
CSE 320 Computer Architecture Spring 2009

Chapter 4C: The Processor, Part C

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[Adapted from *Computer Organization and Design, 4th Edition*, Patterson & Hennessy, © 2008, MK, with many additions by Mary Jane Irwin, PennStateU]

Review: Pipeline Hazards

❑ Structural hazards

- Design pipeline to eliminate structural hazards

❑ Data hazards – read after write

- Use data forwarding inside the pipeline
- For those cases that forwarding won't solve (e.g., load-use) include hazard hardware to insert stalls in the instruction stream

❑ Control hazards – `beq, bne, j, jr, jal`

- Stall – hurts performance
- Move decision point as early in the pipeline as possible – reduces number of stalls at the cost of additional hardware
- Delay decision (requires compiler support) – not feasible for deeper pipes requiring more than one delay slot to be filled
- Predict – with even more hardware, can reduce the impact of control hazard stalls even further if the branch prediction (BHT) is correct and if the branched-to instruction is cached (BTB)

Extracting Yet *More* Performance

- ❑ Increase the depth of the pipeline to increase the clock rate – **superpipelining**
 - The more stages in the pipeline, the more forwarding/hazard hardware needed and the more pipeline latch overhead (i.e., the pipeline latch accounts for a larger and larger percentage of the clock cycle time)
- ❑ Fetch (and execute) more than one instructions during one cycle (expand every pipeline stage, especially XEQ, to accommodate multiple instructions) – **multiple-issue**
 - The instruction execution rate, CPI, will be less than 1, so instead we use **IPC**: instructions per clock cycle. $IPC = 1/CPI$.
 - E.g., a 6 GHz, four-way multiple-issue processor can execute at a peak rate of 24 billion instructions per second with a best case CPI of 0.25 or a best case IPC of 4
 - If the datapath has a five stage pipeline, how many instructions are active in the pipeline at any given time?

Types of Parallelism

□ **Instruction-level parallelism (ILP)** of a program – a measure of the average number of instructions in a program that a processor *might* be able to execute at the same time

- The true average is mostly limited by the number of true (data) dependencies and procedural (control) dependencies in relation to the number of other instructions

□ **Data-level parallelism (DLP)**

```
DO  I = 1  TO  100
    A[I] = A[I] + 1
CONTINUE
```

□ **Machine parallelism** of a

processor – a measure of the ability of the processor to take advantage of the ILP of the program

- Determined by the number of instructions that can be fetched and executed at the same time

□ To achieve high performance, need *both* ILP and machine parallelism

Multiple-Issue Processor Styles

- ❑ Static multiple-issue processors (aka **VLIW**)
 - Decisions on which instructions to execute simultaneously are being made statically (by the compiler, before the code runs)
 - E.g., Intel Itanium and Itanium 2 for the IA-64 ISA – EPIC (Explicit Parallel Instruction Computer)
 - 128-bit “bundles” containing three instructions, each 41-bits plus a 5-bit template field (which specifies which FU each instruction needs)
 - Five functional units (IntALU, Mmedia, Dmem, FPALU, Branch)
 - Extensive support for speculation (guess branch directions and delay state changes until know guessed right) and predication (non-PC-altering conditional operations that become noops whenever condition fails, that are used to avoid stall-causing conditional branches)

- ❑ Dynamic multiple-issue processors (aka **superscalar**)
 - Dynamic decisions on which instructions to execute simultaneously (in the range of 2 to 8) are made at run time by the hardware
 - Most fast uniprocessor CPUs, e.g., IBM Power series, Pentium 4, MIPS R10K, AMD Barcelona

Multiple-Issue Datapath Responsibilities

- ❑ Must handle, with a combination of hardware and software fixes, the fundamental limitations of
 - How many instructions to issue in one clock cycle – **issue slots**
 - Storage (data) dependencies – aka data hazards
 - The limitation is more severe in a SS/VLIW processor because most short code blocks have dependences that reduce ILP (allowing less than 3 instructions to start on the average cycle)
 - Procedural dependencies – aka control hazards
 - Ditto, but even more severe
 - Use dynamic branch prediction to help resolve both ILP issues, by increasing effective size of code blocks that can be reordered.
 - Resource conflicts – aka structural hazards
 - A SS/VLIW processor has a much larger number of potential resource conflicts
 - Functional units may have to arbitrate for result buses and register-file write ports
 - Resource conflicts can be eliminated by duplicating the resource (may be costly) or by pipelining the resource (allowing overlapped use)

