CS 5803 Introduction to High Performance Computer Architecture: Beyond RISC

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Introduction to High Performance Computer Architecture

♦ Outline

- Scalar processor
- Instruction Level Parallelism
- *How to exploit instruction level parallelism
- ★In-order issue, In-order completion
- ★In-order issue, out-of-order completion
- ★Out-of-order issue, out-of-order completion
- Super-scalar processor
- Super-pipelined processor
- *Very Long Instruction Word Computer
- * Intel machines: Evolution from 8086 to Pentium III ²

Introduction to High Performance Computer Architecture

Note, this unit will be covered in one week. In case you finish it earlier, then you have the following options:

- 1) Take the early test
- 2) Study the supplement module (supplement CS5803.module7)
- 3) Act as a helper to help other students in studying CS5803.module7

Note, options 2 and 3 have extra credits as noted in course outline.



- The term scalar processor is used to denote a processor that fetches and executes one instruction at a time.
- Performance of a scalar processor, as discussed before, can be improved through instruction pipelining and multifunctional capability of ALU.

Refer to a *RISC* philosophy, an improved scalar processor, at best, can perform one instruction per clock cycle.

Traditional *RISC* pipeline





◆Is it possible to achieve a performance beyond what is being offered by *RISC*?

As noted before, the CPU time is proportional to the:

- Number of instructions required to perform an application,
- *Average number of processor cycles required to execute each instruction,
- *Processor's cycle time.

CPU Time = Instruction count * CPI * Clock cycle time
*CPI is the average number of clock cycles needed to execute each instruction.
How can we improve the performance?
*Reduce the instruction count,
*Reduce the CPI,
*Increase the clock rate.

RISC philosophy attempts to improve performance by reducing the CPI through simplification. However, simplification in general, increases the number of instructions needed for a task.

RISC designers claim that RISC concept reduces CPI at a faster rate than the increase in instruction count — DEC VAXes have CPIs of 8 to 10 and RISC machines offer CPIs of 1.3 to 3. However, RISC machines require 50 to 150 percent more instructions than VAXes.

How to increase the clock rate?
*Advances in technology
*Architectural advances.

How to reduce the CPI beyond simplicity?
 *Increase the number of operations issued per clock cycle.

What is Instruction Level Parallelism?

◆Instruction Level Parallelism (ILP) – Within a single program how many instructions can be executed in parallel?

ILP can be exploited in two largely separable ways:
 *Dynamic approach where mainly hardware locates the parallelism,

Static approach that largely relies on software to locate parallelism.



Beyond RISC

*****Fundamental Limitations

- Data Dependency
- Control Dependency
- Resource Dependency

Data Dependency

*Within the scope of data dependency we can talk about:

- Read after write (flow) dependency
- Write after read (anti) dependency
- Write after write (output) dependency

* The literature has referred to read after write as true dependency, and write after read or write after write as false dependency.

Practically, write after read and write after write are due to storage conflict and originated from the fact that in the traditional systems we are dealing with a memory organization that is globally shared by instructions in the program.

 Storage medium holds different values for different computations.

The processor can remove storage conflict by providing additional registers to reestablish one-to-one correspondence between storage (register) and values register renaming.

Two constraints are imposed by control dependencies:

- ★An instruction that is control dependent on a branch cannot be moved before the branch,
- ★An instruction that is not control dependent on a branch cannot be moved after the branch.

Resource Dependence

A resource conflict arises when two instructions attempt to use the same resource at the same time. Resource conflict is of concern in a scalar pipelined processor.

Straight line code blocks are between four to seven instructions that are normally dependent on each other — degree of parallelism within a code block is limited.

Several studies have shown that average parallelism within a basic block rarely exceeds 3 or 4.

The presence of dependence indicates the potential for a hazard, but actual hazard and the length of any stalls is a property of the pipeline.

In general, data dependence indicates:
The possibility of a hazard,
The order in which results must be calculated,
An upper bound on how much parallelism can be possibly exploited.

Branches represent 20% of instructions in a program. Therefore, the length of a basic block is about 5 instructions.

