Course on: "Advanced Computer Architectures"

Instruction Level Parallelism Part I - Introduction

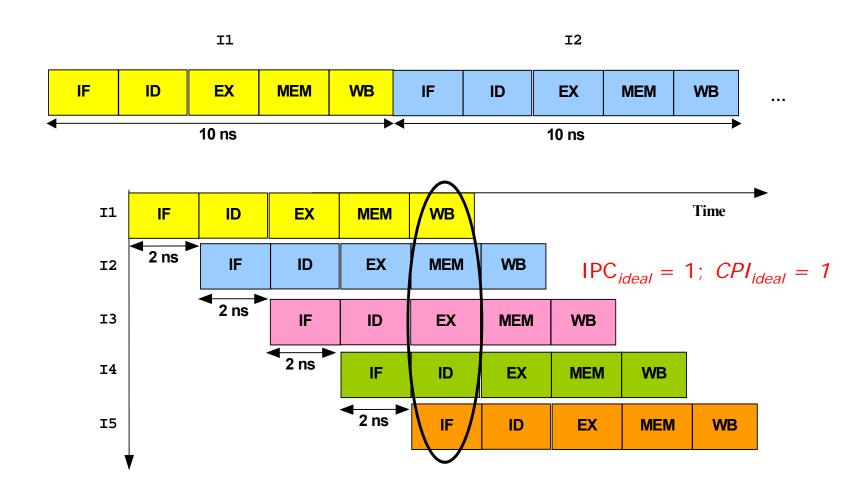


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Outline of Part I

Introduction to ILP
Dynamic scheduling vs Static scheduling
Superscalar vs VLIW

Sequential vs. Pipelining Execution



Getting higher performance...

In a pipelined machine, actual CPI is derived as:

```
CPI<sub>pipeline</sub> = CPI<sub>ideal</sub> + Structural Stalls +
Data Hazard Stalls + Control Stalls + Memory Stalls
```

- Reduction of any right-hand term reduces CPI_{pipeline} to CPI_{ideal} (and increases Instructions Per Clock:
 IPC = 1 / CPI)
- Best case: the max throughput would be to complete 1 Instruction Per Clock:

$$IPC_{ideal} = 1$$
; $CPI_{ideal} = 1$

Summary of Pipelining Basics

- Hazards limit performance:
 - Structural: Need more HW resources
 - Data: Need forwarding, Compiler scheduling
 - Control: Early evaluation, Branch Delay Slot, Static and Dynamic Branch Prediction
- Increasing length of pipe (superpipelining) increases impact of hazards
- Pipelining helps instruction throughput, not latency

Summary of Dependences

- Determining dependences among instructions is critical to defining the amount of parallelism existing in a program.
- If two instructions are dependent to each other, they cannot be executed in parallel: they must be executed in order or only partially overlapped.
- Three different types of dependences:
 - Data Dependences (or True Data Dependences)
 - Name Dependences
 - Control Dependences

Name Dependences

- Name dependence occurs when 2 instructions use the same register or memory location (called name), but there is no flow of data between the instructions associated with that name.
- Two types of name dependences between an instruction i that precedes instruction j in program order:
 - Antidependence: when j writes a register or memory location that instruction i reads (it can generate a WAR).
 The original instructions ordering must be preserved to ensure that i reads the correct value.
 - Output Dependence: when i and j write the same register or memory location (it can generate a WAW).
 The original instructions ordering must be preserved to ensure that the value finally written corresponds to j.

Name Dependences

- Name dependences are not true data dependences, since there is no value (no data flow) being transmitted between instructions.
- If the name (register number or memory location) used in the instructions could be changed, the instructions do not conflict.
- Dependences trough memory locations are more difficult to detect ("memory disambiguation" problem), since two addresses may refer to the same location but can look different.
- Register renaming can be more easily done.
- Renaming can be done either statically by the compiler or dynamically by the hardware.

Data Dependences and Hazards

- A data/name dependence can potentially generate a data hazard (RAW, WAW, or WAR), but the actual hazard and the number of stalls to eliminate the hazards are a property of the pipeline.
 - RAW hazards correspond to true data dependences.
 - WAW hazards correspond to output dependences
 - WAR hazards correspond to antidependences.
- Dependences are a property of the program, while hazards are a property of the pipeline.

Summary: Types of Data Hazards

Consider executing a sequence of

$$r_k \leftarrow (r_i) \text{ op } (r_j)$$

Data-dependence

$$r_3 \leftarrow (r_1)$$
 op (r_2) Read-after-Wr $r_5 \leftarrow (r_3)$ op (r_4) (RAW) hazard

Read-after-Write

Anti-dependence

$$r_3 \leftarrow (r_1)$$
 op (r_2) Write-after-Read $r_1 \leftarrow (r_4)$ op (r_5) (WAR) hazard

Output-dependence

$$(r_3 \leftarrow (r_1) \text{ op } (r_2)$$
 Write-after-Write $r_3 \leftarrow (r_6) \text{ op } (r_7)$ (WAW) hazard

Summary of Control Dependences

- A control dependence determines the ordering of instructions and it is preserved by two properties:
 - Instructions execution in program order to ensure that an instruction that occurs before a branch is executed before the branch.
 - Detection of control hazards to ensure that an instruction (that is control dependent on a branch) is not executed until the branch direction is known.
- Although preserving control dependence is a simple way to preserve program order, control dependence is not the critical property that must be preserved.