Speculation

- ❑ Speculation is used to allow execution of future instructions that (may) depend on guessed results of branch & load ops
 - Speculate on the outcome of a conditional branch (**branch prediction**)
 - Speculate that a store (for which we do not yet know the address) that precedes a load does not refer to the same address, allowing the load to be scheduled before the store (**load speculation**)

- ❑ Must have (hardware and/or software) mechanisms for
 - Checking to see if the guess was correct
 - Recovering from the effects of the instructions that were executed speculatively if the guess was incorrect

- ❑ Ignore and/or buffer exceptions created by speculatively executed instructions until it is clear that they should really occur

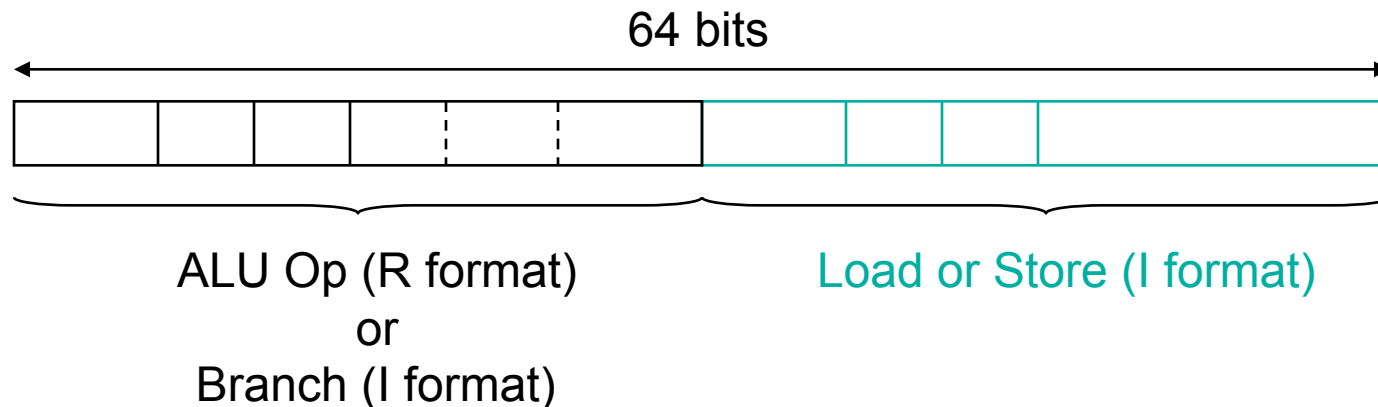
Static Multiple Issue Machines (VLIW)

- “Static multiple-issue” processors (aka **VLIW**) use the compiler (before run time) to statically decide which instructions can be issued and executed simultaneously
 - Issue packet – the set of instructions that are bundled together and issued in one clock cycle – think of it as one **large** instruction with multiple operations – called an instruction bundle by Intel
 - The mix of instructions in the packet (bundle) is usually restricted – a single “instruction” with several predefined fields, each for similar operations, e. g., Integer ALU, FP ALU, Data Load/Store, Branches
 - The compiler does static branch prediction and code scheduling (re-ordering) to reduce (control-) or eliminate (data-) hazards

- VLIWs (Very Long Instruction Word computers) all have
 - Multiple functional units
 - Multi-ported register files
 - Wide memory-processor busses

