Lecture 3
Instruction Level Parallelism (1)

EEC 171 Parallel Architectures
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Credits

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To understand what Larrabee is, it helps to understand why Larrabee is. Intel has been making single cores faster for decades by increasing the clock speed, increasing cache size, and using the extra transistors each new process generation provides to boost the work done during each clock. That process certainly hasn't stopped, and will continue to be an essential feature of main system processors for the foreseeable future, but it's getting harder. This is partly because most of the low-hanging fruit has already been picked, and partly because processors are starting to run up against power budgets, and both out-of-order instruction execution and higher clock frequency are power-intensive.

More recently, Intel has also been applying additional transistors in a different way – by adding more cores. This approach has the great advantage that, given software that can parallelize across many such cores, performance can scale nearly linearly as more and more cores get packed onto chips in the future.
Today’s Goals

• What is instruction-level parallelism?
• What do processors do to extract ILP?
  • Not “how do they do that” (future lecture)
Why Do Processors Get Faster?

3 reasons:

• More parallelism (or more work per pipeline stage): fewer clocks/instruction [more instructions/cycle]
  • Get WIDER

• Deeper pipelines: fewer gates/clock
  • Get DEEPER

• Transistors get faster (Moore’s Law): fewer ps/gate
  • Get FASTER
Extracting Yet More Performance

- Two options:
  - Increase the depth of the pipeline to increase the clock rate — superpipelining
  - How does this help performance? (What does it impact in the performance equation?)
  - Fetch (and execute) more than one instruction at one time (expand every pipeline stage to accommodate multiple instructions) — multiple-issue
  - How does this help performance? (What does it impact in the performance equation?)

- Today’s topic! \[
\frac{\text{seconds}}{\text{program}} = \frac{\text{instructions}}{\text{program}} \times \frac{\text{cycles}}{\text{instruction}} \times \frac{\text{seconds}}{\text{cycle}}
\]
Extracting Yet More Performance

• Launching multiple instructions per stage allows the instruction execution rate, CPI, to be less than 1

• So instead we use IPC: instructions per clock cycle

  • e.g., a 3 GHz, four-way multiple-issue processor can execute at a peak rate of 12 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?

• How might this lead to difficulties?
Superpipelined Processors

• Increase the depth of the pipeline leading to shorter clock cycles (and more instructions “in flight” at one time)

• The higher the degree of superpipelining, the more forwarding/hazard hardware needed, the more pipeline latch overhead (i.e., the pipeline latch accounts for a larger and larger percentage of the clock cycle time), and the bigger the clock skew issues (i.e., because of faster and faster clocks)

• We know there are limits to this (6–8 FO4 delays)
Superpipelined vs. Superscalar

- Superpipelined processors have longer instruction latency (in terms of cycles) than the SS processors which can degrade performance in the presence of true dependencies
- Note we’re improving throughput at the expense of latency!
- Superscalar processors are more susceptible to resource conflicts—but we can fix this with hardware!
Instruction vs Machine Parallelism

- Instruction-level parallelism (ILP) of a program—a measure of the average number of instructions in a program that, in theory, a processor might be able to execute at the same time.

- Mostly determined by the number of true (data) dependencies and procedural (control) dependencies in relation to the number of other instructions.

- ILP is traditionally “extracting parallelism from a single instruction stream working on a single stream of data”
Instruction vs Machine Parallelism

• 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
  
• A perfect machine with infinite machine parallelism can achieve the ILP of a program
  
• To achieve high performance, need both ILP and machine parallelism
Matrix Multiplication

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
y_0 \\
y_1 \\
y_2 \\
y_3 \\
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}
m_{00} & m_{01} & m_{02} & m_{03} \\
m_{10} & m_{11} & m_{12} & m_{13} \\
m_{20} & m_{21} & m_{22} & m_{23} \\
m_{30} & m_{31} & m_{32} & m_{33} \\
\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}
x_0 \\
x_1 \\
x_2 \\
x_3 \\
\end{bmatrix}
\]
Assembly for yo

- \( y_0 = m_{00}x_0 + m_{01}x_1 + m_{02}x_2 + m_{03}x_3 \)
- \( t_0 = m_{00}x_0 \)
  - \( t_1 = m_{01}x_1 \)
  - \( t_2 = m_{02}x_2 \)
  - \( t_3 = m_{03}x_3 \)
  - \( t_4 = t_0 + t_1 \)
  - \( t_5 = t_2 + t_3 \)
  - \( y_0 = t_4 + t_5 \)
Pipelined Processor

Time (clock cycles)

Cycle 1  Cycle 2  Cycle 3  Cycle 4  Cycle 5  Cycle 6  Cycle 7

Ifetch  Reg  ALU  DMem  Reg  ALU  DMem  Reg  ALU  DMem  Reg  ALU  DMem  Reg  ALU  DMem  Reg