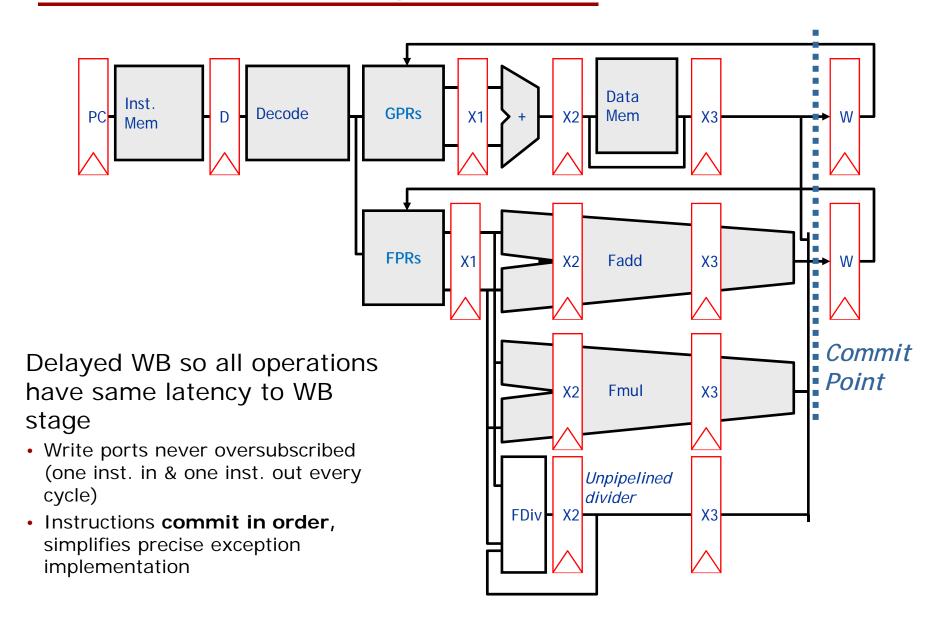
Program Properties

- Two properties are critical to program correctness (and normally preserved by maintaining both data and control dependences):
 - Data flow: Actual flow of data values among instructions that produces the correct results and consumes them.
 - Exception behavior: Preserving exception behavior means that any changes in the ordering of instruction execution must not change how exceptions are raised in the program.

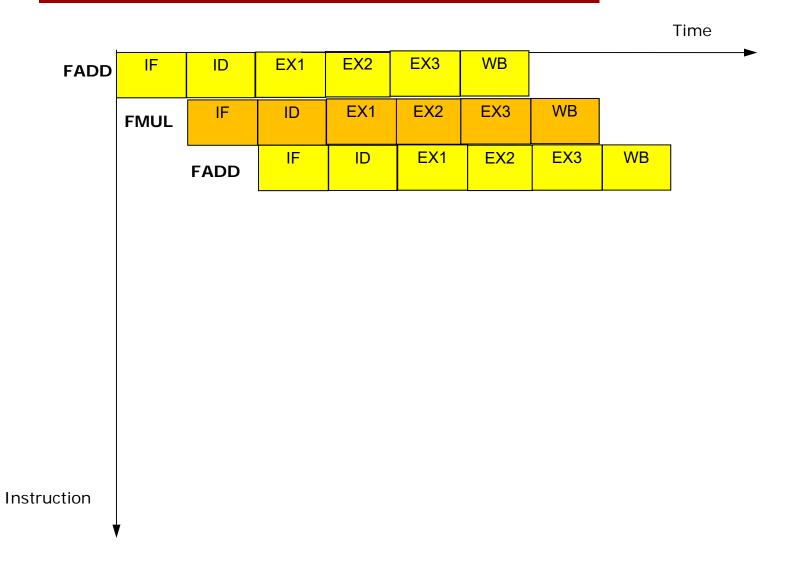
Multi-cycles: Basic Assumptions

- We consider single-issue processors
- Instructions are then issued in-order
- Execution stage might require multiple cycles, depending on the operation type.
- Memory stage might require multiple cycles access time due to data cache misses