An Example: A VLIW MIPS

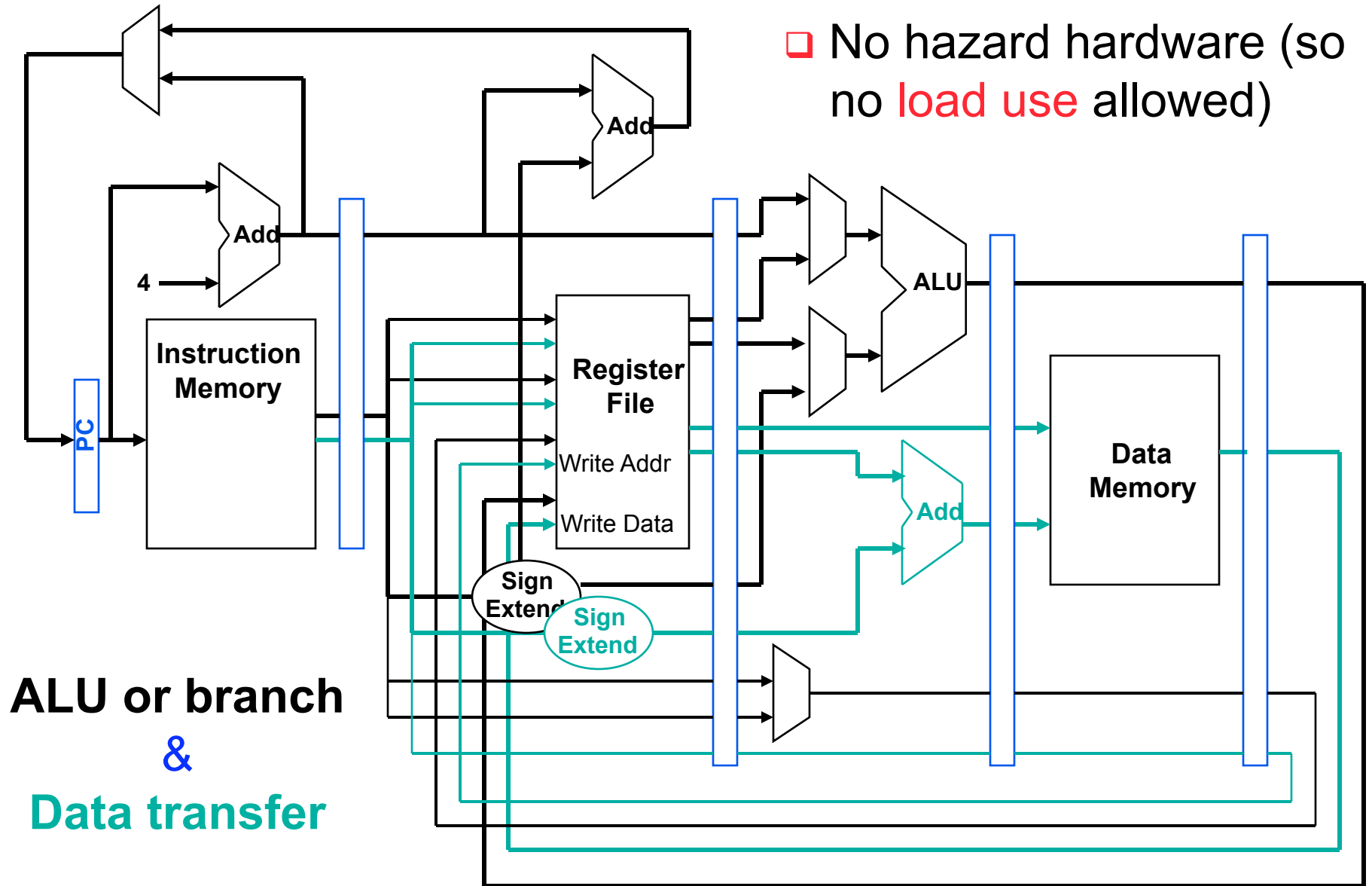
- ❑ Consider a 2-issue MIPS with a 2 instr bundle



- ❑ Instructions are always fetched, decoded, and issued in pairs
 - If one instr of the pair can not be used, it is replaced with a noop
- ❑ Need 4 read ports and 2 write ports and a separate memory address adder

A MIPS VLIW (2-issue) Datapath (Green & Black)

❑ No hazard hardware (so no **load use** allowed)



