

Introduction

- Pipelining become universal technique in 1985
 - Overlaps execution of instructions
 - Exploits "Instruction Level Parallelism"
- Beyond this, there are two main approaches:
 - Hardware-based dynamic approaches
 - Used in server and desktop processors
 - Not used as extensively in PMP processors
 - Compiler-based static approaches
 - Not as successful outside of scientific applications

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Instruction-Level Parallelism

- When exploiting instruction-level parallelism, goal is to minimize CPI
 - Pipeline CPI =
 - Ideal pipeline CPI +
 - Structural stalls +
 - Data hazard stalls +
 - Control stalls
- Parallelism with basic block is limited
 - Typical size of basic block = 3-6 instructions
 - Must optimize across branches

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Data Dependence

- Loop-Level Parallelism
 - Unroll loop statically or dynamically
 - Use SIMD (vector processors and GPUs)
- Challenges:
 - Data dependency
 - Instruction j is data dependent on instruction i if
 - Instruction *i* produces a result that may be used by instruction *j*
 - Instruction *j* is data dependent on instruction *k* and instruction *k* is data dependent on instruction *i*
- Dependent instructions cannot be executed simultaneously

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Data Dependence

- Dependencies are a property of programs
- Pipeline organization determines if dependence is detected and if it causes a stall
- Data dependence conveys:
 - Possibility of a hazard
 - Order in which results must be calculated
 - Upper bound on exploitable instruction level parallelism
- Dependencies that flow through memory locations are difficult to detect

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Data Dependence

■ Loop: L.D **F0**,0(R1)

ADD.D F4,F0,F2

■ S.D F4,0(R1)

DADDUI R1,R1,#-8

■ BNE R1,R2,Loop

Name Dependence

- Two instructions use the same name but no flow of information
 - Not a true data dependence, but is a problem when reordering instructions
 - Antidependence: instruction j writes a register or memory location that instruction i reads
 - Initial ordering (i before j) must be preserved
 - Output dependence: instruction i and instruction j write the same register or memory location
 - Ordering must be preserved
- To resolve, use renaming techniques

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Other Factors

- Data Hazards
 - Read after write (RAW)
 - Write after write (WAW)
 - Write after read (WAR)
- Control Dependence
 - Ordering of instruction i with respect to a branch instruction
 - Instruction control dependent on a branch cannot be moved before the branch so that its execution is no longer controller by the branch
 - An instruction not control dependent on a branch cannot be moved after the branch so that its execution is controlled by the branch

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Control Dependence

- Must preserve exception behavior.
- We should not change the exception behavior of the program.
- We often relax this to "reordering of instruction must not raise new exceptions"
- DADDU R2,R3,R4
- BEQZ R2,L1
- LW R1,0(R2)
- L1:
- No data dependence prevents us from exchanging BEQZ and LW, but might result in memory protection exception

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Examples

- Example 1: DADDU R1,R2,R3
 - BEQZ R4,L DSUBU R1,R1,R6

L: ... OR

R7,R1,R8

- OR instruction dependent on DADDU and DSUBU
- Preserving the order alone is not sufficient (must have the correct value in R1)
- Example 2:

DADDU R1,R2,R3 BEQZ R12,skip DSUBU R4,R5,R6

DSUBU R4,R5,R6 DADDU R5,R4,R9

skip:

OR R7,R8,R9

- Assume R4 isn't used after skip
 - Possible to move DSUBU before the branch

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Compiler Techniques for Exposing ILP

- Pipeline scheduling
 - Separate dependent instruction from the source instruction by the pipeline latency of the source instruction

Example: for (i=999; i>=0; i=i-1) x[i] = x[i] + s;

No dependence between iterations MIPS code?

Instruction producing result	Instruction using result	Latency in clock cycles
FP ALU op	Another FP ALU op	3
FP ALU op	Store double	2
Load double	FP ALU op	1
Load double	Store double	0

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Pipeline Stalls

Loop: L.D F0,0(R1) 1 stall ADD.D F4,F0,F2 3 stall 5 stall F4,0(R1) S.D **DADDUI R1,R1,#-8** 7 8 stall (assume integer load latency is 1) BNE R1,R2,Loop 9

Instruction producing result	Instruction using result	Latency in clock cycles
FP ALU op	Another FP ALU op	3
FP ALU op	Store double	2
Load double	FP ALU op	1
Load double	Store double	0

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Pipeline Scheduling

Scheduled code:

Loop: L.D F0,0(R1) 1
DADDUI R1,R1,#-8 2
ADD.D F4,F0,F2 3
stall 4
stall 5
S.D F4,8(R1) 6
BNE R1,R2,Loop 7

Instruction producing result	Instruction using result	Latency in clock cycles
FP ALU op	Another FP ALU op	3
FP ALU op	Store double	2
Load double	FP ALU op	1
Load double	Store double	0

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Loop Unrolling

Loop unrolling

L.D

Loop:

- Unroll by a factor of 4 (assume # elements is divisible by 4)
- Eliminate unnecessary instructions

F0,0(R1)

ADD.D F4,F0,F2 S.D F4,0(R1); drop DADDUI & BNE 2 stalls L.D F6,-8(R1) ADD.D F8,F6,F2 1 stall F8,-8(R1); drop DADDUI & BNE S.D L.D F10,-16(R1) ADD.D F12,F10,F2 F12,-16(R1); drop DADDUI & BNE S.D F14,-24(R1) L.D ADD.D F16,F14,F2 note: number F16,-24(R1) of live registers DADDUI R1,R1,#-32 vs. original loop BNE R1,R2,Loop

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Loop Unrolling/Pipeline Scheduling

• Pipeline schedule the unrolled loop:

```
L.D
                F0,0(R1)
Loop:
        L.D
                F6,-8(R1)
        L.D
                 F10,-16(R1)
        L.D
                F14,-24(R1)
        ADD.D F4,F0,F2
        ADD.D F8,F6,F2
        ADD.D F12,F10,F2
        ADD.D F16,F14,F2
        S.D
                F4,0(R1)
        S.D
                F8,-8(R1)
        DADDUI R1,R1,#-32
        S.D
                F12,16(R1)
        S.D
                F16,8(R1)
        BNE
                 R1,R2,Loop
```

Loop iterations are independent

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Strip Mining

- Unknown number of loop iterations?
 - Number of iterations = n
 - Goal: make *k* copies of the loop body
 - Generate pair of loops:
 - First executes *n* mod *k* times
 - Second executes n / k times
 - "Strip mining"

Compiler Technique

Loop Level Parallelsim

Loop-Level Parallelism (LLP) analysis focuses on whether data accesses in later iterations of a loop are data dependent on data values produced in earlier iterations and possibly making loop iterations independent.

For(
$$i=0;i<100;i++$$
)
x[$i]=x[i]+A;$

- the computation in each iteration is independent of the previous iterations and the loop is thus parallel. The use of X[i] twice is within a single iteration.
 - Thus loop iterations are <u>parallel</u> (or independent from each other).



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Loop Level Parallelsim

- Loop-carried Dependence: A data dependence between different loop iterations (data produced in earlier iteration used in a later one).
- LLP analysis is important in software optimizations such as loop unrolling since it usually requires loop iterations to be independent.
- LLP analysis is normally done at the source code level or close to it since assembly language and target machine code generation introduces loop-carried name dependence in the registers used for addressing and incrementing.
- Instruction level parallelism (ILP) analysis, on the other hand, is usually done when instructions are generated by the compiler

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Loop Level Parallism

A[i+1] = A[i] + C[i]; /* S1 */

B[i+1] = B[i] + A[i+1]; /* S2 */

for (i=1; i<=100; i=i+1) {

```
Iteration # \rightarrow i i+1

Not Loop
Carried
Dependence

\begin{array}{c|c}
S1 \\
A_{i+1} \\
\hline
S2 \\
B_{i+1}
\end{array}

S2
```

Dependency Graph

Loop-carried Dependence

- S2 uses the value A[i+1], computed by S1 in the same iteration. This
 data dependence is within the same iteration (not a loop-carried
 dependence).
 - ⇒ does not prevent loop iteration parallelism.
- S1 uses a value computed by S1 in an earlier iteration, since iteration i computes A[i+1] read in iteration i+1 (loop-carried dependence, prevents parallelism). The same applies for S2 for B[i] and B[i+1]
 - These two dependencies are loop-carried spanning more than one iteration preventing loop parallelism.