There is also a chance that some of the instructions in a basic building block are data dependent on each other.

Therefore, to obtain substantial performance gains we must exploit ILP across multiple basic blocks.

Simplest and most common way to increase parallelism is to exploit parallelism among loop iterations loop level parallelism.

Increasing parallelism within blocks
 *Parallelism within a basic block is limited by dependencies between instructions. Some of these dependencies are real, some are false:

Real dependency $r_1 := 0 [r_9]$ $r_2 := r_1 + 1$ $r_1 := 9$ False dependency

Increasing parallelism within blocks

- *Smart compiler might pay attention to its register allocation in order to overcome false dependencies.
- Hardware register renaming is another alternative to overcome false dependencies.

Register Renaming

- Hardware renames the original register identifier in the instruction to correspond the new register with current value.
- Hardware that performs register renaming creates new register instance and destroys the instance when its value is superseded and there are not outstanding references to the value.
- To implement register renaming, the processor typically allocates a new register for every new value produced — the same register identifier in several different instructions may access different hardware registers.

Register Renaming

 $R_3 \Leftarrow R_3 \text{ op } R_5$ $R_4 \Leftarrow R_3 + 1$ $R_3 \Leftarrow R_5 + 1$ $R_7 \Leftarrow R_3 \text{ op } R_4$



Each assignment to a register creates a new instance of the register.

Increasing parallelism Cross block boundaries
 *Branch prediction is often used to keep a pipeline full.

★Fetch and decode instructions after a branch while executing the branch and the instructions before it — Must be able to execute instructions across an unknown branch speculatively.

Increasing parallelism Cross block boundaries

- *Many architectures have several kinds of instructions that changes the flow of control:
 - **Branches** are conditional and have a destination some off set from the program counter.
 - Jumps are unconditional and may be either direct or indirect:
 - A direct jump has a destination explicitly defined in the instruction,
 - An indirect jump has a destination which is the result of some computation on registers.

Increasing parallelism Cross block boundaries
 *Loop unrolling is a compiler optimization technique which allows us to reduce the number of iterations — Removing a large portion of branches and creating larger blocks that could hold parallelism unavailable because of the branches.

Assume the following program:LOOP:

- LD $F_0, 0(R_1)$ ADD F_4, F_0, F_2 SD $F_4, 0(R_1)$ SUB $R_1, R_1, \#8$
- $\begin{array}{ccc} BNZ & R_1, R_1, R_2\\ R_1, Loop \end{array}$

Load vector element into F_0 Add Scalar (F_2) Store the vector element Decrement by 8 (size of a double word) Branch if not zero

Instruction cycles for a super scalar machine

- *Assume a super scalar machine that issues two instructions per cycle, one integer (Load, Store, branch, or integer), and one floating point:
 - IFIDEXMEMWBIFIDEXMEMWB
 - IF ID EX MEM WB
 - IF ID EX MEM WB
 - IF ID EX MEM WB
 - IF ID EX MEM WB

We will unroll the loop to allow simultaneous execution of floating point and integer operations:

Integer Inst.		Fl. Point Inst.		Clock cycle
LD	$F_0, 0(R_1)$			1
LD	F ₆ , -8 (R ₁)			2
LD	F_{10} , -16(R_1)	AD	$\mathbf{F_4}, \mathbf{F_0}, \mathbf{F_2}$	3
LD	F_{14} , -24(R_1)	AD	$\mathbf{F_8}, \mathbf{F_6}, \mathbf{F_2}$	4
LD	F_{18} , -32(R_1)	AD	F_{12}, F_{10}, F_2	5
SD	F ₄ , 0 (R ₁)	AD	F_{16}, F_{14}, F_2	6

Integer Inst.		Fl. Point Inst.		Clock cycle
SD	F ₈ , -8(R ₁)	AD	F_{20}, F_{18}, F_2	7
SD	F_{12} , -16(R_1)			8
SD	F_{16} , -24(R_1)			9
SD	F_{20} , -32(R_1)			10
SUB	$R_1, R_1, #40$			11
BNZ	R ₁ , Loop			12



Instruction Level Parallelism

- Dynamic approach
- Static approach

*How to improve ILP within a basic block

- Compiler role
- Register renaming

*How to improve ILP cross block boundaries

- Static approach (loop unrolling)
- Dynamic approach
Increasing parallelism Cross block boundaries
*Software pipelining is a compiler technique that moves instructions across branches to increase parallelism — Moving instructions from one iteration to another.