Code Scheduling Example

- Consider the following loop code : $A[s1] = A[s1] + k$

```
lp:   lw      $t0, 0($s1)    # $t0=array element
      addu   $t0, $t0, $s2  # add scalar k, in $s2
      sw     $t0, 0($s1)    # store result
Loop  → addi  $s1, $s1, -4   # decrement pointer
Overhead → bne  $s1, $r0, lp # branch if $s1 != 0
```

- Must “schedule” the instructions to avoid pipeline stalls

- Instructions in one bundle *must* be independent
- Must separate load-use instructions from their loads by a cycle
- Notice the **first two** instructions have a load-use dependency, the **middle two** and **last two** have data dependencies
- Assume branches are perfectly predicted by the hardware

The Scheduled Code (Not Unrolled)

	ALU or branch	Data transfer	CC
lp:			1
			2
			3
			4
			5

One Copy of the Scheduled Code (Not Unrolled)

	ALU or branch	Data transfer	CC
lp:		lw \$t0, 0(\$s1)	1
→	addi \$s1, \$s1, -4 ←		2
	addu \$t0, \$t0, \$s2		3
→	bne \$s1, \$r0, lp	sw \$t0, 4(\$s1)	4
			5

- ❑ Four clock cycles to execute 5 instructions for a
 - CPI of 0.8 (versus the best case of 0.5)
 - IPC of 1.25 (versus the best case of 2.0)
 - No-ops (empty slots) do not count towards performance !!

Loop Unrolling

- ❑ Loop unrolling – multiple copies are made of the loop body; instructions from different iterations are scheduled together as a way to increase ILP

- ❑ Apply loop unrolling (4 times for our example) and then **schedule (re-order, to give same result)** the resulting code
 - Eliminate unnecessary loop overhead instructions
 - Schedule so as to avoid load use hazards

- ❑ During unrolling, the compiler applies **register renaming** to eliminate all seeming (WAR, WAW) data dependencies – reuses of the same register number – that are not true (RAW, **Read-After-Write**) data dependencies

Unrolled Code Example (Four Code Copies)

```
lp:   lw      $t0, 0($s1)      # $t0=array element
      lw      $t1, -4($s1)   # $t1=array element
      lw      $t2, -8($s1)   # $t2=array element
      lw      $t3, -12($s1)  # $t3=array element
      addu   $t0, $t0, $s2    # add scalar in $s2
      addu   $t1, $t1, $s2    # add scalar in $s2
      addu   $t2, $t2, $s2    # add scalar in $s2
      addu   $t3, $t3, $s2    # add scalar in $s2
      sw     $t0, 0($s1)      # store result
      sw     $t1, -4($s1)     # store result
      sw     $t2, -8($s1)     # store result
      sw     $t3, -12($s1)    # store result
Loop  → addi   $s1, $s1, -16   # decrement pointer
Overhead → bne  $s1, $r0, lp   # branch if $s1 != 0
```

The Scheduled Code - For Four Unrolled Copies

	ALU or branch	Data transfer	CC
→ lp:	addi \$s1, \$s1, -16	lw \$t0, 0(\$s1)	1
		lw \$t1, 12(\$s1)	2
	addu \$t0, \$t0, \$s2	lw \$t2, 8(\$s1)	3
	addu \$t1, \$t1, \$s2	lw \$t3, 4(\$s1)	4
	addu \$t2, \$t2, \$s2	sw \$t0, 16(\$s1)	5
	addu \$t3, \$t3, \$s2	sw \$t1, 12(\$s1)	6
		sw \$t2, 8(\$s1)	7
→	bne \$s1, \$r0, lp	sw \$t3, 4(\$s1)	8

- ❑ Eight clock cycles to execute 14 instructions for a
 - CPI of 0.57 (versus the best case of 0.5)
 - IPC of 1.75 (versus the best case of 2.0)

Predication

- ❑ Predication can be used to eliminate branches by making the execution of an instruction dependent on a “predicate”, e.g.,

```
if (p) {statement 1} else {statement 2}
```

would normally compile using two branches. With predication it would compile as

```
(p) statement 1
```

```
(~p) statement 2
```

- ❑ The use of `(condition)` indicates that the instruction is committed only if `condition` is true
- ❑ Predication can be used to speculate as well as to eliminate branches

