

Most of the slides in this lecture are either from or adapted from slides provided by the authors of the textbook "Computer Systems: A Programmer's Perspective," $2^{\rm nd}$ Edition and are provided from the website of Carnegie-Mellon University, course 15-213, taught by Randy Bryant and David O'Hallaron in Fall 2010. These slides are indicated "Supplied by CMU" in the notes section of the slides.

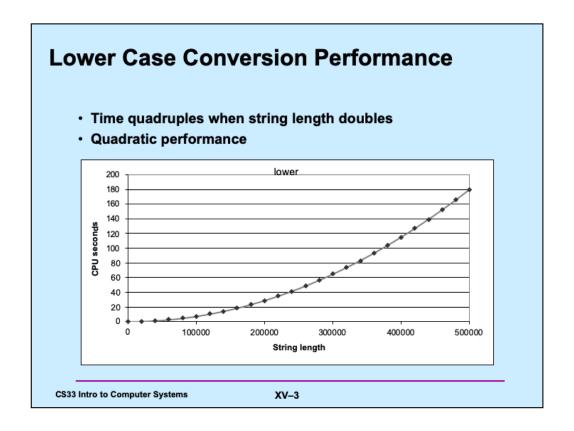
Optimization Blocker #1: Function Calls

· Function to convert string to lower case

```
void lower(char *s) {
  int i;
  for (i = 0; i < strlen(s); i++)
    if (s[i] >= 'A' && s[i] <= 'Z')
       s[i] -= ('A' - 'a');
}</pre>
```

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Convert Loop To Goto Form

```
void lower(char *s) {
   int i = 0;
   if (i >= strlen(s))
     goto done;
loop:
   if (s[i] >= 'A' && s[i] <= 'Z')
        s[i] -= ('A' - 'a');
   i++;
   if (i < strlen(s))
     goto loop;
done:
}</pre>
```

strlen executed every iteration

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Calling Strlen

```
size_t strlen(const char *s) {
    size_t length = 0;
    while (*s != '\0') {
        s++;
        length++;
    }
    return length;
}
```

- · strlen performance
 - only way to determine length of string is to scan its entire length, looking for null character
- Overall performance, string of length N
 - N calls to strien
 - overall O(N2) performance

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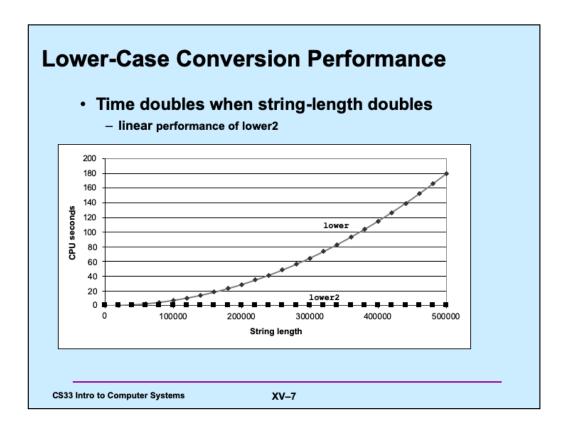
Improving Performance

```
void lower2(char *s) {
  int i;
  int len = strlen(s);
  for (i = 0; i < len; i++)
    if (s[i] >= 'A' && s[i] <= 'Z')
       s[i] -= ('A' - 'a');
}</pre>
```

- Move call to strlen outside of loop
 - since result does not change from one iteration to another
 - form of code motion

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Optimization Blocker: Function Calls

- Why couldn't compiler move strlen out of inner loop?
 - function may have side effects
 - » alters global state each time called
 - function may not return same value for given arguments
 - » depends on other parts of global state
 - » function lower could interact with strlen
- Warning:
 - compiler treats procedure call as a black box
 - weak optimizations near them
- Remedies:
 - use of inline functions
 - » gcc does this with -O2
 - do your own code motion

```
int lencnt = 0;
size_t strlen(const char *s) {
    size_t length = 0;
    while (*s != '\0') {
        s++; length++;
    }
    lencnt += length;
    return length;
}
```

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Memory Matters /* Sum rows of n X n matrix a and store result in vector b */ void sum_rows1(long n, long a[][n], long *b) { long i, j; for (i = 0; i < n; i++) { b[i] = 0;**for** (j = 0; j < n; j++)b[i] += a[i][j]; # sum_rows1 inner loop .L3: movq (%r8,%rax,8), %rcx # rcx = a[i][j]addq %rcx, (%rdx) # b[i] += rcx \$1, %rax # j++ addq %rax, %rdi cmpq # if i<n .L3 # goto .L3 jne Code updates b[i] on every iteration · Why couldn't compiler optimize this away? **CS33 Intro to Computer Systems** XV-9

Based on a slide supplied by CMU.

Memory Aliasing /* Sum rows of n X n matrix a and store result in vector b */ void sum rows1(long n, long a[][n], long *b) { long i, j; for (i = 0; i < n; i++) { b[i] = 0;**for** (j = 0; j < n; j++)b[i] += a[i][j]; Value of B: int A[3][3] = init: [4, 8, 16] {{ 0, 1, 2}, { 4, 8, 16}, i = 0: [3, 8, 16] {32, 64, 128}}; i = 1: [3, 22, 16] int *B = &A[1][0]; i = 2: [3, 22, 224] sum_rows1(3, A, B; Code updates b[i] on every iteration Must consider possibility that these updates will affect program behavior **CS33 Intro to Computer Systems** XV-10

Supplied by CMU, updated for current gcc.