Increasing parallelism Cross block boundaries

- *Trace scheduling is also a compiler scheduling technique.
- It uses a profile to find a trace (sequence of blocks that are executed often) and schedules the instructions of these blocks as a whole — Prediction of branch statically based on the profile (to cope with failure, code is inserted outside the sequence to correct the potential error).

Branch Prediction

★Simplest way to have dynamic branch prediction is via the so called prediction buffer or branch history table — A table whose entries are indexed by lower portion of the target address.

Branch Prediction

*Entries in the branch history table can be interpreted as:

- 1-bit prediction scheme: Each entry says whether or not in previous attempt branch was taken or not.
- 2-bit Prediction scheme: Each entry is 2-bit long and a prediction must miss twice before it is changed — see the following diagram.



Branch Prediction

• n-bit Saturation counter: An entry has a corresponding history feature. A taken branch increments the counter and untaken branch decrement the counter. A branch is not taken if the counter is below $2^{(n-1)}$.

Branch Prediction

★Multilevel prediction — Correlating predictors

- A technique that uses behavior of other branches to make a prediction on a branch.
- The first level is a table that shows the history of the branch. This may be the history (pattern) of the last *k* branches encountered (global behavior) or the last *k* occurrences of the same branch.
- The second level shows the branch behavior for this pattern

- When instructions are issued in-order and complete inorder, there is one-to-one correspondence between storage locations (registers) and values.
- When instructions are issued out-of-order and complete out-of-order, the correspondence between register and value breaks down. This is even more severe when compiler optimizer does register allocation — tries to use as few registers as possible.

Instruction Issue and Machine Parallelism

Instruction Issue is referred to the process of initiating instruction execution in the processor's functional units.

*Instruction Issue Policy is referred to the protocol used to issue instructions.

Instruction Issue Policy

*In-order issue with in-order completion.

- In-order issue with out-of-order completion.
- *Out-of-order issue with out-of-order completion.

Instruction Issue Policy — Assume the following configuration:

- *Underlying Computer contains an instruction pipeline with three functional units.
- *Application Program has six instruction with the following dependencies among them:
 - I₁ requires two cycles to complete,
 - I₃ and I₄ conflict for a functional unit,
 - I_5 is data dependent on I_4 , and
 - I_5 and I_6 conflict over a functional unit.



This policy is easy to implement, however, it generates long latencies that hardly justify its simplicity.

Summary

* How to improve ILP cross block boundaries

- Static approach
 - loop unrolling,
 - software pipelining,
 - trace scheduling)
- Dynamic approach
 - Branch prediction
- * Classification based on order of issue/order of completion
 - In order issue/in order completion
- * Project,
- ✤ Homework #8

◆In a simple pipeline structure, both structural and data hazards could be checked during instruction decode — When an instruction could execute without hazard, it will be issued from instruction decode stage (ID).

To improve the performance, then we should allow an instruction to begin execution as soon as its data operands are available.

This implies out-of-order execution which results in out-of-order completion.

To allow out-of-order execution, then we split instruction decode stage into two stages:

- *Issue Stage to decode instruction and check for structural hazards,
- *Read Operand Stage to wait until no data hazards exist, then fetch operands.

Dynamic scheduling

*Hardware rearranges the instruction execution order to reduce the stalls while maintaining data flow and exception behavior.

Earlier approaches to exploit dynamic parallelism can be traced back to the design of CDC6600 and IBM 360/91.

In a dynamically scheduled pipeline, all instructions pass through the issue stage in order, however, they can be stalled or bypass each other in the second stage and hence enter execution out of order.