Need Compiler Support for VLIW Processors

- ❑ The compiler packs groups of **independent** instructions into the bundle
 - Done by code re-ordering (using “trace scheduling” to estimate most likely paths through the branch trees in the code. The “basic blocks”, branchless sections, have only ~7 instructions, too few to find many independent instructions for scheduling.)
- ❑ The compiler uses loop unrolling to expose more ILP
- ❑ The compiler uses “register renaming” to solve name dependencies and ensures no “load-use” hazards occur
- ❑ While superscalars use dynamic prediction, VLIW’s primarily depend on the compiler for branch prediction
 - Loop unrolling reduces the number of conditional branches
 - Predication eliminates if-the-else branch structures by replacing them with predicated instructions
- ❑ The compiler (not too well) tries to predict memory bank references to lessen stalls from memory bank conflicts.

VLIW Advantages & Disadvantages

□ Advantages

- Simpler hardware (fewer hazard checks, so may use less power)
- Potentially more scalable
 - Allow more instructions per VLIW bundle and add more FuncUnits

□ Disadvantages

- Programmer/compiler complexity and longer compilation times
 - Deep pipelines and long latencies can be confusing (making peak performance elusive)
- Lock step operation, since any hazard causes all future issues to stall until the hazard is resolved (hence the need for predication)
- Object (binary) code incompatibility whenever machine changes
- Needs lots of program memory bandwidth
- Code bloat
 - Noops are a waste of program memory space
 - Loop unrolling to expose more ILP uses more program memory and registers

Alternative - Dynamic Multiple-Issue Machines (SS)

- ❑ Dynamic multiple-issue processors (a.k.a., **SuperScalars**) use run-time hardware dynamically to select instructions to issue and to execute simultaneously. Must add two “issue & commit steps” to the fetch, decode & execute stages.
- ❑ **Instruction-fetch and issue** – fetch instructions, decode them, and *issue* them to a FU to await execution
 - Defines the **Instruction lookahead** capability – CPU can fetch, decode and issue instructions beyond the current instruction(s)
- ❑ **Instruction-execution** – as soon as all source operands & the FU (function unit) are ready, the result can be calculated
 - Defines the **processor lookahead** capability – CPU can complete execution of issued instructions beyond the current instruction
- ❑ **Instruction-commit** – when it is safe to do so, write back results to the RegFile or D\$ (i.e., change machine state) – usually whenever another branch prediction is confirmed.

In-Order vs Out-of-Order

- ❑ Instruction fetch and decode units are **required** to **issue** instructions **in-order** so that dependencies can be tracked
- ❑ The commit unit is **required** to **write results** to registers and memory **in** program fetch **order** so that
 - if exceptions occur, the only registers updated will be those written by instructions before the one causing the exception
 - if branches are mispredicted, those instructions executed after the mispredicted branch do not change the machine state (i.e., we use the commit unit to discard results from improper speculation).
- ❑ Although the front end (**fetch, decode, and issue**) and back end (**commit**) of the pipeline run **in-order**, the **FUs** are free to initiate execution whenever data that they need becomes available => **out-of-(program-)order execution**
 - Allowing **out-of-order (OoO) execution** increases the amount of ILP to help improve performance

Out-of-Order Execution

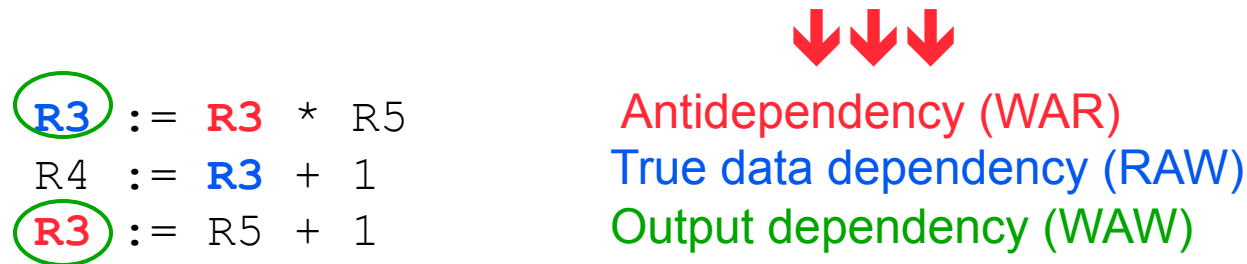
- With **out-of-order execution**, a later instruction may execute **before** a previous instruction so the hardware needs to resolve both **write after read (WAR)** and **write after write (WAW)** data hazards in addition to RAW data dependences.

```
lw    $t0, 0($s1)
sw    $t0, 800($s1)
addu  $t0, $t1, $s2
. . .
sub   $t2, $t0, $s2
```

