World of Predictors: Branch/Value Predictors CASS '18

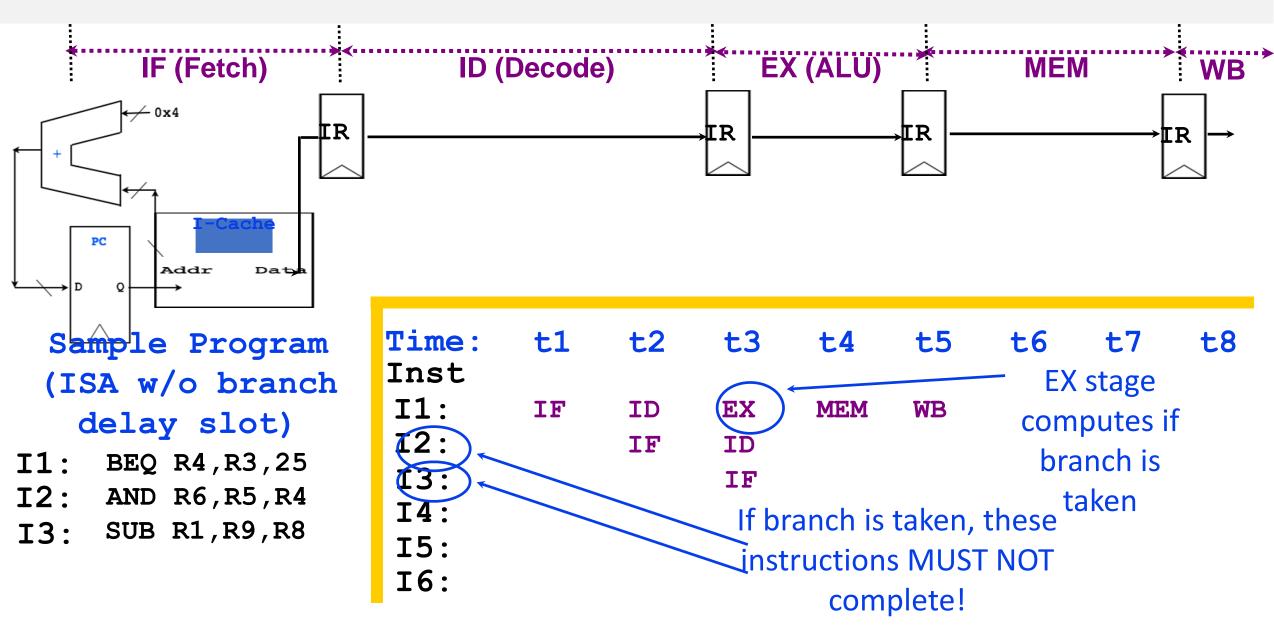




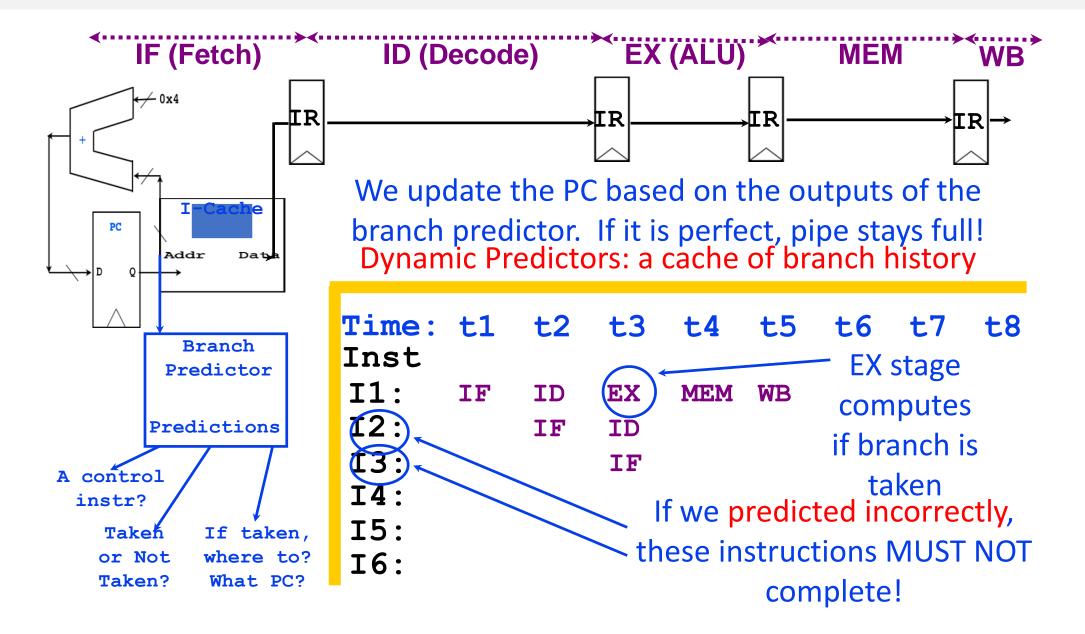
image courtesy: stan's world



Basics First



Welcome to Branch Prediction



Branch Prediction

- Idea: Predict the next fetch address (to be used in the next cycle)
- Requires three things to be predicted at fetch stage:
 - Whether the fetched instruction is a branch
 - (Conditional) branch direction
 - Branch target address (if taken)
- Observation: Target address remains the same for a conditional direct branch across dynamic instances
 - Idea: Store the target address from previous instance and access it with the PC
 - Called Branch Target Buffer (BTB) or Branch Target Address Cache

Static Branch Prediction

Always not-taken

- □ Simple to implement: no need for BTB, no direction prediction
- □ Low accuracy: ~30-40%
- Always taken
 - No direction prediction
 - □ Better accuracy: ~60-70%
 - Backward branches (i.e. loop branches) are usually taken
- Backward taken, forward not taken (BTFN)
 - Predict backward (loop) branches as taken, others not-taken

Static Branch Prediction

Profile-based

Idea: Compiler determines likely direction for each branch using profile run. Encodes that direction as a hint bit in the branch instruction format.

+ Per branch prediction \rightarrow accurate if profile is representative!

-- Requires hint bits in the branch instruction format

-- Accuracy depends on dynamic branch behavior: TTTTTTTTTTTNNNNNNNN \rightarrow 50% accuracy TNTNTNTNTNTNTNTNTNTN \rightarrow 50% accuracy

-- Accuracy depends on the representativeness of profile input set

Dynamic Branch Prediction

Idea: Predict branches based on dynamic information (collected at run-time)

Advantages

+ Prediction based on history of the execution of branches

+ It can adapt to dynamic changes in branch behavior

+ No need for static profiling: input set representativeness problem goes away

Disadvantages

-- More complex (requires additional hardware)

Simplest One: Last-Time Predictor

Last time predictor

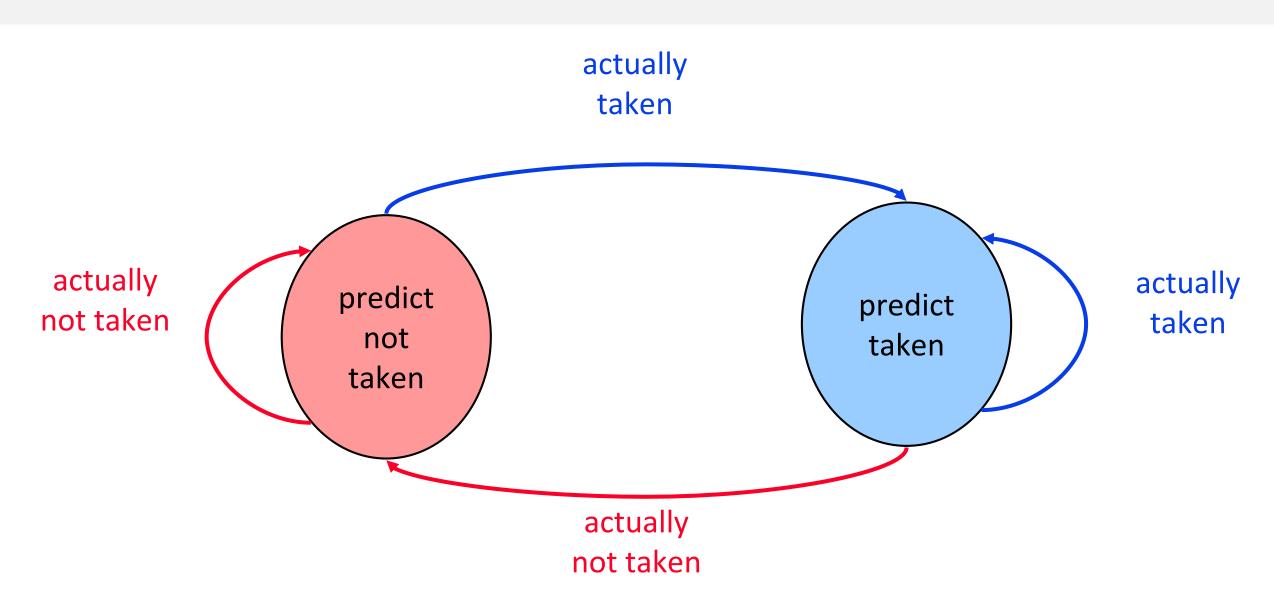
Indicates which direction branch went last time it executed
 TTTTTTTTTTTNNNNNNNN \rightarrow 90% accuracy

Always mis-predicts the last iteration and the first iteration of a loop branch

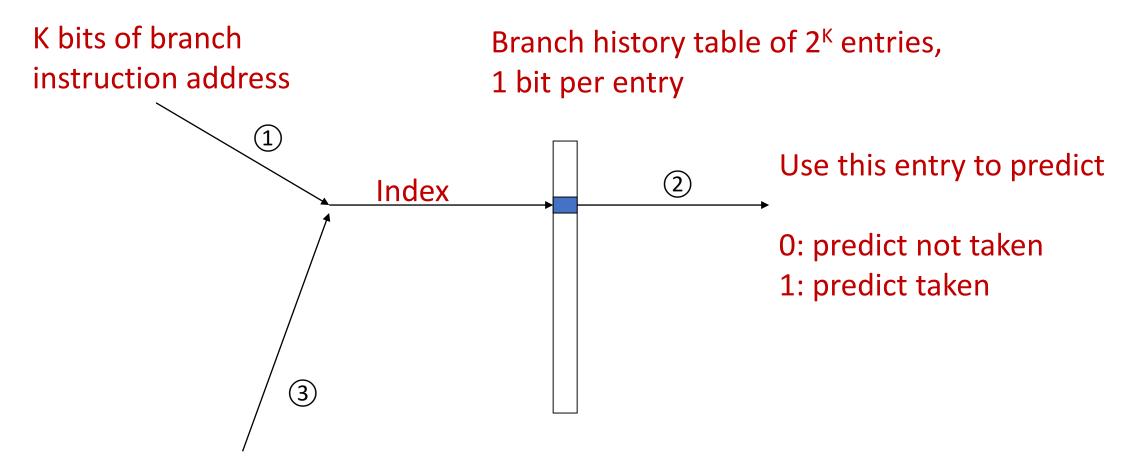
• Accuracy for a loop with N iterations = (N-2)/N

Last-time predictor CPI = [1 + (0.20*<u>0.15</u>) * 2] = 1.06 (Assuming 85% accuracy)

Last-Time

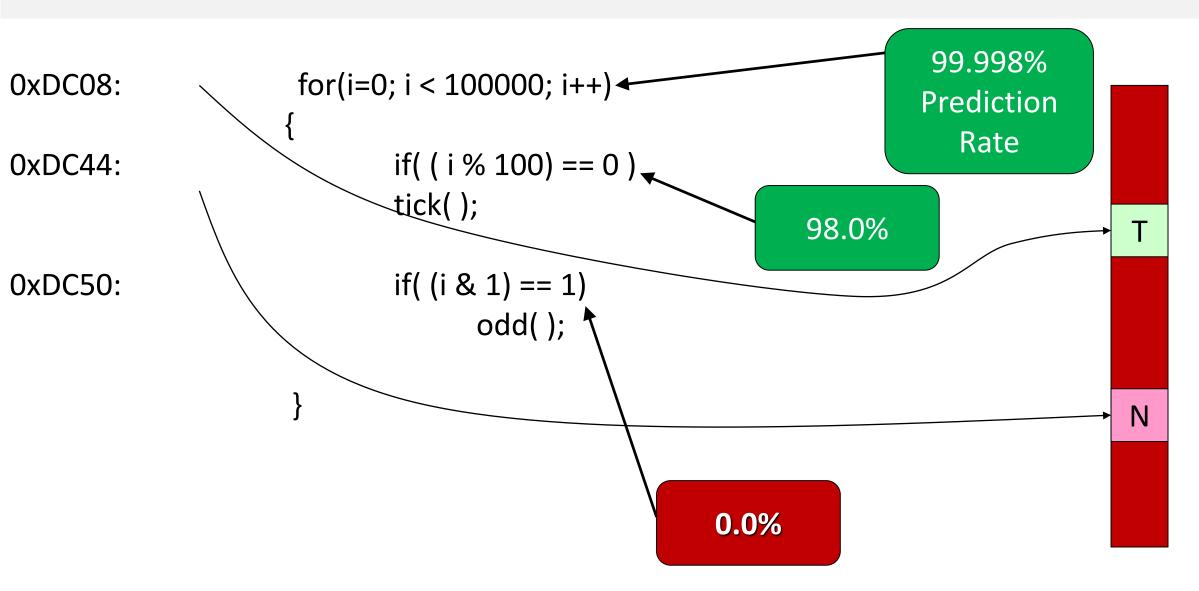


Last-time Predictor: The hardware

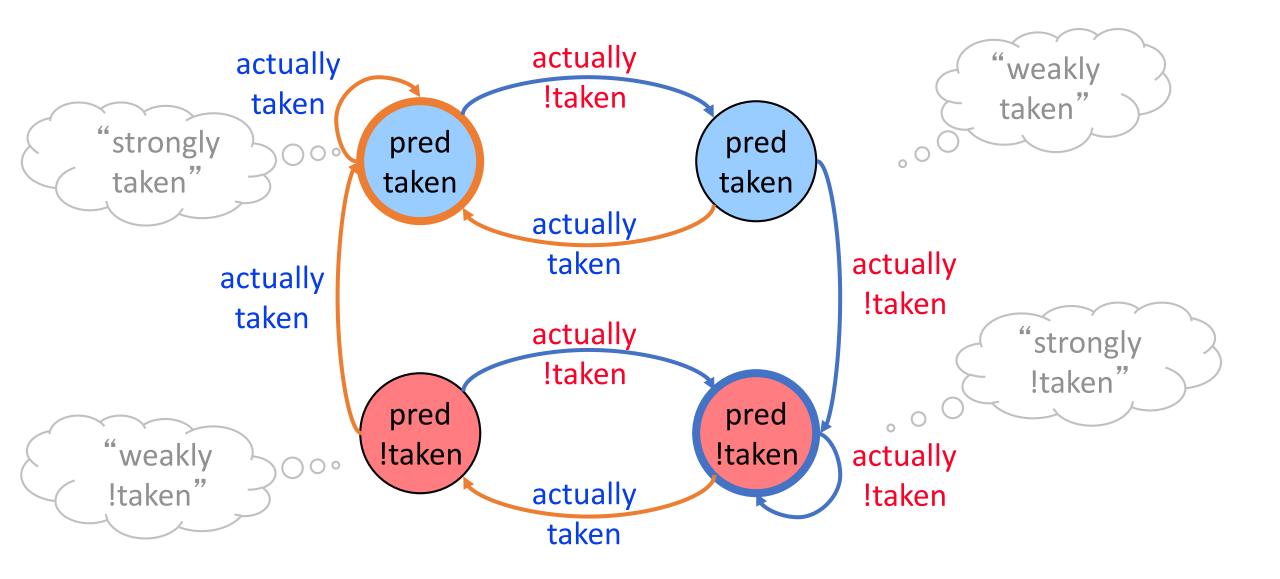


When branch direction resolved, go back into the table and update entry: 0 if not taken, 1 if taken

Example: Predict!!