Instr. Order

Ifetch  Reg  ALU  DMem  Reg  ALU  DMem  Reg  ALU  DMem  Reg  ALU  DMem  Reg  ALU  DMem  Reg

Ifetch  Reg  ALU  DMem  Reg  ALU  DMem  Reg  ALU  DMem  Reg  ALU  DMem  Reg  ALU  DMem  Reg
Review: Pipeline Hazards

- Structural hazards
  - What are they?
  - How do we eliminate them?
Review: Pipeline Hazards

- Data hazards—read after write
  - What are they?
  - How do we eliminate them?
Review: Pipeline Hazards

- Control hazards—beq, bne, j, jr, jal
  - What are they?
  - How do we eliminate them?
Hazards are bad because they reduce the amount of achievable machine parallelism and keep us from achieving all the ILP in the instruction stream.
Machine Parallelism

• There are 2 main approaches for machine parallelism. Responsibility of resolving hazards is ...
  • Primarily hardware-based—“dynamic issue”, “superscalar”
  • Today’s topic
• Primarily software-based—“VLIW”
Multiple-Issue Processor Styles

- Static multiple-issue processors (aka VLIW)
  - Decisions on which instructions to execute simultaneously are being made statically (at compile time by the compiler)
    - E.g., Intel Itanium and Itanium 2 for the IA-64 ISA—EPIC (Explicit Parallel Instruction Computer)
  - We’ll talk about this later

- Dynamic multiple-issue processors (aka superscalar)
  - Decisions on which instructions to execute simultaneously are being made dynamically (at run time by the hardware)
    - E.g., IBM Power 2, Pentium Pro/2/3/4, Core, MIPS R10K, HP PA 8500
  - We’re talking about this today
How do we support machine parallelism?

- First, let’s support parallel integer & FP instructions (MIPS)
How do we support machine parallelism?

- Now, how do we support multiple integer instructions?
Pentium issue restrictions

• What restrictions would we need to place on the instructions in the U and V pipes to ensure correct execution?
Additional restrictions

- Some instructions are not pairable
  - some shift/rotate, long arith., extended, some fp, etc.
- Some instructions can only be issued to U
  - carry/borrow, prefix, shift w/ immediate, some fp
- Both instructions access same d-cache memory bank
- Multi-cycle instructions that write to memory must stall second pipe until last write
Multiple-Issue Datapath Responsibilities

- Must handle, with a combination of hardware and software fixes, the fundamental limitations of
  - Storage (data) dependencies—aka data hazards
    - Most instruction streams do not have huge ILP so ... 
    - ... this limits performance in a superscalar processor
Multiple-Issue Datapath Responsibilities

- Must handle, with a combination of hardware and software fixes, the fundamental limitations of
  - Procedural dependencies—aka control hazards
    - Ditto, but even more severe
    - Use dynamic branch prediction to help resolve the ILP issue
      - Future lecture
Multiple-Issue Datapath Responsibilities

- Must handle, with a combination of hardware and software fixes, the fundamental limitations of
- **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 or by pipelining the resource
Instruction Issue and Completion Policies

- Instruction-issue—initiate execution
  - Instruction lookahead capability—fetch, decode and issue instructions beyond the current instruction
- Instruction-completion—complete execution
  - Processor lookahead capability—complete issued instructions beyond the current instruction
- Instruction-commit—write back results to the RegFile or D$ (i.e., change the machine state)

In-order issue with in-order completion
In-order issue with out-of-order completion
Out-of-order issue with out-of-order completion and in-order commit
Out-of-order issue with out-of-order completion
In-Order Issue with In-Order Completion

• Simplest policy is to issue instructions in exact program order and to complete them in the same order they were fetched (i.e., in program order)
In-Order Issue with In-Order Completion (Ex.)

- Assume a pipelined processor that can fetch and decode two instructions per cycle, that has three functional units (a single cycle adder, a single cycle shifter, and a two cycle multiplier), and that can complete (and write back) two results per cycle.

- Instruction sequence:
  - I1 – needs two execute cycles (a multiply)
  - I2
  - I3
  - I4 – needs the same function unit as I3
  - I5 – needs data value produced by I4
  - I6 – needs the same function unit as I5
In-order Issue, In-order Completion Example

**Instruction Order**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>l1</th>
<th>l2</th>
<th>l3</th>
<th>l4</th>
<th>l5</th>
<th>l6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**In parallel can**

- Fetch/decode 2
- Commit 2

**l1:** two execute cycles

- l2
- l3
- l4: same function unit as l3
- l5: data value produced by l4
- l6: same function unit as l5
Pentium Retrospective

- Limited in performance by “front end”
- Has to support variable-length instrs and segments
- Supporting all x86 features tough!
- 30% of transistors are for legacy support
  - Up to 40% in Pentium Pro!
  - Down to 10% in P4
- Microcode ROM is huge
Pentium Retrospective