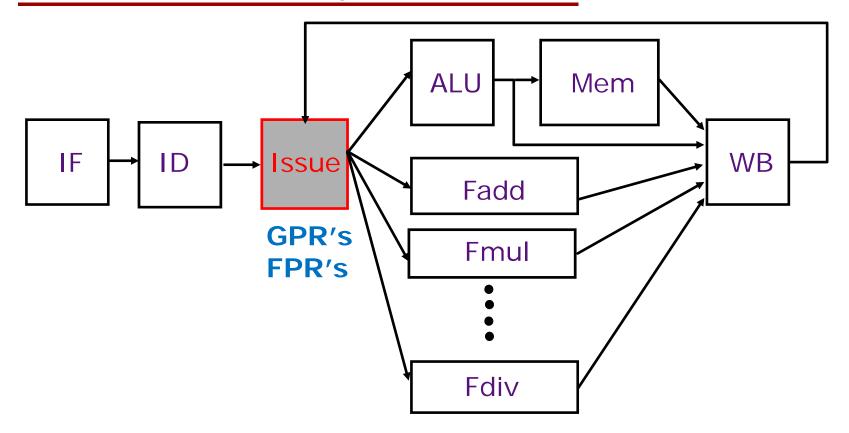
Complex Multi-cycle In-Order Pipeline



In-order Issue & In-order Commit

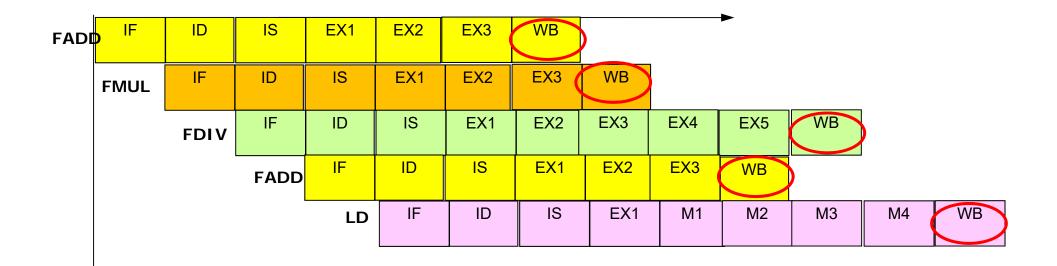


Complex Multi-cycle Out-of-order Pipeline



- Multiple functional units and memory units
- Long latency multi-cycle floating-point operations
- Memory systems with variable access time: Multi-cycle memory accesses due to data cache misses (statically unpredictable)

In-order Issue & Out-of-order Execution and Commit



Definition of Instruction Level Parallelism

- ILP = Exploit potential overlap of execution among unrelated instructions
- Overlapping possible whenever:
 - No Structural Hazards
 - No RAW, WAR of WAW Hazards
 - No Control Hazards

Getting higher performance...

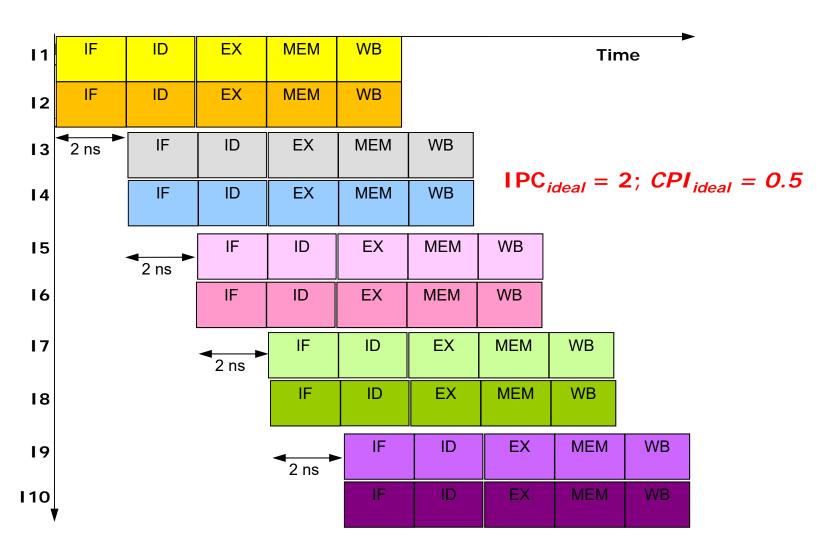
- To reach higher performance (for a given technology) –
 more parallelism must be extracted from the program.
 In other words...multiple-issue
- Dependences must be detected and solved, and instructions must be re-ordered (scheduled) so as to achieve highest parallelism of instruction execution compatible with available resources.

Getting higher performance...