Change Predictor after 2 Mistakes



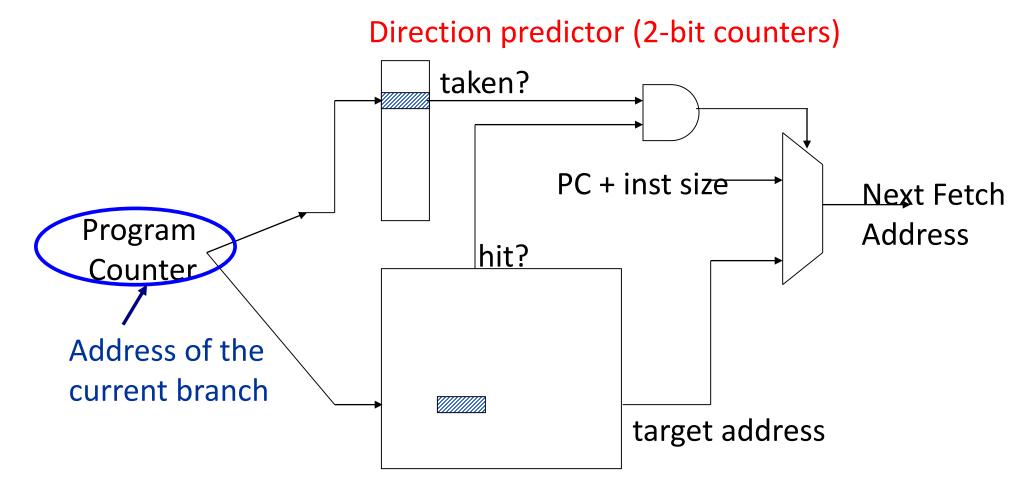
Is This Enough

- Control flow instructions (branches) are frequent
 - 15-25% of all instructions
- Problem: Next fetch address after a control-flow instruction is not determined after N cycles in a pipelined processor
 - N cycles: (minimum) branch resolution latency
 - Stalling on a branch wastes instruction processing bandwidth (i.e. reduces IPC)
- How do we keep the pipeline full after a branch?
- Problem: Need to determine the **next fetch address** when the branch is fetched (to avoid a pipeline bubble)

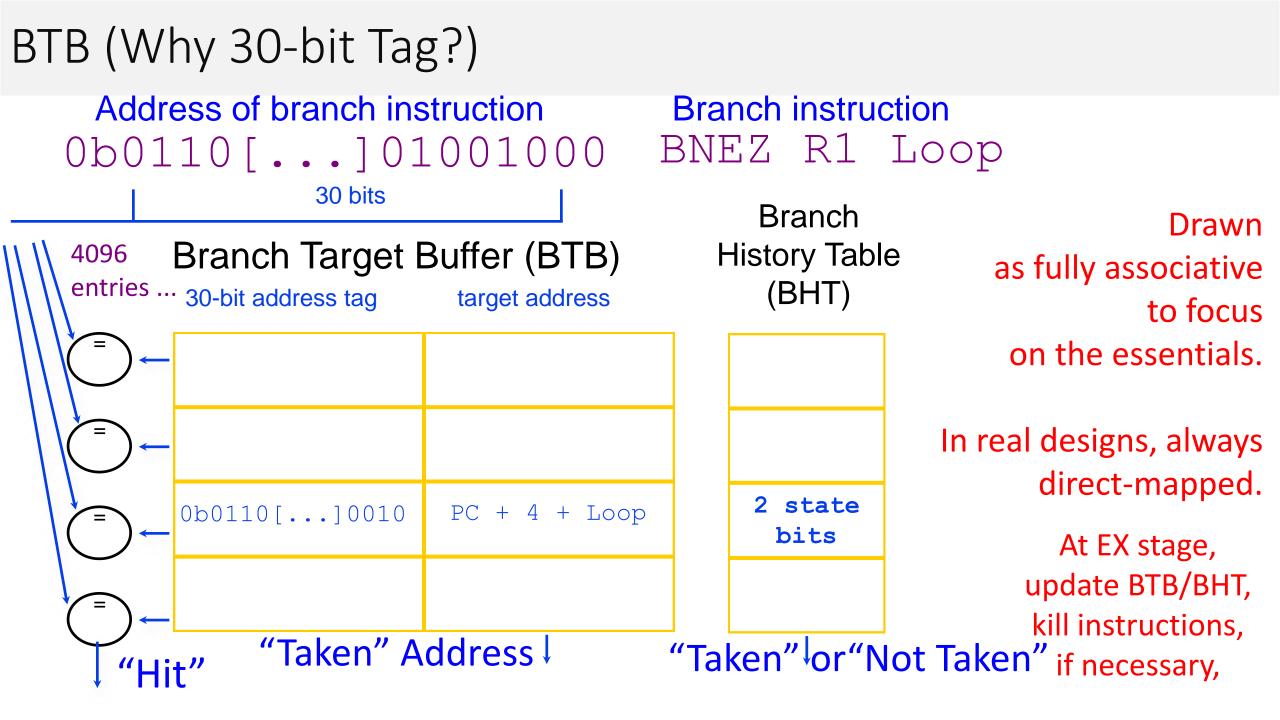
Is This Enough?

- Assume a pipeline with 20-cycle branch resolution latency
- How long does it take to fetch 100 5-instruction blocks (500 instructions)?
 - Assume 1 out of 5 instructions is a branch, fetch width of 5, each 5 instruction block ends in a branch
 - 100% accuracy : 100 cycles (all instructions fetched on the correct path)
 - No wasted work
 - 99% accuracy: 100 (correct path) + 20 (wrong path) = 120 cycles
 - 20% extra instructions fetched
 - 98% accuracy: 100 (correct path) + 20 * 2 (wrong path) = 140 cycles
 - 40% extra instructions fetched
 - 95% accuracy: 100 (correct path) + 20 * 5 (wrong path) = 200 cycles
 - 100% extra instructions fetched

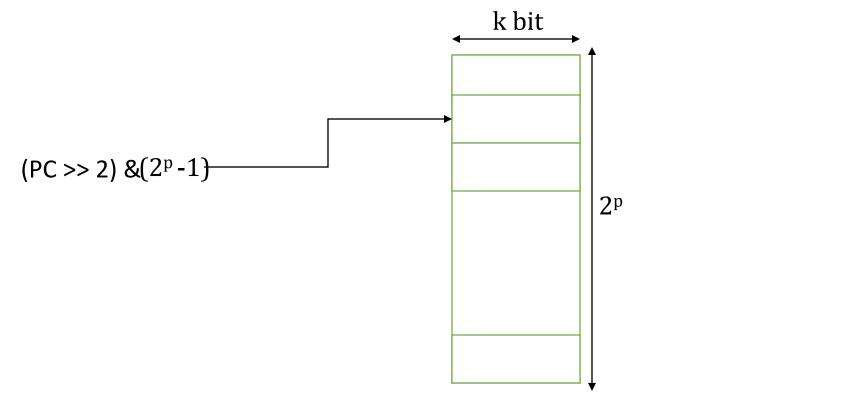
Fetch Stage with BTB and Direction Prediction



Cache of Target Addresses (BTB: Branch Target Buffer)



No History based Branch Predictor



Bimodal predictor: Good for biased branches

Local History & Global History

• Local Behavior

What is the predicted direction of Branch A given the outcomes of previous instances of Branch A?

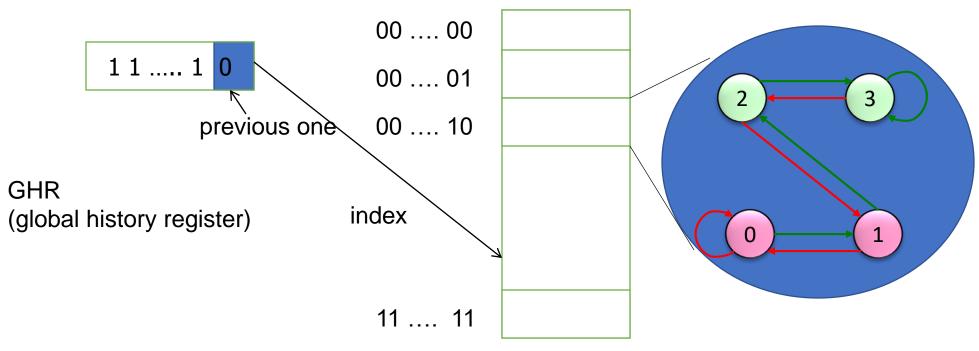
• Global Behavior

What is the predicted direction of Branch Z given the outcomes of *all** previous branches A, B, ..., X and Y?

* Number of previous branches tracked limited by the history length

Two Level Global Branch Prediction [MICRO '91]

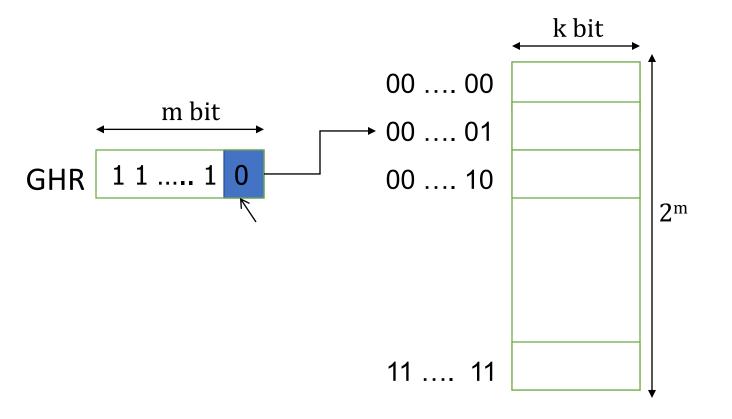
- First level: Global branch history register (N bits)
 - The direction of last N branches
- Second level: Table of saturating counters for each history entry
 - The direction the branch took the last time the same history was seen



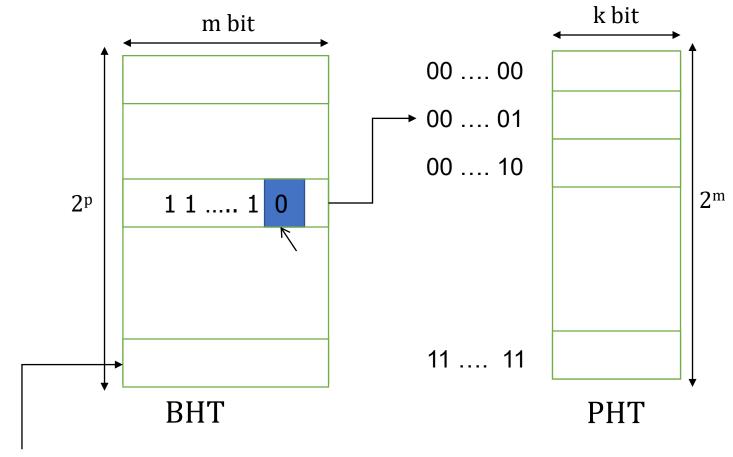


PHT

• Table of saturating counters



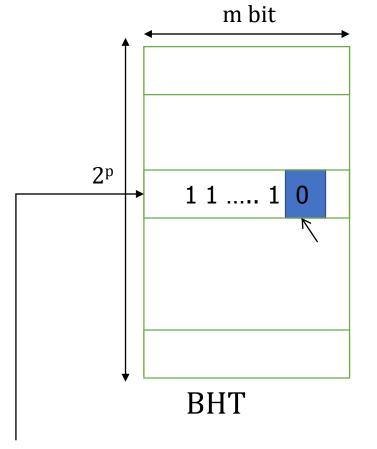
GHR per Branch (Gain/Loss?)



 $(PC >> 2) \& (2^p - 1)$

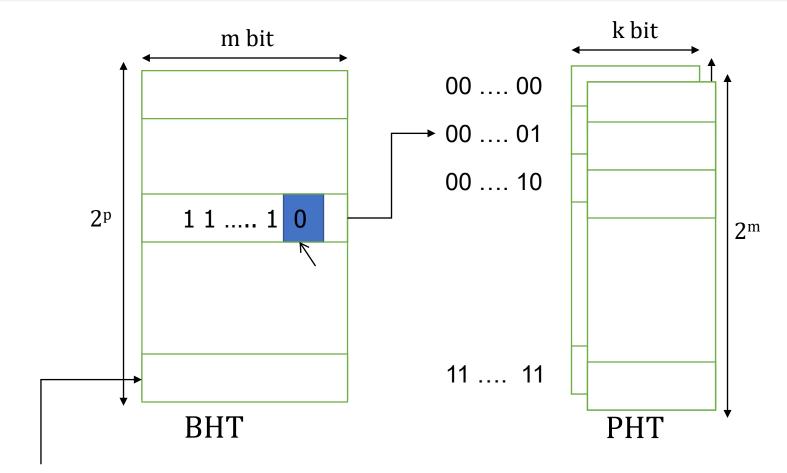
How large: k? Mostly K=2, m =12, how large m?

Set of Branches – One Register



(PC % 2^p)

What if One Branch -> One History -> One PHT ?



 $(PC >> 2) \& (2^p - 1)$

Interference in Tables

- Sharing the PHTs between histories/branches leads to interference
 - Different branches map to the same PHT entry and modify it
 - Interference can be positive, negative, or neutral
- Interference can be eliminated by dedicating a PHT per branch
 - -- Too much hardware cost
- How else can you eliminate or reduce interference?