- If the `lw` write to `$t0` occurs **after** the `addu` write to `$t0`, then the `sub` gets the wrong value for `$t0`
- The `addu` has an **output dependency** on the `lw` – **write after write**
 - The issuing of the `addu` might have to be stalled if its result could later be overwritten by an issued-earlier instruction that takes longer to complete

Antidependencies (WAR)

- Also have to deal with **antidependencies** – when a later instruction (if it is executed earlier, **out-of-order**) produces a data value that would destroy a data value used as a source in an earlier instruction (that is executed later)



- The constraint is similar to that of true (RAW) data dependencies, except *reversed*
 - Instead of the later instruction stalling until it can use a value (not yet) produced by an earlier instruction (**read after write**), if the later instruction is executed out-of-order earlier, it would produce a value that destroys a value that the earlier instruction (has not yet) used (**write after read**)

Dependencies Review

- ❑ Each of the three data dependencies (read after read is OK)
 - True data dependencies (read after write RAW)
 - Antidependencies (write after read WAR)
 - Output dependencies (write after write WAW)

} storage conflicts:
only the same
name is re-used

manifests itself through the re-use of registers (or other storage locations)

- ❑ True dependencies represent the flow of data and information within a program (the flow is critical to results)

- ❑ Anti- and output-dependencies arise because the limited number of registers causes programmers to re-use registers for different computations, leading to storage conflicts if some instructions are executed out-of-order

Storage Conflicts and Register Renaming

- ❑ Storage conflicts can be reduced (or eliminated) by increasing or duplicating the limited, conflicted resource



- Provide additional registers that are used to reestablish a one-to-one correspondence between registers and values
 - Allocated dynamically by the hardware in SuperScalar processors
- ❑ **Register renaming** – the processor renames the original register identifier in the instruction to a new register (one not in the architectural register set visible to programmers)

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{R3} := \text{R3} * \text{R5} \\ \text{R4} := \text{R3} + 1 \\ \text{R3} := \text{R5} + 1 \end{array} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{R3b} := \text{R3a} * \text{R5a} \\ \text{R4a} := \text{R3b} + 1 \\ \text{R3c} := \text{R5a} + 1 \end{array}$$

- The hardware that does renaming selects a “replacement” register from a pool of free registers and releases it back to the pool when its value is no longer needed, since there are no more references to it

Summary: Extracting More Performance

- ❑ To achieve high performance, need both **machine parallelism** and **instruction level parallelism (ILP)** by
 - Superpipelining (“deeper” pipelines)
 - Static multiple-issue (VLIW)
 - Dynamic multiple-issue (superscalar)

- ❑ A processor’s instruction issue and execution policies impact the available ILP
 - **In-order fetch, issue, and commit** and **out-of-order execution**
 - Pipelining creates **true** dependencies (**read after write RAW**)
 - **Out-of-order execution** creates **antidependencies** (**write after read WAR**)
 - **Out-of-order execution** creates **output dependencies** (**write after write**)
 - **In-order commit** allows speculation (to increase ILP) and is required to implement precise interrupts

- ❑ Register renaming can solve these storage dependencies

SimpleScalar Structure

- ❑ `sim-outorder`: supports out-of-order execution (with in-order commit) with a Register Update Unit (RUU)
 - Uses a RUU for register renaming and to hold the results of pending instructions. The RUU (aka reorder buffer (ROB)) retires (i.e., commits) results of completed instructions in program order to the architecturally visible registers in the RegFile
 - Uses a LSQ (LoadStoreQueue) for store instructions not ready to commit and load instructions waiting for access to the D\$
 - Loads are satisfied by either the memory or by an earlier store value residing in the LSQ if their addresses match
 - Loads are issued to the memory system only when addresses of *all* previous loads and stores are known

