

Computer Systems Architecture CMSC 411 Unit 4 – Instruction-level parallelism

Alan Sussman
October 28, 2004

Administrivia

- Read Chapter 3 and Section A.8
 - in Ch. 3, only 3.1-3.8 and 3.10 required, rest is optional

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What we already know about pipelining

- We need to avoid structural hazards, data hazards and control hazards in order to get optimal performance from the pipeline
 - Pipeline CPI = Ideal pipeline CPI + Structural stalls + Data hazard stalls + Control stalls
- Accomplish this by techniques such as
 - instruction reordering
 - hardware modifications to detect branches earlier
 - compiler approaches to reduce branch delays
- Each technique reduces one or more of the stall components of the Pipeline CPI

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What's new in Units 4 & 4b

- Some instructions can be executed independently of others. In fact, they could be executed **in parallel** if there was the hardware to do it
- Idea is to take advantage of this **instruction level parallelism** to do major rearrangements to how compilers generate code (Unit 4b) and how the MIPS (and other modern processors) pipeline executes code (Unit 4)

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New techniques

- Hardware
 - dynamic pipeline scheduling
 - with scoreboarding
 - with register renaming (Tomasulo)
 - dynamic branch prediction
 - issuing multiple instructions per cycle
 - speculation
 - dynamic memory disambiguation
- Software (compiler)
 - loop unrolling
 - compiler dependence analysis
 - software pipelining and trace scheduling
 - compiler speculation

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Data dependences (background)

- If 2 instructions are *parallel*, can execute simultaneously in pipeline without stalls
 - assuming no structural hazards
- If 2 instructions are *dependent*, must be executed in order, but may sometimes be partially overlapped

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Data dependences (cont.)

- Instruction j is **data dependent** on instruction i if either
 - instruction i produces a result that may be used by instruction j , or
 - instruction j is data dependent on instruction k , and instruction k is data dependent on instruction i (transitivity)
- Dependence implies a chain of one or more data hazards between the 2 instructions
 - potentially causing a pipelined processor to stall
- Dependences are properties of *programs*
 - and whether one causes a stall depends on the properties of the *pipeline organization*

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Data dependences (cont.)

- A dependence
 - indicates the possibility of a hazard
 - determines the order results must be produced
 - sets an upper bound on available parallelism
- Ways to overcome dependences
 - maintain the dependence, but avoid the hazard (schedule the code – hardware or software)
 - eliminate the dependence – by transforming the code (software)

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Name dependences

- When 2 instructions use the same register or memory location (harder to detect), called a *name*, but no flow of data between them
- 2 types
 - *antidependence* between instruction i and instruction j when j writes a register or memory location that i reads
 - *output dependence* occurs when i and j write the same register or memory location
- In both cases, the instructions can execute at the same time, or be reordered, if the *name* is changed so the instructions don't conflict
 - statically by compiler or dynamically by hardware (usually only for registers – why?)

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Hazards

- True data dependences correspond to RAW data hazards
- Output dependences correspond to WAW hazards
- Antidependences correspond to WAR hazards

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Control dependences

- To determine the ordering of an instruction, j , with respect to a branch instruction so that it is executed in correct program order, and only when it should be
 - e.g., the statements in *then* part of an *if* statement are control dependent on the branch

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Control dependences (cont.)

- 2 constraints from control dependences
 - an instruction control dependent on a branch cannot be moved *before* the branch so that its execution is *no longer controlled* 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
- But, can violate control dependences if don't affect the correctness of the program
 - by preserving *exception behavior* and *data flow*
 - implemented by control hazard detection that causes control stalls, which can be reduced by various techniques (e.g., delayed branch)

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Dynamic pipeline scheduling

- A hardware technique that can do a good job of scheduling, since it has perfect information about hazards
- Basic idea is to start each instruction as early as possible
- Means have to deal with instructions that complete out-of-order
- There is a lot to keep track of, and two main schemes to do the bookkeeping
 - scoreboard method
 - Tomasulo's method

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Scoreboard method

- Origins: CDC 6600, late 1960s
- Scoreboard controls the progress of each instruction to ensure that hazards such as RAW, etc. are avoided
- ID basic pipeline stage split into 2 stages
 - Issue – decode instructions, check for structural hazards
 - Read operands – wait until no data hazards, then read operands
- Distinguish when instruction *begins execution* and when *completes execution* – in between it is *in execution*
- All instructions pass through issue stage in order, but can stall or bypass each other in second stage
 - so can get WAR hazards when instructions execute out of order
 - to have multiple instructions in EX stage simultaneously, use **multiple functional units**, or pipelined units, or both – equivalent for purposes of pipeline control

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Alan Sussman
November 9, 2004

Administrivia

- HW #5 (Unit 4) out soon
- Project posted – due Dec. 3
 - Linux lab account info emailed – let us know if you didn't get it
 - questions?
- Midterm returned Thursday (we hope)

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Last time

- Data dependences
 - instruction *i* produces a result used, directly or transitively, by instruction *j*
 - true dependences in program may cause stalls from data (RAW) hazards
- Name dependences
 - 2 instructions use the same register (or memory location), but no data flows between them
 - antidependences (WAR hazards) and output dependences (WAW hazards)
 - changing name removes the dependence
 - take advantage of this in hardware techniques for exploiting ILP

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Last time (cont.)

- Control dependences
 - maintain ordering of instructions with respect to conditional branches
 - can only violate them if preserve exception behavior and data flow
- Dynamic pipeline scheduling
 - idea is to start instructions as early as possible – as soon as input data is available
 - scoreboard
 - Tomasulo's method

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Scoreboard method

- Scoreboard controls the progress of each instruction to ensure that hazards such as RAW, etc. are avoided
- ID basic pipeline stage split into 2 stages
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- Distinguish when instruction *begins execution* and when *completes execution* – in between it is *in execution*
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Functional units

- Processor has various **functional units**, perhaps
 - 1 ALU,
 - 2 multiply units,
 - 1 floating point adder,
 - and 1 divide unit
- Idea is to try to keep all of them busy

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Scoreboard (cont.)

- One segment of the scoreboard keeps track of which pipe stage each instruction is in – Fig. A.52

Instruction	Issue	Read operands	Execution complete	Write result
L.D F6,34(R2)	x	x	x	x
L.D F2, 45(R3)	x	x	x	
MUL.D F0,F2,F4	x			
SUB.D F8,F6,F2	x			
DIV.D F10,F0,F6	x			
ADD.D F6,F8,F2				

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Functional units

- One segment of the scoreboard keeps track of, for each functional unit:
 - Busy (yes or no)
 - Op: operation to perform
 - Fi: name of destination register
 - Fj, Fk: names of source registers
 - Qj, Qk: functional units producing the sources
 - Rj, Rk: ready flags for Fj and Fk:
 - "yes" if the source is ready and still need it
 - "no" if the source is not ready, or if no longer need it

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Scoreboard for functional units

Name	Busy	Op	Fi	Fj	Fk	Qj	Qk	Rj	Rk
Integer	Yes	Load	F2	R3				No	
Mult1	Yes	Mult	F0	F2	F4	Integer		No	Yes
Mult2	No								
Add	Yes	Sub	F8	F6	F2		Integer	Yes	No
Divide	Yes	Div	F10	F0	F6	Mult1		No	Yes

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Register status

- One segment of the scoreboard keeps track of which registers are expecting outputs from which functional units