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Loop Level parallelism

```
for(i=0;i<=100;i++)</pre>
```

- S1 uses the value calculated by S2 in the previous iteration (loop carried dependence)
- The dependence is not circular, S2 does not depend on S1 in the previous iteration

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```
for (i=1; i<=100; i=i+1) {
                                      A[i] = A[i] + B[i];
                                                           /* S1 */
                                       B[i+1] = C[i] + D[i]; /* S2 */
A[1] = A[1] + B[1];
                       A[2] = A[2] + B[2];
                                                                   A[99] = A[99] + B[99];
                                                                                             A[100] = A[100] + B[100];
 B[2] = C[1] + D[1];
                                                                   B[100] = C[99] + D[99];
                        B[3] = C[2] + D[2];
                                                                                             B[101] = C[100] + D[100];
                                           A[1] = A[1] + B[1];
                                           for (i=1; i<=99; i=i+1) {
                                               B[i+1] = C[i] + D[i];
                                                A[i+1] = A[i+1] + B[i+1];
                                            B[101] = C[100] + D[100];
                                    Iteration 1
Loop Start-up code
A[1] = A[1] + B[1];
                        A[2] = A[2] + B[2];
                                                                   A[99] = A[99] + B[99];
                                                                                              A[100] = A[100] + B[100];
B[2] = C[1] + D[1]; B[3] = C[2] + D[2];
                                                                                             B[101] = C[100] + D[100];
                                               Carried
                                                                                                Loop Completion code
                                               Dependence
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```

Finding Dependence

- Finding dependences in the program is very important for renaming and executing instructions in parallel.
- Arrays and pointers makes finding dependences very difficult.
- Assume array indices are *affine*, which means on the form ai+b where a and b are constant.
- GCD test can be used to detect dependences.

Finding Dependence

- Assume we stored an array with index value of ai+b and loaded an array with an index value of cj+d
- Are they pointing to the same location?
- Assume the loop limit is *m*,*n*
- Are there

 $j,k \quad m \le j,k \le n \text{ such that } a \times j + b = c \times k + d$

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GCD test

- A simple and sufficient test for absence can be found.
- If a loop dependence exists, then

GCD(c,a) divides (d-b)

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GCD Test -- Example

```
for(i=1; i<=100; i=i+1) { x[2*i+3] = x[2*i] * 5.0; } a = 2 \quad b = 3 \quad c = 2 \quad d = 0 GCD(a, c) = 2  d - b = -3 2 does not divide -3 \Rightarrow No dependence is not possible.
```

5,7,9,11,13,15,17,19,21,23,.... 4,6,8,10,12,14,16,18,20,22,.....

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Dependence Analysis

- Dependence analysis is a very important tool for exploiting LLP, it can not be used in these situations
- Objects are referenced using pointers
- Array indexing using another array a[b[i]]
- Dependence may exist for some values of input, but in reality the input never takes these values.
- When we want to know more than the possibility of dependence (which write causes it?)
- Dependence analysis across procedure boundaries

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Dependence Analysis

- Sometimes, points-to analysis might help.
- We might be able to answer simpler questions, or get some hints.
- Do 2 pointers point to the same list?
- Type information
- Information derived when the object was allocated
- Pointer assignments

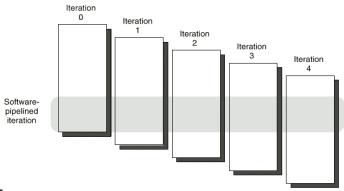
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Software Pipelines

 Software pipelined loop chooses instructions from different loop iterations, thus separating the dependent instructions within one iteration of the original loop



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Software Piplines

```
Loop:
                 F0,0(R1)
        L.D
        ADD.D
                 F4,F0,F2
        S.D
                 F4,0(R1)
                 R1,R1,#-8
       DADDUI
       BNE
```

Before: Unrolled 3 times F0,0(R1)

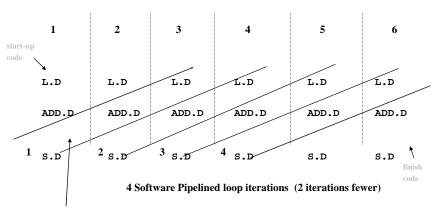
```
L.D
           F4,F0,F2
   ADD.D
3
   S.D
           F4,0(R1)
   L.D
           F0,-8(R1)
   ADD.D
           F4,F0,F2
   S.D
           F4,-8(R1)
           F0,-16(R1)
   L.D
           F4,F0,F2
   ADD.D
   S.D
           F4,-16(R1)
10 DADDUI R1,R1,#-24
11 BNE
           R1,R2,LOOP
```