◆In-Order Issue with Out-of-Order Completion



In-Order Issue with Out-of-Order Completion

- Instruction issue is stalled when there is a conflict for a functional unit, or when an issued instruction depends on a result that is yet to be generated (flow dependency), or when there is an output dependency.
- *Out-of-Order completion yields a higher performance than in-order-completion.

Out-of-Order Issue with Out-of-Order Completion

- * The decoder is isolated (decoupled) from the execution stage, so that it continues to decode instructions regardless of whether they can be executed immediately.
- ★ This isolation is accomplished by a buffer between the decoder and execute stages instruction window.
- *The fact that an instruction is in the window only implies that the processor has sufficient information about the instruction to know whether or not it can be issued.

Out-of-Order Issue with Out-of-Order
Completion

★Out-of-Order issue gives the processor a larger set of instructions available to issue, improving its chances of finding instructions to execute concurrently.

Out-of-Order Issue with Out-of-Order Completion



Out-of-Order issue creates additional problem known as anti-dependency that needs to be taken care of.

Summary

- Classification based on order of issue/order of completion
 - In order issue/in order completion
 - In order issue/out of order completion
 - Out of order issue/out of order completion
- Project, Dec 4
- ✤ Final, Dec

Machine with higher clock rate and deeper pipelines have been called super pipelined.
Machines that allow to issue multiple instructions (say 2-3) on every clock cycles are called super scalar.

Machines that pack several operations (say 5-7) into a long instruction word are called Very-long-Instruction-Word machines.

Very Long Instruction Word (VLIW) design takes advantage of instruction parallelism to reduce number of instructions by packing several independent instructions into a very long instruction.

Naturally, the more densely the operations can be compacted, the better the performance (lower number of long instructions).

- During compaction, NOOPs can be used for operations that can not be used.
- To compact instructions, software must be able to detect independent operations.

The principle behind VLIW is similar to that of concurrent computing — execute multiple operations in one clock cycle.

VLIW arranges all executable operations in one word simultaneously — many statically scheduled, tightly coupled, fine-grained operations execute in parallel within a single instruction stream.

A VLIW instruction might include two integer operations, two floating point operations, two memory reference operations, and a branch operation.

The compacting compiler takes ordinary sequential code and compresses it into very long instruction words through unrolling loops and trace scheduling scheme.

Block Diagram



Assume the following FORTRAN code and its machine code:

C = (A * 2 + B * 3) * 2 * i,Q = (C + A + B) - 4 * (i + j)

♦ Machine code: 1) LD A (3) $t_1 = A * 2$ (5) $t_3 = t_1 + t_2$ 7) $t_4 = 2 * I$ 9) ST C 11) $t_{5} = I + J$ 13) $t_7 = A + B$ 15) $Q = t_8 - t_6$

2) LD B 4) $t_2 = B * 3$ 6) LD I 8) $C = t_4 * t_3$ 10) LD J 12) $t_6 = 4 * t_5$ 14) $t_8 = C + t_7$ 16) ST \mathbf{O}



LD0	LD1	INT0	INT1	FP0	FP1	BRANCH
LD A	LD B					
LD I	LD J			A * 2	B * 3	
		2 * I	I + J	$t_1 + t_2$	A + B	
		4 * t ₅		t ₄ - t ₃		
ST C					$C + t_7$	
				$t_8 - t_6$		
ST O						



Questions

- Compare and contrast VLIW architecture against multiprocessor and vector processor (you need to discuss about issues such as flow of control, inter-processor communications, memory organization and programming requirements).
- Within the scope of VLIW architecture, discuss the major source of problems.
♦A super scalar processor reduces the average number of clock cycles per instruction beyond what is possible in a pipeline scalar *RISC* processor. This is achieved by allowing concurrent execution of instructions in:

* the same pipeline stages, as well as

different pipeline stages

 multiple concurrent operations on scalar quantities.