	F0	F2	F4	F6	F8	F10	F12	...	F30
FU	Mult1	Integer			Add	Divide			

- Next, an example of the scoreboard method

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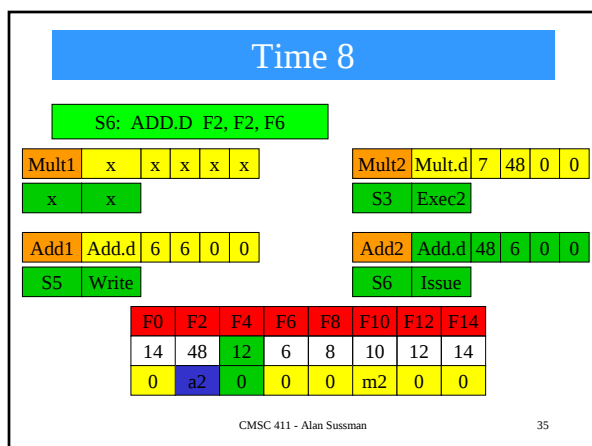
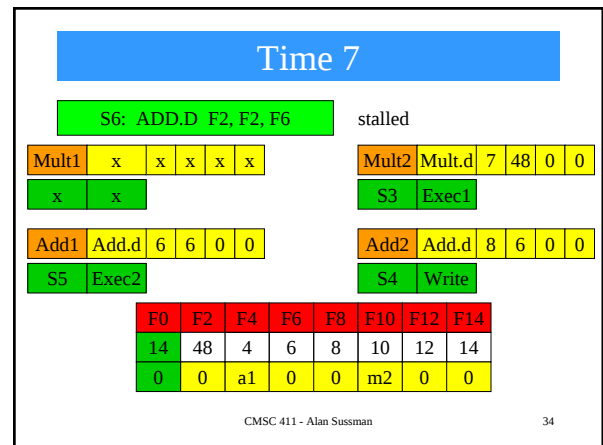
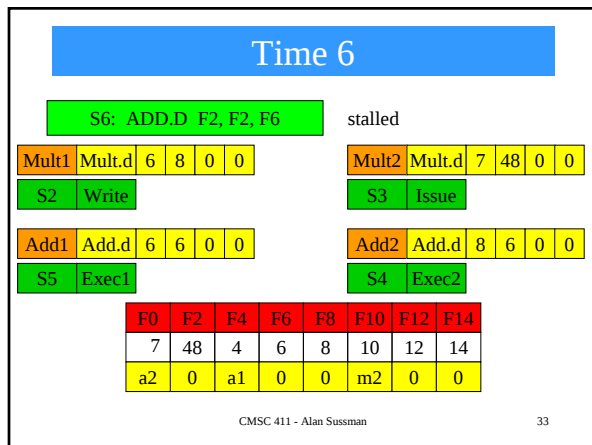
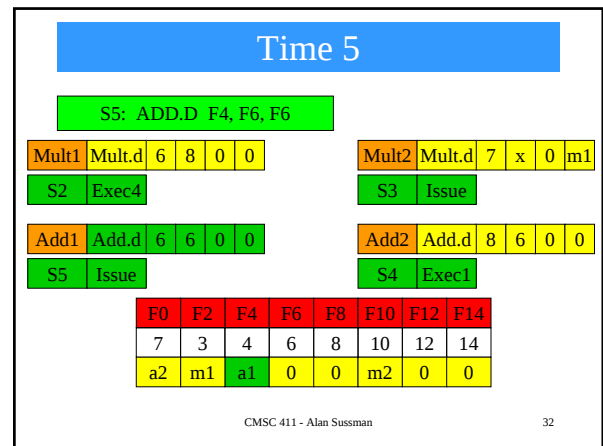
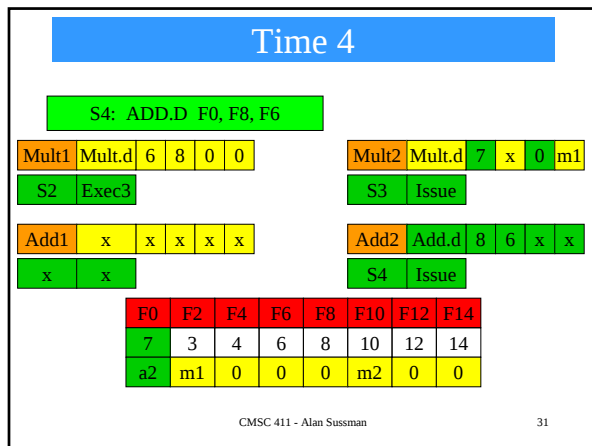
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 November 11, 2004

Administrivia

- HW #5 (Unit 4) out soon
- Project posted – due Dec. 3
 - questions?
- Midterm returned Tuesday

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Last time

- Scoreboard
 - example in slides will be fixed and posted
 - instructions issue in-order, can complete out of order
 - hazard detection done at issue stage
 - forwarding only through registers, so need to avoid WAR, WAW hazards – stall issue if the destination register is waiting for a needed result
 - RAW hazards dealt with by forwarding through register file
 - scoreboard keeps track of:
 - which pipe stage each instruction is in (issue, read operations, execute complete, writeback done)
 - for each functional unit – busy flag, operation to perform, source and destination registers, functional units supplying sources (if not from registers), ready flags for source registers
 - register status – which functional unit a result is coming from

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Limits to the Scoreboard method

- Number and types of functional units
 - for structural hazards
- Number of entries in the scoreboard table (how many instructions can be issued simultaneously)
 - determines how far ahead pipeline can look for independent instructions (the window)
 - in our discussions, never goes beyond a branch
- Output dependences and antidependences
 - that lead to WAW and WAR stalls
- Parallelism available in the program
 - to find independent instructions to execute

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Tomasulo's dynamic scheduling method

- Origins: IBM 360/91, 3 years after CDC 6600
- Scoreboard controls the progress of each instruction and makes sure that hazards such as RAW, etc. are avoided
- In Tomasulo's method, these functions are decentralized in **reservation stations**

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Tomasulo's method

- Main differences with scoreboard method:
 - decentralized execution control
 - decentralized hazard detection
 - **register renaming** by having operands passed to reservation stations
 - eliminates WAW and WAR hazards

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Instruction status

- Only 3 kinds of pipeline stages, not 4:
 - **Issue**: send instruction to an empty reservation station, in FIFO order, along with any register contents it needs
 - also renames registers, removing WAR and WAW hazards
 - **Execute**: wait for all operands, check for RAW hazards, then execute the instruction
 - if multiple instructions ready in same cycle for same functional unit, for f.p. units choose one arbitrarily
 - for loads/stores, compute effective address first, execute loads from load buffer as soon as memory unit available, for stores wait for value to be stored before send to memory unit
 - **Write result**: put result on the **common data bus** (CDB) to get it back to a register and to any other reservation stations that need it
 - stores write to memory here too

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- Note differences from scoreboard:
 - no check for WAW and WAR hazards, since renaming prevents them
 - CDB broadcasts results, so don't have to wait for registers to be filled
 - Load and Store are also treated as functional units

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- Distribution of hazard detection logic
 - from distributed reservation stations and CDB
 - can release multiple instructions at once from single result (if other operands available)
- Eliminates stalls for WAW and WAR hazards
 - from renaming registers using reservation stations
 - and from storing operands into reservation station as soon as they are available

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- Each reservation station keeps track of
 - Busy flag
 - Op: the operation to be performed
 - Qj, Qk: sources of operands
 - already present
 - or to come from another reservation station (functional unit)
 - Vj, Vk: values of the operands
 - A: the memory address info for a load or store (eventually the effective address)

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- Register hardware keeps track of which reservation station will fill each register
 - Q_i – number of reservation station containing the operation whose result will be stored into the register
- The load and store buffers have
 - busy flag
 - value to be stored
 - A_i : effective address

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The diagram illustrates the internal components and data flow of a computer system. At the top, the 'Instruction queue' receives data 'From instruction unit'. It connects to 'FP registers' and 'FP multiplexers' via 'Operand buses'. The 'Instruction queue' also feeds into 'Floating-point operations' and 'Operation bus'. The 'Operation bus' is connected to 'Reservation stations' (labeled 3, 2, 1) and 'FP multiplexers' (labeled 2, 1). Both 'Reservation stations' and 'FP multiplexers' output to a 'Common data bus (CDB)'. The 'Memory unit' is connected to the 'CDB' via 'Address' and 'Data' lines. The 'Memory unit' also interacts with 'Store buffers' and 'Load buffers' through 'Address unit' and 'Load-store operations'.

