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VERY LARGE INSTRUCTION WORD (VLIW) PROCESSORS

- 1. Problems with Superscalar Architectures
- 2. VLIW Processors
- 3. Advantages and Problems
- 4. Loop Unrolling
- 5. Trace Scheduling
- 6. The Merced Architecture



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The Alternative: VLIW Processors

- VLIW architectures rely on compile-time detection of parallelism
 ⇒ the compiler analysis the program and detects operations to be executed in parallel; such operations are packed into one "large" instruction.
- After one instruction has been fetched all the corresponding operations are issued in parallel.



- No hardware is needed for run-time detection of parallelism.
- The window of execution problem is solved: the compiler can potentially analyse the whole program in order to detect parallel operations.

What is Good and what is Bad with Superscalars?

Good

- The hardware solves everything:
 - Hardware detects potential parallelism between instructions:
 - Hardware tries to issue as many instructions as possible in parallel.
 - Hardware solves register renaming.
- Binary compatibility
 - If functional units are added in a new version of the architecture or some other improvements have been made to the architecture (without changing the instruction sets), old programs can benefit from the additional potential of parallelism.

Why?

Because the new hardware will issue the old instruction sequence in a more efficient way.

Bad

- Very complex
 - Much hardware is needed for run-time detection. There is a limit in how far we can go with this technique.
- The window of execution is limited ⇒ this limits the capacity to detect potentially parallel instructions



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VLIW Processors op₂ op₁ op_3 op_4 instruction - 1 empty op₁ op_2 op₄ instruction - 2 op₁ empty op_3 op₄ instruction - 3

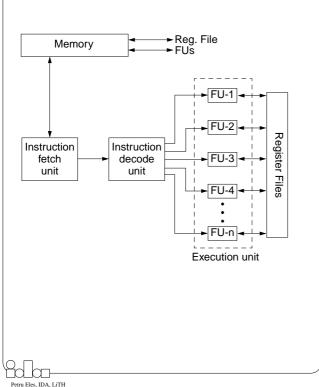
Detection of parallelism and packaging of operations into instructions is done, by the compiler, off-line.





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VLIW Processors (cont'd)



Advantages and Problems with VLIW Processors

<u>Advantages</u>

- · Simple hardware:
 - the number of FUs can be increased without needing additional sophisticated hardware to detect parallelism, like in superscalars.
- Good compilers can detect parallelism based on global analysis of the whole program (no window of execution problem).

Problems

- Large number of registers needed in order to keep all FUs active (to store operands and results).
- Large data transport capacity is needed between FUs and the register file and between register files and memory.
- High bandwidth between instruction cache and fetch unit.

 Example: one instruction with 7 enerations, each
 - Example: one instruction with 7 operations, each 24 bits \Rightarrow 168 bits/instruction.
- Large code size, partially because unused operations

 wasted bits in instruction word.
- Incomputability of binary code For example:

If for a new version of the processor additional FUs are introduced \Rightarrow the number of operations possible to execute in parallel is increased \Rightarrow the instruction word changes \Rightarrow old binary code cannot be run on this processor.



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An Example

Consider the following code in C:

for (i=959; i >= 0; i--) x[i] = x[i] + s;

Assumptions: **x** is an array of floating point values **s** is a floating point constant.

This sequence (for an ordinary processor) would be compiled to:

Assumptions:

- R1 initially contains the address of the last element in x; the other elements are at lower addresses; x[0] is at address 0.
- Floating point register F2 contains the value s.
- Each floating point value is 8 bytes long.

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An Example (cont'd)

Consider a VLIW processor:

- two memory references, two FP operations, and one integer operation or branch can be issued each clock cycle.
- The delay for a double word load is one additional clock cycle.
- The delay for a floating point operation is two additional clock cycles.
- No additional clock cycles for integer operations.





An Example (cont'd)

LDD F0,(R1)		
	ADF F4,F0,F2	
		SBI ≁R1,R1,#8
STD 8(R1),F4		BGEZ R1,Loop

The displacement of 8, in 8(R1), is needed because we have already subtracted 8 from R1.