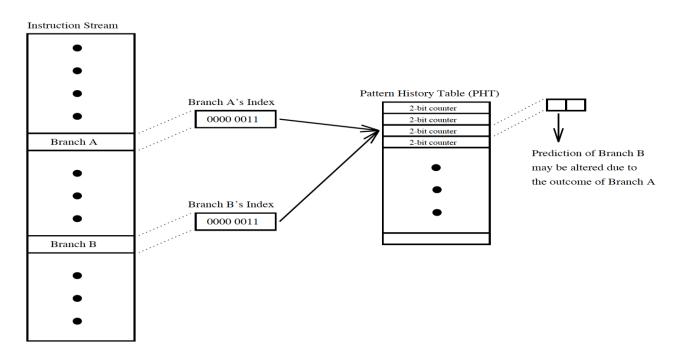
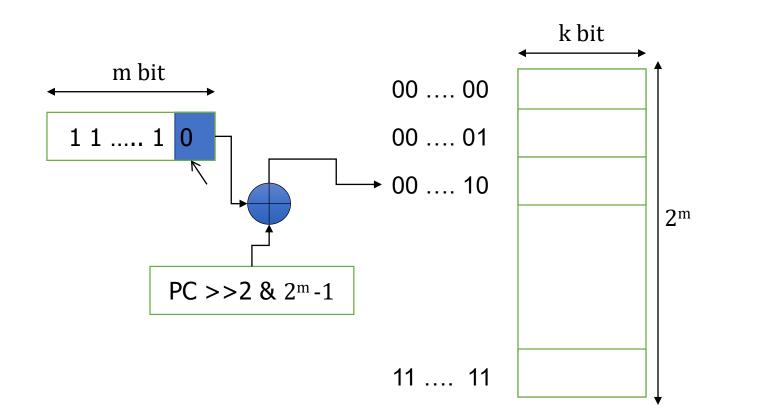


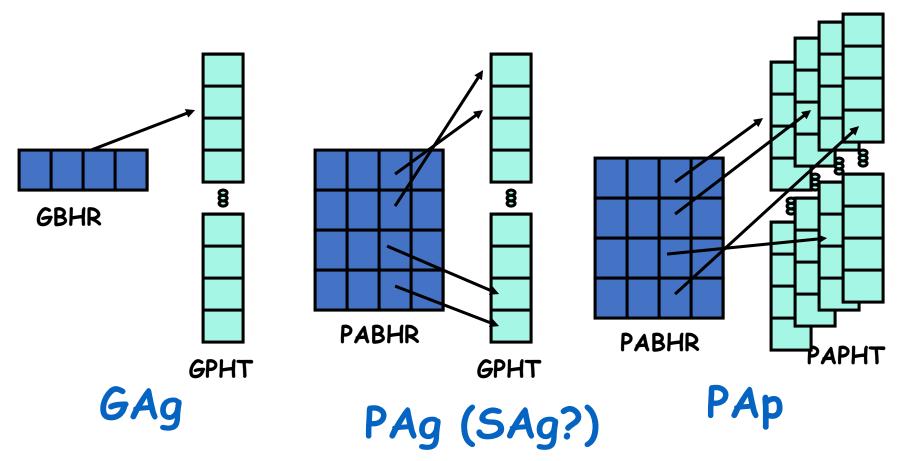
Figure 2: Interference in a two-level predictor.

GShare



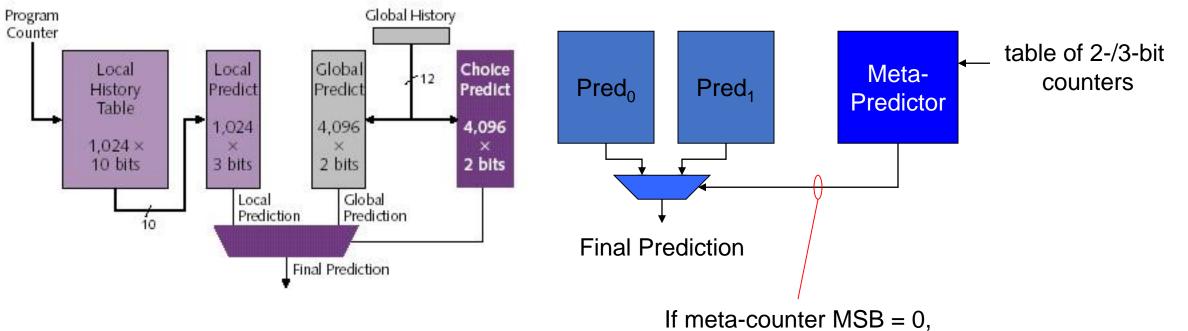
For a given history and for a given branch (PC) counters are trained

Y & P Classification [MICRO 91]



- GAg: Global History Register, Global History Table PAg: Per-Address History Register, Global History Table PAp: Per-Address History Register, Per-Address History Table

Tournament Predictor



use pred₀ else use pred₁

Pred _o	Pred ₁	Meta Update
×	×	
×	✓	Inc
\checkmark	×	Dec
 ✓ 	\checkmark	

State-of-the-Art

State of the art: Neural vs. TAGE

1970: Flynn 1972: Riseman/Foster

1979: Smith Predictor

1991: Two-level prediction •
1993: gshare, tournament
1996: Confidence estimation
1996: Vary history length
1998: Cache exceptions •

2001: Neural predictor 2004: PPM

2006: TAGE

- Neural: AMD, Samsung
- TAGE: Intel?, ARM?
 - Similarity
 - Many sources or "features"
 - Key difference: how to combine them
 - TAGE: Override via partial match
 - Neural: integrate + threshold
- Every CBP is a cage match
 - Andre Seznec vs. Daniel Jimenez



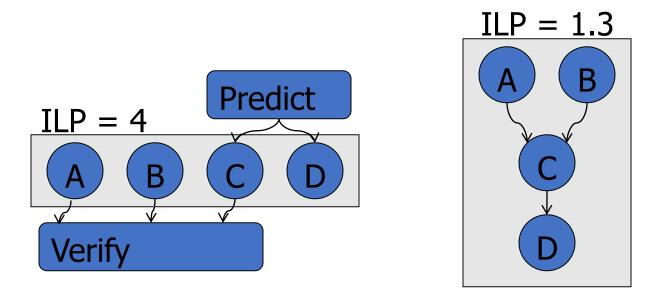


2016: Still TAGE vs Neural

Spectre and Meltdown

https://meltdownattack.com/

What about Values? And Why Values?



What is value prediction?

- 1. Generate a speculative value (predict)
- 2. Consume speculative value (execute)
- 3. Verify speculative value (compare/recover)

Goal: performance, i.e. expose more ILP

Branch vs Value

- Predict result values of executing instruction
- Comparison to Branch Prediction
 - Branch Prediction
 - Single bit prediction (taken or not-taken)
 - Speed-up by solving control dependencies
 - Small penalty when prediction fails
 - Value Prediction
 - Multi-bit (32 or 64) prediction
 - Speed-up by solving data-dependencies
 - Large penalty when prediction fails

Branch vs Value

- Most branch predictors are history-based
 - Simple predictors (e.g. last two values) have high hit-ratio.
 - SOTA predictor shows very high hit-ratio.

• Value prediction is much difficult

- Locality of result values exists but far less than that of branch
- About 50% executed instructions output last values and 80% instructions output one of 16 latest results [Lipasti+,96]
- Much lower hit-ratio than branch predictors

Branch vs Value

• Miss penalty



- Latency of normal instruction < branch instruction
- Number of canceled instruction is much larger than that in branch prediction



 Some of the slides are adapted and modified from Joel Emer, Arvind, Yale Patt, John Kubiatowicz, Onur Mutlu, Krste Asanovic, Mattan Erez, Rajeev Balasubramonian, and Mainak Chaudhuri, Mikko Lipasti, and Kei Hiraki

CASH @CASS '18:





image courtesy: India Today



CACHES @CASS '18:

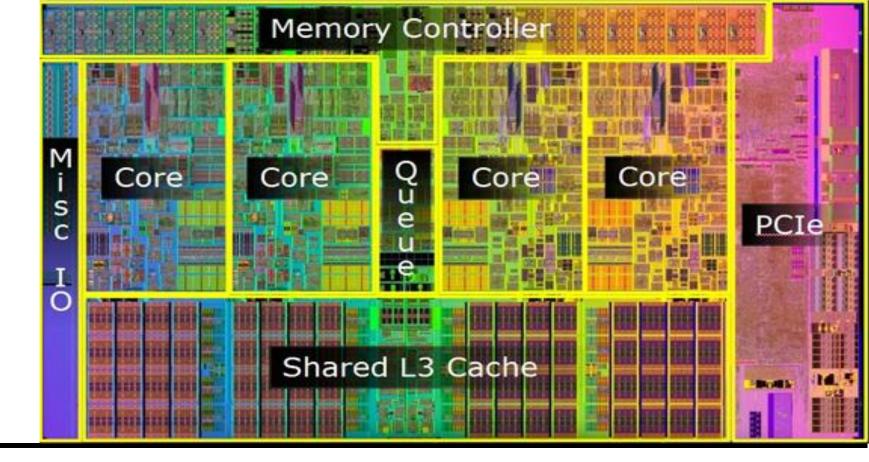
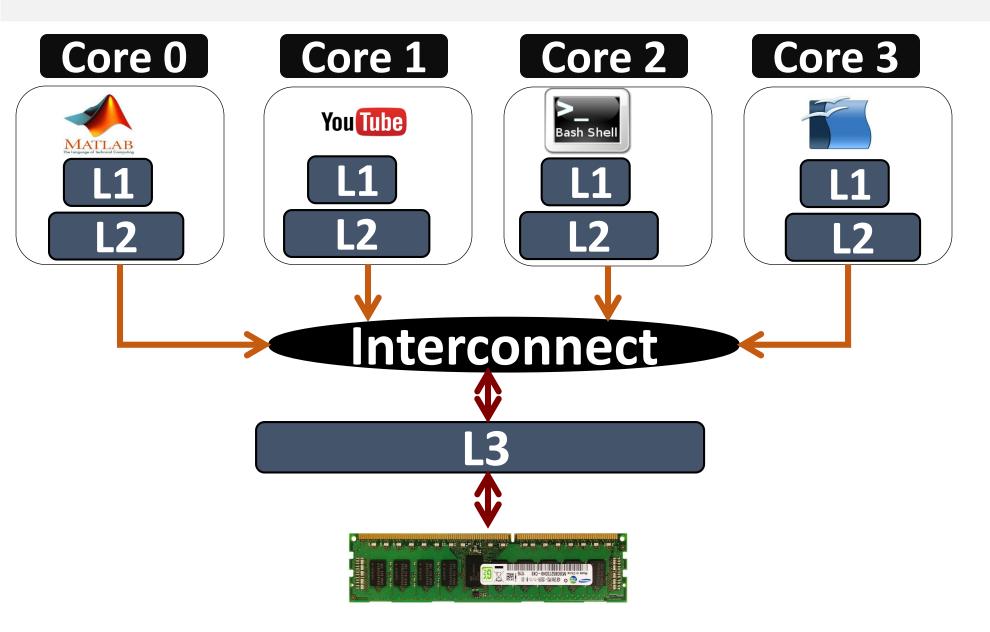




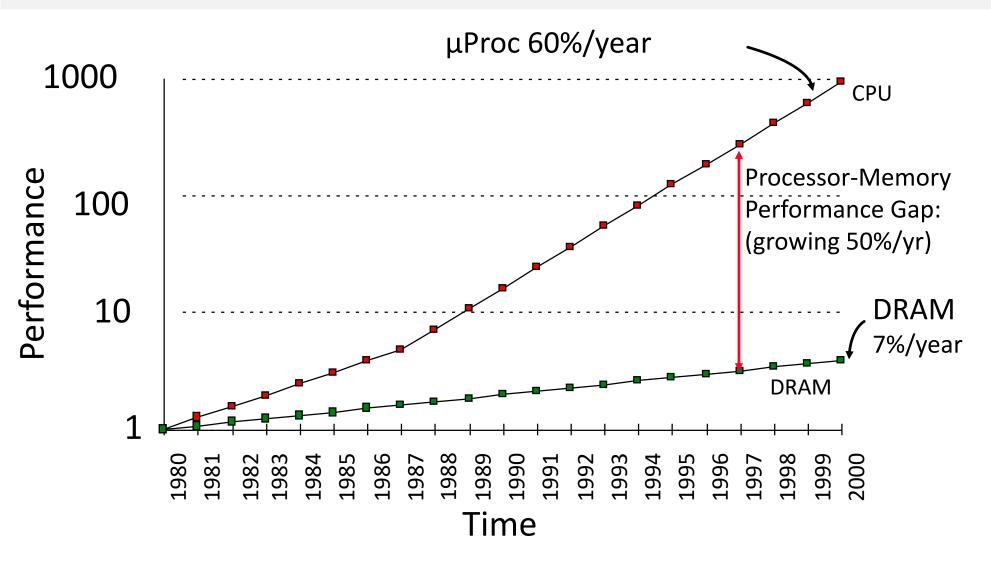
image courtesy: Intel



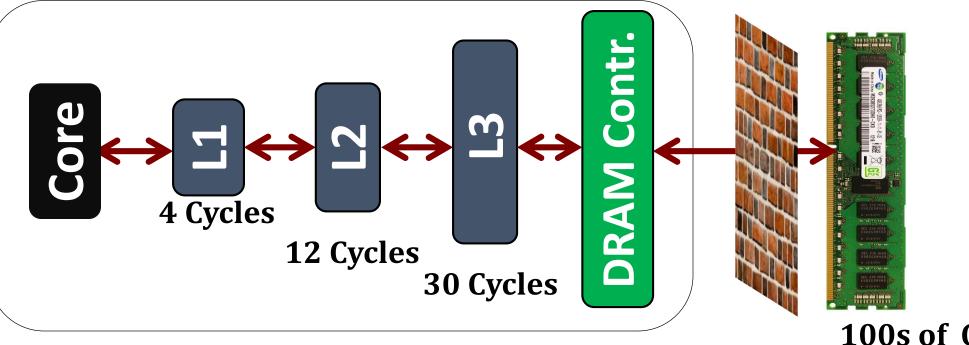
CACHES: WHERE ARE THEY



Memory Wall Problem



WHY ARE THEY?