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Instruction	Issue	Execute	Write Result
L.D F6,34(R2)	x	x	x
L.D F2, 45(R3)	x	x	
MUL.D F0,F2,F4	x		
SUB.D F8,F2,F6	x		
DIV.D F10,F0,F6	x		
ADD.D F6,F8,F2	x		

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Reservation Stations (Fig. 3.3)

Name	Busy	Op	Vj	Vk	Qj	Qk	A
Load1	no						
Load2	yes	Load					45+R[R3]
Add1	yes	SUB		Mem[34+R[R2]]	Load2		
Add2	yes	ADD			Add1	Load2	
Add3	no						
Mult1	yes	MUL		R[F4]	Load2		
Mult2	yes	DIV		Mem[34+R[R2]]	Mult1		

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Register Status (Fig. 3.3)

Field	F0	F2	F4	F6	F8	F10	F12	...	F30
Qi	Mult1	Load2		Add2	Add1	Mult2			

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An example of the Tomasulo method

The bookkeeping

Each functional unit keeps track of:

Unit	Opn	Vj	Vk	Qj	Qk
------	-----	----	----	----	----

For our convenience, we'll also indicate:

Inst	Stage
------	-------

And we'll assume these initial register contents and flags:

F0	F2	F4	F6	F8	F10	F12	F14
0	3	4	6	8	10	12	14
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

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The bookkeeping

Mult1	x	x	x	x	x		
x	x						
Add1	x	x	x	x	x		
x	x						
Mult2	x	x	x	x	x		
x	x						
Add2	x	x	x	x	x		
x	x						
F0	F2	F4	F6	F8	F10	F12	F14
0	3	4	6	8	10	12	14
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

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Time 0

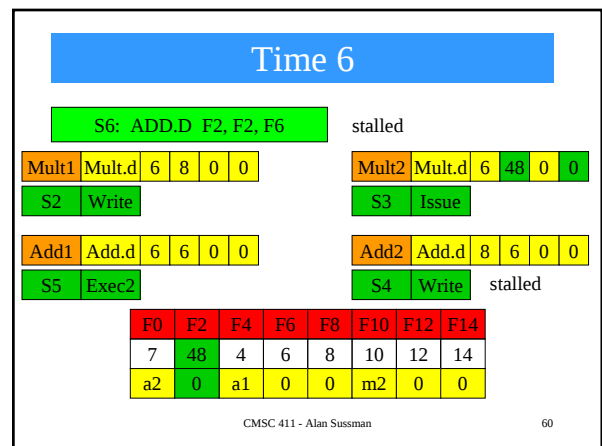
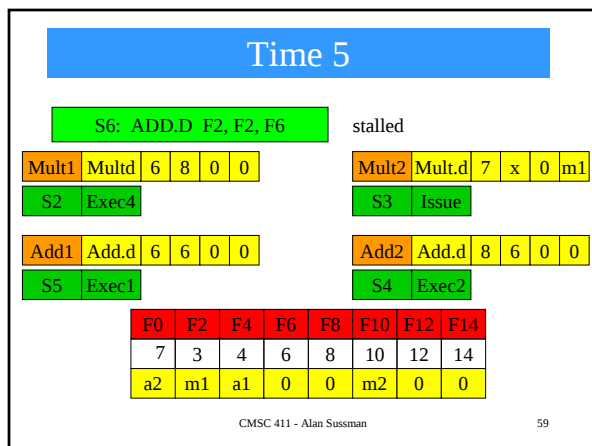
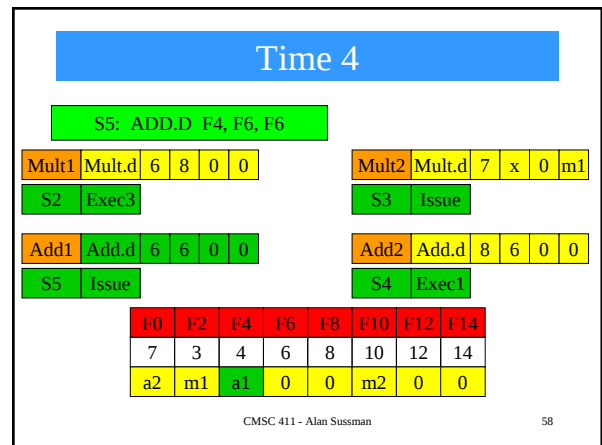
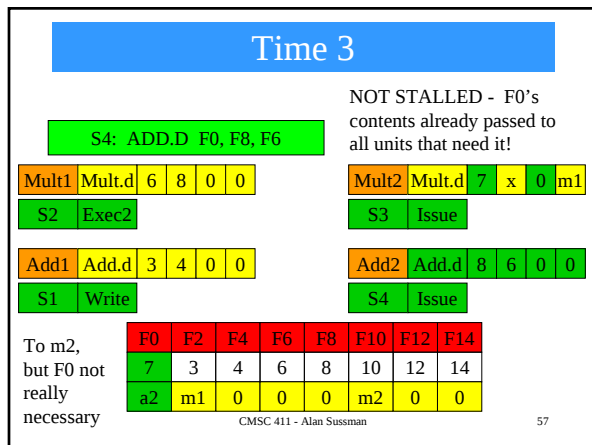
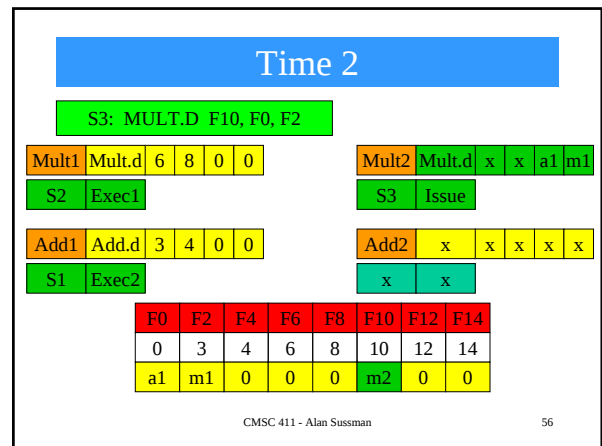
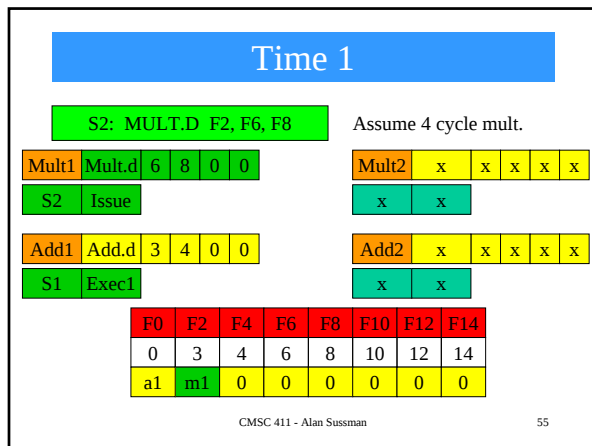
S1: ADD.D F0, F2, F4