Instruction Timing in a super scalar processor



Fundamental Limitations
* Data Dependency
* Control Dependency
* Resource Dependency

- Data Dependency: If an instruction uses a value produced by a previous instruction, then the second instruction has a data dependency on the first instruction.
- Data dependency limits the performance of a scalar pipelined processor. The limitation of data dependency is even more severe in a super scalar than a scalar processor. In this case, even longer operational latencies degrade the effectiveness of super scalar processor drastically.

♦ Data dependency



Control Dependency

*As in traditional *RISC* architecture, control dependency effects the performance of super scalar processors. However, in case of super scalar organization, performance degradation is even more severe, since, the control dependency prevents the execution of a potentially greater number of instructions.





Resource Dependency

*A resource conflict arises when two instructions attempt to use the same resource at the same time. Resource conflict is also of concern in a scalar pipelined processor. However, a super scalar processor has a much larger number of potential resource conflicts.



*Performance degradation due to the resource dependencies can be significantly improved by pipelining the functional units.

Assume the following program: LOOP:

> LD $F_0, 0(R_1)$ ADD F_4, F_0, F_2 SD $F_4, 0(R_1)$ SUB $R_1, R_1, \#8$ BNZ $R_1, Loop$

Load vector element into F_0 Add Scalar (F_2) Store the vector element Decrement by 8 (size of a double word) Branch if not zero

Instruction cycles for a super scalar machine *Assume a super scalar machine that issues two instructions per cycle, one integer (Load, Store, branch, or integer), and one floating point: ĪF ID EX MEM WB IF ID EX MEM WB IF ID **MEM** WB EX IF ID EX MEM WB IF ID EX MEM WBIF ID EX **MEM** WB

 \diamond We will unroll the loop to allow simultaneous execution of floating point and integer operations: **Integer Inst.** Fl. Point Inst. **Clock cycle** $F_0, 0(R_1)$ LD LD F_{6} , -8(R₁) 2 **LD** F_{10} , -16(R_1) AD F_4 , F_0 , F_2 3 LD F_{14} , -24(R₁) AD F_8 , F_6 , F_2 4 **LD** F_{18} , -32(R_1) AD F_{12} , F_{10} , F_2 5 $F_4, 0(R_1)$ **AD** F_{16}, F_{14}, F_{2} SD 6

Integer Inst.		Fl. Point Inst.		Clock cycle
SD	F ₈ , -8(R ₁)	AD	F ₂₀ , F ₁₈ , F ₂	7
SD	F_{12} , -16(R_1)			8
SD	F_{16} , -24(R_1)			9
SD	$F_{20}, -32(R_1)$			10
SUB	$R_1, R_1, #40$			11
BNZ	R ₁ , Loop			12

- As noted before, achieving a higher performance means processing a given task in a smaller amount of time. To reduce the time to execute a sequence of instructions, one can:
 - *Reduce individual instruction latencies, or
 - *Execute more instructions concurrently.
- Superscalar processors exploit the second alternative.

General Configuration

Branch outcome/Jump address



General Configuration

- *Instruction fetch unit acts as a producer, which fetches, decodes, and places decoded instructions into the buffer.
- *Instruction execution engine is the consumer, which removes instructions from buffer and executes them, subject to data dependence and resource constraints.
- *Control dependences provides a feedback mechanism between the producer and consumer.

General Configuration

*Systems having this organization employ aggressive techniques to exploit instruction level parallelism.

General Configuration Wide dispatch and issue paths, Fetch, decode, and issue several instructions
Large issue buffer, >Largeiptor of a physical deg Btors, dence Large number of parallel functional units, > Speculation of pastemultiple branches. Are some techniques that allow aggressive exploitation of Instruction Level Parallelism.

Flow of Operations

- *A typical superscalar processor fetches and decodes several incoming instructions at a time.
- *The outcomes of conditional branch instructions are usually predicted in advance to ensure an uninterrupted stream of instructions
- * The incoming instructions are then analyzed for data and structural dependencies, and then independent instructions are distributed to functional units for execution.