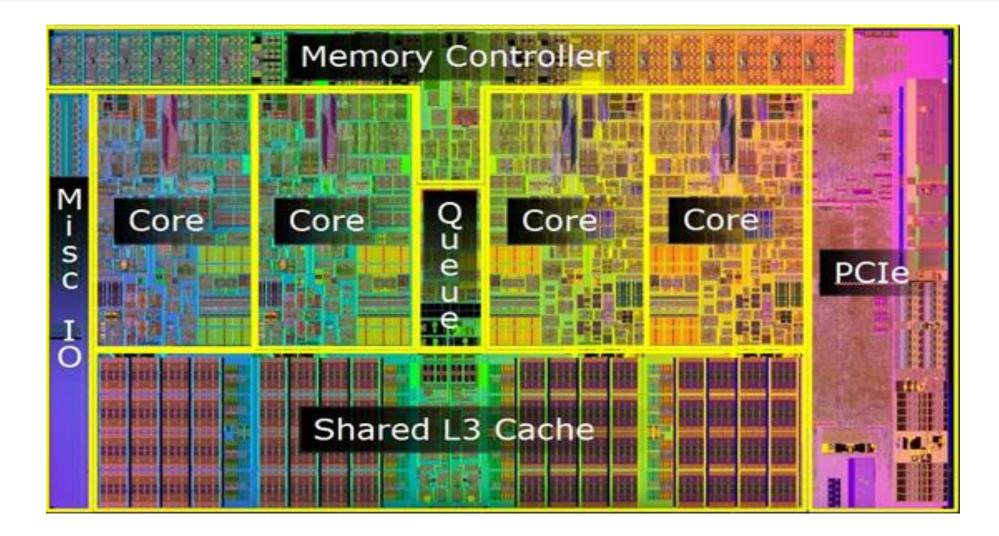


100s of Cycles

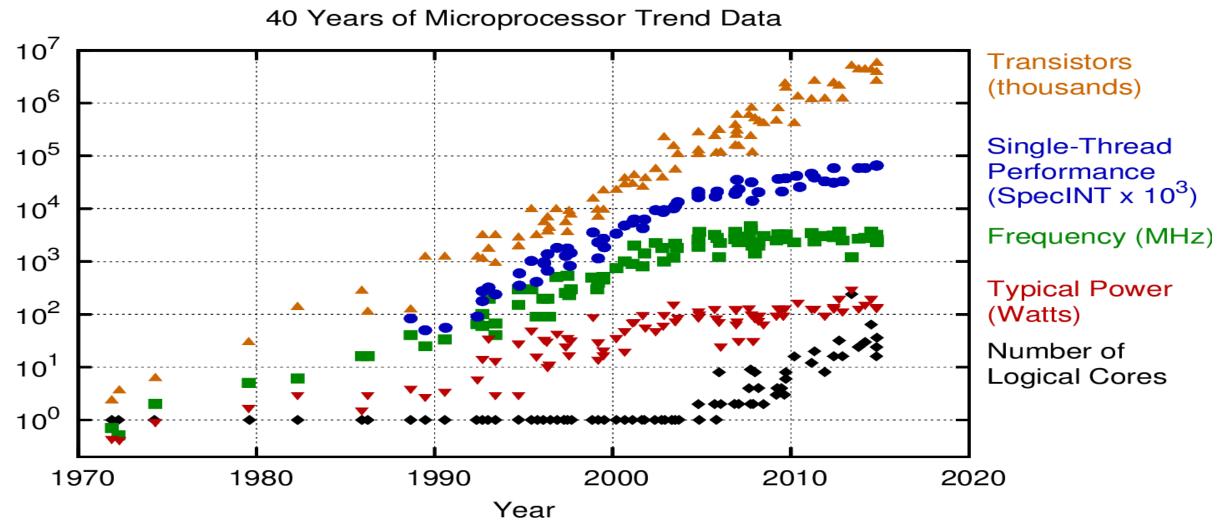
Latency wall

Bandwidth wall

SILICON VIEW

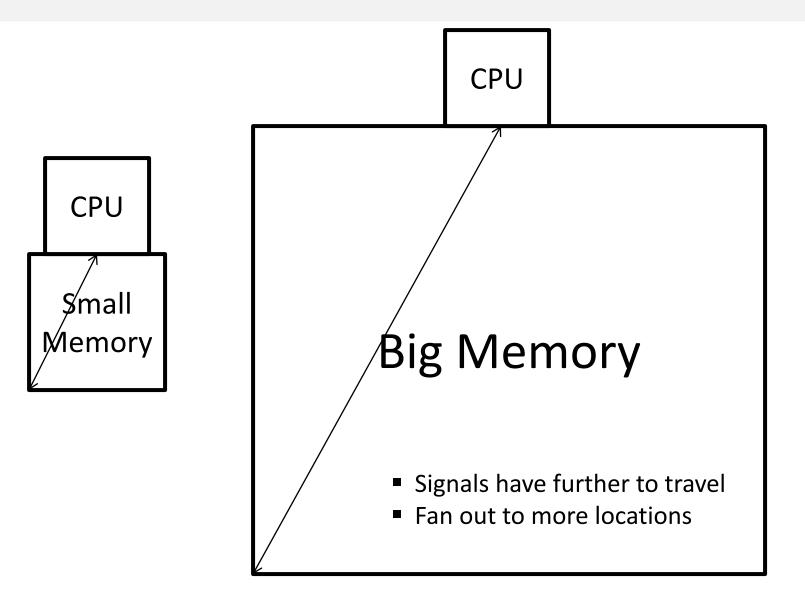


CORE COUNT

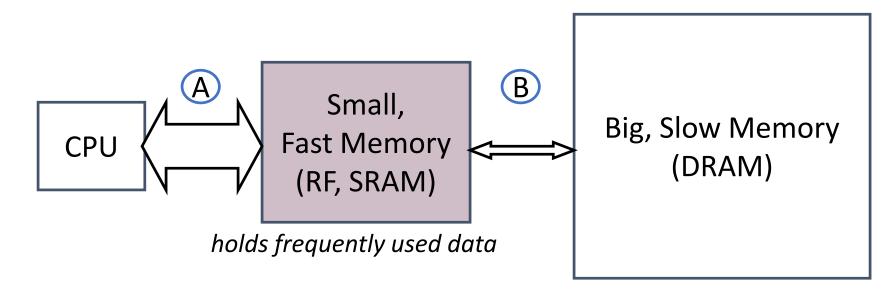


Original data up to the year 2010 collected and plotted by M. Horowitz, F. Labonte, O. Shacham, K. Olukotun, L. Hammond, and C. Batten New plot and data collected for 2010-2015 by K. Rupp

BASICS FIRST: Size Affects Latency



Memory Hierarchy

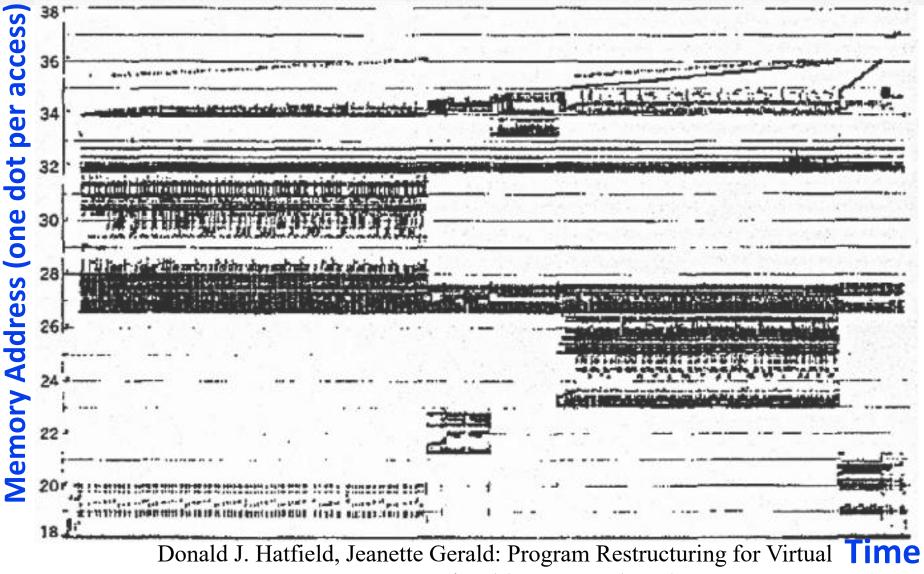


- *capacity*: Register << SRAM << DRAM
- *latency*: Register << SRAM << DRAM
- bandwidth: on-chip >> off-chip

On a data access:

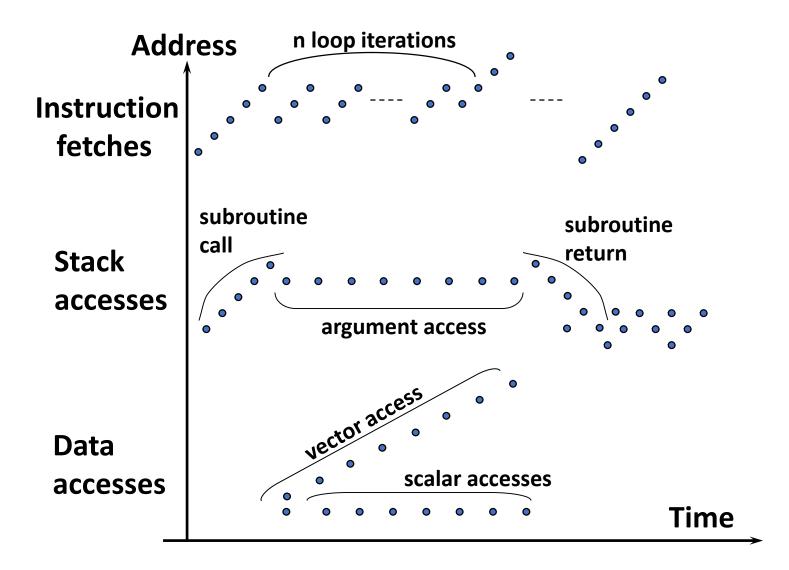
```
if data \in fast memory \Rightarrow low latency access (SRAM)
if data \notin fast memory \Rightarrow high latency access (DRAM)
```

Access Patterns



Memory. IBM Systems Journal 10(3): 168-192 (1971)

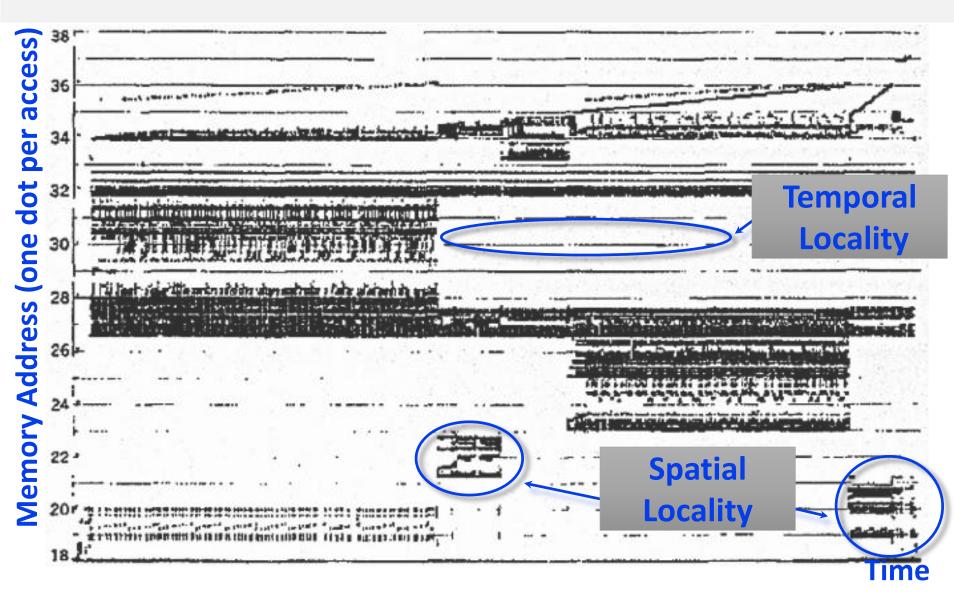
Examples



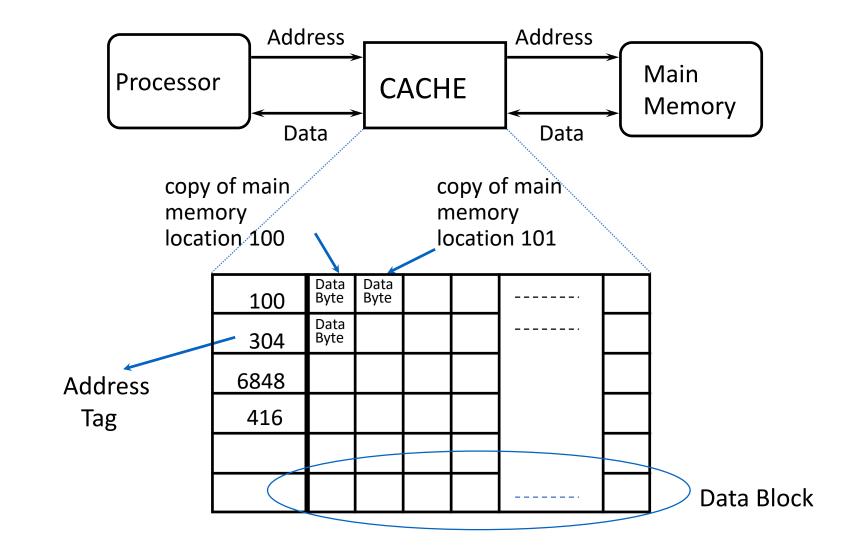
Locality of Reference

- **Temporal Locality**: If a location is referenced it is likely to be referenced again in the near future.
- **Spatial Locality**: If a location is referenced it is likely that locations near it will be referenced in the near future.