After: Software Pipelined Version

```
L.D
        F0,0(R1)
        F4,F0,F2
ADD.D
L.D
        F0,-8(R1)
S.D
        F4,0(R1)
                  ;Stores M[i]
ADD.D
        F4,F0,F2
                  ;Adds to M[i-1]
        F0,-16(R1);Loads M[i-2]
L.D
DADDUI
       R1,R1,#-8
        R1,R2,LOOP
BNE
S.D
        F4, 0(R1)
ADDD
        F4,F0,F2
        F4,-8(R1)
S.D
```

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Software Pipelines



Loop Body of software Pipelined Version

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Branch Prediction

- Dynamic scheduling deals with data dependence improving, the limiting factor is the control dependence.
- Branch prediction is important for processors that maintains a CPI of 1, but it is crucial for processors who tries to issue more than one instruction per cycle (CPI < 1).
- We have already studied some techniques (delayed branch, predict not taken), but these do not depend on the dynamic behavior of the code.



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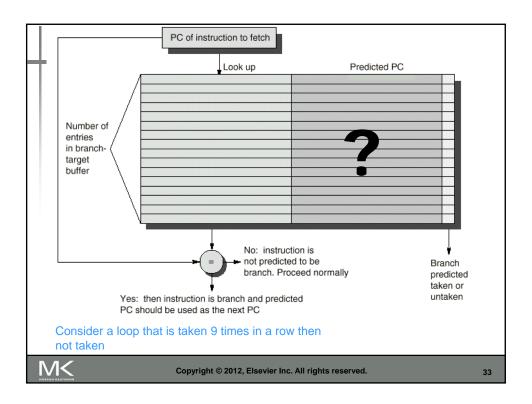
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Branch History Table

- A small memory indexed by the lower portion of the address of the branch instruction.
- The memory contains only 1-bit, to predict taken or untaken
- If the prediction is incorrect, the prediction bit is inverted.
- In a loop, it mispredicts twice
 - End of loop case, when it exits instead of looping as before
 - First time through loop on next time through code, when it predicts exit instead of looping

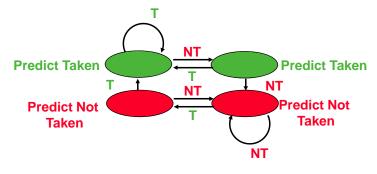
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2-Bit Predictor

- Uses 2 bits to add some hysteresis to the prediction – Compare with 1 bit?
- 2 bits are as good as N bits (approx.)

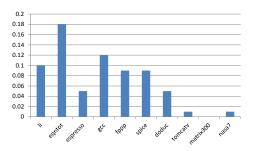


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2-bit Predictor

• 4096 entries 2-bit predictor miss rate



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Correlating Branch Predictors

```
DSUBUI R3, R1, #2
B1
       if (aa==2)
                            BNEZ
                                      R3, L1
                                                 ; b1 (aa!=2)
         aa=0;
                                      R1, R0, R0 ; aa==0
                             DADD
                        L1: DSUBUI R3, R1, #2
       if (bb==2)
B2
                             BNEZ
                                      R3, L2
                                                ; b2 (bb!=2)
        bb=0;
                             DADD
                                      R2, R0, R0 ; bb==0
B3
       if (aa!==bb){
                       L2: DSUBUI R3, R1, R2; R3=aa-bb
                             BEQZ
                                      R3, L3
                                                 ; b3 (aa==bb)
```

If the condition is true → B1,B2 branch NOT TAKEN

If the condition is true → B3 NOT taken

If B1 and B2 both NOT TAKEN B3 → TAKEN

There is a correlation between B3 and both B1 and B2

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Correlating Branch Predictors

- Correlating predictors (tw0-level predictors) use the behavior of other branches to make prediction.
- Simplest (1-bit) has 2 predictions, one if the last branch is take, the second is when the last branch is not taken
- The prediction is on the form NT/T

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Example

```
B1 if (d==0)
d=1;
B2 if (d==1)
{
```

```
BNEZ R1, L1 ; d == 0 ?
DADD R1, R0, #1 ; YES d==1
L1: DADD R3, R1, #-1
BNEZ R3, L2 ; b2 (bb!=2)
L2:
```

If b1 not taken, b2 is taken for sure

Initial d	d==0?	B1	d befoe b2	d==1	b2
0	Υ	NO	1	Υ	NO
1	N	Taken	1	Υ	NO
2	N	Taken	2	N	Taken