Flow of Operations

*Simultaneously fetching several instructions, often predicting the outcomes of, and fetching beyond, conditional branch instructions,

*Exploit dynamic parallelisms in the program:

- Determine true dependencies involving register values and communicating these values to the target instructions during the course of execution,
- Detect and remove false dependencies,

*Initiate or issue multiple instructions in parallel,

Flow of Operations
*Manage resources for parallel execution of instructions, including:

- Multiple pipeline functional units,
- Memory hierarchy

*****Committing the process state in correct order.

Flow of Operations

*The key issue to the success of superscalar systems is the dynamic scheduling of the instructions in the program.

Historical Perspective

The development of architectures to exploit instruction level parallelism in the form of pipelining can be traced back to the design of CDC6600 and IBM 360/91.

Within the scope of these systems, practice showed a pipeline initiation rate at one instruction per cycle.

Processing Flow

*An application is represented in a high level language program,

*This high level program is then compiled into the static machine level program — The static program describes a set of executions and its implicit sequencing model (the order in which instructions are executed).

Program Representation — High Level Construct

For 0 = i < lastIf a(i) > a(i+1)temp = a(i)a(i) = a(i+1)a(i+1) = tempEnd

Program Representation — Assembly code

Move	r ₃ , r ₇
LW	$r_{8}, (r_{3})$
Add	r ₃ , r ₃ , 4
LW	$r_{9}, (r_{3})$
Ble	$r_8, r_9, L3$
Move	r ₃ , r ₇
SW	$r_{9}, (r_{3})$
Add	r ₃ , r ₃ , 4
SW	$r_8, (r_3)$
Add	r ₅ , r ₅ , 1
Add	r ₆ , r ₆ , 1
Add	$r_7, r_7, 4$
Blt	$\mathbf{r}_{\epsilon}, \mathbf{r}_{4}, \mathbf{L}_{2}$

L2:

L3:

 r_7 points to an element of the array r_8 holds the ith element of the array advancing the index r_9 holds the i+1th element of the array

In this block ith and i+1th elements are swapped

 r_6 holds the index

r₄ holds the "last"



- *During the course of execution, the sequence of executed instructions forms a dynamic instruction stream.
- *As long as instructions to be executed are sequential, static instruction sequencing can be entered into the dynamic instruction sequencing by incrementing the program counter.

Processing Flow

*However, in the presence of conditional branches and jumps the program counter must be updated to a nonconsecutive address control dependence.

The first step in increasing instruction level parallelism is to overcome control dependencies.

Control Dependencies — Straight line code
*Let us talk about control dependencies due to the incrementing the program counter:

• The static program can be viewed as a collection of basic blocks, each with a single entry point and a single exit point, refer to our example, we have three basic blocks.

Control Dependencies — Straight line code

- Once a basic block is entered, its instructions are fetched and execute to completion, therefore, sequence of instructions in a basic block can be initiated into a conceptual window of execution.
- Once the instructions are initiated, they are free to execute in parallel, subject only to the data dependence constraints and availability of the hardware resources.

Control Dependencies — Conditional Branch

- *To achieve a higher degree of parallelism, a super scalar processor should address updates of the program counter due to the conditional branches.
- *A method is to predict the outcome of a conditional branch and speculatively fetch and execute instructions from the predicted path.
- Instructions from predicted path are entered into the window of execution.

Control Dependencies — Conditional Branch

- ★If prediction is later found to be correct, then the speculation status of the instructions are removed and their effect on the state of the system is the same as any other instructions.
- ★If prediction is later found to be incorrect, the speculative execution was incorrect and recovery actions must be taken to undo the effect of incorrect actions.

Processing Flow

- *In our running example, the *ble* instruction creates a control dependence.
- *To overcome this dependence, the branch could be predicted as not taken and hence, instructions between the branch and label L3 being executed speculatively.

Move
$$r_3, r_7$$
SW $r_9, (r_3)$ Add $r_3, r_3, 4$ SW $r_8, (r_3)$ Add $r_5, r_5, 1$



*Instructions placed in the window of execution may begin execution subject to data dependence constraints.

*Note that data dependence comes in the form of:

- Read After Write (RAW),
- Write After Read (WAR), and
- Write After Write (WAW).

