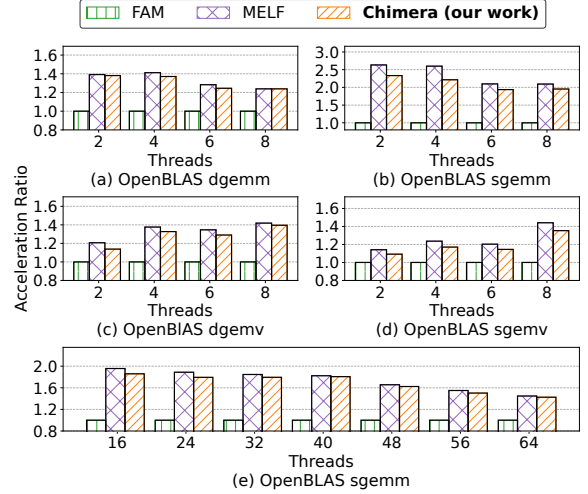


Figure 11. Comparison of performance results for real-world applications. Figure (a-d) are comparison of OpenCV. Figure e is the scalability evaluation of Chimera and baselines.

formance gap between Chimera and MELF was only 5.4% and the acceleration ratio compared to FAM was 32.1%. This indicates the efficiency of Chimera in real-world applications. As the number of threads increases, matrix-to-matrix workloads (dgemm, sgemm) experienced a decrease in overall speedup due to the growing thread synchronization overhead. This was particularly evident in the scalability experiments, where the speedup dropped by 60.2% when increasing from 16 to 64 threads. Conversely, matrix-to-vector workloads (dgemv, sgemv) benefited from effective parallelization, resulting in a stable and increasing overall speedup. Additionally, as the thread count rises, synchronization between threads becomes the primary performance bottleneck, which narrows the performance gap between our method and MELF in multi-threaded scenarios.

Overall, Chimera achieves similar performance to compilation-based heterogeneous computing systems on real-world applications. The small performance gap arises mainly from the lower quality of instructions produced by binary translation compared to native compilation and the trampolines, which can be addressed by integrating more advanced translation tools. These results demonstrate the high performance potential of Chimera.

7 Conclusion

We present Chimera, a novel ISAX heterogeneous computing system achieving transparency, high performance, and correctness via binary rewriting. Chimera passively confines error handling to rare erroneous executions, enabling seamless task scheduling across heterogeneous cores with negligible overhead. Evaluation on real-world applications (e.g., SPEC CPU2017, OpenBLAS) shows that Chimera retains program correctness while delivering near-native performance.

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A Artifact Appendix

A.1 Abstract

The artifact accompanying this paper provides a remote environment for evaluating Chimera and the source code repository of Chimera.

A.2 Description & Requirements

A.2.1 How to access. The artifact is publicly available at <https://github.com/Eurosys26p57/Chimera>. We will release the Zenodo link later on both GitHub and HotCRP. You can access our server to run the artifact evaluation with the following command, the password is Eurosys2026@Chimera :

```
$ ssh -p 59348 eurosys2026@210.73.43.1
```

Here are notes when you use our server:

1. **Please strictly follow the tmux commands used in each experiment**, as our experiment will take a long time.
2. **We kindly ask reviewers to coordinate with each other**, as the experiment allows only one person to run at a time.
3. **We recommend following the instructions in the README of our GitHub repository** (the content of which is consistent with this document) for operation, since the PDF format may interfere with command copying.

A.2.2 Hardware dependencies. Chimera now supports running on only RISC-V hardware. We recommend using Banana Pi BPI-F3 with at least 16GB RAM and a 50GB SD card.

A.2.3 Software dependencies. We recommend using Bianbu 2.0.4 or Ubuntu 22.04 and the specific toolchain for Banana Pi (<https://archive.spacemit.com/toolchain/>). The Python version needs to be 3.11.2+.

A.2.4 Benchmarks. Heterogeneous computing workload with matrix and integer tasks and SPEC CPU2017 (§6).

A.3 Set-up

The hardware/software dependencies and the runtime environment on our server are set up, allowing experiments to run directly. For environment set-up in your own device, please refer to our GitHub repository (A.2.1).

A.4 Evaluation workflow

Our artifact evaluation consists of two experiments: E1 is intended to verify the heterogeneous computing performance of Chimera; E2 is intended to verify the performance of the binary files rewritten via CHBP, the binary rewriting method of Chimera.

A.4.1 Major Claims. Here we list all of our major claims and their corresponding experiments below.

- **C1:** Chimera achieves similar performance compared to compilation-based MELF (§6.1 and Figure 8). This is supported by Experiment 1 (A.4.2).

- **C2:** CHBP, the binary patching method of Chimera, achieves the lowest performance overhead among all baselines (§6.2 and Figure 10). This is supported by Experiment 2 (A.4.2).

A.4.2 Experiments. Our Experiment 1 (A.4.2) evaluates the heterogeneous computing performance of Chimera to prove C1. Our Experiment 2 (A.4.2) evaluates the performance of rewritten binary via CHBP to prove C2.

Get results. Each experiment will generate a figure in the `~/figures` directory. You can download all the generated figures to your computer by running the following commands **on your computer**:

```
$ scp -rP 59348 eurosys2026@210.73.43.1:~/figures .
```

Experiment 1: End-to-end heterogeneous computing performance. This experiment runs Chimera, MELF, Safer and FAM with matrix and integer tasks and reports each system’s end-to-end latency to prove C1. This experiment corresponds to the evaluation described in §6.1 and Figure 8, which will take about **10 minutes**.