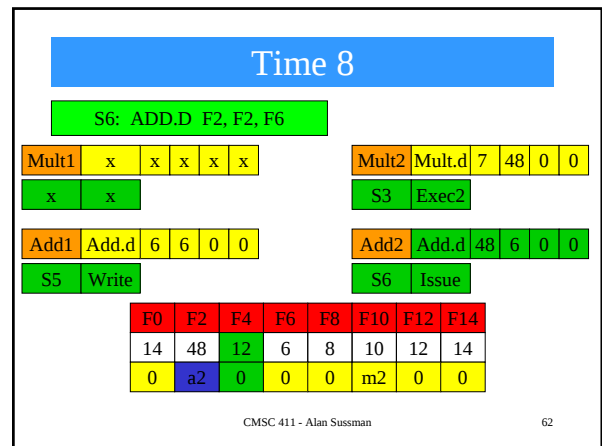
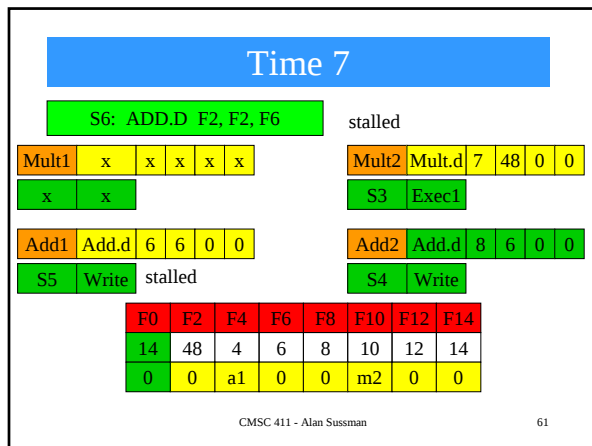
Assume 2 cycle add

Mult1	x	x	x	x	x		
x	x						
Add1	Add.d	3	4	0	0		
S1	Issue						
Mult2	x	x	x	x	x		
x	x						
Add2	x	x	x	x	x		
x	x						
F0	F2	F4	F6	F8	F10	F12	F14
0	3	4	6	8	10	12	14
a1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

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Loop-based example

- To show power of eliminating WAR and WAW hazards from dynamic register renaming

```

Loop: L.D    F0, 0(R1)
      MUL.D  F4,F0,F2
      S.D    F4,0(R1)
      DADDUI R1,R1,-8
      BNE   R1,R2,Loop
  
```

- If predict branches are taken, multiple loop iterations can execute at same time – dynamic loop unrolling

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Example (Fig. 3.6)

- Assume all instructions issued in two successive iterations of loop, but none of f.p. loads/stores or operations has completed
 - don't show integer ALU op, assume branch predicted as taken
- Once system reaches this state, 2 copies of loop could be sustained, with a CPI close to 1.0
 - if multiplies take less than 4 cycles to complete

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Instruction status (Fig. 3.6)

Instruction	From iteration	Issue	Execute	Write Result
L.D F0,0(R1)	1	x	x	
MUL.D F4,F0,F2	1	x		
S.D F4,0(R1)	1	x		
L.D F0,0(R1)	2	x	x	
MUL.D F4,F0,F2	2	x		
S.D F4,0(R1)	2	x		

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Reservation stations (Fig. 3.6)

Name	Busy	Op	Vj	Vk	Qj	Qk	A
Load1	yes	Load					R[R1]+0
Load2	yes	Load					R[R1]-8
Add1	no						
Add2	no						
Add3	no						
Mult1	yes	MUL		R[F2]	Load1		
Mult2	yes	MUL		R[F2]	Load2		
Store1	yes	Store	R[R1]			Mult1	
Store2	yes	Store	R[R1]-8			Mult2	

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Register status (Fig. 3.6)

Field	F0	F2	F4	F6	F8	F10	F12	...	F30
Qi	Load2		Mult2						

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More on Loads/Stores

- Can be done in different order, if access different addresses
- If load and store access same address, either
 - load is before store in program order, so after interchange get WAR hazard
 - store is before load in program order, so after interchange get RAW hazard
- Interchanging 2 stores to same address results in WAW hazard

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Loads / Stores (cont.)

- To decide whether a load can be executed at a given time, check if any uncompleted store (that precedes the load in program order) shares same memory address
 - similarly, for stores, wait until no earlier loads or stores share same address
- To find the address conflicts
 - for a load, after effective address computed, check against **A** field of all active store buffers
 - if a match, send to load buffer after conflicting store completes
 - for a store, check for conflicts in both load and store buffers

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Alan Sussman
November 16, 2004

Administrivia

- HW #5 (Unit 4) posted – due date set soon
- Midterm returned today
 - median: 67 25%: 57 75%: 77
 - questions?
- Project due Dec. 3
 - questions?
- Quiz 3 postponed
 - until finish Unit 4, and turn in HW#5
 - date TBD

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Last time

- Scoreboard
 - problems include WAW and WAR data hazards, structural hazards, size (window), available parallelism in program
- Tomasulo's method
 - decentralize control to reservation stations
 - instructions to run + operands + flags
 - functional unit(s)
 - decentralized hazard detection
 - register renaming to eliminate WAW/WAR hazards
 - 3 pipeline stages
 - issue to empty reservation station, read operands, rename registers (use internal ones in reservation station)
 - execute – wait for operands (RAW hazards), execute instruction
 - write result to CDB, read into register and reservation stations

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Dynamic branch prediction

- Dynamic scheduling techniques (scoreboard and Tomasulo algorithm) reduce **data hazards**
- Now: ways to reduce branch costs from **control hazards**

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Branch-prediction buffers

- Simplest dynamic branch-prediction scheme
 - also called *branch history table*
- Records how frequently a branch has been taken in the past
- What is the buffer?
 - a small *memory/cache area*
- If there are more branches than locations in the buffer:
 - then some locations are used for more than one branch instruction, which can reduce the accuracy of predictions
- How to find the right place in the buffer:
 - from the low order bits of the address of the branch instruction

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Branch-prediction buffers (cont.)

- When to access the buffer:
 - fetch the contents during the ID pipeline cycle
 - update the contents after the branch is resolved
 - What is stored in the buffer:
 - perhaps one bit per branch, indicating whether the branch was last taken or not
 - predict taken if it was taken last time.
 - otherwise predict not taken
- Example: If the branch is for an inner loop, the prediction will be wrong on the 1st and last iterations, each time the loop is executed

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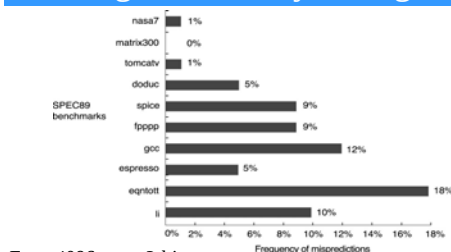
Branch-prediction buffers (cont.)