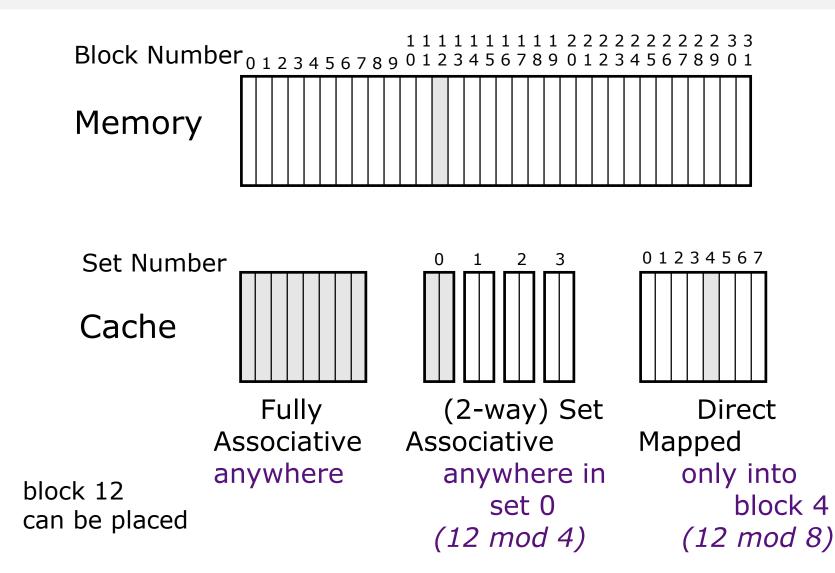
Again



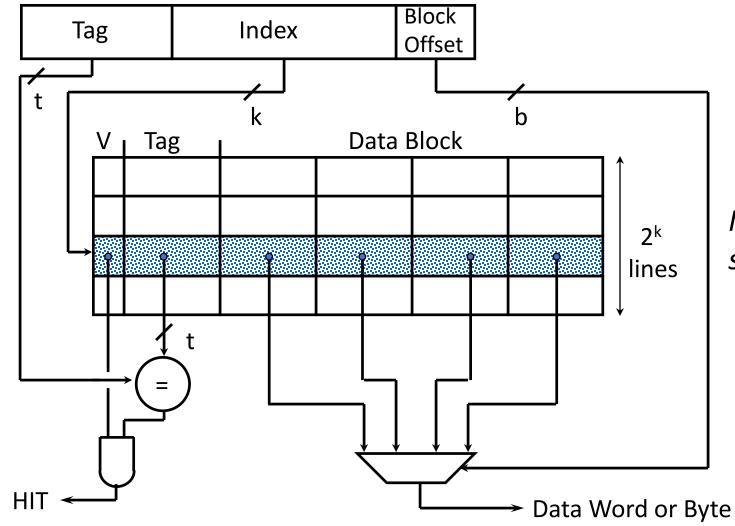
Inside a Cache



Placement Policy

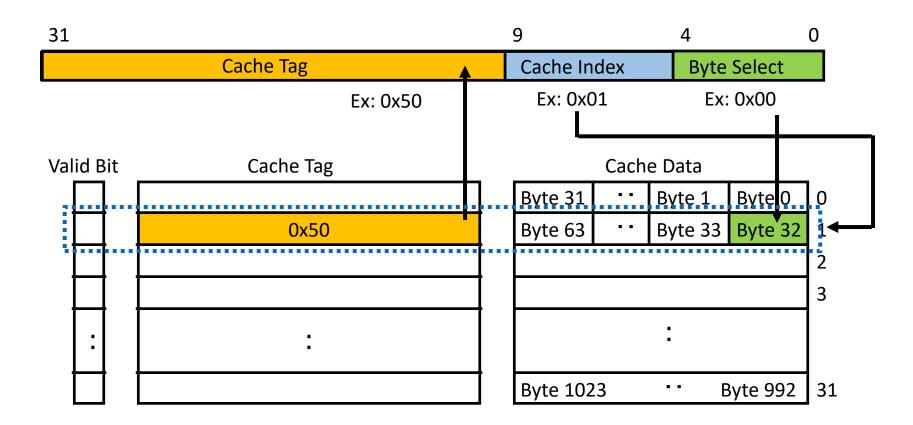


Direct Mapped

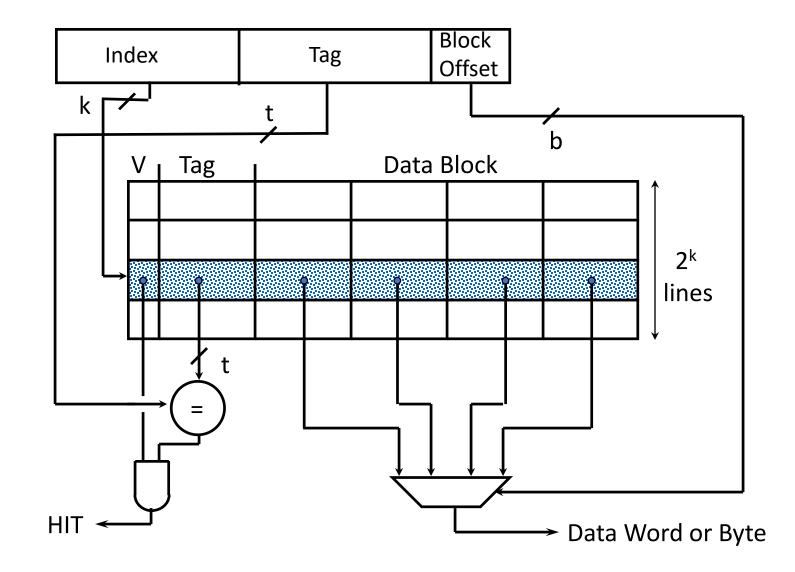


In reality, tag-store is placed separately

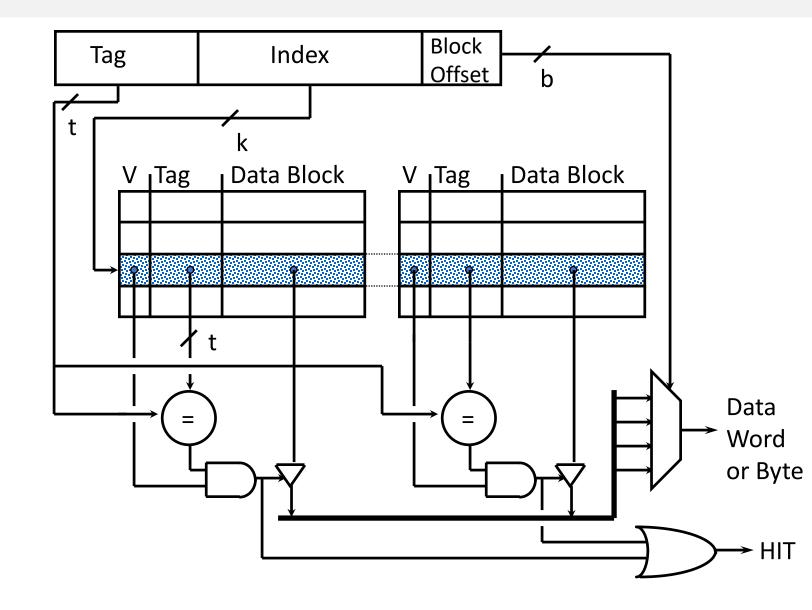
An Example



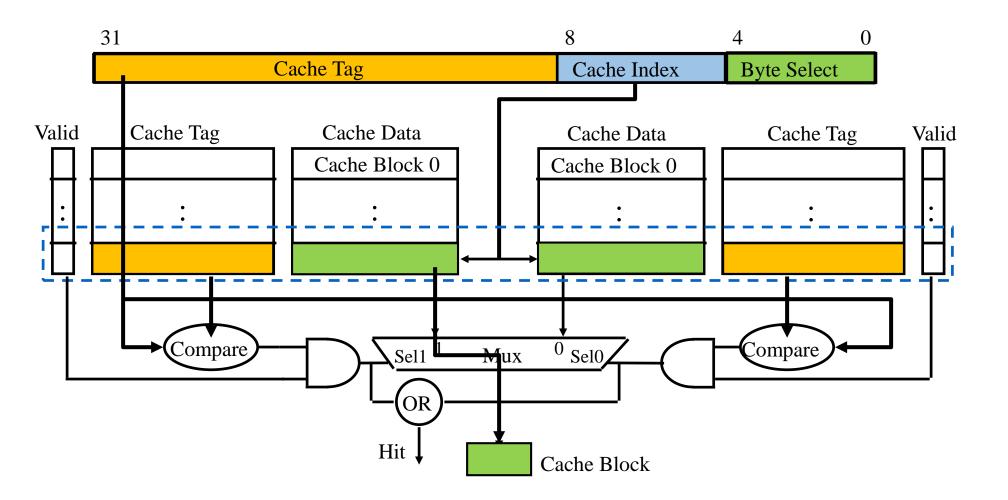
High bits or Low bits



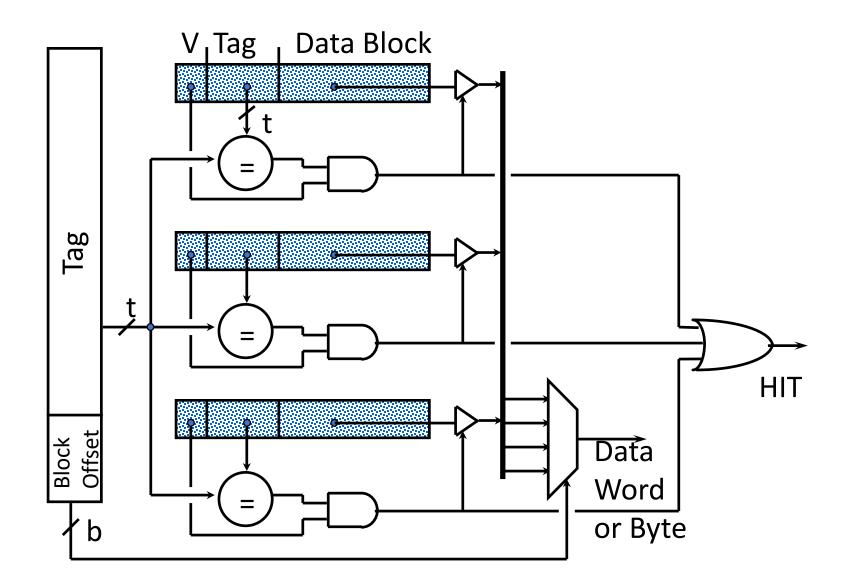
Set-Associative



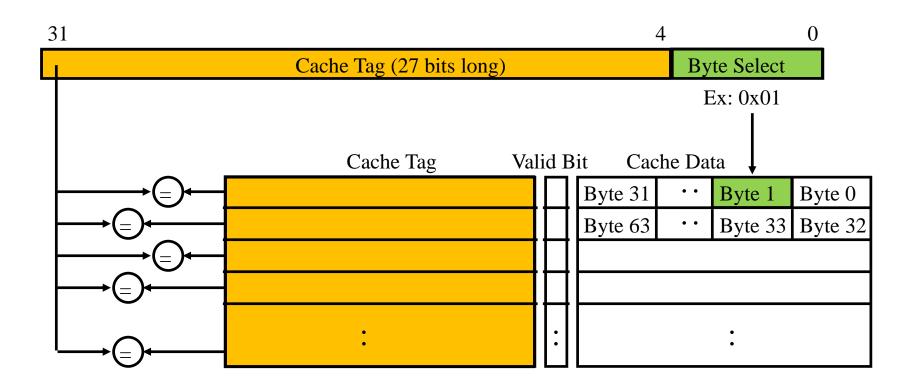
An Example



Fully-associative

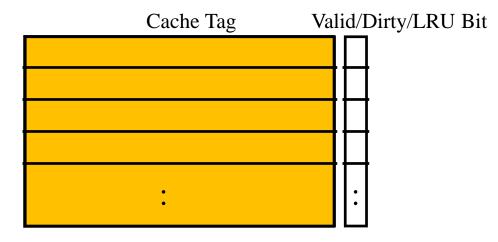


An Example

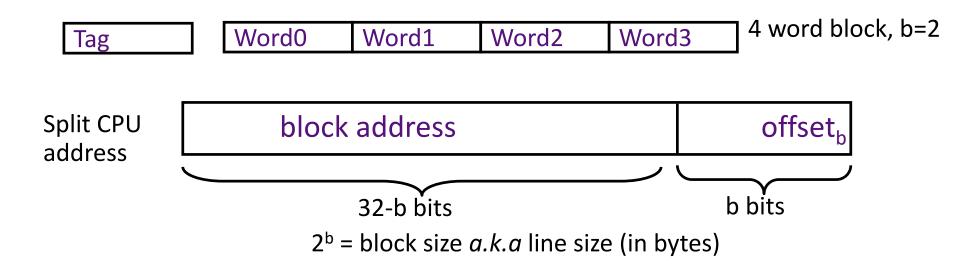


What's in Tag Store?

- Valid bit
- Tag
- Replacement policy bits
- Dirty bit?
 - Write back vs. write through caches



Cache Data		
• •	Byte 1	Byte 0
••	Byte 33	Byte 32
	che Da	•• Byte 1



Larger block size has distinct hardware advantages

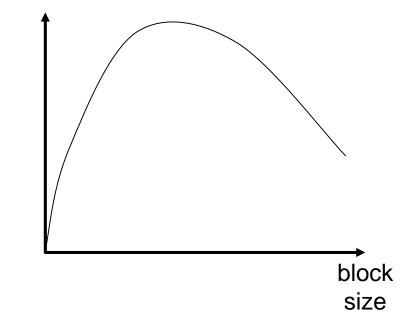
- less tag overhead
- exploit fast burst transfers from DRAM
- exploit fast burst transfers over wide busses

What are the disadvantages of increasing block size?

Fewer blocks => more conflicts. Can waste bandwidth.

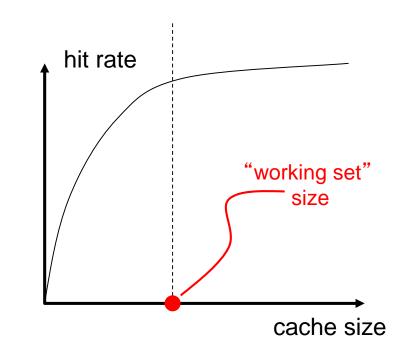
Block Size?

- Block size is the data that is associated with an address tag
 - not necessarily the unit of transfer between hierarchies
- Too small blocks
 - don't exploit spatial locality well hit rate
 - have larger tag overhead
- Too large blocks
 - too few total # of blocks
 - likely-useless data transferred
 - Extra bandwidth/energy consumed



Cache Size

- Cache size: total data (not including tag) capacity
 - bigger can exploit temporal locality better
 - not ALWAYS better
- Too large a cache adversely affects hit and miss latency
 - smaller is faster => bigger is slower
 - access time may degrade critical path
- Too small a cache
 - doesn't exploit temporal locality well
 - useful data replaced often
- Working set: the whole set of data the executing application references
 - Within a time interval



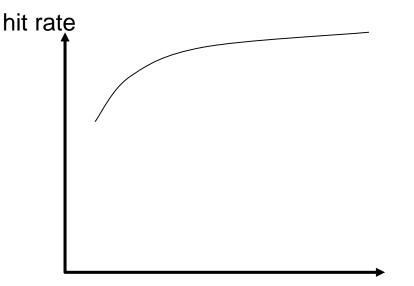
Associativity

How many blocks can map to the same index (or set)?

- Larger associativity
 - lower miss rate, less variation among programs
 - diminishing returns, higher hit latency

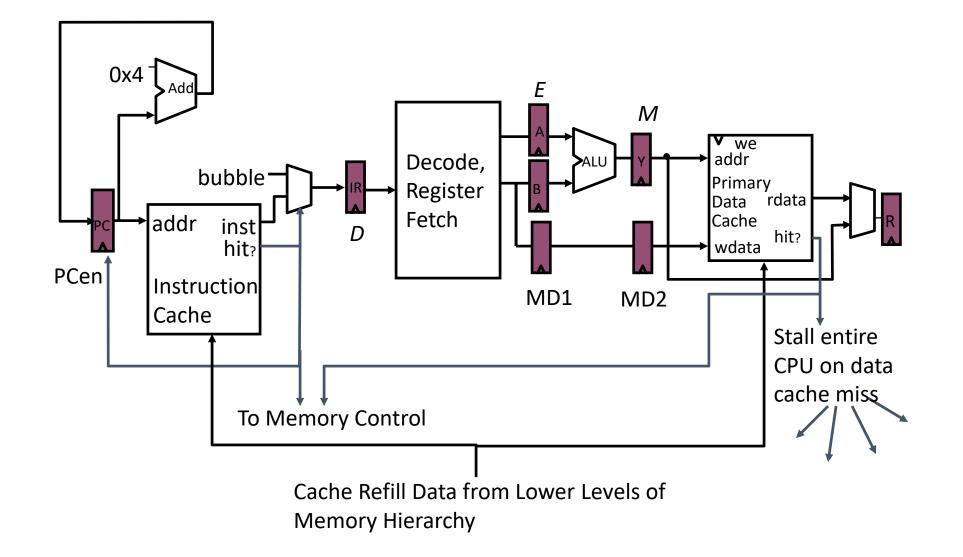


- Iower cost
- lower hit latency
 - Especially important for L1 caches
- Power of 2 associativity?



Let's Pause!!

CPU – Cache Interaction



Design Issues: Unified vs Split

• Unified:

+ Dynamic sharing of cache space: no overprovisioning

- -- Instructions and data can thrash each other
- -- I and D are accessed in different places in the pipeline.
- First level caches are almost always split
 - for the reasons above
- Second and higher levels are almost always unified

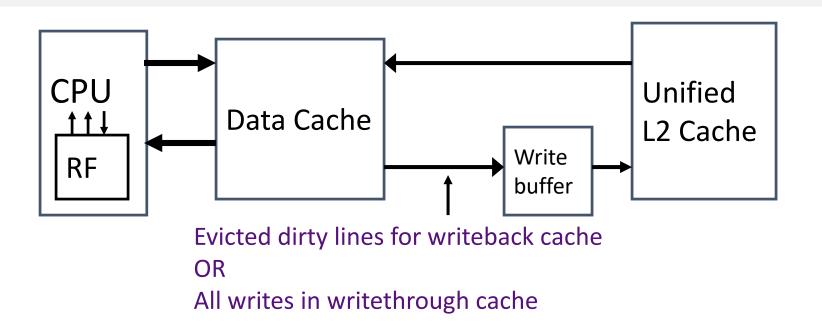
Reads are not Writes

- If a write enters the cache, what happens if
 - There is a cache miss
 - Does the cache need to bring in the cache line?
 - There is a cache hit
 - Does the cache need to write back to memory?