Removing Aliasing /* Sum rows of n X n matrix a and store result in vector b */ void sum_rows1(long n, long a[][n], long *b) { long i, j; for (i = 0; i < n; i++) { long val = 0; **for** (j = 0; j < n; j++)val += a[i][j]; b[i] = val;# sum_rows2 inner loop .L4: addq (%r8, %rax, 8)), %rcx addq \$1, %rdi cmpq %rcx, %rdi · No need to store intermediate results XV-11 **CS33 Intro to Computer Systems**

Optimization Blocker: Memory Aliasing

- Aliasing
 - two different memory references specify single location
 - easy to have happen in C
 - » since allowed to do address arithmetic
 - » direct access to storage structures
 - get in habit of introducing local variables
 - » accumulating within loops
 - » your way of telling compiler not to check for aliasing

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C99 to the Rescue

- New attribute
 - restrict
 - » applied to a pointer, tells the compiler that the object pointed to will be accessed only via this pointer
 - » compiler thus doesn't have to worry about aliasing
 - » but the programmer does ...
 - » syntax

```
int *restrict pointer;
```

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Pointers and Arrays

- long a[][n]
 - a is a 2-D array of longs, the size of each row is n
- long (*b)[n]
 - b is a pointer to a 1-D array of size n
- a and b are of the same type

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Memory Matters, Fixed /* Sum rows of n X n matrix a and store result in vector b */ void sum rows1(long n, long (*restrict a)[n], long *restrict b) { long i, j; for (i = 0; i < n; i++) { b[i] = 0;**for** (j = 0; j < n; j++)b[i] += a[i][j]; # sum_rows1 inner loop .L3: addq (%rdi), %rax addq \$8, %rdi %rcx, %rdi cmpq jne .L3 Code doesn't update b[i] on every iteration **CS33 Intro to Computer Systems** XV-15 Copyright © 2019 Thomas W. Doeppner. All rights reserved.

Note: we must give gcc the flag "-std=gnu99" for this to be compiled.

Observe that

```
long (*a) [n]
```

declares a to be a pointer to an array of n longs.

Thus

```
long (*restrict a) [n]
```

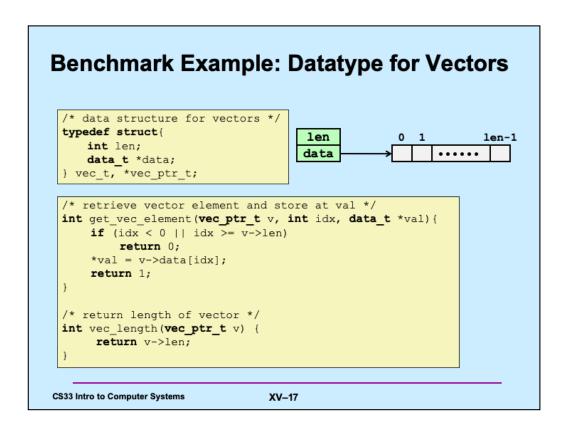
declares a to be a restricted pointer to an array of n longs

Exploiting Instruction-Level Parallelism

- Need general understanding of modern processor design
 - hardware can execute multiple instructions in parallel
- · Performance limited by data dependencies
- Simple transformations can have dramatic performance improvement
 - compilers often cannot make these transformations
 - lack of associativity and distributivity in floatingpoint arithmetic

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Benchmark Computation

```
void combine1(vec_ptr_t v, data_t *dest) {
    long int i;
    *dest = IDENT;
    for (i = 0; i < vec_length(v); i++) {
        data_t val;
        get_vec_element(v, i, &val);
        *dest = *dest OP val;
    }
}</pre>
```

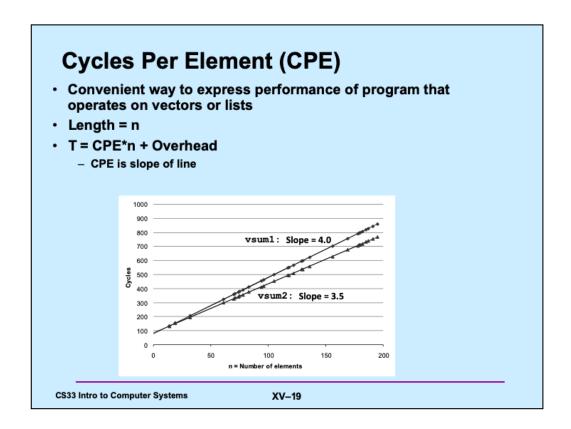
Compute sum or product of vector elements

- Data Types
 - use different declarations for data_t
 - » int
 - » float
 - » double

- Operations
 - use different definitions of OP and IDENT
 - » +, 0
 » *, 1

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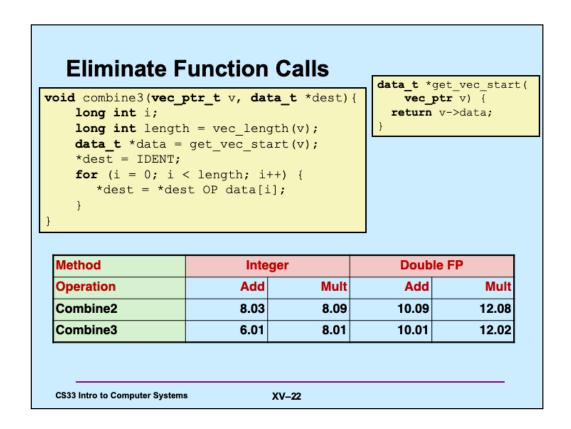
Benchmark Performance void combine1(vec_ptr_t v, data_t *dest) { long int i; Compute sum or *dest = IDENT; product of vector for (i = 0; i < vec_length(v); i++) {</pre> elements data_t val; get_vec_element(v, i, &val); *dest = *dest OP val; Method **Double FP** Integer Operation Add Mult Add Mult Combine1 29.0 29.2 27.4 27.9 unoptimized 12.0 12.0 12.0 13.0 Combine1 -01