- What is stored in the buffer (cont.):
 - perhaps a counter for each branch. If have 3 bits, for example, start the count at 4
 - add one every time the branch is taken
 - subtract one every time the branch is not taken
 - predict taken if the count is 4 or more
 - predict not taken if the count is 3 or less.
 - perhaps a **correlating predictor** that counts for this branch and for 1 or more earlier ones

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How good are they? – Fig. 3.8



For a 4096 entry 2-bit prediction buffer

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Correlating branch predictors

- To improve prediction accuracy, look at behavior of recent *other* branches than the one trying to predict
- Take advantage of *correlation* between behavior of different branches
 - also called *two-level predictors*

MIPS code, with d in R1:

Simple example:

```

if (d == 0)
    d = 1;
if (d == 1)
    ...
    L2:
    BNEZ R1,L1 ; branch b1
    DADDIU R1,R0,#1
    L1: DADDIU R3,R1,#-1
    BNEZ R3,L2 ; branch b2
    ...
    L2:
    
```

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Example (cont.) – Fig. 3.10

Initial value of d	d==0?	b1	Value of d before b2	d==1?	b2
0	yes	not taken	1	yes	not taken
1	no	taken	1	yes	not taken
2	no	taken	2	no	taken

b1 not taken → b2 not taken

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Example – 1 bit predictor

Predictor initialized to not taken – Fig. 3.11

d=?	b1 prediction	b1 action	New b1 prediction	b2 prediction	b2 action	New b2 prediction
2	NT	T	T	NT	T	T
0	T	NT	NT	T	NT	NT
2	NT	T	T	NT	T	T
0	T	NT	NT	T	NT	NT

All branches mispredicted!

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1-bit prediction with 1 bit correlation

Initialized to not taken/not taken – Fig. 3.13

d=?	b1 prediction	b1 action	New b1 prediction	b2 prediction	b2 action	New b2 prediction
2	NT/NT	T	T/NT	NT/NT	T	NT/T
0	T/NT	NT	T/NT	NT/T	NT	NT/T
2	T/NT	T	T/NT	NT/T	T	NT/T
0	T/NT	NT	T/NT	NT/T	NT	NT/T

Only misprediction is on first iteration/row

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Correlating predictors (cont.)

- Predictor on last slide is a (1,1) predictor
 - uses behavior of last branch to choose from among a pair of 1-bit branch predictors
- In general, an (m,n) predictor uses behavior of last m branches to choose from 2^m branch predictors
 - each is an n-bit predictor for a single branch
 - simple hardware to do this – can keep global history of most recent m branches in an m-bit shift register, and each bit records whether branch taken/not taken
 - and index branch prediction buffer using low-order bits of branch address with m-bit global history

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Comparing predictors

- Correlating vs. standard 2-bit scheme
 - using same number of state bits
- Number of state bits for (m,n) predictor is:
 - $2^m \times n \times \#$ prediction entries to select from with the branch address
- 2-bit predictor with no global history is a (0,2) predictor
 - (0,2) predictor from Fig. 3.8 had 4K entries selected by branch address
 - total number of bits is $2^0 \times 2 \times 4K = 8K$ bits
 - (2,2) predictor from Fig. 3.14 has 64 entries, with 4 entries per branch address
 - total number of bits is $2^2 \times 2 \times 16 = 128$ bits

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Comparing 2-bit predictors

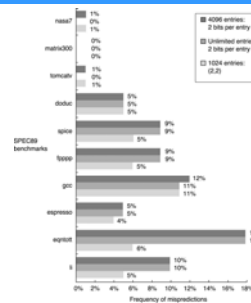


Fig. 3.15

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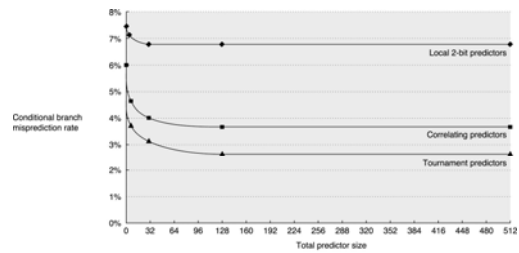
Combining local and global predictors

- *Tournament* predictors use multiple predictors, usually one global and one local, combined with a selector
 - a form of *multilevel* branch prediction
 - selector is often just a 2-bit saturating counter per branch to choose from 2 predictors that is used with a finite state machine (see Fig. 3.16)
 - increment counter when “predicted” predictor is correct and other predictor is incorrect, decrement in opposite situation

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Misprediction rates



on SPEC89 benchmarks

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Branch target buffers

- Another branch penalty reduction method
- BTB stores:
 - branch prediction information
 - predicted location of the instruction following the branch
- What is the buffer:
 - a small memory area, accessed with the address of the PC of the instruction fetched
- If there are more branches than locations in the buffer:
 - then some locations are used for more than one branch instruction, limiting the amount of information stored

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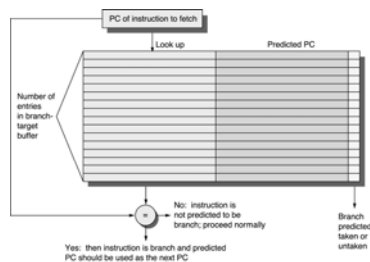
Branch target buffers (cont.)

- When to access the buffer:
 - fetch the contents during the IF pipeline cycle
 - update the contents after the branch is resolved
- How to find the right entry in the buffer:
 - look for an entry that matches the PC
- What is stored in the buffer:
 - addresses of branch instructions
 - predicted target of each branch
 - branch prediction information
- Allows *branch folding* for unconditional branches (jumps)
 - zero cycle instruction!
 - by having BTB replace jump instruction in pipeline with branch target instruction returned from BTB

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Branch target buffer – Fig. 3.19



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Computer Systems Architecture CMSC 411 Unit 4 – Instruction-level parallelism

Alan Sussman
November 18, 2004

Administrivia

- Midterm questions?
- Project due Dec. 3
 - questions?
- Online course evaluation available at https://www.courses.umd.edu/online_evaluation

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Last time

- Dynamic branch prediction
 - to reduce costs from control hazards
 - branch prediction buffer
 - cache to keep track of which way a branch went previously
 - use low-order bits of the instruction address to index into the cache
 - update an entry when branch direction is resolved
 - store 1 bit per branch (taken/not taken), or a counter
 - correlating predictors
 - to improve prediction accuracy, use behavior of recently executed branches (not just the one currently being predicted)
 - combined with local predictor, an (m,n) predictor uses behavior of last m branches to choose from 2^m predictors, each of which is an n -bit predictor for the current branch

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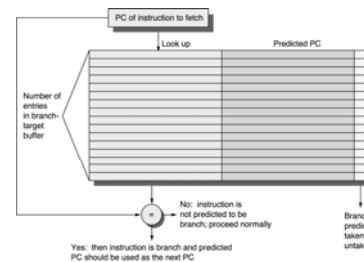
Last time (cont.)

- Tournament branch predictor combines local (no correlation) and global (correlating) predictors with a selector, to choose the one that has been performing best recently
- Branch target buffer
 - store branch target (the address of the likely next instruction), in addition to prediction info, index with address of current instruction

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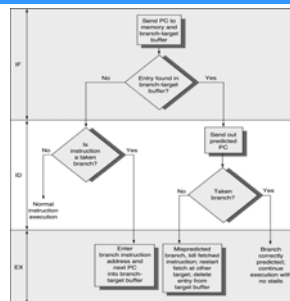
Branch target buffer – Fig. 3.19



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BTB algorithm – Fig. 3.20



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BTB penalties – Fig. 3.21

Instruction in buffer	Prediction	Actual branch	Penalty cycles
yes	taken	taken	0
yes	taken	not taken	2
no		taken	2
no		not taken	0

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Issuing multiple instructions at one time

- Scoreboard and Tomasulo's method reduce stalls from **data hazards**
- Branch buffers reduce stalls from **control hazards**
- Now talk about getting more parallelism by issuing several instructions at once
- Two currently used methods:
 - superscalar processors
 - VLIW (very long instruction word) processors

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5 approaches – Fig. 3.23

Common name	Issue structure	Hazard detection	Scheduling	Interesting feature	Examples
Superscalar (static)	dynamic	hardware	static	in-order execution	Sun UltraSparc II/III
Superscalar (dynamic)	dynamic	hardware	dynamic	some o-o-o execution	IBM Power2
Superscalar (speculative)	dynamic	hardware	dynamic, with spec.	o-o-o, with speculation	PIII/4, R10K, Alpha 21264
VLIW/LIW	static	software	static	no hazards bet. packets	Trimedia, Intel i860
EPIC	static	mostly software	mostly static	explicit dep. by compiler	Itanium

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Superscalar MIPS

- Idea: issue several non-interfering instructions at each clock cycle
- The *hardware* has the burden of detecting interfering instructions
- Can be *statically* scheduled (using compiler techniques), or *dynamically* scheduled (using scoreboard or Tomasulo's algorithm)
- For example, look at a superscalar MIPS processor that can issue two instructions at once:
 - one floating point instruction
 - one non-floating point (integer or branch) instruction

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Superscalar MIPS (cont.)