Write Policies

- Cache hit:
 - *write through*: write both cache & memory
 - Generally higher traffic but simpler pipeline & cache design
 - write back: write cache only, memory is written only when the entry is evicted
 - A dirty bit per line further reduces write-back traffic
 - Must handle 0, 1, or 2 accesses to memory for each load/store
- Cache miss:
 - *no write allocate*: only write to main memory
 - write allocate (aka fetch on write): fetch into cache
- Common combinations:
 - write through and no write allocate
 - write back with write allocate

Write Buffers



Processor is not stalled on writes, and read misses can go ahead of write to main memory
Problem: Write buffer may hold updated value of location needed by a read miss
Simple solution: on a read miss, wait for the write buffer to go empty
Faster solution: Check write buffer addresses against read miss addresses, if no match, allow read miss to go ahead of writes, else, return value in write buffer

Performance: AMAT

Average memory access time (AMAT) = Hit time + Miss rate x Miss penalty

Average memory access time (AMAT) = Hit time + Miss rate₁ x Miss penalty₁ + Miss rate₂ x Miss penalty₂

Improving Cache Performance

Average memory access time (AMAT) = Hit time + Miss rate x Miss penalty

To improve performance:

- reduce the hit time
- reduce the miss rate
- reduce the miss penalty

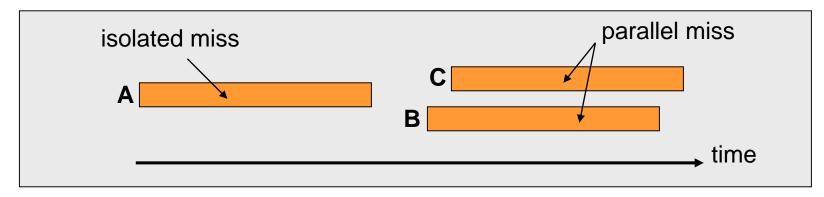
Biggest cache that doesn't increase hit time past 1 cycle (approx 8-32KB in modern technology)

[design issues more complex with deeper pipelines and/or out-oforder superscalar processors]

Cache Optimizations: Refer H&P

Non-blocking Cache

- Enable cache access when there is a pending miss
- Enable multiple misses in parallel
 - Memory-level parallelism (MLP)
 - generating and servicing multiple memory accesses in parallel
 - Why generate multiple misses?

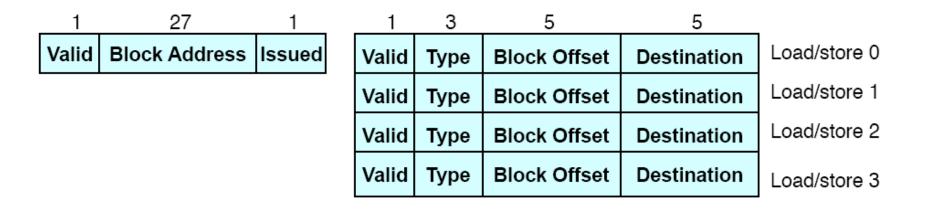


- Enables latency tolerance: overlaps latency of different misses
- How to generate multiple misses?
 - Out-of-order execution, multithreading, prefetching

Miss-Status Holding Registers

- Also called "miss buffer"
- Keeps track of
 - Outstanding cache misses
 - Pending load/store accesses that refer to the missing cache block
- Fields of a single MSHR
 - Valid bit
 - Cache block address (to match incoming accesses)
 - Control/status bits (prefetch, issued to memory, which subblocks have arrived, etc)
 - Data for each subblock
 - For each pending load/store
 - Valid, type, data size, byte in block, destination register or store buffer entry address

MSHRs



MSHR in Action

- On a cache miss:
 - Search MSHR for a pending access to the same block
 - Found: Allocate a load/store entry in the same MSHR entry
 - Not found: Allocate a new MSHR
 - No free entry: stall
- When a subblock returns from the next level in memory
 - Check which loads/stores waiting for it
 - Forward data to the load/store unit
 - Deallocate load/store entry in the MSHR entry
 - Write subblock in cache or MSHR
 - If last subblock, dellaocate MSHR (after writing the block in cache)

The 3Cs

Compulsory:

first reference to a line (a.k.a. cold start misses)

• misses that would occur even with infinite cache

Capacity:

cache is too small to hold all data needed by the program

• misses that would occur even under perfect replacement policy

Conflict:

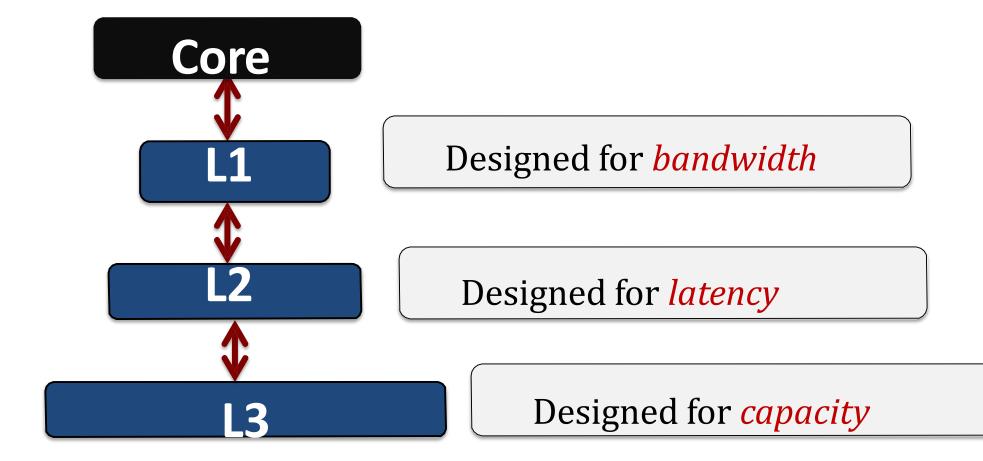
misses that occur because of collisions due to lineplacement strategy

• misses that would not occur with ideal full associativity

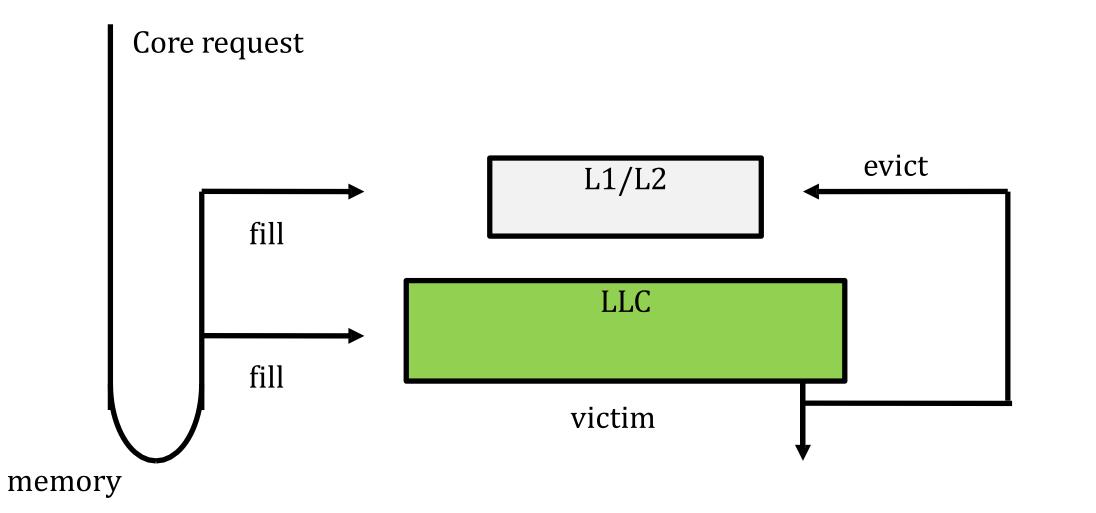
Cache Knobs and Performance

- Larger cache size
 - + reduces capacity and conflict misses
 - hit time will increase
- Higher associativity
 + reduces conflict misses
 - may increase hit time
- Larger line size
 - + reduces compulsory and capacity (reload) misses
 - increases conflict misses and miss penalty

Cache Hierarchy

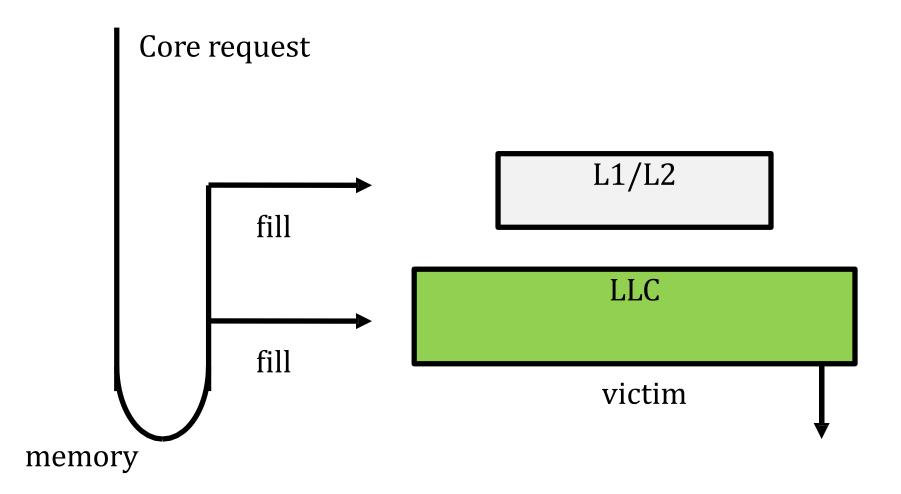


Inclusive

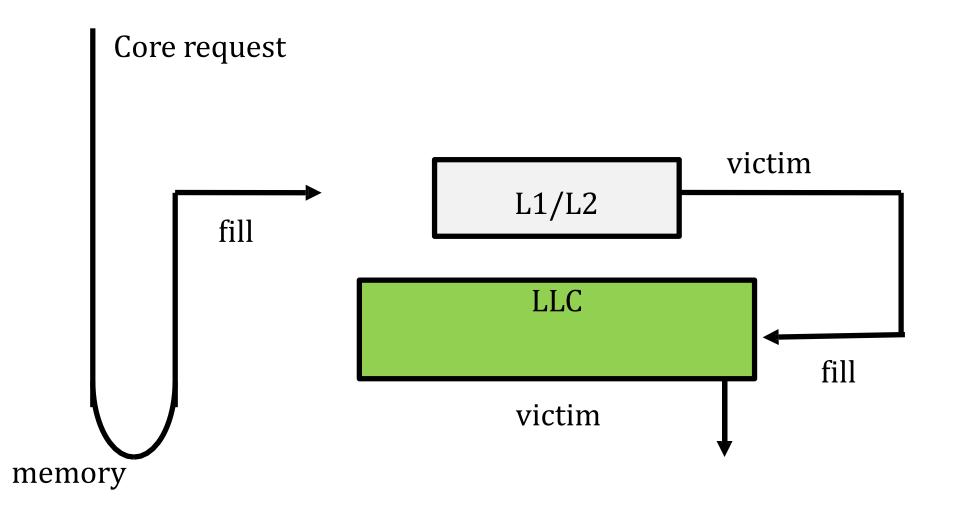


BackInval

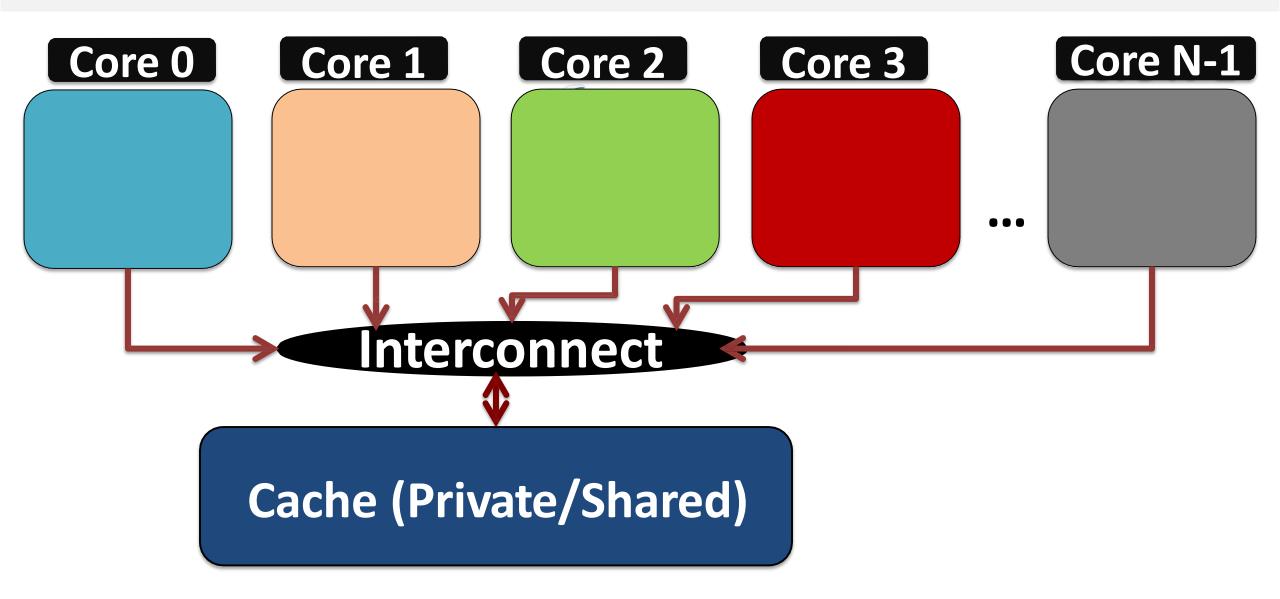
Non-inclusive



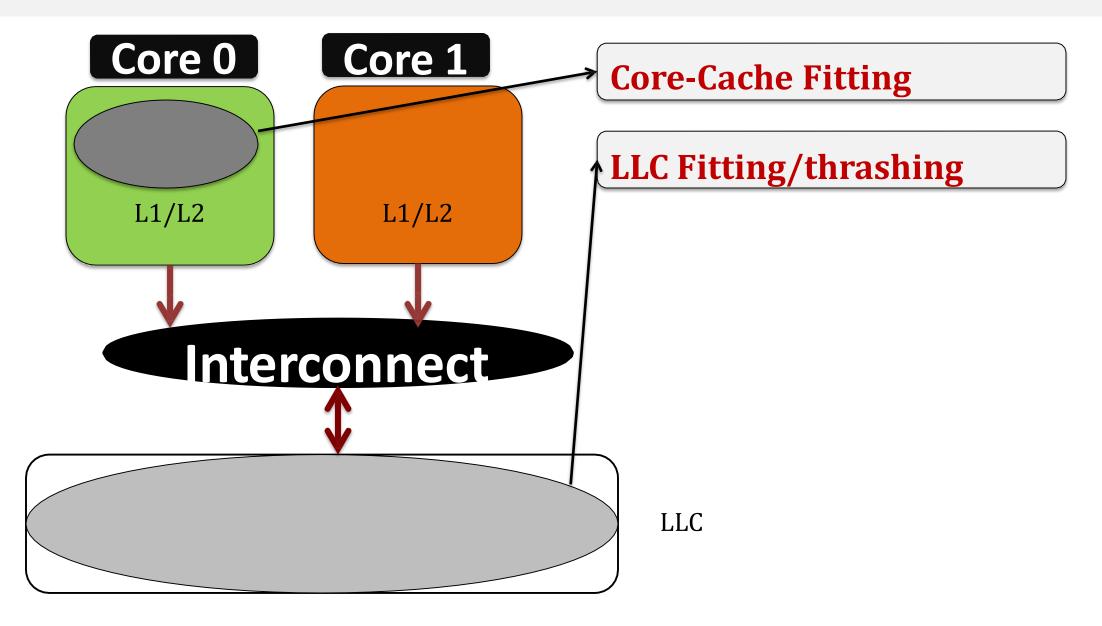
Exclusive



LLC: Shared or Private?