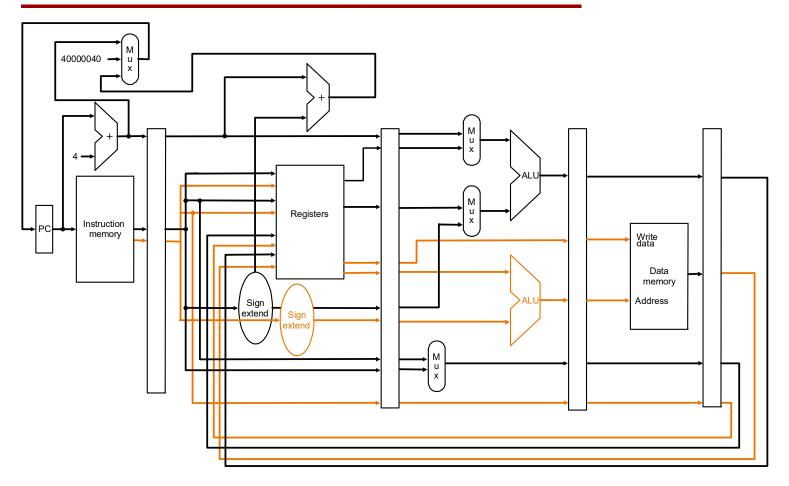
- In a multiple-issue pipelined processor, the ideal
 CPI would be CPI ideal < 1
- If we consider for example 2-issue processor, best case: max throughput would be to complete 2 Instructions Per Clock:

IPC
$$_{ideal} = 2$$
; CPI $_{ideal} = 0.5$

ILP: Dual-Issue Pipelining Execution



2-issue MIPS Pipeline Architecture



2-instructions issued per clock:

- •1 ALU or BR instruction
- •1 load/store instruction

Key Idea: Dynamic Scheduling

- Problem: Hazards due to data dependences that cannot be solved by forwarding cause stalls of the pipeline: no new instructions are fetched nor issued even if they are not data dependent
- Solution: Allow data independent instructions behind a stall to proceed
 - HW rearranges dynamically the instruction execution to reduce stalls
- Enables out-of-order execution and completion (commit)
- First implemented in CDC 6600 (1963).

Example 1

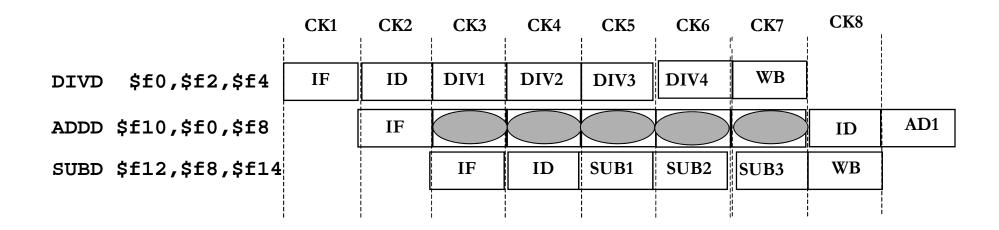
```
DIVD F0,F2,F4

ADDD F10,F0,F8 # RAW F0

SUBD F12,F8,F14
```

- RAW Hazard: ADDD stalls for F0 (waiting that DIVD commits).
- SUBD would stall even if not data dependent on anything in the pipeline without dynamic scheduling.
- BASIC IDEA: to enable SUBD to proceed
 => out-of-order execution

Example 1



Exception handling

- Problem with out-of order completion
 - Must preserve exception behavior as in-order execution
- Solution: ensure that no instruction can generate an exception until the processor knows that the instruction raising the exception will be executed

Imprecise exceptions

- An exception is imprecise if the processor state when an exception is raised does not look exactly as if the instructions were executed in-order.
- Imprecise exceptions can occur because:
 - The pipeline may have already completed instructions that are later in program order than the instruction causing the exception
 - The pipeline may have not yet completed some instructions that are earlier in program order than the instruction causing the exception
- Imprecise exception make it difficult to restart execution after handling

Instruction Level Parallelism

- Two strategies to support ILP:
 - Dynamic Scheduling: Depend on the hardware to locate parallelism
 - Static Scheduling: Rely on compiler for identifying potential parallelism
- Hardware intensive approaches dominate desktop and server markets

Dynamic Scheduling

- The hardware reorder dynamically the instruction execution to reduce pipeline stalls while maintaining data flow and exception behavior.
- Main advantages (PROs):
 - It enables handling some cases where dependences are unknown at compile time
 - It simplifies the compiler complexity
 - It allows compiled code to run efficiently on a different pipeline (code portability).
- Those advantages are gained at a cost of (CONs):
 - A significant increase in hardware complexity
 - Increased power consumption
 - Could generate imprecise exceptions

Dynamic Scheduling

- Simple pipeline: hazards due to data dependences that cannot be hidden by forwarding stall the pipeline – no new instructions are fetched nor issued.
- **Dynamic scheduling**: Hardware reorder instructions execution so as to reduce stalls, maintaining data flow and exception behaviour.
- Typical example: Superscalar Processor

Dynamic Scheduling (2)

- Basically: Instructions are fetched and issued in program order (in-order-issue)
- Execution begins as soon as operands are available

 possibly, out of order execution note: possible
 even with pipelined scalar architectures.
- Out-of order execution introduces possibility of WAR and WAW data hazards.
- Out-of order execution implies out of order
 completion unless there is a re-order buffer to get in order completion