- 3 steps in instruction fetch and issue:
 - fetch 2 instructions from cache
 - determine whether 0, 1, or 2 can issue
 - look at hazards from earlier instructions issued, and from within the 2 fetched instructions
 - since 1 integer and 1 FP instruction can issue, mostly just look at opcodes for hazards within fetched pair, unless integer instruction is FP load/store/move – possible RAW hazard
 - also need another read/write port on FP register file, to allow loads/stores to issue with FP operations, and (lots) more bypass paths
 - issue the instructions to the correct functional unit

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Example

x is an array of 1000 double precision numbers, indexed from 1 to 1000

for i=1000, 999, ..., 1
x[i] = x[i] + s;

Unroll the loop – execute 4 iterations before branch (for now don't worry about loop test)

```

Loop:
    L.D  F0, 0(R1)    x[i] = x[i] + s
    ADD.D F4, F0, F2   uses F0 and F4
    S.D  F4, 0(R1)
    L.D  F6, -8(R1)    x[i-1] = x[i-1] + s
    ADD.D F8, F6, F2   uses F6 and F8
    S.D  F8, -8(R1)
    L.D  F10, -16(R1)  x[i-2] = x[i-2] + s
    ADD.D F12, F10, F2 uses F10 and F12
    S.D  F12, -16(R1)
    L.D  F14, -24(R1)  x[i-3] = x[i-3] + s
    ADD.D F16, F14, F2 uses F10 and F12
    S.D  F16, -24(R1)
    DSUBI R1, R1, #32  point to next element
    BNEZ R1, Loop
    
```

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Example (cont.)

On single issue MIPS pipeline, takes 14 cycles

Cycle	FP instruction	non-FP instruction
1		L.D F0, 0(R1)
2		L.D F6, -8(R1)
3	ADD.D F4, F0, F2	L.D F10, -16(R1)
4	ADD.D F8, F6, F2	L.D F14, -24(R1)
5	ADD.D F12, F10, F2	DSUBI R1, R1, #32 (changes later offsets)
6	ADD.D F16, F14, F2	S.D F4, 32(R1)
7		S.D F8, 24(R1)
8		S.D F12, 16(R1)
9		BNEZ R1, Loop (delayed branch)
10		S.D F16, 8(R1)

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Example (cont.)

- Need to use care not to exceed register traffic bounds
- It may be impossible to load an F register at the same time that the floating point unit is accessing/reading another F register
 - a structural hazard

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VLIW MIPS

- Idea: have several non-interfering instructions stored in each instruction fetched
- Then the software (the compiler) has the burden of detecting interfering instructions
- Must be *statically* scheduled by compiler

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Example

- Assume a VLIW instruction can contain 2 memory references, 2 floating point operations, and 1 other operation each clock cycle
- Then the example loop takes 6 cycles, because latencies still limit performance

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Example (cont.)

Cycle	Memory	Memory	FP	FP	Other
1	L.D F0	L.D F6			
2	L.D F10	L.D F14			
3			ADD.D F4	ADD.D F8	
4			ADD.D F12	ADD.D F16	DSUBI
6	S.D F4	S.D F8			BNEZ
6	S.D F12	S.D F16			

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Limitations on multiple issue

- Programs have limited parallelism and cannot keep all functional units busy – still have control hazards
- CPU hardware gets very complicated for issuing and executing
- Memory bandwidth requirements increase
- Superscalar:
 - many decisions to be made very fast
- VLIW:
 - code length increases, because of loop unrolling and many NOP instructions/operations
- Vector processors (Appendix G online) generally cheaper and faster.
- ... but recently, VLIW becoming more popular again (Intel/HP EPIC)

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Hardware speculation

- A method for overcoming control dependences/hazards
- Branch prediction reduces stalls, but still want to execute instructions past a branch to get more instruction level parallelism, esp. with multiple issue
- *Speculate* on the outcome of branches, and *execute* the program as if the guesses are correct
 - more than just dynamic scheduling plus branch prediction
 - instructions are fetched, issued, and *executed*
 - then fix things up if the speculation was incorrect

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Hardware speculation (cont.)

- 3 key ideas
 - *dynamic branch prediction*, to choose which instructions to execute
 - *speculation*, to allow executing instructions before branches resolved (and effects undone if speculation was wrong)
 - *dynamic scheduling*, to deal with scheduling combinations of basic blocks
- Essentially a *data flow execution*
 - operations execute as soon as operands available
- We'll use Tomasulo's algorithm for dynamic scheduling, and just for FP unit

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Extensions to Tomasulo's algorithm

- Separate bypassing of results between instructions from actual completion of an instruction
 - so that an instruction can execute and produce results for other instructions, without performing any updates that can't be undone – until know that the instruction should have been executed (control dependences resolved)
 - when instruction is no longer speculative:
 - update the register file, or memory
 - call this *instruction commit*

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Implementing speculation

- Allow instructions to execute out-of-order, but make them commit *in order*
 - and prevent any action that can't be undone (update state, take an exception, etc.) until instruction commits
- Requires some changes to standard pipeline sequence, and hardware buffers to hold results of instructions that have completed execution, but have not committed yet
 - a **reorder buffer**
 - also used to pass results between speculated instructions

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Reorder buffer (ROB)

- Provides registers, like reservation stations
- Holds instruction result from time operation completes until instruction commits
- But no writeback to register file until instruction commits
 - so ROB supplies operands in this time interval
- Similar to store buffer in Tomasulo's algorithm
 - in design shown, store buffer integrated into ROB

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Reorder buffer (cont.)

- 4 fields in an ROB entry
 - **instruction type** – branch, store, register op (ALU or load)
 - **destination** – register number or memory address
 - **value** – result of instruction
 - **ready** – set when instruction completes execution, and value is ready

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MIPS with Tomasulo + speculation

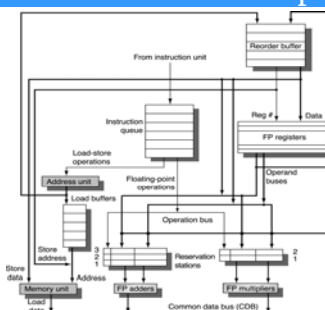


Fig. 3.29

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Instruction execution – 4 steps

• Issue

- get instruction from instruction queue
- issue if both reservation station and empty ROB slot available
- send operands to reservation station if available in either registers or ROB
- send ROB entry number to reservation station for writing result
- if reservations stations or ROB full, instruction stalls

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Instruction execution (cont.)

• Execute

- If an operand is not yet available, monitor CDB until it appears
- When all operands available at reservation station, execute the operation
- Instructions can take multiple cycles in this stage, loads require 2 steps (compute effective address and memory access), stores only need to compute effective address

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Instruction execution (cont.)