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Move vec_length void combine2(vec_ptr_t v, data_t *dest){ long int i; long int length = vec_length(v); *dest = IDENT; for (i = 0; i < length; i++) {</pre> data t val; get_vec_element(v, i, &val); *dest = *dest OP val; Method **Double FP** Integer Add Add Operation Mult Mult 29.0 27.9 Combine1 29.2 27.4 unoptimized Combine1 -O1 12.0 12.0 12.0 13.0 8.09 10.09 Combine2 8.03 12.08 CS33 Intro to Computer Systems XV-21



Eliminate Unneeded Memory References

```
void combine4(vec_ptr_t v, data_t *dest) {
  int i;
  int length = vec_length(v);
  data_t *d = get_vec_start(v);
  data_t t = IDENT;
  for (i = 0; i < length; i++)
    t = t OP d[i];
  *dest = t;
}</pre>
```

Method	Inte	ger	Doub	le FP
Operation	Add	Mult	Add	Mult
Combine1 -01	12.0	12.0	12.0	13.0
Combine4	2.0	3.0	3.0	5.0

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Quiz 1

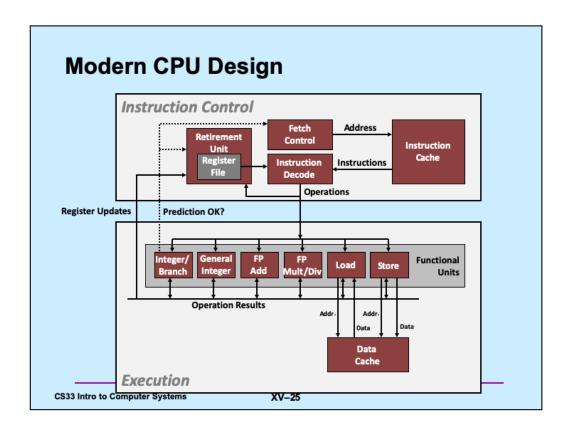
Combine4 is pretty fast; we've done all the "obvious" optimizations. How much faster will we be able to make it? (Hint: it involves taking advantage of pipelining and multiple functional units on the chip.)

- a) 1× (it's already as fast as possible)
- b) 2× 4×
- c) $16 \times -64 \times$

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Superscalar Processor

- Definition: A superscalar processor can issue and execute multiple instructions in one cycle
 - instructions are retrieved from a sequential instruction stream and are usually scheduled dynamically
 - » instructions may be executed out of order
- Benefit: without programming effort, superscalar processors can take advantage of the instruction-level parallelism that most programs have
- Most CPUs since about 1998 are superscalar
- Intel: since Pentium Pro (1995)

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Multiple Operations per Instruction

- addq %rax, %rdx
 - a single operation
- addq %rax, 8(%rdx)
 - three operations
 - » load value from memory
 - » add to it the contents of %rax
 - » store result in memory

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Instruction-Level Parallelism

- addq 8(%rax), %rax addq %rbx, %rdx
 - can be executed simultaneously: completely independent
- addq 8(%rax), %rbx addq %rbx, %rdx
 - can also be executed simultaneously, but some coordination is required

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```
Out-of-Order Execution
                   (%rbp), %xmm0
     · movss
                  (%rax, %rdx, 4), %xmm0
%xmm0, (%rbp)
      mulss
      movss
                   %r8, %r9
                                                these can be
       addq
                                                executed without
                   %rcx, %r12
       imulq
                                                waiting for the first
                   $1, %rdx
       addq
                                                three to finish
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```

Note that the first three instructions are floating-point instructions, and %xmm0 is a floating-point register.

Speculative Execution

80489f3: movl \$0x1,%ecx 80489f8: xorq %rdx,%rdx 80489fa: cmpq %rsi,%rdx 80489fc: jnl 8048a25

80489fe: movl %esi,%edi

8048a00: imull (%rax,%rdx,4),%ecx

perhaps execute these instructions

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Haswell CPU

- Functional Units
 - 1) Integer arithmetic, floating-point multiplication, integer and floating-point division, branches
 - 2) Integer arithmetic, floating-point addition, integer and floatingpoint multiplication
 - 3) Load, address computation
 - 4) Load, address computation
 - 5) Store
 - 6) Integer arithmetic
 - 7) Integer arithmetic, branches
 - 8) Store, address computation

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"Haswell" is Intel's code name for recent versions of its Core I7 and Core I5 processor design. Most of the computers in Brown CS employ Core I5 processors

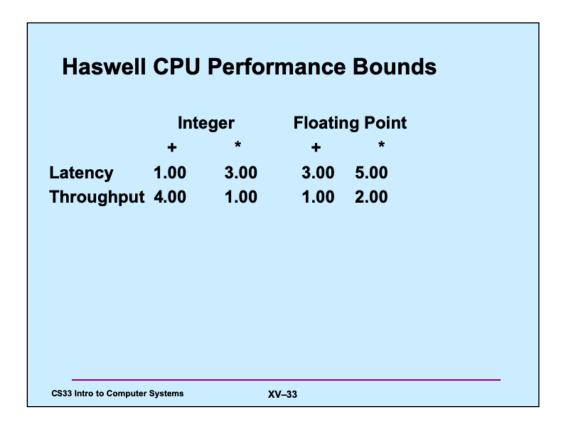
Instruction characteristics					
Instruction	Latency	Cycles/Issue	Capacity		
Integer Add	1	1	4		
Integer Multiply	3	1	1		
Integer/Long Divide	3-30	3-30	1		
Single/Double FP Add	3	1	1		
Single/Double FP Multiply	y 5	1	2		
Single/Double FP Divide		3-15	1		
Load	4	1	2		
Store	-	1	2		

These figures are for those cases in which the operands are either in registers or are immediate. For the other cases, additional time is required to load operands from memory or store them to memory.