Application Behavior



Shared LLC

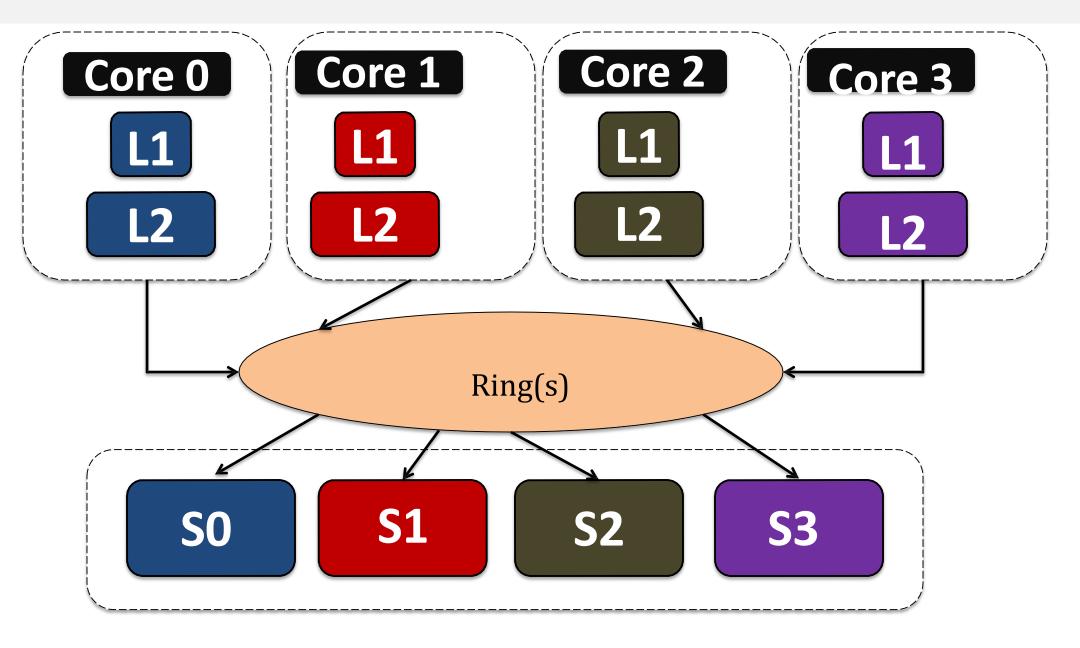
Shared LLC provides a good tradeoff for all kinds of apps.

Space unutilized by one app. can be utilized by other apps.

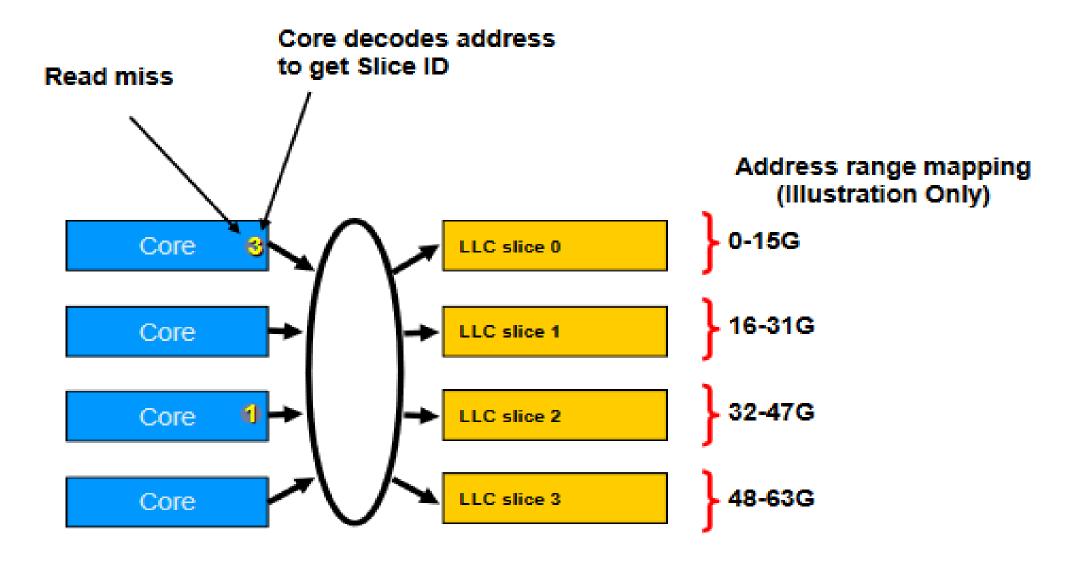
However bandwidth is an issue \otimes

1000 monkeys: one banana

Banked/Sliced NUCA



Intel's Sandybridge



Cache Replacement-101

- Think of each block in a set having a "priority"
 - Indicating how important it is to keep the block in the cache
- Key issue: How do you determine/adjust block priorities?
- There are three key decisions in a set:
 - Insertion, promotion, eviction (replacement)
- Insertion: What happens to priorities on a cache fill?
 - Where to insert the incoming block, whether or not to insert the block
- Promotion: What happens to priorities on a cache hit?
 - Whether and how to change block priority
- Eviction/replacement: What happens to priorities on a cache miss?
 - Which block to evict and how to adjust priorities

Eviction (Replacement) Policy?

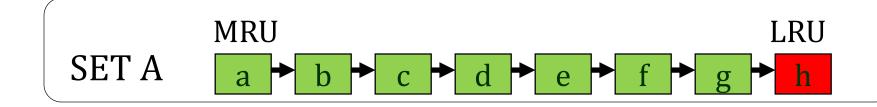
- Which block in the set to replace on a cache miss?
 - Any invalid block first
 - If all are valid, consult the replacement policy
 - Random
 - FIFO
 - Least recently used (how to implement?)
 - Not most recently used
 - Least frequently used?
 - Least costly to re-fetch?
 - Why would memory accesses have different cost?
 - Hybrid replacement policies
 - Optimal replacement policy?

Belady

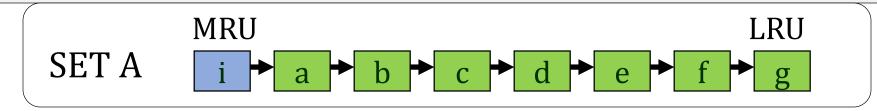
- Belady's OPT
 - Replace the block that is going to be referenced furthest in the future by the program
 - Belady, "A study of replacement algorithms for a virtualstorage computer," IBM Systems Journal, 1966.
 - How do we implement this? Simulate?
- Is this optimal for minimizing miss rate?
- Is this optimal for minimizing execution time?
 - No. Cache miss latency/cost varies from block to block!
 - Two reasons: Remote vs. local caches and miss overlapping
 - Qureshi et al. "A Case for MLP-Aware Cache Replacement," ISCA 2006.

LRU - 101

Cache Eviction Policy: On a miss (block *i*), which block to evict (replace) ?



Cache Insertion Policy: New block *i* **inserted into MRU.**



Cache Promotion Policy: On a future hit (block i), promote to MRU

LRU causes thrashing when working set > cache size

Access Patterns

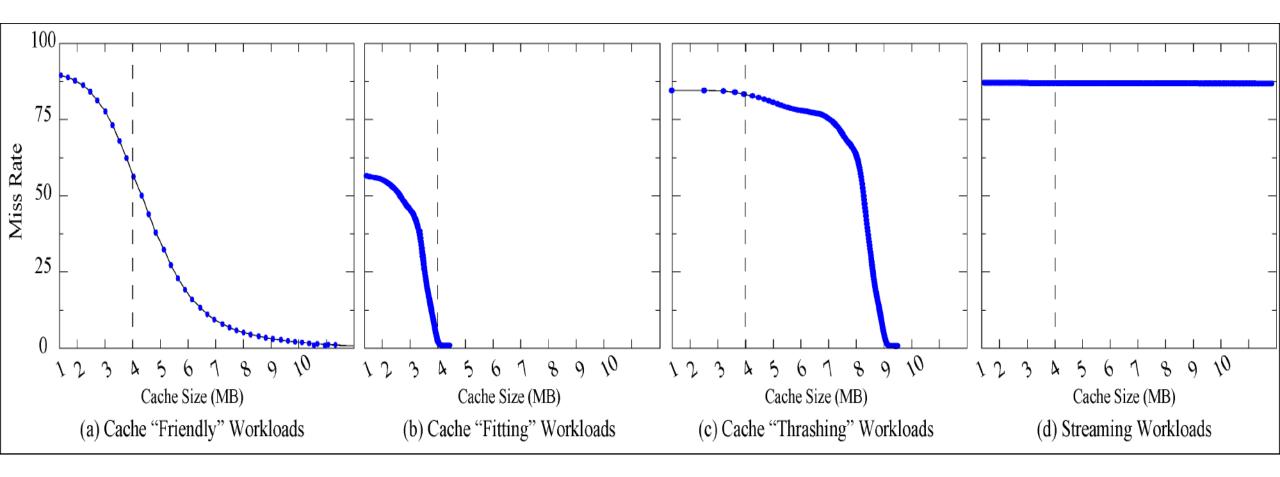
Recency friendly
$$(a_1, a_2, ..., a_k, a_{k-1}, ..., a_2, a_1)^N$$

Thrashing
$$(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k)^N$$
 [k > cache

Streaming $(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_\infty)^N$

Combination of above three

Types of Workloads – 4MB cache



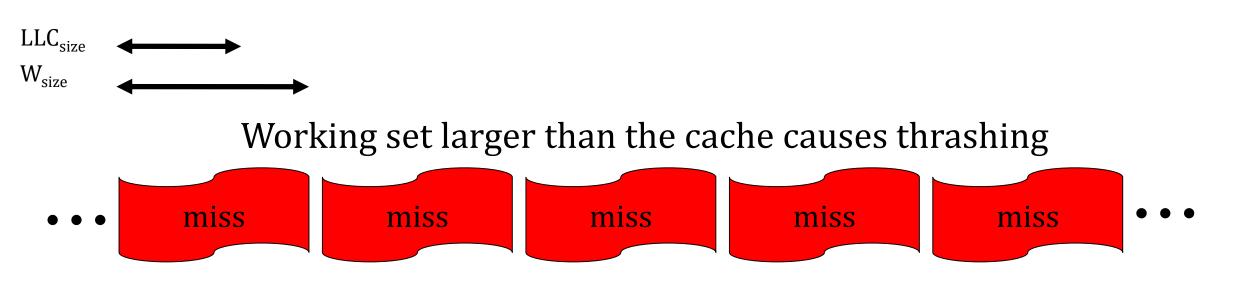
Limitations of LRU

LRU exploits temporal locality

Streaming data (a₁, a₂, a₃,...,a_∞): No temporal locality, No temporal reuse

Thrashing data (a₁, a₂, a₃,...,a_n) [n>c] Temporal locality exists. However, LRU fails to capture.

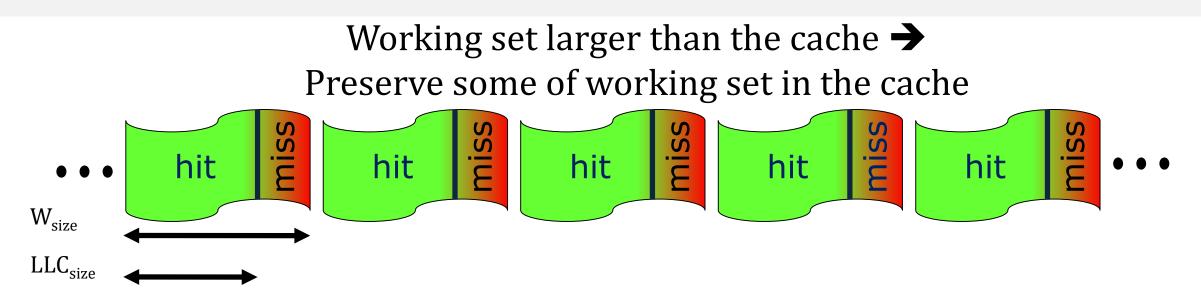
Still Miles to Go



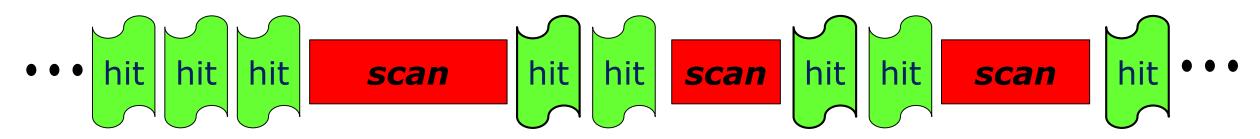
References to non-temporal data (*scans*) discards frequently referenced working set