• Write result

- When result available, write on CDB (with ROB tag set in **issue** step), and from CDB to ROB, plus any reservation stations waiting
- Mark reservation station available
- For stores, if value to be stored is available, write into Value field of ROB entry for store
 - otherwise, wait until it appears on CDB, then update Value field of ROB entry

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Instruction execution (cont.)

• Commit

- For “normal” case (instruction reaches head of ROB and its result is in the buffer), update the register with the result and remove instruction from ROB
- For a store, update memory instead of result register
- For an incorrectly predicted branch, the speculation was wrong – flush the ROB and reservation stations, and restart execution at correct branch target
 - correctly predicted branch is just finished

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Example – Fig. 3.30

L.D F6,34(R2)
L.D F2,45(R3)
MUL.D F0,F2,F4
SUB.D F8,F6,F2
DIV.D F10,F0,F6
ADD.D F6,F8,F2

• Assume 2 cycle add, 10 cycle multiply, 40 cycle divide

• Status tables will show when MUL.D is ready to commit

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Example (cont.)

Reservation stations

Name	Busy	Op	Vj	Vk	Qj	Qk	Dest	A
Load1	no							
Load2	no							
Add1	no							
Add2	no							
Add3	no							
Mult1	no	MUL.D	Mem[45+R[R3]]	R[F4]			#3	
Mult2	yes	DIV.D		Mem[34+R[R2]]	#3		#5	

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Example (cont.)

Reorder buffer

Entry	Busy	Instruction	State	Dest.	Value
1	no	L.D	Commit	F6	Mem[34+R[R2]]
2	no	L.D	Commit	F2	Mem[45+R[R3]]
3	yes	MUL.D	Write result	F0	#2 × R[F4]
4	yes	SUB.D	Write result	F8	#1 - #2
5	yes	DIV.D	Execute	F10	
6	yes	ADD.D	Write result	F6	#4 + #2

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Example (cont.)

FP register status

Field	F0	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F10
ROB #	3						6		4	5
Busy	yes	no	no	no	no	no	yes	no	yes	yes

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Computer Systems Architecture CMSC 411 Unit 4 – Instruction-level parallelism

Alan Sussman
November 23, 2004

Administrivia

- HW #5 due Nov. 30
- Project due Dec. 3
 - questions?
- Quiz 3 scheduled for Dec. 7
 - quiz 4 cancelled, re-weight other quizzes in raw score
- For Unit 6, read Chapter 7
 - except 7.8, 7.12-13
- Online course evaluation available at https://www.courses.umd.edu/online_evaluation

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Last time

- Multiple instruction issue
 - superscalar – static, dynamic, speculative
 - hazard detection in hardware
 - VLIW – and EPIC
 - hazard detection in software (compiler)
- Superscalar MIPS
 - fetch then issue 0, 1, or 2 instructions to correct functional unit
 - execute them as with Tomasulo (or scoreboard)
- Speculation
 - fetch, issue and execute instructions past branches, fixing up if speculation was incorrect
 - don't commit instruction until know whether it should be executed, and commit instructions in order, even though they can execute out-of-order
 - use a reorder buffer – also passes results between speculated instructions

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Speculation - Exceptions

- Processor with ROB can provide precise exceptions/interrupts
 - don't take exception caused by program until commit
 - at that point, flush any pending instructions
 - works because commit happens in program order
- Much harder to do precise exceptions with basic Tomasulo algorithm
 - instructions can complete before earlier issued instructions, with register or memory writes that can't be undone – imprecise exceptions
 - makes some kinds of exceptions (e.g., page faults) hard to handle

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Loop example – Fig. 3.31

Loop:

```
L.D F0,0(R1)
MUL.D F4,F0,F2
S.D F4,0(R1)
DADDIU R1,R1,#-8
BNE R1,R2,Loop
```

- Assume all instructions in loop issued twice
- L.D and MUL.D from iteration 1 committed, all other instructions finished executing
- Effective address for stores already computed, and have left ROB

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Loop example (cont.)

Reorder buffer

Entry	Busy	Inst.	State	Dest.	Value
1	no	L.D	Commit	F0	Mem[0+R[R1]]
2	no	MUL.D	Commit	F4	#1 × R[F2]
3	yes	S.D	Write result	0+R[R1]	#2
4	yes	DADDUI	Write result	R1	R[R1] – 8
5	yes	BNE	Write result		
6	yes	L.D	Write result	F0	Mem[#4]
7	yes	MUL.D	Write result	F4	#6 × R[F2]
8	yes	S.D	Write result	0+#4	#7
9	yes	DADDUI	Write result	R1	#4 – 8
10	yes	BNE	Write result		

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Loop example (cont.)

FP register status

Field	F0	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8
ROB #	6				7				
Busy	yes	no	no	no	yes	no	no	no	no

- If branch mispredicted, all instructions prior to branch commit, and when branch commits, ROB cleared and processor starts fetching from other path
- this is expensive, but shouldn't happen very often

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Speculation with multiple issue

- Similar to extending Tomasulo algorithm for multiple issue
 - process multiple instructions per clock, assign reservation stations and reorder buffer entries
- Major challenges are instruction issue and monitoring CDBs for instruction completion
 - and must be able to handle multiple instruction commits per cycle
- As example in book shows (Figs. 3.33 and 3.34), speculation helps when there are data dependent branches that limit performance
 - requires good branch prediction
 - incorrect speculation could hurt performance

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Design considerations

- Register renaming
 - an alternative to ROB
 - employ a larger set of physical registers than the ones visible in the architecture (R and F)
 - replace the ones in the reservations stations and ROB
 - renaming happens at instruction issue
 - renaming dest register removes WAW and WAR hazards
 - speculation recovery easy since physical register holding instruction dest doesn't become architectural register until commit
 - hard part is knowing when deallocation is OK
 - when no longer corresponds to a physical register, and nothing will use it

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Design considerations (cont.)

- How much to speculate
 - cost comes from incorrect speculation of an expensive event (e.g., a 2nd level cache miss)
 - solution is to only allow low-cost exceptional events in speculative mode (e.g., 1st level cache miss)
 - processor waits until instruction is not speculative before handling expensive exceptional event

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Design considerations (cont.)

- Speculating through multiple branches
 - when is this beneficial?
 - very high branch frequencies
 - clustering of branches
 - long delays in functional units
 - really just makes recovery more complicated
 - IBM Power2 can even predict and speculate on more than 1 branch per cycle!

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Performance study: Limitations of ILP

Limitations of ILP

- Question is how much ILP is available in real programs
 - limits the amount of parallelism, no matter how much hardware is used
 - tells you how much can enhance performance from architectural decisions, on top of increases in circuit speeds
- Results that follow are mostly from a study by Wall in 1993 on SPEC92 benchmarks

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Hardware model used

- Start from an *ideal* processor
 - all artificial constraints on ILP removed
 - only limits on ILP are from actual data flows through registers or memory
- Assumptions
 1. *register renaming* – infinite number of virtual registers available (no WAW or WAR hazards) and unbounded number of instructions issued simultaneously
 2. *branch prediction* – all perfectly predicted
 3. *jump prediction* – all perfectly predicted – combined with 2, same as perfect speculation and unbounded window
 4. *memory address alias analysis* – all addresses known exactly, so load can be moved before store if addresses not identical
- 2 and 3 eliminate *all* control dependences
- 1 and 4 eliminate *all but true* data dependences

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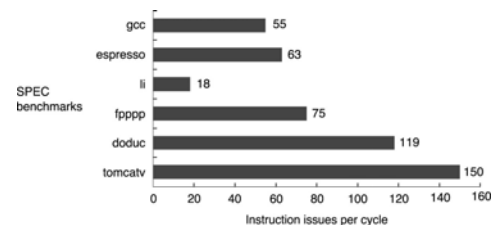
Hardware model (cont.)