"Cycles/Issue" is the number of clock cycles that must occur from the start of execution of one instruction to the start of execution to the next. The reciprocal of this value is the throughput: the number of instructions (typically a fraction) that can be completed per cycle.

The figures for load and store assume the data is coming from/going to the data cache. Much more time is required if the source or destination is RAM.

The latency for stores is a bit complicated – we discuss it later in this lecture.



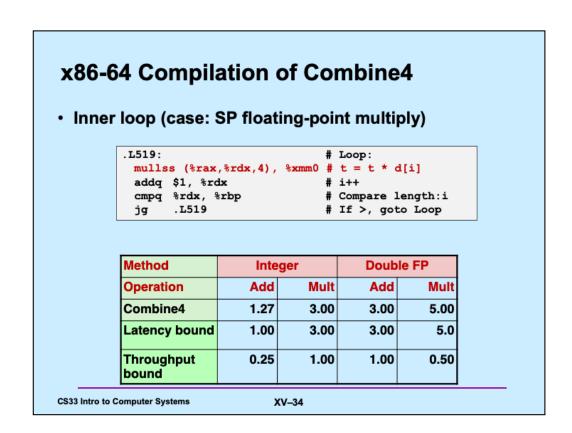
Derived from a slide provided by CMU.

We assume that the source and destination are either immediate (source only) or registers. Thus any bottlenecks due to memory access do not arise.

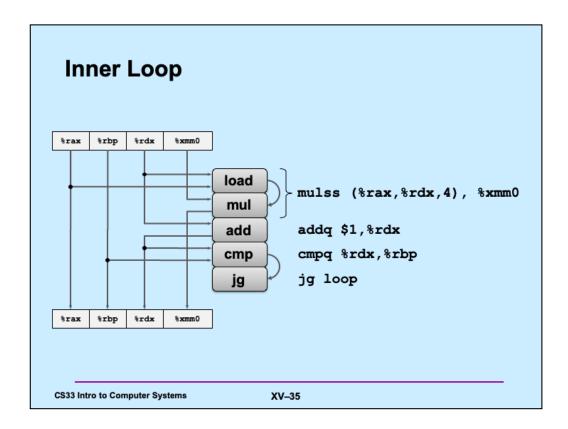
Each integer add requires one clock cycle of latency. It's also the case that, for each functional unit doing integer addition, the time required between add instructions is one clock cycle. However, since there are four such functional units, all four can be kept busy with integer add instructions and thus the aggregate throughput can be as good as one integer add instruction completing, on average, every .25 clock cycles, for a throughput of 4 instructions/cycle.

Each integer multiply requires three clock cycles. But since a new multiply instruction can be started every clock cycle (i.e., they can be pipelined), the aggregate throughput can be as good as one integer multiply completing every clock cycle.

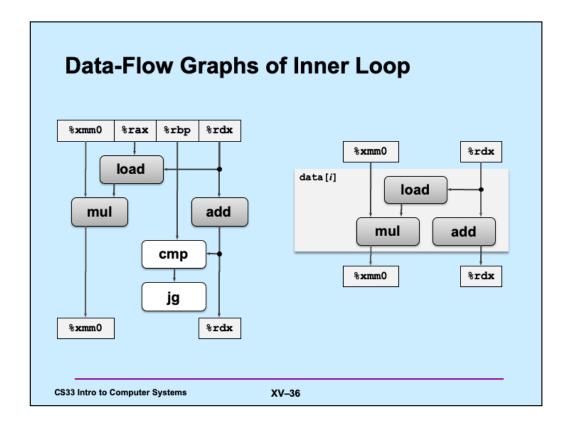
Each floating point multiply requires five clock cycles, but they can be pipelined with one starting every clock cycle. Since there are two functional units that can perform floating point multiply, the aggregate throughput can be as good as one completing every .5 clock cycles, for a throughput of 2 instructions/cycle.



These numbers are for the Haswell CPU. The row labelled "Combine4" gives the actual time, in clock cycles, taken by each execution of the loop. The row labelled "Latency bound" gives the time required for the arithmetic instruction (integer add or multiply, double-precision floating-point add or multiply) in each execution of the loop. The last row, "Throughput bound", gives the time required if these arithmetic instructions are pipelined.

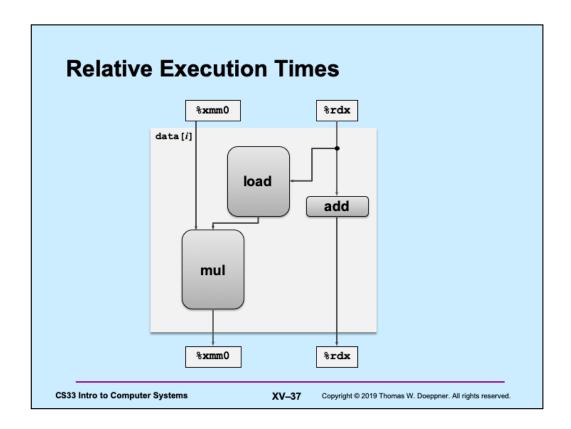


This is Figure 5.13 of Bryant and O'Hallaron. It shows the code for the single-precision floating-point version of our example.