- One iteration takes 6 cycles.
 The whole loop takes 960*6 = 5760 cycles.
- · Almost no parallelism there.
- Most of the fields in the instructions are empty.
- We have two completely empty cycles.



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Loop Unrolling (cont'd)

LDD F0,(R1)	LDD F6,-8(R1)			
		ADF F4,F0,F2	ADF F8,F6,F2	
				SBI R1,R1,#16
STD 16(R1),F4	STD 8(R1),F8			BGEZ R1,Loop

- There is an increased degree of parallelism in this
- We still have two completely empty cycles and empty operation.
- However, we have a dramatic improvement in speed:

Two iterations take 6 cycles The whole loop takes 480*6 = 2880 cycles

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Loop Unrolling

Let us rewrite the previous example:

```
for (i=959; i >= 0; i-=2){
 x[i] = x[i] + s;
 x[i-1] = x[i-1] + s;
}
```

This sequence (for an ordinary processor) would be compiled to:

```
Loop: LDD
                  F0, (R1)
                               F0 \leftarrow x[i];(load double)
      ADF
                  F4,F0,F2 F4 \leftarrow F0 + F2 ;(floating pnt)
      STD
                  (R1),F4
                               x[i] \leftarrow F4; (store double)
      LDD
                  F0, -8(R1) F0 \leftarrow x[i-1];(load double)
       ADF
                  F4,F0,F2 F4 \leftarrow F0 + F2 ;(floating pnt)
      STD
                  -8(R1),F4 x[i-1] \leftarrow F4;(store double)
      SBI
                  R1,R1,#16 R1 ← R1 - 16
      BGEZ
                  R1,Loop
```



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Loop Unrolling (cont'd)

<u>Loop unrolling</u> is a technique used *in compilers* in order to increase the potential of parallelism in a program. This allows for more efficient code generation for processors with instruction level parallelism (which can execute several instructions in parallel).

Let us unroll three iterations in our example:

```
for (i=959; i >= 0; i-=3){

x[i] = x[i] + s;

x[i-1] = x[i-1] + s;

x[i-2] = x[i-2] + s;
```

This sequence (for an ordinary processor) would be compiled to:

```
Loop: LDD
                                F0 \leftarrow x[i]; (load double)
                   F0, (R1)
       ADF
                   F4,F0,F2 F4 \leftarrow F0 + F2 ;(floating pnt)
                   (R1),F4
       STD
                                x[i] \leftarrow F4; (store double)
       LDD
                   F0, -8(R1) F0 \leftarrow x[i-1]; (load double)
       ADF
                   F4,F0,F2 F4 \leftarrow F0 + F2 ;(floating pnt)
       STD
                   -8(R1),F4 x[i-1] \leftarrow F4;(store double)
       LDD
                   F0, -16(R1) F0 \leftarrow x[i-2] ;(load double)
       ADF
                   F4,F0,F2 F4 \leftarrow F0 + F2 ;(floating pnt)
       STD
                   -16(R1),F4 x[i-2] \leftarrow F4;(store double)
       SBI
                   R1,R1,\#24\ R1\leftarrow R1-24
       BGEZ
                   R1,Loop
```

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Loop Unrolling (cont'd)

LDD	LDD			
F0,(R1)	F6,-8(R1)			
LDD				
F10,-16(R1)				
		ADF	ADF	
		F4,F0,F2	F8,F6,F2	
		ADF		
		F12,F10,F2		
STD	STD			SBI
(R1),F4	-8(R1),F8			R1,R1,#24
STD				BGEZ
8(R1),F12				R1,Loop

- · The degree of parallelism is further improved.
- · There is still an empty cycle and empty operations.
- Three iterations take 7 cycles
 The whole loop takes 320*7 = 2240 cycles



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Loop Unrolling (cont'd)

- Given a certain set of resources (processor architecture) and a given loop, there is a limit on how many iterations should be unrolled.
 Beyond that limit there is no gain any more.
- Loop unrolling increases the memory space needed to store the program.
- A good compiler has to find the optimal level of unrolling for each loop.

The example before illustrates some of the hardware support needed to keep a VLIW processor busy.

- large number of registers (in order to store data for operations which are active in parallel);
- large traffic has to be supported in parallel:
 - register file \leftrightarrow memory
 - register file \leftrightarrow functional units.