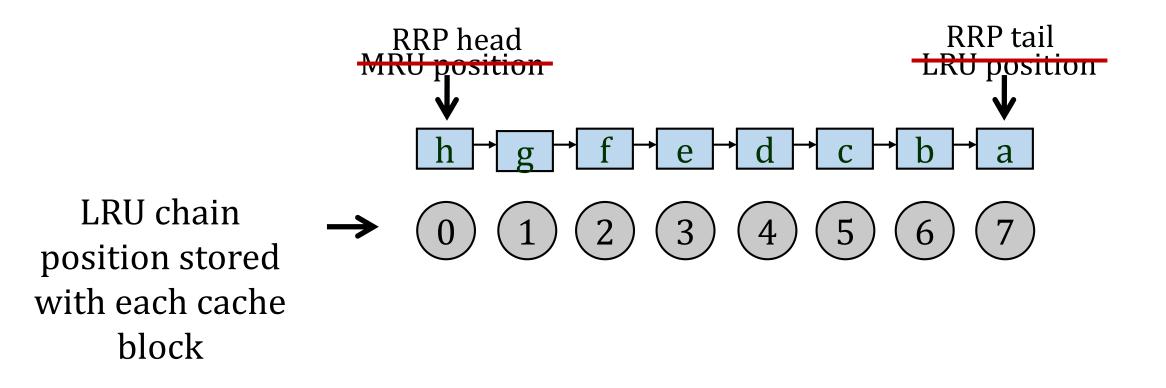
Still Miles to Go



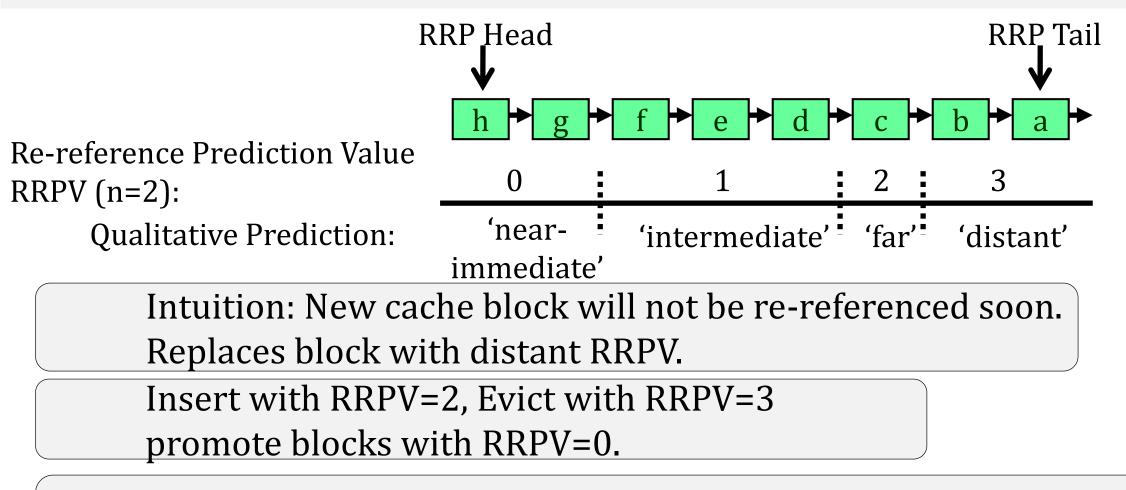
Recurring *scans (bursts of non-temporal data)* → Preserve frequently referenced working set in the cache



RRIP – ISCA '10

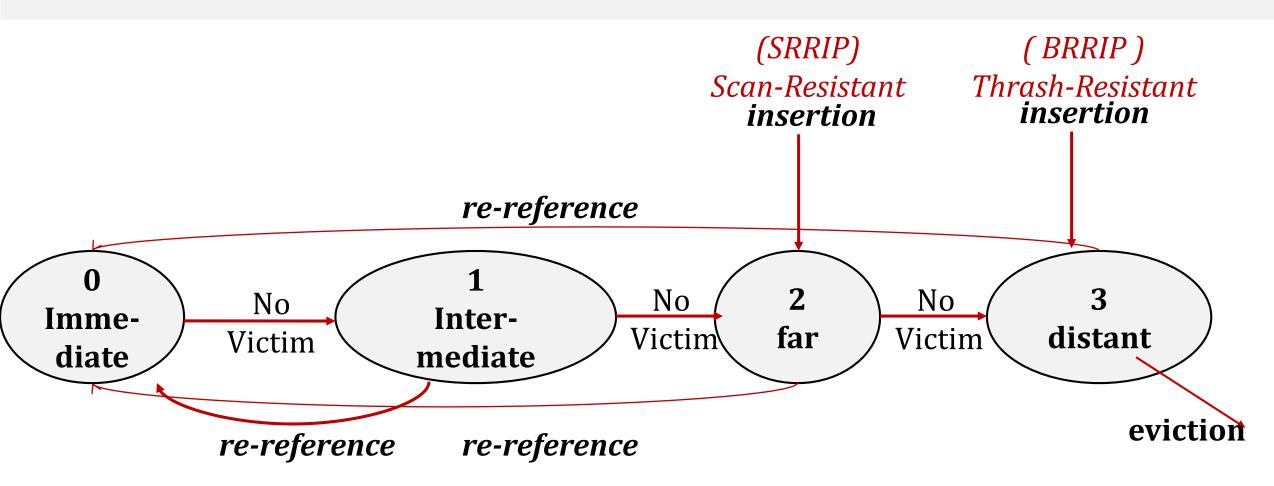


RRP: Re-reference prediction



Static RRIP (Single core) and Thread-Aware Dynamic RRIP (SRRIP+BRRIP, multi-core, based on SDMs).

DRRIP



Hardware Prefetching

What?

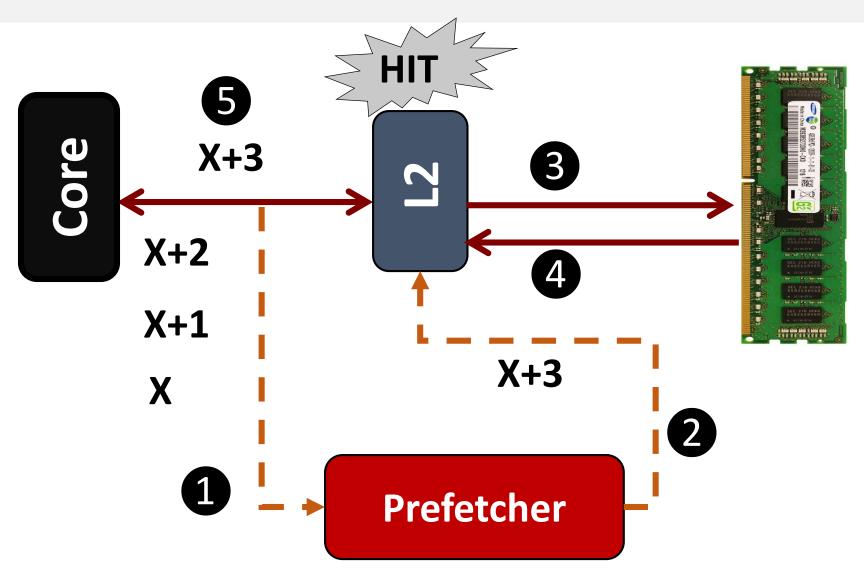
Latency-hiding technique - Fetches data before the core demands.

Why? Off-chip DRAM latency has grown up to 400 to 800 cycles.

How?

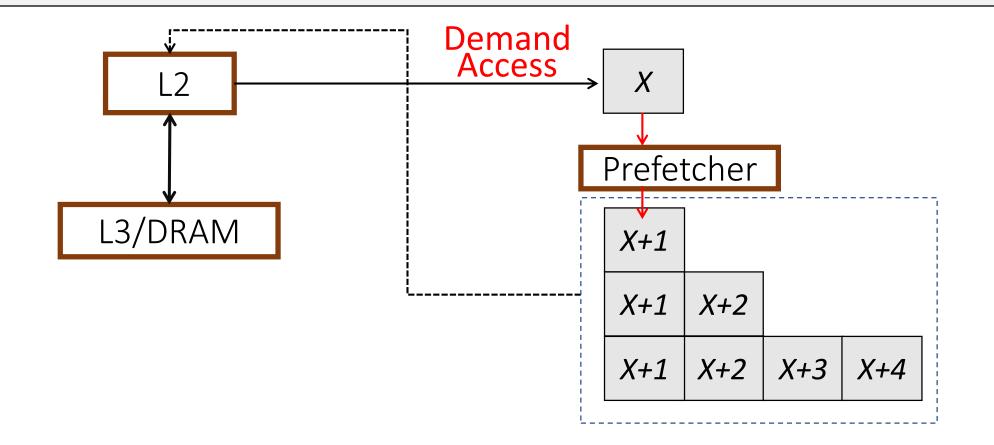
By observing/predicting the demand access (LOAD/STORE) patterns.

Prefetch Engine



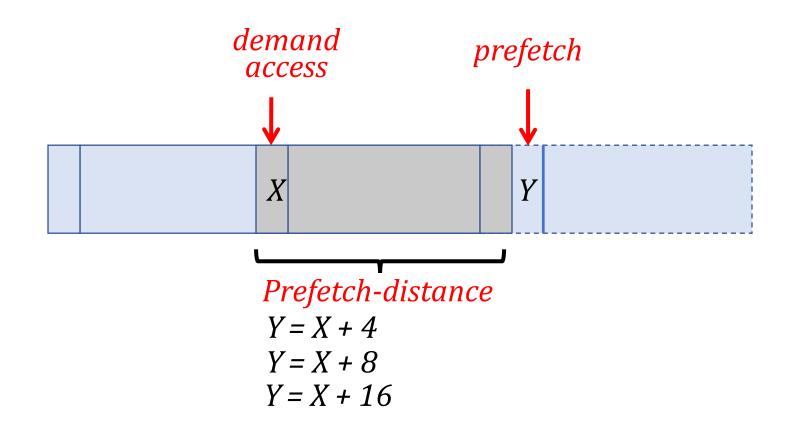
Prefetch Degree

Prefetch Degree: Number of prefetch requests to issue at a given time.



Prefetch Distance

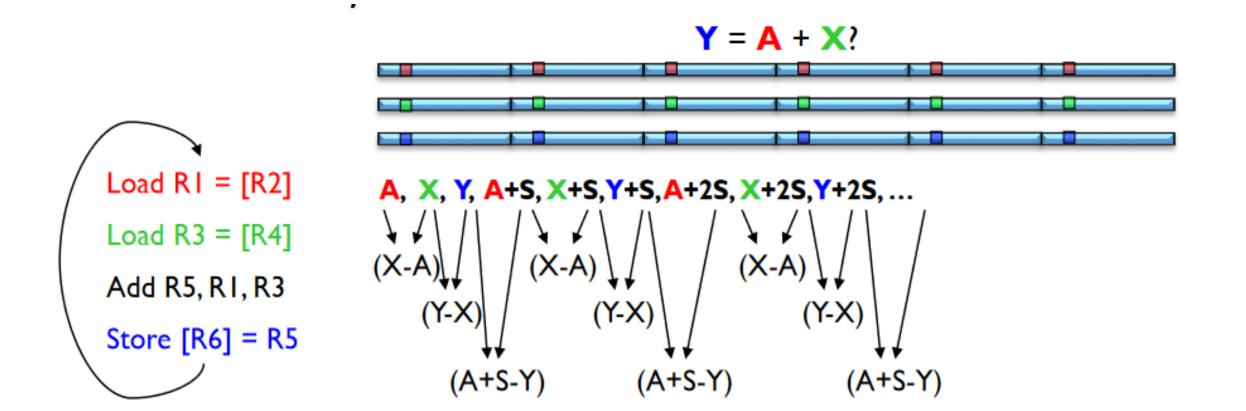
Prefetch Distance: How far ahead of the demand access stream are the prefetch requests issued?



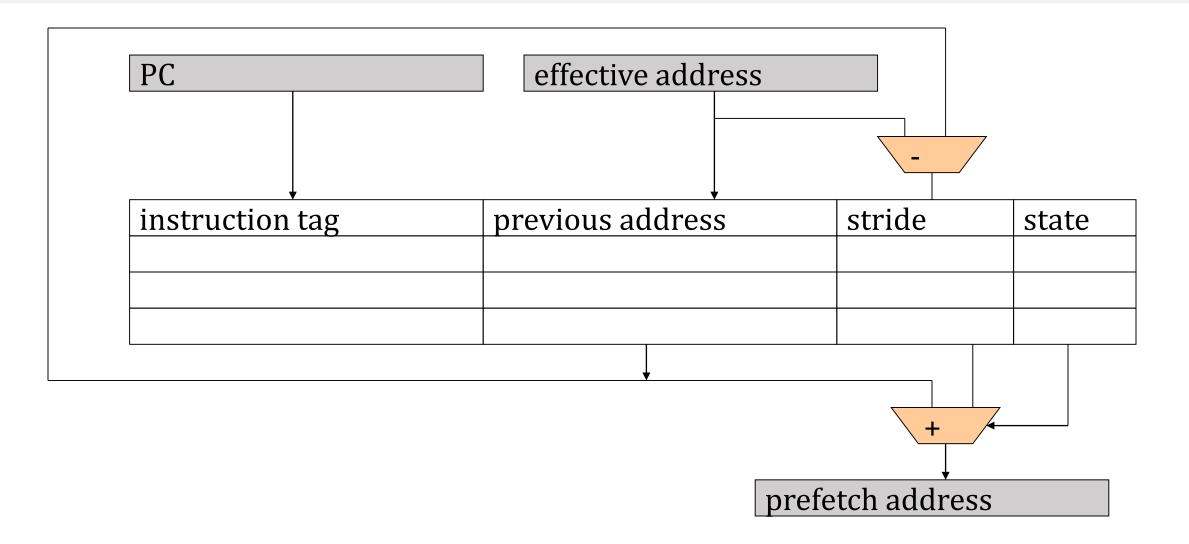
Next Line: Miss to cache block X, prefetch X+1. Degree=1, Distance=1

Works well for L1 Icache and L1 Dcache.

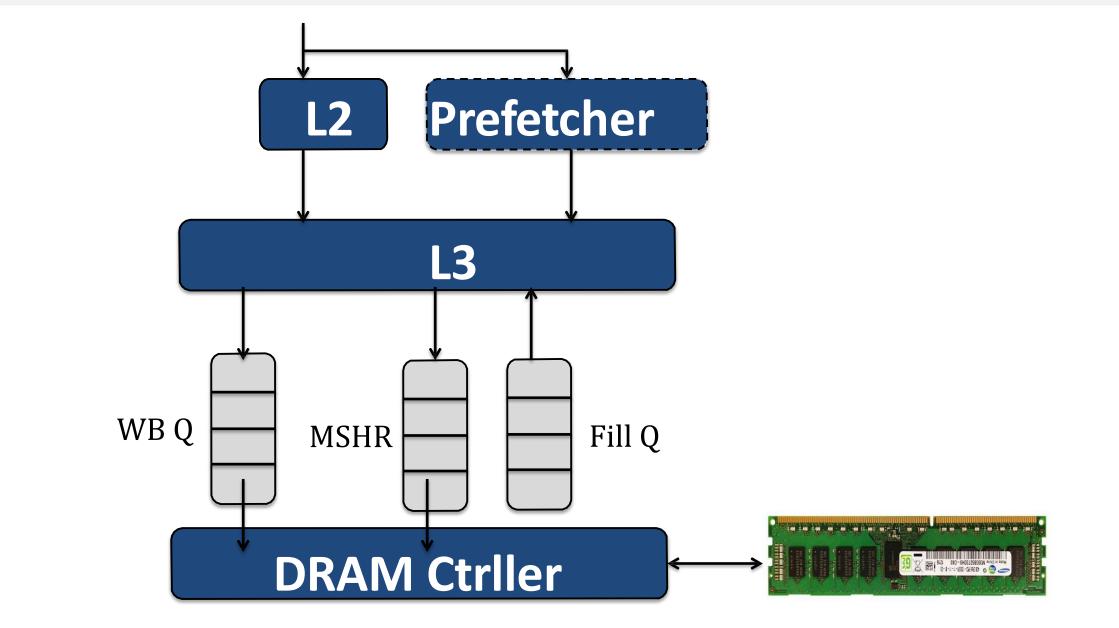
What About This?



Stride Prefetching



Bit Detailed





 Some of the slides are adapted and modified from Joel Emer, Arvind, Yale Patt, John Kubiatowicz, Onur Mutlu, Krste Asanovic, Mattan Erez, Rajeev Balasubramonian, and Mainak Chaudhuri