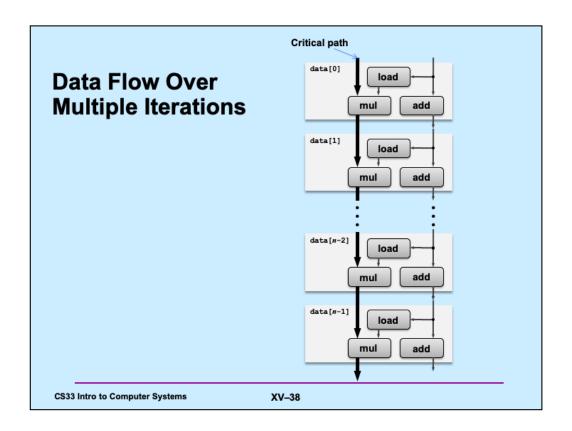


These are Figures 5.14 a and b of Bryant and O'Hallaron.

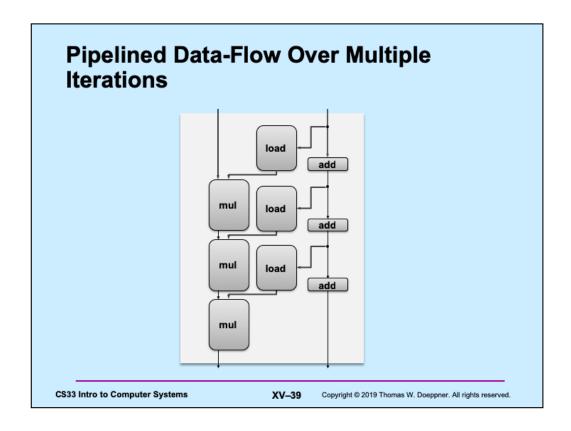
Since the values in %rax and %rbp don't change during the execution of the inner loop, they're not critical to the scheduling and timing of the instructions. Assuming the branch is taken, the cmp and jg instructions also aren't a factor in determining the timing of the instructions. We focus on what's shown in the righthand portion of the slide.



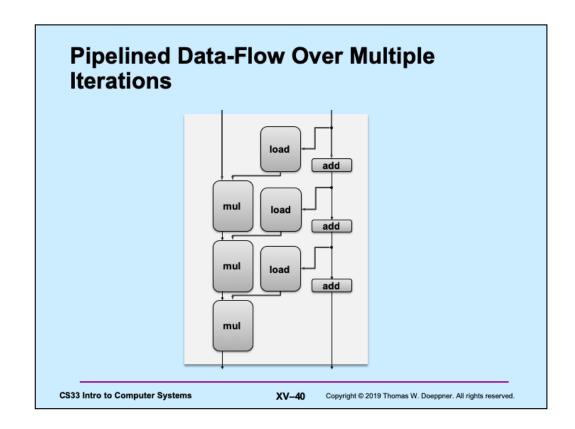
Here we modify the graph of the previous slide to show the relative times required of *mul*, *load*, and *add*.

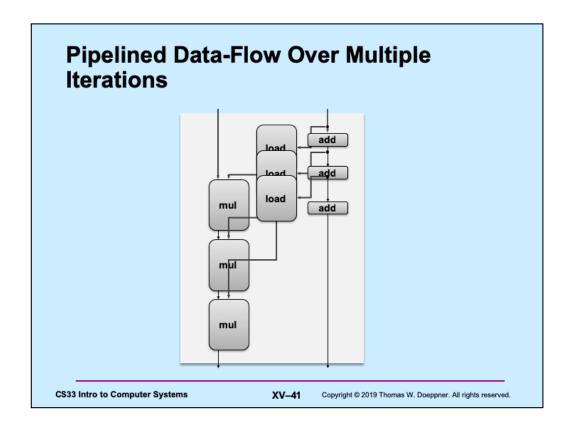


This is Figure 5.15 of Bryant and O'Hallaron.

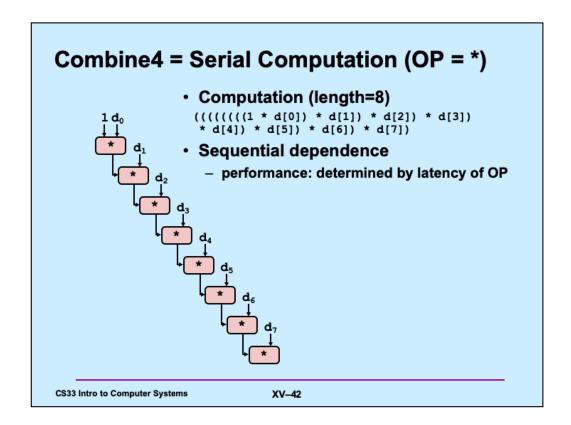


Without pipelining, the data flow would appear as shown in the slide.





Since the loads can be pipelined, it's clear that the multiplies form the critical path. (Note that the multiplies cannot be pipelined since each subsequent multiply depends on the result of the previous.)



Since the multiplies form the critical path, here we focus only on them. In what's shown here, only one multiply can be done at a time, since the result of the one multiply is needed for the next.

Loop Unrolling

```
void unroll2x(vec_ptr_t v, data_t *dest)
{
    int length = vec_length(v);
    int limit = length-1;
    data_t *d = get_vec_start(v);
    data_t x = IDENT;
    int i;
    /* Combine 2 elements at a time */
    for (i = 0; i < limit; i+=2) {
        x = (x OP d[i]) OP d[i+1];
    }
    /* Finish any remaining elements */
    for (; i < length; i++) {
        x = x OP d[i];
    }
    *dest = x;
}</pre>
```

· Perform 2x more useful work per iteration

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Effect of Loop Unrolling

Method	Integer		Double FP	
Operation	Add	Mult	Add	Mult
Combine4	1.27	3.00	3.00	5.00
Unroll 2x	1.01	3.00	3.00	5.00
Latency bound	1.0	3.0	3.0	5.0
Throughput bound	0.25	1.0	1.0	0.5