Loop Unrolling (cont'd)

With eight iterations unrolled:

```
for (i=959; i >= 0; i=8){
	x[i] = x[i] + s; x[i-1] = x[i-1] + s;
	x[i-2] = x[i-2] + s; x[i-3] = x[i-3] + s;
	x[i-4] = x[i-4] + s; x[i-5] = x[i-5] + s;
	x[i-6] = x[i-6] + s; x[i-7] = x[i-7] + s;
```

LDD	LDD			
F0,(R1)	F6,-8(R1)			
LDD	LDD			
F10,-16(R1)	F14,-24(R1)			
LDD	LDD	ADF	ADF	
F18,-32(R1)	F22,-40(R1)	F4,F0,F2	F8,F6,F2	
LDD	LDD	ADF	ADF	
F26,-48(R1)	F30,-56(R1)	F12,F10,F2	F16,F14,F2	
		ADF	ADF	
		F20,F18,F2	F24,F22,F2	
STD	STD	ADF	ADF	
(R1),F4	-8(R1),F8	F28,F26,F2	F32,F30,F2	
STD	STD			
-16(R1),F12	-24(R1),F16			
STD	STD			SBI
-32(R1),F20	-40(R1),F24			R1,R1,#64
STD	STD			BGEZ
16(R1),F28	8(R1),F32			R1,Loop

- · No empty cycles, but still empty operations
- Eight iterations take 9 cycles
 The whole loop takes 120*9 = 1080 cycles



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Trace Scheduling

<u>Trace scheduling</u> is another technique used *in compilers* in order to exploit parallelism *across* conditional branches.

- The problem is that long instruction sequences are needed in order to detect sufficient parallelism ⇒ block boundaries have to be crossed.
- Trace scheduling is based on compile time branch prediction.

Trace scheduling is done in three steps:

- 1. Trace selection
- 2. Instruction scheduling
- 3. Replacement and compensation



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Trace Scheduling (cont'd)

Example:

if (c != 0)

$$b = a / c$$
;
else
 $b = 0$; h=0;
 $f = g + h$;

This sequence (for an ordinary processor) would be compiled to:



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Trace Scheduling (cont'd)

LD R0, c

BZ R0,Else

LD R0, g

LD R1, h

AD R1,R1,R0

ST f,R1

End.

STI b,#0

STI h,#0

Next:

LD R1, a

DV R1,R1,R0

ST b,R1

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Trace Scheduling (cont'd)

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Trace selection:

- Selects a sequence of basic blocks, likely to be executed most of the time. This sequence is called a trace.
- Trace selection is based on compile time branch
 - The quality of prediction can be improved by profiling:

execution of the program with several typical input sequences and collection of statistics concerning conditional branches.

Instruction scheduling:

Schedules the instructions of the selected trace into parallel operations for the VLIW processor.

	LD R0,c	LD R1,a		
	LD R2,g	LD R3,h		BZ R0, Else
				DV R1,R1,R0
Next:	ST b,R1			AD R3,R3,R2
	ST f,R3			BR End

(suppose the same processor as described on slide 8)



Trace Scheduling (cont'd)

Replacement and compensation

- The initial trace is replaced with the generated schedule.
- In the generated schedule, instructions have been moved across branches



In order to keep the code correct, regardless of the selected branches, compensation code has to be added!

In the example:

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- the load of values g and h has been moved up, from the next sequence, before the conditional
- the load of value a has been moved before the conditional branch;
- the store of value b after the division is now part of the next sequence.



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Trace Scheduling (cont'd)

Simply merging with the code from the else sequence is not enough:

	LD R0,c	LD R1,a			
	LD R2,g	LD R3,h			BZ R0, Else
ĺ				Е	OV R1,R1,R0
	ST b,R1			Α	D R3,R3,R2
	ST f,R3				BR End
	STI b,#0	STI h,#0		l	BR Next
	# 1"				

The store in the next sequence overwrites the STI in the else sequence (because the store of *b* has been moved down into the next sequence)

The value assigned to h in the *else* sequence is ignored for the addition (because the load of h has been moved up from the next sequence)

Compensation is needed!