- **Run Experiment.** You can run Experiment 1 by the following commands:

```
$ tmux new -s eurosys2026exp1
```

```
$ /home/eurosys2026/runExp1.sh
```

After that, you can detach tmux and log out of the remote terminal by running the following commands (the session will continue running in the background):

```
$ tmux detach
```

```
$ exit
```

To check the results later, you can run the following commands to reattach to the session.:

```
$ ssh -p 59348 eurosys2026@210.73.43.1
```

```
$ tmux attach -t eurosys2026exp1
```

After finishing the experiment (you will see “Experiment finished”), please run `exit` to **exit tmux** and run `exit` to log out of the server.

- **Outputs.** The outputs of the experiment are:

1. A pdf file named `~/figures/end2endperformance.pdf`, containing the throughput vs. latency of Chimera and baseline systems.

2. You can find the log file for generating figures in `~/logs/exp1/`

- **Expected results.** The expected results, which can prove C1, as follows:

1. Chimera achieves lower latency than Safer and FAM.
2. Chimera exhibits similar performance compared to compilation-based MELF.

Experiment 2A: Performance of rewritten binaries via CHBP (“Blender” benchmark in SPEC CPU2017). This experiment runs “Blender” benchmark in SPEC CPU2017 rewritten by CHBP, Safer, ARMORE, and strawman patching and reports the performance overhead of each rewritten binary relative to the original to prove C2. This

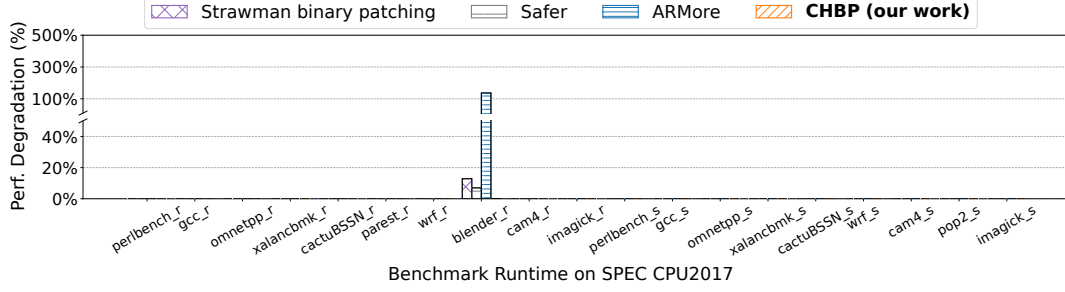


Figure 12. Expected result of Experiment 2A (A.4.2), which is the subset of Figure 10 in our paper. CHBP is the binary patching method of Chimera.

experiment is corresponding to the evaluation described in §6.2 and Figure 10, which will take **about five hours**.

We selected this benchmark for three reasons:

1. Its indirect jump counts and extension instruction counts are both mid-range among all benchmarks, so using it as the baseline allows a fair comparison of Chimera and the other baselines’ performance.
2. Its code size is relatively large (7.31 MB) and requires SMILE trampolines to perform long jumps.
3. It runs relatively quickly compared to the other benchmarks.

We recommend running only this experiment; if you need to run the full SPEC CPU2017 suite, please follow Experiment 2B (A.4.2), which requires roughly one week.

• *Run experiment.* You can run Experiment 2A by the following commands:

```
$ tmux new -s eurosys2026exp2A
$ /home/eurosys2026/runExp2A.sh
```

After that, you can detach tmux and log out of the remote terminal by running the following commands (the session will continue running in the background):

```
$ tmux detach
$ exit
```

To check the results later, you can run the following commands to reattach to the session.:

```
$ ssh -p 59348 eurosys2026@210.73.43.1
$ tmux attach -t eurosys2026exp2A
```

After finishing the experiment (you will see “Experiment finished”), please run `exit` to **exit tmux** and run `exit` to log out of the server.

• *Output.* The outputs of the experiment are:

1. A pdf file named `~/figures/binaryperformance.pdf`, containing the performance overhead of Chimera and baseline systems.

2. You can find the log file for generating figures in `~/logs/exp2a/`

• *Expected results.* The expected results, which can prove C2, as follows:

1. Because only the Blender benchmark was run, the final

result chart is expected to be as shown in Figure 12.

2. CHBP achieves the lowest performance overhead among all baselines.

3. Performance overhead of CHBP is only about 5%.

Experiment 2B: Performance of rewritten binaries via CHBP(Entire SPEC CPU2017). This experiment runs the entire SPEC CPU2017 benchmarks to evaluate Chimera and other baselines, which **requires roughly one week**.

• *Run experiment.* You can run Experiment 2B by the following steps:

```
$ tmux new -s eurosys2026exp2B
$ /home/eurosys2026/runExp2B.sh
```

After that, you can detach tmux and log out of the remote terminal by running the following commands (the session will continue running in the background):

```
$ tmux detach
$ exit
```

To check the results later, you can run the following commands to reattach to the session.:

```
$ ssh -p 59348 eurosys2026@210.73.43.1
$ tmux attach -t eurosys2026exp2B
```

After finishing the experiment (you will see “Experiment finished”), please run `exit` to **exit tmux** and run `exit` to log out of the server.

• *Outputs & Expected results.* The output and expected results are the same as in Experiment 2A (A.4.2).

A.5 Notes on Reusability

You can deploy and use Chimera and CHBP following the README in <https://github.com/Eurosys26p57/Chimera>. We hope this encourages people to experiment and further research into RISC-V and ISAX heterogeneous computing.

A.6 General Notes

Chimera is fully open-source and will be maintained long-term after the paper is published.