- Helps integer add
 - reduces loop overhead
- · Others don't improve. Why?
 - still sequential dependency

x = (x OP d[i]) OP d[i+1];

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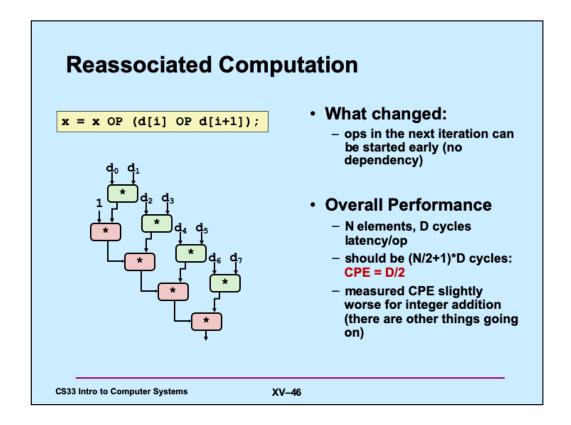
Loop Unrolling with Reassociation

```
void unroll2xra(vec_ptr_t v, data_t *dest)
{
    int length = vec_length(v);
    int limit = length-1;
    data_t *d = get_vec_start(v);
    data_t x = IDENT;
    int i;
    /* Combine 2 elements at a time */
    for (i = 0; i < limit; i+=2) {
        x = x OP (d[i] OP d[i+1]);
    }
    /* Finish any remaining elements */
    for (; i < length; i++) {
        x = x OP d[i];
        Compare to before
    }
    *dest = x;
}</pre>
Compare to Defore
```

- · Can this change the result of the computation?
- · Yes, for FP. Why?

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How much time is required to compute the products shown in the slide? The multiplications in the upper right of the tree, directly involving the d_i , could all be done at once, since there are no dependencies; thus computing them can be done in D cycles, where D is the latency required for multiply. This assumes we have a sufficient number of functional units to do this, thus this is a lower bound. The multiplications in the lower left must be done sequentially, since each depends on the previous; thus computing them requires (N/2)*D cycles. Since first of the top right multiplies must be completed before the bottom left multiplies can start, the overall performance has a lower bound of (N/2 + 1)*D.

Effect of Reassociation

Method	Integer		Double FP	
Operation	Add	Mult	Add	Mult
Combine4	1.27	3.00	3.00	5.00
Unroll 2x	1.01	3.00	3.00	5.00
Unroll 2x, reassociate	1.01	1.51	1.51	2.51
Latency bound	1.0	3.0	3.0	5.0
Throughput bound	.25	1.0	1.0	.5

- Nearly 2x speedup for int *, FP +, FP *
 - reason: breaks sequential dependency

$$x = x OP (d[i] OP d[i+1]);$$

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Loop Unrolling with Separate Accumulators

```
void unroll2xp2x(vec_ptr_t v, data_t *dest)
{
    int length = vec_length(v);
    int limit = length-1;
    data_t *d = get_vec_start(v);
    data_t x0 = IDENT;
    data_t x1 = IDENT;
    int i;
    /* Combine 2 elements at a time */
    for (i = 0; i < limit; i+=2) {
        x0 = x0 OP d[i];
        x1 = x1 OP d[i+1];
    }
    /* Finish any remaining elements */
    for (; i < length; i++) {
        x0 = x0 OP d[i];
    }
    *dest = x0 OP x1;
}</pre>
```

· Different form of reassociation

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Effect of Separate Accumulators

Method	Integer		Double FP	
Operation	Add	Mult	Add	Mult
Combine4	1.27	3.00	3.00	5.00
Unroll 2x	1.01	3.00	3.00	5.00
Unroll 2x, reassociate	1.01	1.51	1.51	2.01
Unroll 2x parallel 2x	.81	1.51	1.51	2.51
Latency bound	1.0	3.0	3.0	5.0
Throughput bound	.25	1.0	1.0	.5

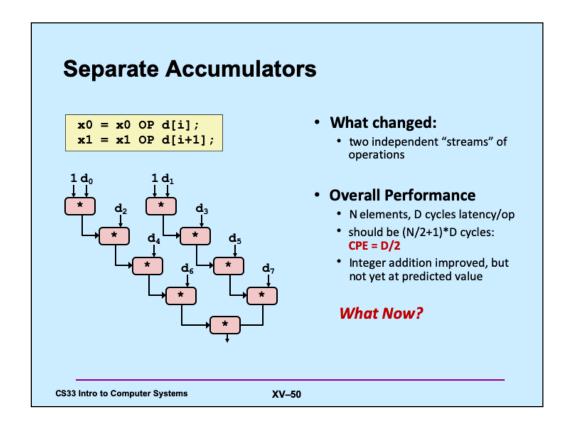
- 2x speedup (over unroll 2x) for int *, FP +, FP *
 - breaks sequential dependency in a "cleaner," more obvious way

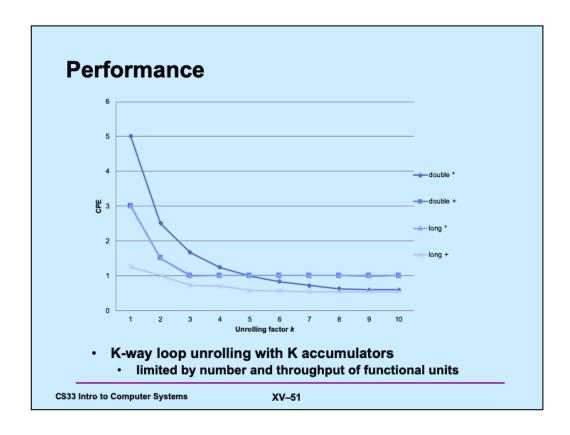
```
x0 = x0 \text{ OP } d[i];

x1 = x1 \text{ OP } d[i+1];
```

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This is Figure 5.30 from the textbook.