SS Pipeline Stage Functions

FETCH

Fetch multiple instructions

In Order

DECODE &
ISSUE

Decode and issue instr

In Order

EXECUTE

Wait for source operands to be Ready and FU free, schedule Result Bus and execute instruction

Out of Order

WRITE
BACK

Copy Result Bus data to matching waiting sources

RESULT
COMMIT

Write dst contents to RegFile or Data Memory

In Order

`ruu_fetch()`

`ruu_dispatch()`

`ruu_issue()`

`lsq_refresh()`

`ruu_commit()`

`ruu_writeback()`

Simulated SimpleScalar Pipeline

- ❑ `ruu_fetch()`: fetches instr's from one I\$ line, puts them in the fetch queue, probes the cache line predictor to determine the next I\$ line to access in the next cycle
 - `fetch:ifqsize<size>`: fetch width (default is 4)
 - `fetch:speed<ratio>`: ratio of the front end speed to the execution core (<ratio> times as many instructions fetched as are decoded per cycle)
 - `fetch:mplat<cycles>`: branch misprediction latency (default is 3)

- ❑ `ruu_dispatch()`: decodes instr's in the fetch queue, puts them in the dispatch (scheduler) queue, enters and links instr's into the RUU and the LSQ, splits memory access instructions into two separate instr's (one to compute the effective addr and one to access the memory), notes branch mispredictions
 - `decode:width<insts>`: decode width (default is 4)

SimpleScalar Pipeline, con't

□ `ruu_issue()` and `lsq_refresh()`: locates and marks the instr's ready to be **executed** by tracking register and memory dependencies, ready loads are issued to D\$ unless there are earlier stores in LSQ with unresolved addr's, forwards store values with matching addr to ready loads

- `issue:width<insts>`: maximum issue width (default is 4)
- `ruu:size<insts>`: RUU capacity in instr's (default is 16, min is 2)
- `lsq:size<insts>`: LSQ capacity in instr's (default is 8, min is 2)

and handles instr's execution – collects all the ready instr's from the scheduler queue (up to the issue width), check on FU availability, checks on access port availability, schedules writeback events based on FU latency (hardcoded in `fu_config[]`)

- `res:ialu | imult | memport | fpalu | fpmult<num>`: number of FU's (default is 4 | 1 | 2 | 4 | 1)

SimpleScalar Pipeline, con't

- ❑ `ruu_writeback()`: determines completed instr's, does data forwarding to dependent waiting instr's, detects branch misprediction and on misprediction rolls the machine state back to the checkpoint and discards erroneously issued instructions
- ❑ `ruu_commit()`: in-order commits results for instr's (values copied from RUU to RegFile or LSQ to D\$), RUU/LSQ entries for committed instr's freed; keeps retiring instructions at the head of RUU that are ready to commit until the head instr is one that is not ready

Evolution of Pipelined, SS Processors

	Year	Clock Rate	# Pipe Stages	Issue Width	OoO Execute?	Cores /Chip	Power
Intel 486	1989	25 MHz	5	1	No	1	5 W
Intel Pentium	1993	66 MHz	5	2	No	1	10 W
Intel Pentium Pro	1997	200 MHz	10	3	Yes	1	29 W
Intel Pentium 4 Willamette	2001	2000 MHz	22	3	Yes	1	75 W
Intel Pentium 4 Prescott	2004	3600 MHz	31	3	Yes	1	103 W
Intel Duo Core	2006	2930 MHz	14	4	Yes	2	75 W
Sun USPARC III	2003	1950 MHz	14	4	No	1	90 W
Sun T1 (Niagara)	2005	1200 MHz (why?)	6	1	No	8	70 W

Next Lecture and Reminders

□ Next lectures

- Memory Hierarchies

- Reading assignment – Chapter 5 **Memory Hierarchy** of text COD4e

□ Reminders

- HW3 will come out about November 1st
- HW3 will be due about Tues November 17
- Midterm exam will be in class, probably Thursday, **Nov 5th**.