Next:

Else End:

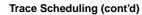
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Trace Scheduling (cont'd)

- This is different from speculative execution (as in superscalars, for example).
- This is a compiler optimization and tries to optimize the code so that the path which is most likely to be taken, is executed as fast as possible.

The prise: possible additional instructions (the compensation code) to be executed when the less probable path is taken.

- The correct path will be always taken; however, if this is not the one predicted by the compiler, execution will be slower because of the compensation code.
- Beside this, at the hardware level, a VLIW processor can also use branch prediction and speculative execution, like any processor in order to improve the use of its pipelines.



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This is the correct sequence:

	LD R0,c	LD R1,a		
	LD R2,g	LD R3,h		BZ R0, Else
				DV R1,R1,R0
Next:	ST b,R1			AD R3,R3,R2
	ST f,R3			BR End
Else:	STI R1,#0	STI h,#0		
	STI R3,#0			BR Next

End:

This is compensation code: it has been introduced because LD R3,h has been moved up at scheduling of the selected trace.



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Some VLIW Processors

Successful current VLIW processors:

- TriMedia of Philips
- TMS320C6x of Texas Instruments

Both are targeting the multi-media market.

- The IA-64 architecture from Intel and Hewlett-Packard.
 - This family uses many of the VLIW ideas.
 - It is not "just" a muli-media processor, but intended to become "the new generation" processor for servers and workstations.
 - The fist planned product (for 2000/2001): Merced (recently renamed Itanium).





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The Merced (Itanium) Architecture

The Merced is not a pure VLIW architecture, but many of its features are typical for VLIW processors.

Basic concepts with Merced

These are typical VLIW features:

- Instruction-level parallelism fixed at compile-time.
- · (Very) long instruction word.

These are specific for the IA-64 Architecture (Merced/Itanium and its followers):

- Branch predication.
- · Speculative loading

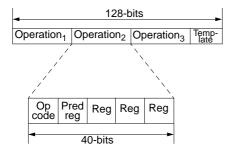
Intel calls the Merced an EPIC (explicitly parallel instruction computing) processor:

- because the parallelism of operations is explicitly there in the instruction word.



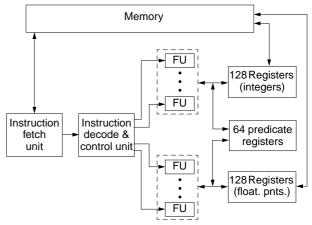
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Instruction Format



- 3 operations/instruction word
 - This does not mean that max. 3 operations can be executed in parallel!
 - The three operations in the instruction are not necessarily to be executed in parallel!
- The *template* indicates what can be executed in parallel.
 - The encoding in the template shows which of the operations in the instruction can be executed in parallel.
 - The template connects also to neighbouring instructions ⇒ operations from different instructions can be executed in parallel.





- Registers (both integer and fl. pnt.) are 64-bit.
- Predicate registers are 1-bit.
- · 8 or more functional units.

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Instruction Format (cont'd)

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- The template provides high flexibility and avoids some of the problems with classical VLIW processors
 - Operations in one instruction have not necessarily to be parallel ⇒ no places have to be left empty when no operation is there to be executed in parallel.
 - The number of operations to be executed in parallel is not restricted by the instruction size
 ⇒ successive processor generations can have different number of functional units without changing the instruction word ⇒ improved binary compatibility.
 - If, according to the template, more operations can be executed in parallel than functional units are available ⇒ the processor is able to take them sequentially.





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Predicated Execution

 Any operation can refer to a predicate register (see slide 27)

<Pi> operation *i* is the number of a predicate register (between 0 and 63)

- This means that the respective operation is to be committed (the results made visible) only when the respective predicate is true (the predicate register gets value 1).
- If the predicate value is known when the operation is issued, the operation is executed only if this value is true

If the predicate is not known at that moment, the operation is started; if the predicate turns out to be *false*, the operation is discarded.

 If no predicate register is mentioned, the operation is executed and committed unconditionally.