Achievable Performance					
Method	Integer		Double FP		
Operation	Add	Mult	Add	Mult	
Combine4	1.27	3.0	3.0	5.0	
Achievable scalar	.52	1.01	1.01	.54	
Latency bound	1.00	3.00	3.00	5.00	

.25

1.00

1.00

.5

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Based on a slide supplied by CMU.

Throughput bound

Using	Vector	Instruc	ctions
-------	--------	---------	--------

Method	Integer		Double FP	
Operation	Add	Mult	Add	Mult
Combine4	1.27	3.0	3.0	5.0
Achievable Scalar	.52	1.01	1.01	.54
Latency bound	1.00	3.00	3.00	5.00
Throughput bound	.25	1.00	1.00	.5
Achievable Vector	.05	.24	.25	.16
Vector throughput bound	.06	.12	.25	.12

- · Make use of SSE Instructions
 - parallel operations on multiple data elements

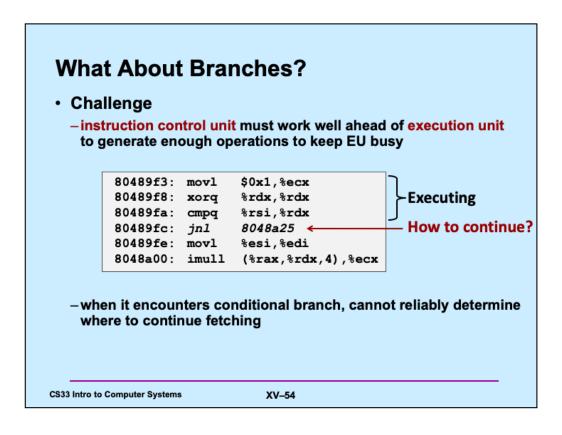
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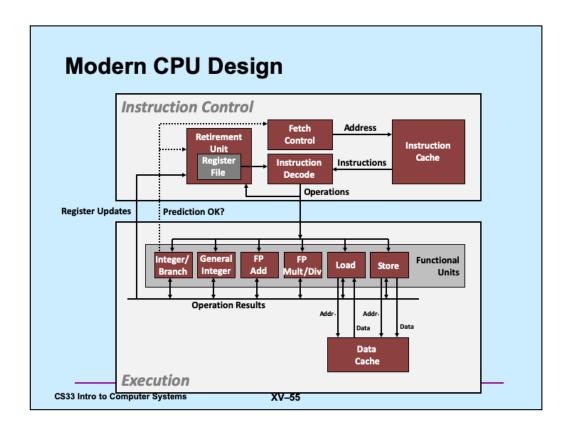
Based on a slide supplied by CMU.

We'll look at vector instructions in an upcoming lecture.

SSE stands for "streaming SIMD extensions". SIMD stands for "single instruction multiple data" – these are instructions that operate on vectors.



Supplied by CMU, converted to x86-64.



Branch Outcomes · When encounter conditional branch, cannot determine where to continue fetching - branch taken: transfer control to branch target - branch not-taken: continue with next instruction in sequence · Cannot resolve until outcome determined by branch/integer unit 80489f3: movl \$0x1, %ecx 80489f8: xorq %rdx,%rdx 80489fa: cmpq Branch not-taken %rsi,%rdx 80489fc: jnl 8048a25 %esi,%esi 80489fe: movl 8048a00: imull (%rax, %rdx, 4), %ecx **Branch taken** 8048a25: cmpq %rdi,%rdx 8048a27: jl 8048a20 8048a29: movl 0xc(%rbp),%eax

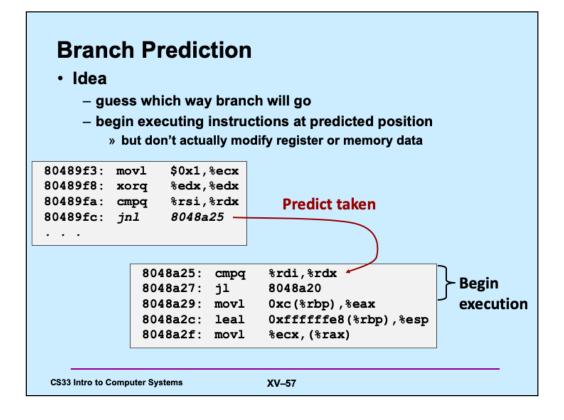
8048a2c: leal 8048a2f: movl

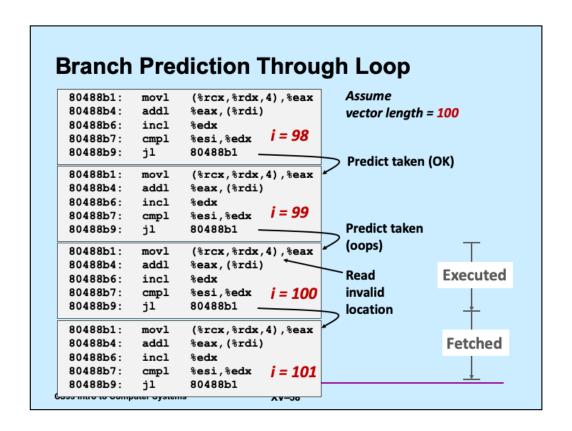
CS33 Intro to Continue oyoung

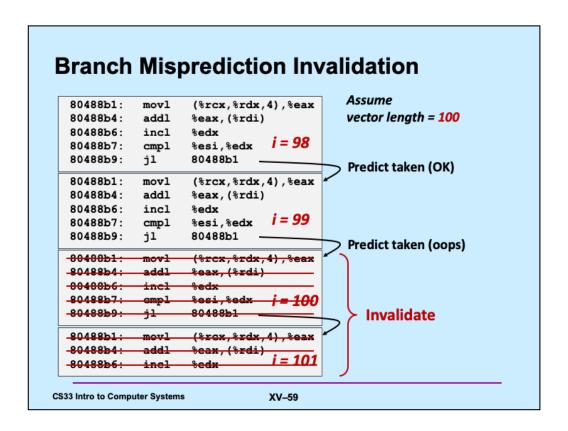
0xffffffe8(%rbp),%esp

%ecx, (%rax)