Data Dependencies

- Note that, among the three aforementioned data dependence, RAW is the true dependence and the other two are false (artificial) data dependence.
- *In the process of execution, the false dependencies have to be overcome to increase degree of parallelism.

Data Dependencies


Processing Flow

- *After resolving control and artificial dependencies, instructions are issued and begin execution in parallel.
- *The hardware form a parallel execution schedule.
- The execution schedule takes constraints such as true data dependence and hardware resource constraints into account.

Processing Flow

- *A parallel execution schedule means that instructions complete in an order different than instructions order dictated by the sequential execution model.
- *Speculative execution means that some instructions may complete execution beyond the scope of the sequential execution model.



*Out-of-Order Issue, Out-of-Order Completion
*Super Scalar processor
*Dynamic exploitation of ILP
*General Configuration of Super Scalar
*Flow of Operations in a Super Scalar

Processing Flow

- *Speculative execution implies that the execution results cannot be recorded permanently right away.
- *As a result, results of an instruction must be held in a temporary status until the architectural state can be updated.
- *Eventually, when it is determined that the sequential model would have executed an instruction, its temporary results are made permanent by updating the architectural state — Instruction is committed or retired.

Super Scalar System Super Scalar Architecture



In a super Pipelined Processor, the major stages of a pipelined processor are divided into sub-stages.
The degree of super pipelining is a measure of the number of sub-stages in a major pipeline stage.



2-Stage Super Pipelined Processor

Naturally, in a super Pipelined Processor, sub-stages are clocked at a higher frequency than the major stages.

Reducing processor cycle time, hence higher performance, relies on instruction parallelism to prevent pipeline stalls in the sub-stages.

In comparison with Super Scalar:

- ★For a given set of operations, the super pipelined processor takes longer to generate all results than the super scalar processor.
- *Simple operations take longer time to execute in a super scalar than super pipelined, since there are no clock with finer resolution.

Beyond RISC

♦ Summary

- Scalar System
- Super Scalar System
- Super pipeline System
- *Very Long Instruction Word System
- In-order-issue, In-order-Completion
- *In-order-issue, Out-of-order-Completion
- Dynamic Scheduling
- Out-of-order Issue, Out-of-order-Completion

*From hardware point of view, super scalar processors are more susceptible to resource conflicts than super pipelined processor. As a result hardware should be duplicated for super scalar processor. On the other hand, in super pipelined processor, we need latches between pipeline sub-stages. This adds overhead to computation — degree of super pipelining could add severe overhead.

Development of Intel Architecture (IA) can be traced back to the design of 8085 and 8080 microprocessors to the 4004 microprocessors (the first µprocessor designed by Intel in 1969).

However, the 1st actual processor in the IA family is the 8086 model that quickly followed by 8088 architecture.

The 8086 Characteristics:
*16-bit registers
*16-bit external data bus
*20-bit address space
The 8088 is identical to the 8086 except it has a smaller external data bus (8 bits).

- The Intel 386 processor introduced 32-bit registers into the architecture. Its 32-bit address space was supported with an external 32-bit address bus.
- The instruction set was enhanced with new 32-bit operand and addressing modes with added new instructions, including the instructions for bit manipulation.
- Intel 386 introduces paging in the IA and hence support for virtual memory management.
- ◆ Intel 386 also allowed instruction pipelining of six stages.

The Intel 486 processor added more parallelism by supporting deeper pipelining (instruction decode and execution units has 5 stages).

- •8-kByte on chip L_1 cache and floating point functional unit were added to the CPU chip.
- Energy saving mode and power management feature was added in the design of Intel 486 and Intel 386 as well (Intel 486SL and Intel 386SL).

- Intel Pentium added a 2nd execution pipeline to achieve superscalar capability.
- On-chip dedicated L_1 caches were also added to its architecture (8 KBytes instruction and an 8 KBytes data caches).
- To support Branch prediction, the architecture was enhanced by an on-chip branch prediction table.
- The register size was 32 bits, however, internal data path of 128 bits and 256 bits have been added.
- ◆ Finally it has added features for dual processing.