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Branch Predication

- Branch predication is a very aggressive compilation technique for generation of code with instruction level parallelism (code with parallel operations).
- Branch predication goes one step further than trace scheduling. In order to exploit all potential of parallelism in the machine it lets operations from both branches of a conditional branch to be executed in parallel.
- Branches can be very often eliminated and replaced by conditional execution.
 In order to do this hardware support is needed.
- Branch predication is based on the instructions for predicated execution provided by the Merced architecture.

The idea is: let instructions from both branches go on in parallel, before the branch condition has been evaluated. The hardware (predicated execution) takes care that only those are committed which correspond to the right branch.



Predicate assignment

Pj, Pk = relation j and k are predicate registers (between 0 and 63).

 Will set the value of predicate register j to true and that of predicate register k to false if the relation is evaluated to true; j will be set to false and k to true if the relation evaluates to false.

Predicated predicate assignment

<Pi> Pj, Pk = relation

i, *j* and *k* are predicate registers (between 0 and 63).

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 Predicate registers j and k will be updated if and only if predicate register i is true.

The instruction format of the predicate assignment and the predicated predicate assignment operation is slightly different from that shown on slide 27. These operations have two and three fields for predicate registers, respectively.



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Branch Predication (cont'd)

Branch predication is not branch prediction:

- Branch prediction: guess for one branch and then go along that one; if the guess is bad, undo all the work;
- Branch predication:
 both branches are started and when the condition is known (the predicate registers are set) the right instructions are committed, the others are discarded.



There is no lost time with failed predictions.





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Branch Predication (cont'd)

```
Example:

if (a && b)

j = j + 1;

else{

if (c)

k = k + 1;

else

k = k - 1;

m = k * 5}
```

Assumptions:

i = i + 1;

The values are stored in registers, as follows: a: R0; b: R1; j: R2; c: R3; k: R4; m: R5; i: R6.

This sequence (for an ordinary processor) would be compiled to:

```
ΒZ
                 R0. L1
                             branch if a == 0
      ΒZ
                 R1. L1
                             branch if b == 0
      ADI
                 R2, R2,#1 R2 \leftarrow R2 + 1;(integer)
      BR
L1:
      ΒZ
                 R3, L2
                             branch if c == 0
      ADI
                 R4, R4,#1 R4 \leftarrow R4 + 1;(integer)
      BR
L2:
      SBI
                 R4, R4,#1 R4 ← R4 - 1;(integer)
L3:
      MPI
                 R5, R4,#5 R5 ← R4 * 5;(integer)
L4:
      ADI
                 R6, R6,#1 R6 ← R6 + 1;(integer)
```

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Branch Predication (cont'd)

Let us read it in this way:

If not(a == 0) and not(b == 0)If not(not(a == 0) and not(b == 0)) and not(c == 0)ADI R4, R4,#1 if not(not(a == 0) and not(b == 0)) and not(c == 0))

SBI R4, R4,#1 if not(not(a == 0) and not(b == 0))

MPI R5, R4,#5

R6,#1

AD

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Branch Predication (cont'd)

The same with predicated execution: (all predicates are initialised as *false*)

```
(1) P1, P2 = EQ(R0, #0)
```

(3) <P3> ADI R2, R2,#1

(4) <P1> P4, P5 = NEQ(R3, #0)

(5) <P4> ADI R4, R4,#1

(6) <P5> SBI R4, R4,#1

(7) <P1> MPI R5, R4,#5

(8) ADI R6, R6,#1

- The compiler can plan all these instructions to be issued in parallel, except (5) and (6) which are data-dependent.
- Instructions can be started before the particular predicate on which they depend is known. When the predicate will be known, the particular instruction will or will not be committed.