AV-30








```
Latency of Loads
typedef struct ELE {
  struct ELE *next;
  long data;
} list ele, *list ptr;
                               # len in %rax, ls in %rdi
int list_len(list_ptr ls) {
                               .L11:
                                                    # loop:
  long len = 0;
                                                   # incr len
                                 addq $1, %rax
 while (ls) {
                                 movq (%rdi), %rdi # ls = ls->next
    len++;
                                 testq %rdi, %rdi
                                                    # test ls
    ls = ls - > next;
                                       .L11
                                                    # if != 0
                                 jne
                                                     # go to loop
  return len;

    4 CPE

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```

This example is from the textbook (Figure 5.31). Here we can't execute the loads in parallel, since each load is dependent on the result of the previous load. The point is that loads (fetching data from memory) have a latency of 4 cycles.

```
#define ITERS 1000000000

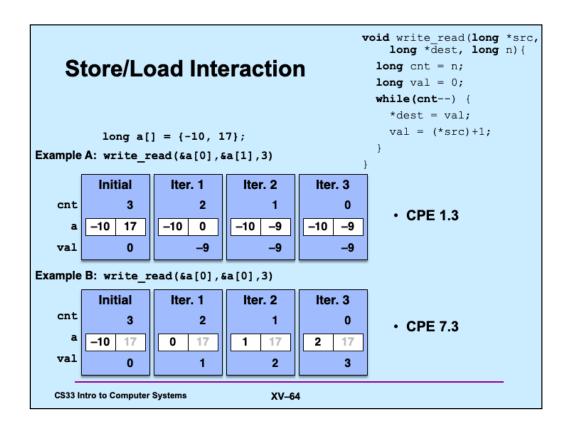
void clear_array() {
   long dest[100];
   int iter;
   for (iter=0; iter<ITERS; iter++) {
      long i;
      for (i=0; i<100; i++)
        dest[i] = 0;
   }
}

• 1 CPE
```

This is adapted from Figure 5.32 of the textbook. There are no data dependencies and thus the stores can be pipelined.

Store/Load Interaction void write_read(long *src, long *dest, long n) { long cnt = n; long val = 0; while(cnt--) { *dest = val; val = (*src)+1; } }

This code is from the textbook.



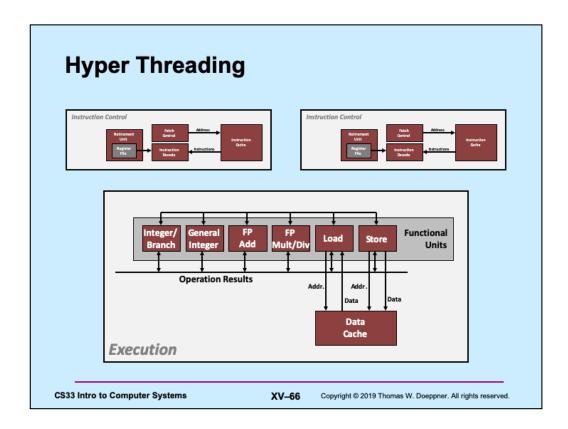
This is Figure 5.33 of the textbook. Performance depends upon whether *src* and *dest* are the same location. If they are different locations, they don't interact that loads and stores can be pipelined. If they are the same locations, then they do interact and pipelining is not possible.

Getting High Performance

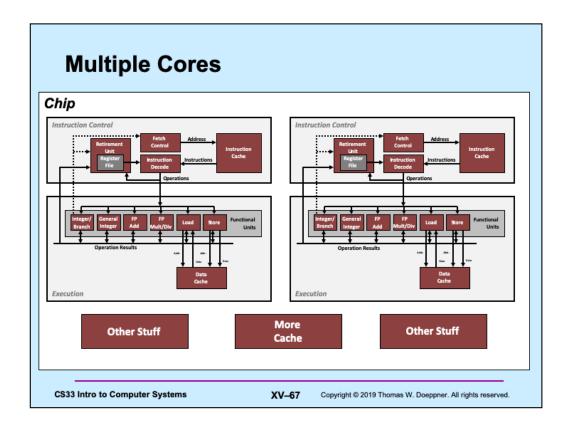
- · Good compiler and flags
- · Don't do anything stupid
 - watch out for hidden algorithmic inefficiencies
 - write compiler-friendly code
 - » watch out for optimization blockers: procedure calls & memory references
 - look carefully at innermost loops (where most work is done)
- Tune code for machine
 - exploit instruction-level parallelism
 - avoid unpredictable branches
 - make code cache friendly (covered soon)

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One way of improving the utilization of the functional units of a processor is hyperthreading. The processor supports multiple instruction streams ("hyper threads"), each with its own instruction control. But all the instruction streams share the one set of functional units.



Going a step further, one can pack multiple complete processors onto one chip. Each processor is known as a core and can execute instructions independently of the other cores (each has its private set of functional units). In addition to each core having its own instruction and data cache, there are caches shared with the other cores on the chip. We discuss this in more detail in a subsequent lecture.

In many of today's processor chips, hyperthreading is combined with multiple cores. Thus, for example, a chip might have four cores each with four hyperthreads. Thus the chip might handle 16 instruction streams.