- Pentium is in-order issue, in-order complete
- "Static scheduling" by the dispatch logic:
  - Fetch/dispatch/execute/retire: all in order
- Drawbacks:
  - Adapts poorly to dynamic code stream
  - Adapts poorly to future hardware
  - What if we had 3 pipes not 2?
In-Order Issue with Out-of-Order Completion

- With out-of-order completion, a later instruction may complete before a previous instruction.
- Out-of-order completion is used in single-issue pipelined processors to improve the performance of long-latency operations such as divide.
- When using out-of-order completion instruction issue is stalled when there is a resource conflict (e.g., for a functional unit) or when the instructions ready to issue need a result that has not yet been computed.
IOI-OOC Example

- **I1**: two execute cycles
- **I2**
- **I3**
- **I4**: same function unit as I3
- **I5**: data value produced by I4
- **I6**: same function unit as I5
Handling Output Dependencies

- There is one more situation that stalls instruction issuing with IOI-OOC, assume
  - I1 – writes to R3
    - I2 – writes to R3
    - I5 – reads R3
  - If the I1 write occurs after the I2 write, then I5 reads an incorrect value for R3
  - I2 has an output dependency on I1—write before write
  - The issuing of I2 would have to be stalled if its result might later be overwritten by an previous instruction (i.e., I1) that takes longer to complete—the stall happens before instruction issue
  - While IOI-OOC yields higher performance, it requires more dependency checking hardware (both write-after-read and write-after-write)
Out-of-Order Issue with Out-of-Order Completion

- With in-order issue the processor stops decoding instructions whenever a decoded instruction has a resource conflict or a data dependency on an issued, but uncompleted instruction.
- The processor is not able to look beyond the conflicted instruction even though more downstream instructions might have no conflicts and thus be issueable.
- Fetch and decode instructions beyond the conflicted one ("instruction window": Tetris), store them in an instruction buffer (as long as there’s room), and flag those instructions in the buffer that don’t have resource conflicts or data dependencies.
- Flagged instructions are then issued from the buffer without regard to their program order.
OOI-OOC Example

I1: two execute cycles
I2
I3
I4: same function unit as I3
I5: data value produced by I4
I6: same function unit as I5
Dependency Examples

- $R_3 := R_3 \times R_5$  
  True data dependency (RAW)
- $R_4 := R_3 + 1$  
  Output dependency (WAW)
- $R_3 := R_5 + 1$  
  Antidependency (WAR)
Antidependencies

- With OOI also have to deal with data antidependencies – when a later instruction (that completes earlier) produces a data value that destroys a data value used as a source in an earlier instruction (that issues later)

- The constraint is similar to that of true data dependencies, except reversed

- Instead of the later instruction using a value (not yet) produced by an earlier instruction (read before write), the later instruction produces a value that destroys a value that the earlier instruction (has not yet) used (write before read)
Dependencies Review

- Each of the three data dependencies ...
  - True data dependencies (read before write)
  - Antidependencies (write before read)
  - Output dependencies (write before write)

- ... manifests itself through the use of registers (or other storage locations)
- True dependencies represent the flow of data and information through a program
- Anti- and output dependencies arise because the limited number of registers mean that programmers reuse registers for different computations
- When instructions are issued out-of-order, the correspondence between registers and values breaks down and the values conflict for registers
Storage Conflicts and Register Renaming

• Storage conflicts can be reduced (or eliminated) by increasing or duplicating the troublesome resource

• Provide additional registers that are used to reestablish the correspondence between registers and values

  • Allocated dynamically by the hardware in SS processors

• Register renaming — the processor renames the original register identifier in the instruction to a new register (one not in the visible register set)

  • \( R_3 := R_3 \times R_5 \) \( R_3b := R_3a \times R_5a \)
  
  \( R_4 := R_3 + 1 \) \( R_4a := R_3b + 1 \)

  \( R_3 := R_5 + 1 \) \( R_3c := R_5a + 1 \)

• The hardware that does renaming assigns a “replacement” register from a pool of free registers and releases it back to the pool when its value is superseded and there are no outstanding references to it  [future lecture!]
Pentium Pro

1. Fetch In order
2. Decode/dispatch In order
3. Issue Reorder
4. Execute Out of order
5. Complete Reorder
6. Writeback (commit) In order
P6 Pipeline

- Instruction fetch, BTB access (3.5 stages)
  - 2 cycles for instruction fetch
- Decode, x86→uops (2.5 stages)
- Register rename (1 stage)
- Write to reservation station (1 stage)
- Read from reservation station (1 stage)
- Execute (1+ stages)
- Commit (2 stages)
Pentium Pro backends

- Pentium Pro

- Pentium 2

- Pentium 3