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Example						
In	itial d	d==0?	B1	d befo	e b2 d	==1 B2
	0	Υ	/NO	1	•	Y NO
	1	N	Taken	1	`	Y NO
	2	N	Taken	2	1	N Taken
d	B1	B1 /	newB1	B2	B2	new B2
	Pred	action	pred	pred	action	pred
2	NT	T	_T	NT	T	T
0	T	NT	NT	T	NT	NT
2	NT	Т	Т	NT	Т	Т
0	Т	NT	NT	Т	NT	NT
Miss on every prediction						
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Example					
Initial d	d==0?	B1	d befoe b2	d==	1 b2
0	Υ	NO	1	Υ	NO
1	N	Taken	1	Υ	NO
2	N	Taken	2	N	Taken
d b Pr	1 b1 ed action	newb1 pred		2 action	new b2 pred
2 N 7	T/NT % T	T/NT	NT/NT %	Т	NT/T
0 T/	NT √ NT	T/NT	NT/T √	NT	NT/T
2 T /i	NT √ T	T/NT	NT/ T √	Т	NT/T
0 T/	NT √ NT	T/NT	NT/T √	NT	NT/T
Misprediction on first try only					
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Correlating Predictors

- The previous predictor is called (1,1) predictor.
- It uses one bit for history (last branch), to choose among two (2¹) 1-bit branch predictors.
- In general a predictor could me (m,n) predictor.
- It uses the last m branch to choose among 2^m branch predictors each is n-bit predictor.

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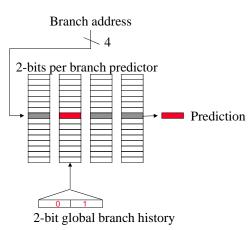
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(2,2) Correlating Predictors

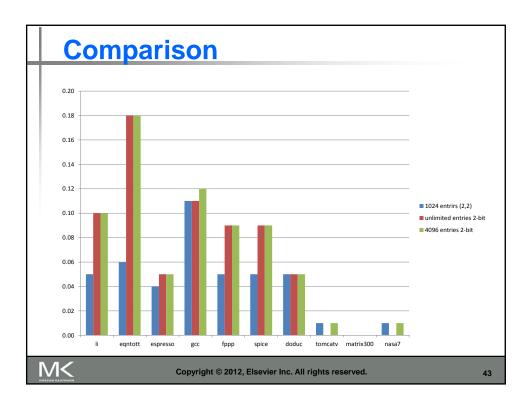
(2,2) predictor

 Behavior of recent branches selects between four predictions of next branch, updating just that prediction



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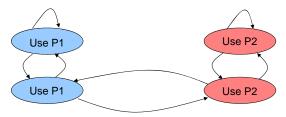
Branch Prediction

- Basic 2-bit predictor:
 - For each branch:
 - Predict taken or not taken
 - If the prediction is wrong two consecutive times, change prediction
- Correlating predictor:
 - Multiple 2-bit predictors for each branch
 - One for each possible combination of outcomes of preceding n branches
- Local predictor:
 - Multiple 2-bit predictors for each branch
 - One for each possible combination of outcomes for the last n occurrences of this branch

Dianch Plediction

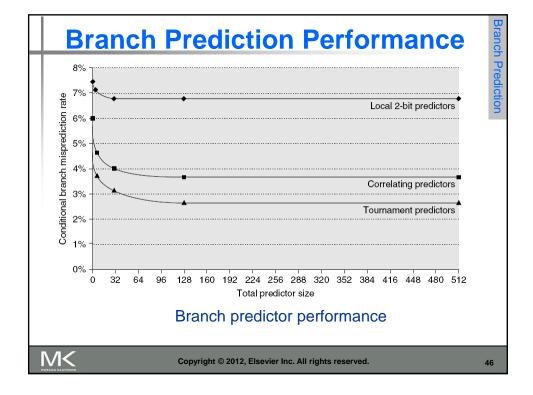
Tournament Predictor

- Tournament predictor:
 - Combine correlating predictor with local predictor
 - A selector is sued to decide which one of these to use
- The selector could be similar to a 2-bit predictor
 - A saturating 2-bit binary counter with 2 outcomes P1/P2



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Alpha 21264 Branch Predictor

- Tournament predictor using, 4K 2-bit counters indexed by local branch address.
- Global predictor
 - 4K entries index by history of last 12 branches (2¹² = 4K)
 - Each entry is a standard 2-bit predictor
- Local predictor
 - Local history table: 1024 10-bit entries recording last 10 branches, index by branch address
 - The pattern of the last 10 occurrences of that **particular** branch used to index table of 1K entries with 3-bit saturating counters

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