- Intel Pentium Pro processor is a non-blocking, 3-way super scalar architecture that introduced "dynamic parallelism".
 - * It allows micro dataflow analysis, out of order execution, superior branch prediction, and speculative execution.
 - It is consist of 5 parallel execution units (2 integer units, 2 floating point units, and 1 memory interface unit).
- ◆ Intel Pentium Pro has 2 on-chip 8 KBytes L₁ caches and one 256 KBytes L₂ on-chip cache using a 64-bit bus. L₁ cache is dual-ported and L₂ cache supports up to 4 concurrent accesses.
- ◆ Intel Pentium Pro supports 36-bit address space.
- ◆ Intel Pentium Pro uses a decoupled 12-stage instruction pipeline.



Pentium II is an extension of Pantium Pro with added MMX instructions. L₂ cache is off-chip and of size 256 KBytes, 512 KBytes, 1 MBytes, or 2 MBytes. However, L₁ caches are extended to 16 kBytes.

Pentium II uses multiple low power states (power management); Auto HALT, Stop-Grant, Sleep, and Deep Sleep.

Beyond RISC

Pentium III is built based on Pentium Pro and Pentium II processors. It introduces 70 new instructions with a new SIMD floating point unit.

Intel Processor		Perform (MIPS)	Clock Frequency	# trans on Die	Register Size	External Data Bus Size	Addr. Space	Caches
8086	1978	0.8	8 MHz	29 K	16 bits	16 bits	1 MB	None
Intel 286	1982	2.7	12.5 MHz	134 K	16 bits	16 bits	16 MB	None
Intel 386	1985	6.0	20 MHz	275 K	32 bits	32 bits	4 GB	None
Intel 486	1989	20	25 MHz	1.2 M	32 bits	32 bits	4 GB	8KB L ₁
Pentium	1993	100	60 MHz	3.1 M	32 bits	64 bits	4 GB	16KB L ₁
Pentium Pro	1995	440	200 MHz	5.5 M	32 bits	64 bits	64 GB	16KB L ₁ , 256KB L ₂ or 512KB L ₂
Pentium II	1997	466	266 MHz	7 M	32 bits	64 bits	64 GB	32KB L ₁ , 256KB L ₂ or 512KB L ₂
Pentium III	1999	1000	500 MHz	8.2 M	32 (GP), 128 (FP)	64 bits	64 GB	32KB L ₁ , 512KB L ₂

Pentium 4 offers new features that allows higher performance in multimedia applications.

The SSE2 extensions allow application programmers to control cacheability of data.

 Pentium 4 has 42 million transistors using 0.18µ CMOS technology.

Intel Processor		µ-arch.	Clock Freq.	Tran/Die	Reg. Size (bits)	Bus Bandwidth	Addr. Space	On-die Caches
Pentium III	1999	P6	700 MHz	28 (M)	GP: 32 FPU: 80 MMX: 64 XMM: 128	Up to 1.06 GB/s	64 GB	32KB L ₁ , 256KB L ₂
Pentium 4	2000	NetBurst	1.50 GHz	42 (M)	GP: 32 FPU: 80 MMX: 64 XMM: 128	3.2 GB/s	64 GB	12Kμop Exec. Trace Cache; 8KB L ₁ , 256KB L ₂



First Level Caches:

- * Execution Trace Cache stores decoded instructions and removes decoder latency from main execution loops.
- * Low latency data cache has 2 cycle latency.
- Very deep (20-satge mis-prediction pipeline), out-of-order, speculative execution engine.
 - **★** Up to 126 instructions in flight.
 - ★ Up to 48 loads and 24 stores in pipeline.
 - * Arithmetic Logic Units runs at twice the processor frequency (3GHz).
 - * Basic integer operations executes ½ processor cycle time.

Enhance branch prediction:
*Reduce mis-prediction penalty
*Advanced branch prediction algorithm
*4k-entry branch target array.
Can retire up to three µoperations per clock cycle.

Introduction to High Performance Computer Architecture

Wish you all the best