- Unlimited instruction issue, with no restrictions on lookahead or on types of instructions issued
- All functional units have 1 cycle latency
- Perfect caches, so all loads/stores complete in 1 cycle
- This processor is pretty much unrealizable, but is where we start

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Available ILP – Fig. 3.35



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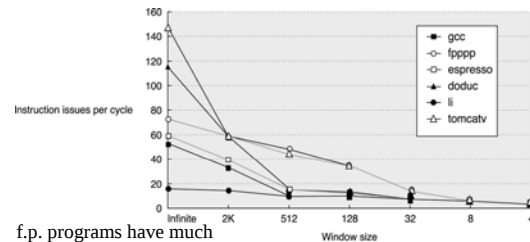
First restriction study

- Limit *window size* and maximum issue count
 - window size is the number of instructions looked at for simultaneous execution (the number *in-flight*)
 - current window sizes max out around 64-128
 - but real functional units pipelined, not single cycle
 - and real processors need window to hold outstanding memory references (cache misses)

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Restricting window size – Fig. 3.36



f.p. programs have much more parallelism than integer programs – from loop-level parallelism

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Second restriction study

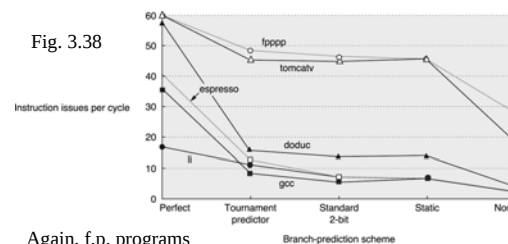
- Realistic branch and jump prediction
 - fix window size at 2K and issue at most 64 instructions per clock
 - 5 levels of branch prediction
 - perfect – for branches and jumps
 - tournament-based – correlating 2-bit, noncorrelating 2-bit, and selector to choose best one for each branch, 48K bits total, 97% accurate on SPEC92, plus essentially perfect jump predictor
 - standard 2-bit with 512 2-bit entries, plus 16 entry procedure return predictor
 - static – based on profile history of program
 - none – only predict jumps – parallelism only within basic block

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Effect of branch prediction

Fig. 3.38



Again, f.p. programs show more available parallelism

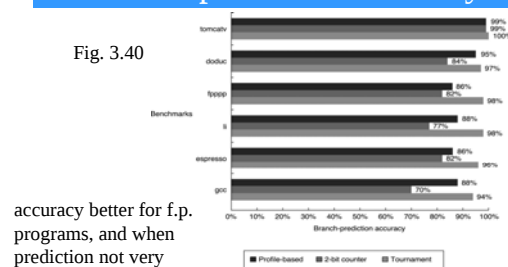
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Branch prediction accuracy

Fig. 3.40



accuracy better for f.p. programs, and when prediction not very accurate, misprediction penalty is very high

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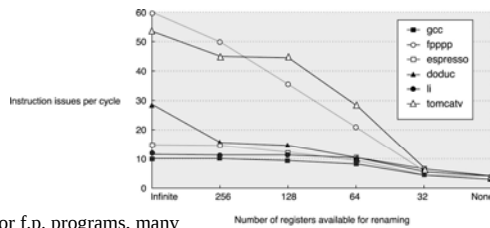
Third restriction study

- Effects of finite registers
 - huge tournament predictor (150K bits) plus large jump and return predictors
 - now reduce number of registers for renaming from infinite in ideal processor – start from a base of 32 GP and 32 FP

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Finite registers – Fig. 3.41



for f.p. programs, many registers needed to evaluate independent threads

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Fourth restriction study

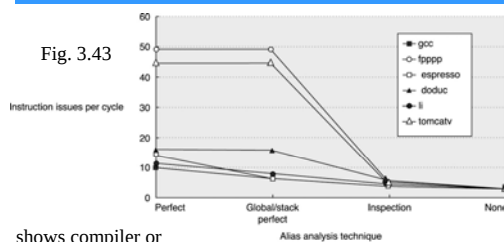
- Imperfect alias analysis
 - 3 other memory models, instead of perfect
 - global/stack perfect – and assumes all heap references conflict (idealized version of best a compiler could do currently)
 - inspection – compile time interference checks, just looking for obvious memory conflicts
 - none – all memory references conflict
 - first 2 same for Fortran programs

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Imperfect alias analysis

Fig. 3.43



shows compiler or dynamic memory disambiguation needed

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Example: P6 Microarchitecture

P6 microarchitecture

- Dynamically scheduled
- Translates each IA-32 instruction into series of micro-operations (uops) to be executed in pipeline
 - each uop is like a MIPS instruction
- Up to 3 IA-32 instructions fetched, decoded, and translated per cycle, max of 6 uops generated per cycle
- Pipeline is out-of-order and speculative, with register renaming and a reorder buffer (ROB)

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P6 uops – Fig. 3.48

Instruction	Pipeline stages	Repeat rate
Integer ALU	1	1
Integer load	3	1
Integer multiply	4	1
FP add	3	1
FP multiply	5	2
FP divide (64-bit)	32	32

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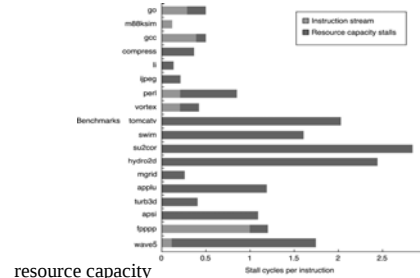
Pipeline stalls

- Lead to processor not committing as many instructions as possible in a cycle
 - fewer than 3 insts fetched – inst cache miss
 - fewer than 3 insts issued – too many uops
 - not all uops generated can issue – lack of reservation stations or ROB entries
 - data dependences everywhere – reservation stations and ROBs
 - data cache miss – all res. stations and ROBs waiting
 - branch mispredicts – pipeline flushes and refills

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Decode stalls – Fig. 3.51

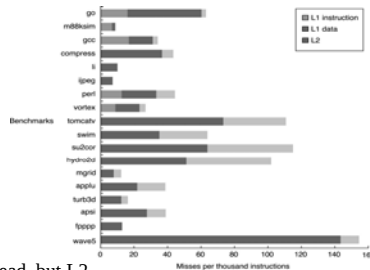


resource capacity
is the big problem

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Data cache misses – Fig. 3.53

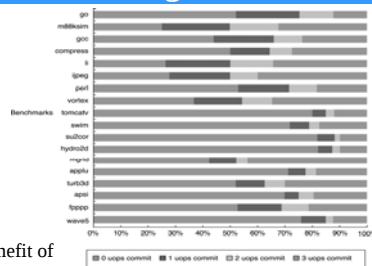


hard to read, but L2
misses are the problem

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uop completions per cycle Fig. 3.56



shows benefit of
a dyn. scheduled
pipeline

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Fallacies

- Processors with lower CPIs will always be faster
- Processors with faster clock rates will always be faster
- Sophisticated pipelines with slower clocks sometimes win from using more ILP

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Pitfalls

- Emphasizing improved CPI by increasing issue rate, but sacrificing clock rate, can lead to lower performance
 - complexity introduced to improve CPI can slow clock rate
- Improving only one part of a multiple-issue processor may not improve overall performance
 - need to find the bottleneck (i.e. Amdahl's law)
- Sometimes bigger and dumber is better
 - different applications can produce different behaviors

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