Static Scheduling

- Static detection and resolution of dependences
 ⇒ static scheduling: accomplished by the compiler
 ⇒ dependences are avoided by code reordering.
 Output of the compiler: reordered into dependency-free code.
- Typical example: VLIW (Very Long Instruction Word) processors expect dependency-free code generated by the compiler

Static Scheduling

- Compilers can use sophisticated algorithms for code scheduling to exploit ILP (Instruction Level Parallelism).
 - The size of a basic block a straight-line code sequence with no branches in except to the entry and no branches out except at the exit – is usually quite small and the amount of parallelism available within a basic block is quite small.
 - Example: For typical MIPS programs the average branch frequency is between 15% and 25% ⇒ from 4 to 7 instructions execute between a pair of branches.

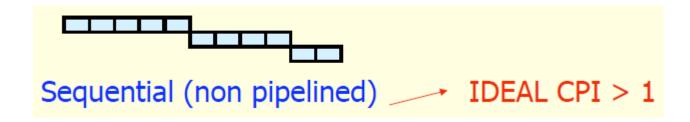
Static Scheduling

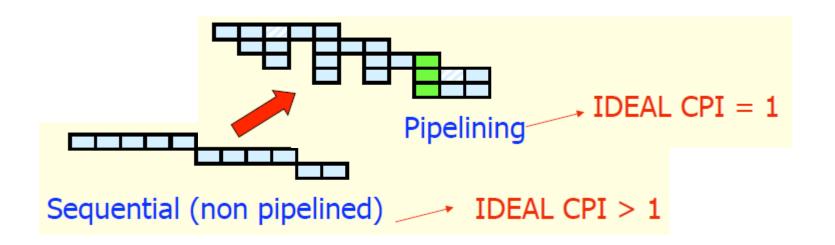
- Data dependence can further limit the amount of ILP we can exploit within a basic block to much less than the average basic block size.
- To obtain substantial performance enhancements, we must exploit ILP across multiple basic blocks (i.e. across branches such as in trace scheduling).

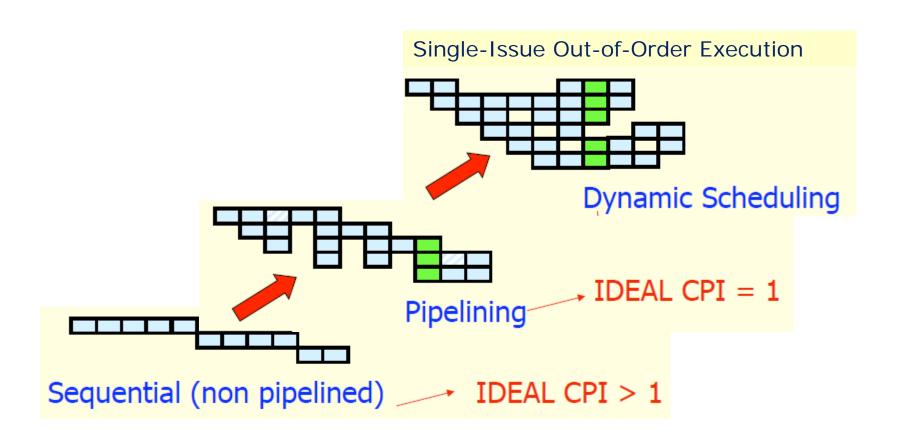
Main Limits of Static Scheduling

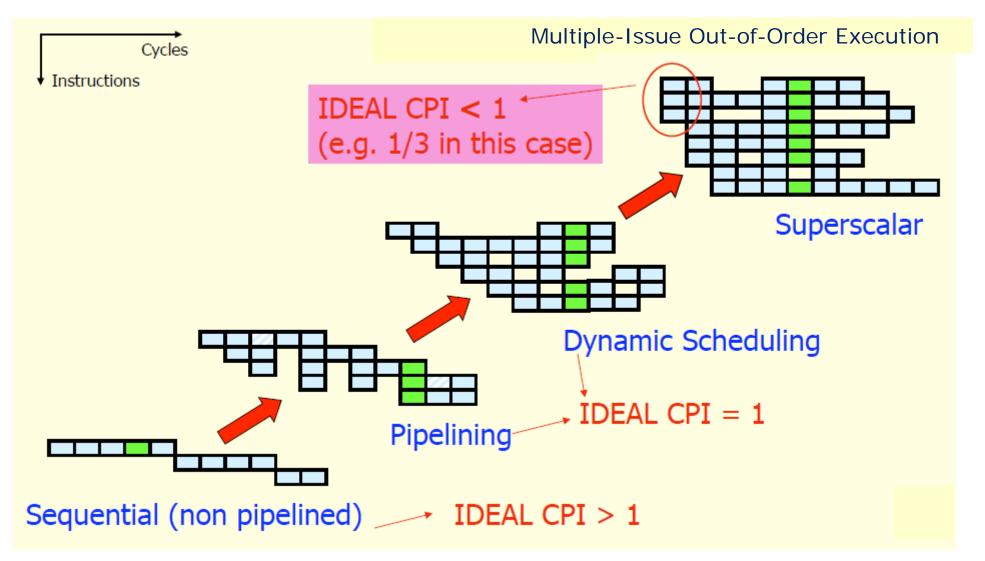
- Unpredictable branches
- Variable memory latency (unpredictable cache misses)
- Code size explosion
- Compiler complexity
- Code portability
- Performance portability