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Speculative Loading

You remember when we discussed "delayed loading" (Fö. 5/6):

The load is placed so that memory latency is avoided (the value is already there when it's needed):

ADD R4,R3 R4 ← R4 + R3
ADD R2,R1 R2 ← R2 + R1
SUB R2,R4 R2 ← R2 - R4



Speculative Loading (cont'd)

	ADI	R0,#1	$R0 \leftarrow R0 + 1$;(integer)
	BZ	R0, L1	
	ADI	R2, R2,#1	$R2 \leftarrow R2 + 1$;(integer)
	BR	L2	
L1:	LD	R3, x	$R3 \leftarrow x$
	ADI	R3, R3,#1	$R3 \leftarrow R3 + 1$;(integer)
L2:	SBI	R4, R4,#1	R4 ← R4 - 1;(integer)

In order to avoid memory latency the load for value x is moved by the compiler like this:

	LD	R3, x	$R3 \leftarrow x$
	ADI	R0,#1	$R0 \leftarrow R0 + 1$;(integer)
	BZ	R0, L1	
	ADI	R2, R2,#1	$R2 \leftarrow R2 + 1; (integer)$
	BR	L2	
L1:	ADI	R3, R3,#1	$R3 \leftarrow R3 + 1$;(integer)
L2:	SBI	R4, R4,#1	$R4 \leftarrow R4 - 1; (integer)$

Attention: the load has been moved ahead of the conditional branch!



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Speculative Loading (cont'd)

With speculative loading a load instruction in the original program can be replaced by two instructions:

- A speculative load (LD.s) which performs the memory fetch and detects an exception (like page fault) if generated. The exception, however is not signalled to the operating system).
 The speculative load is the one which is moved if needed for latency reduction.
- A checking instruction (CHK.s) which signals the exception if one has been detected by the speculative load. If no exception has been detected, nothing happens.
 The checking instruction remains in place (is not moved).

By this technique, even if loads are moved across branch boundaries, exceptions are handled only on the branch which really needs the value.

Speculative Loading (cont'd)

What if a load is moved across a branch?

The load will be executed for both branches.
 This shouldn't be a problem if parallel resources are available.

But it is a problem if, for example, a page fault is generated. *Handling such an exception takes extremely much time and resources*.



We would like to handle the exception only on the branch which really needs the loaded value! This is solved by speculative loading!



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Speculative Loading (cont'd)

	LD.s	R3, x	R3 ← x
	ADI	R0,#1	$R0 \leftarrow R0 + 1$;(integer)
	BZ	R0, L1	
	ADI	R2, R2,#1	$R2 \leftarrow R2 + 1;(integer)$
	BR	L2	
L1:	CHK.s	R3	
	ADI	R3, R3,#1	$R3 \leftarrow R3 + 1$;(integer)
L2:	SBI	R4, R4,#1	R4 ← R4 - 1;(integer)

The compiler for a Merced processor will make use of both branch predication and speculative loading. For the sequence above, only speculative loading has been illustrated.



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Summary

- In order to keep up with increasing demands on performance, superscalar architectures become excessively complex.
- VLIW architectures avoid complexity by relying exclusively on the compiler for parallelism detection.
- Operation level parallelism is explicit in the instructions of a VLIW processor.
- Not having to deal with parallelism detection, VLIW processors can have a high number of functional units. This, however, generates the need for a large number of registers and high communication bandwidth.
- In order to keep the large number of functional units busy, compilers for VLIW processors have to be aggressive in parallelism detection.
- Loop unrolling is used by compilers in order to increase the degree of parallelism in loops: several iterations of a loop are unrolled and handled in parallel.
- Trace scheduling applies to conditional branches.
 The compiler tries to predict which sequence is the most likely to be selected, and schedules operations so that this sequence is executed as fast as possible. Compensation code is added in order to keep the program correct. This can add some overhead to other sequences.

- The IA-64 family of Intel and Hewlett-Packard uses VLIW techniques for the future generation of highend processors. Merced (Itanium) is the first planned member of this family.
- Beside typical VLIW features, the Merced architecture uses branch predication and speculative loading.
- The instruction format avoids empty operations and allows more flexibility in the specification of parallelism. This is solved using the template field.
- Branch predication is based on predicated execution. The execution of an instruction can be connected to a certain predicate register. The instruction will be committed only if the specified predicate register becomes true.
- Branch predication allows instructions from different branches to be started in parallel. Finally, only those in the right branch will be committed.
- Speculative loading tries to reduce latencies generated by load instructions. It allows load instructions to be moved across branch boundaries, without page exceptions being handled if not needed.
- For speculative loading, a load instruction is split into two: the speculative load, which is moved, and the checking instruction which is kept on place.



Petru Eles, IDA, LiTH