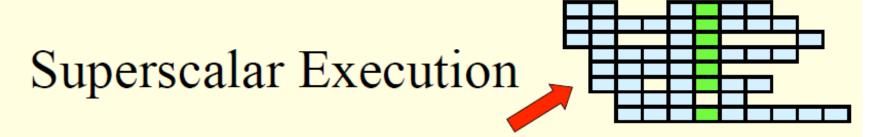
Several steps towards exploiting more ILP





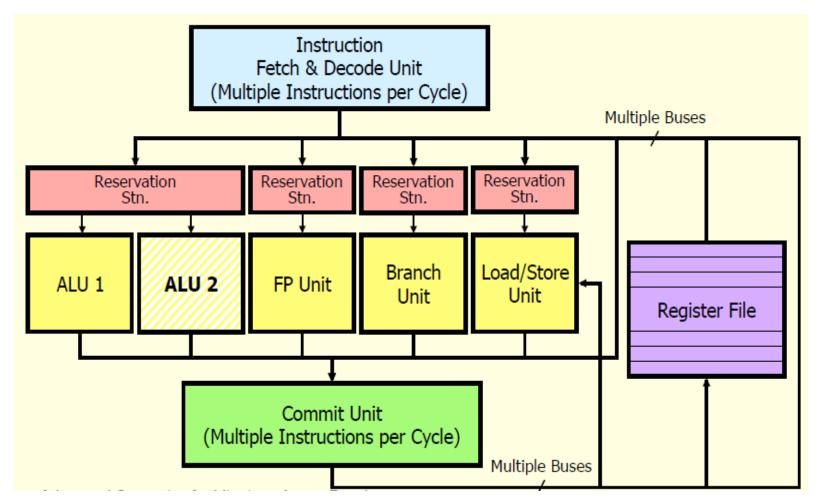






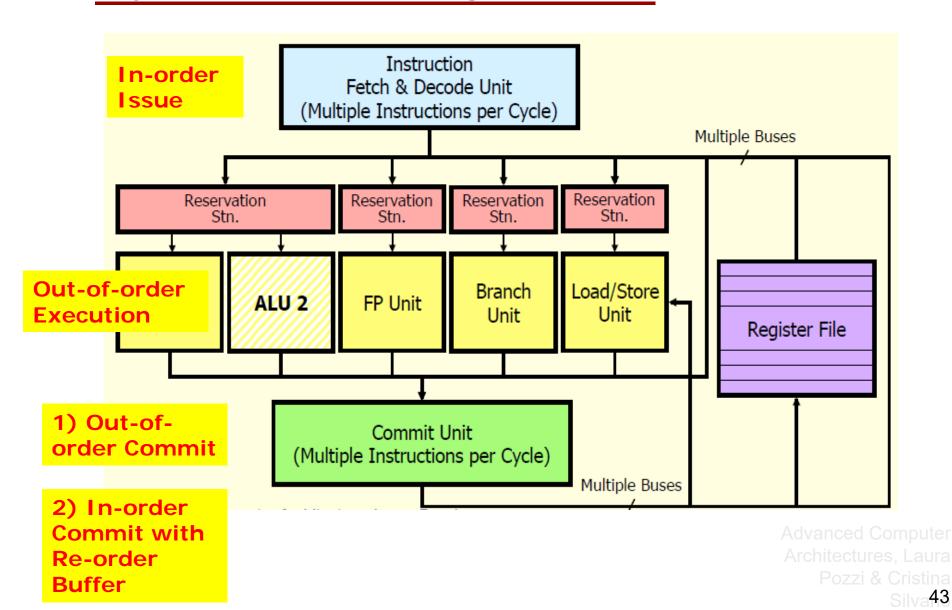
- This is what all high-end computers now do
 - (PowerPC, Pentium, Sparc, ...)
- Main idea: why not more than one instruction beginning execution (issued) per cycle?
- Key requirements are
 - Fetching more instructions in a cycle: no big difficulty
 provided that the instruction cache can sustain the bandwidth
 - Decide on data and control dependencies: dynamic scheduling already takes care of this

Superscalar Processor: Multiple-issue + Dynamic Scheduling

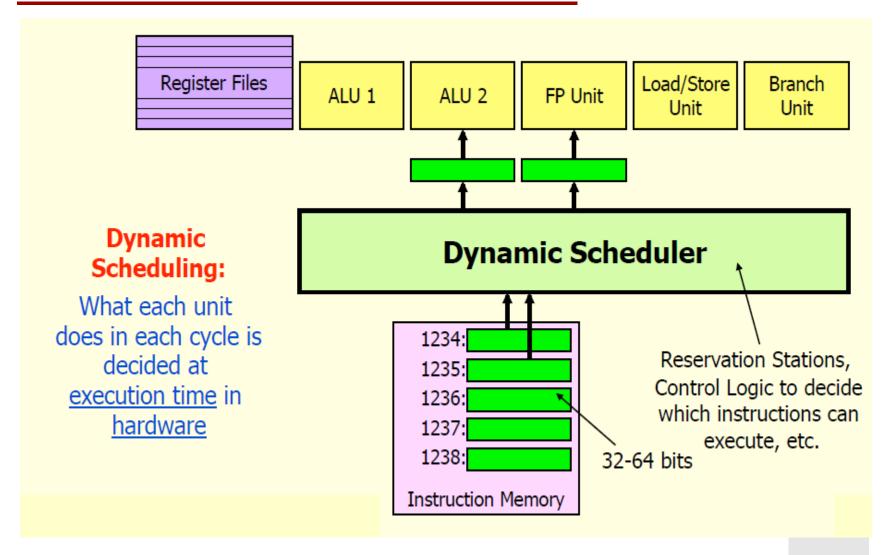


Advanced Computer Architectures, Laura Pozzi & Cristina Silva42

Superscalar Processor: Multiple-issue + Dynamic Scheduling

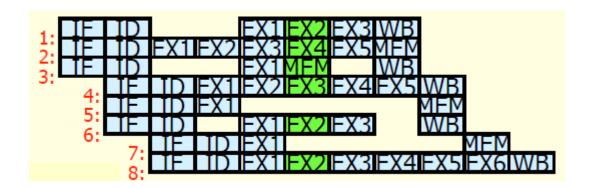


Dynamic Scheduler



Dynamic Scheduler

 Scheduling complexity (e.g., checking dependences) is typically of the order of the square in the issue rate (R)



Dynamic Scheduler

- Every cycle, the processor needs to decide which instructions can begin execution
- It needs to check all fetched instructions with all in-flight instructions to see which are *independent* and therefore can start execution



 There is a limit to how many instructions can be checked during a clock cycle

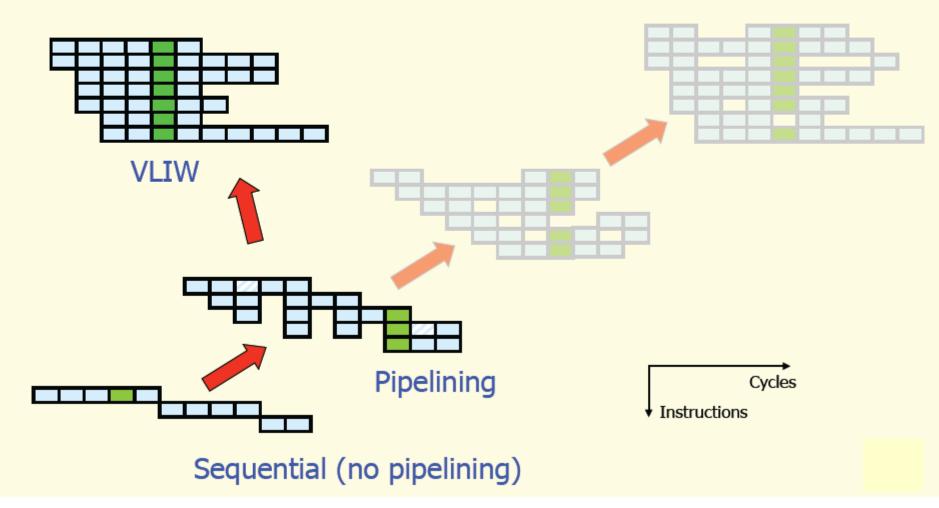
Dynamic Scheduling is expensive!

- Large amount of logic, significant area cost
 - PowerPC 750 Instruction Sequencer is approx. 70% of the area of all execution units! (Integer units + Load/Store units + FP unit)
- Cycle time limited by scheduling logic (dispatcher and associated dependency checking logic)
- Design verification extremely complex
 - Very complex irregular logic

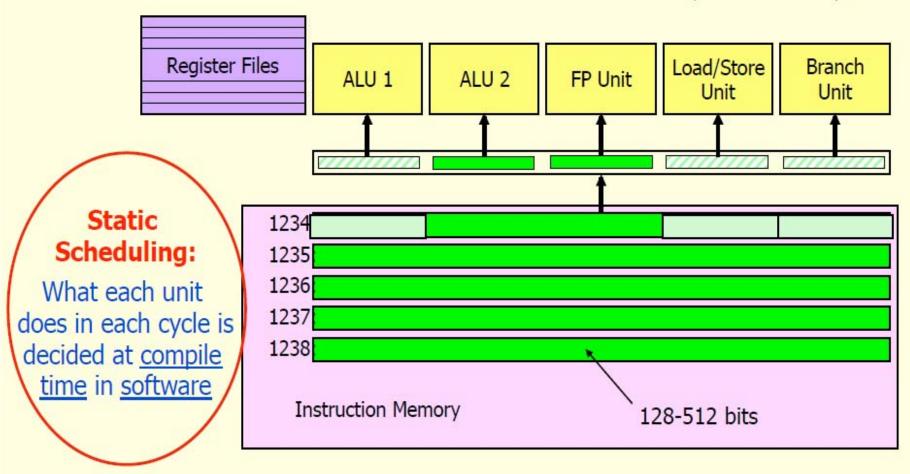
Summary of superscalar and dynamic scheduling

- Main advantage:
 - Very high performance: Ideal CPI very low:
 CPI_{ideal} = 1 / issue-width
- Disadvantages
 - Very expensive logic to decide dependencies and independencies, i.e. to decide which instructions can be issued every clock cycle
 - It does not scale: almost impractical to make issuewidth greater than 4 (we would have to slow down the clock)

Very Long Instruction Word: An Alternative Way of Extracting ILP



(Statically Scheduled) Very Long Instruction Word Processor (VLIW)



Superscalar vs VLIW Scheduling

- For a superscalar processor it is decided at run time, by custom logic in HW
- For a VLIW processor it is decided at compile time, by the compiler, and therefore by a SW program
 - Good for embedded processors: Simpler HW design (no dynamic scheduler), smaller area and power consumption ... and cheap

Challenges for VLIW

- Compiler technology
 - The compiler needs to find a lot of parallelism in order to keep the multiple functional units of the processors busy
- Binary incompatibility
 - Consequence of the larger exposure of the microarchitecture (= implementation choices) at the compiler in the generated code

Advantages of SW vs HW Scheduling

SW

HW

(= Static = Complier) (= Dynamic = Instruction Scheduler)

- 1) Source code available (higher level information)
- 2) Global analysis possible (inter-procedural analysis, etc.)
- 1) Run-time information available (actual data, addresses, pointers, etc.)

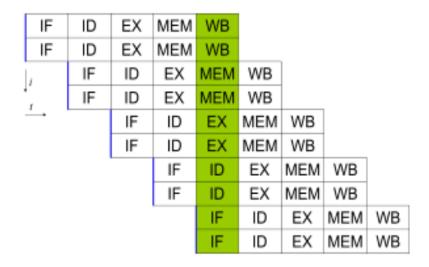
3) More time available (not bound by cycle-time)

Current Superscalar & VLIW processors

- Dynamically-scheduled superscalar processors are the commercial state-of-the-art for general purpose: current implementations of Intel Core i, Alpha, PowerPC, MIPS etc. are all superscalar
- VLIW processors are primarily successful as embedded media processors for consumer electronic devices (embedded):
 - TriMedia media processors by NXP (formerly Philips Semiconductors)
 - The C6000 DSP family by Texas Instruments
 - The STMicroelectronics ST200 family
 - The SHARC DSP by Analog Devices
 - Itanium 2 is the only general purpose VLIW, a 'hybrid' VLIW (EPIC, Explicitly Parallel Instructions Computing)

Issue-Width limited in practice

- The issue width is the number of instructions that can be issued in a single cycle by a multiple issue processor
- When superscalar was invented, 2- and rapidly 4-issue width processors were created (i.e. 4 instructions executed in a single cycle, ideal CPI = 1/4)



Issue-Width limited in practice

- Now, the maximum (rare) is 6, but no more exists.
- Issue width of current processors ranges from:
 - single-issue (ARM11, UltraSPARC-T1)
 - 2-issue (UltraSPARC-T2/T3, Cortex-A8 & A9, Atom, Bobcat)
 - 3-issue (Pentium-Pro/II/III/M, Athlon, Pentium-4, Athlon 64/Phenom, Cortex-A15)
 - 4-issue (UltraSPARC-III/IV, PowerPC G4e, Core 2, Core i, Core i*2, Bulldozer)
 - **5-issue** (PowerPC G5)
 - or even 6-issue (Itanium, but it's a VLIW).
- Because it is too hard to decide which 8, or 16, instructions can execute every cycle (too many!)
 - It takes too long to compute, so the frequency of the processor would have to be decreased

 Advanced
 - Limitation due to intrinsic level of parallelism

Issue-Width limited in practice

More levels of parallelism:

- Multi-threading
- Multi-processing and Multi-cores
- Vector Processors and GPUs