## **An Instruction Scheduling Algorithm for Communication-Constrained Microprocessors**

by

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Submitted to the Department of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science

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### **Abstract**

This thesis describes a new randomized instruction scheduling algorithm designed for communication-constrained VLIW-style machines. The algorithm was implemented in a retargetable compiler system for testing on a variety a different machine configurations. The algorithm performed acceptably well for machines with full communication, but did not perform up to expectations in the communication-constrained case. Parameter studies were conducted to ascertain the reason for inconsistent results.

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 $\mathcal{L}^{\text{max}}_{\text{max}}$ 

## **Chapter 1**

## **Introduction**

As VLSI circuit density increases, it becomes possible for microprocessor designers to place more and more logic on a single chip. Studies of instruction level parallelism suggest that this logic may be best spent on exploiting fine-grained parallelism with numerous, pipelined functional units [4, 3]. However, while it is fairly trivial to scale the sheer number of functional units on a chip, other considerations limit the effectiveness of this approach. As many researchers point out, communication resources to support many functional units, such as multi-ported register files and large interconnection networks, do not scale so gracefully [16, 6, 5]. Furthermore, these communication resources occupy significant amounts of chip area, heavily influencing the overall cost of the chip. Thus, to accommodate large numbers of functional units, hardware designers must use non-ideal approaches, such as partitioned register files and limited interconnections between functional units, to limit communication resources.

Such communication-constrained machines boast huge amounts of potential parallelism, but their limited communication resources present a problem to compiler writers. Typical machines of this nature (e.g., VLIWs) shift the burden of instruction scheduling to the compiler. For these highly-parallel machines, efficient static instruction scheduling is crucial to realize maximum performance. However, many traditional static scheduling algorithms fail when faced with communication-constrained machines.

### **1.1 Traditional Instruction Scheduling**

Instruction scheduling is an instance of the general resource constrained scheduling (RCS) problem. RCS involves sequencing a set of tasks that use limited resources. The resulting sequence must satisfy both task precedence constraints and limited resource constraints [2]. In instruction scheduling, instructions are tasks, data dependencies are precedence constraints, and hardware resource are machine resources.

RCS is a well-known NP-complete problem, motivating the development of many heuristics for instruction scheduling. One of the most commonly used VLIW scheduling heuristics is list scheduling [8, 7, 6, 11, 18]. List scheduling is a locally greedy algorithm that maintains an prioritized "ready list" of instructions whose precedence constraints have been satisfied. On each execution cycle, the algorithm schedules instructions from the list until functional unit resources are exhausted or no instructions remain.

List scheduling explicitly observes the limited functional unit resources of the target machine, but assumes that the machine has infinite communication resources. This assumption presents a problem when implementing list scheduling on communicationconstrained machines. For example, its locally greedy decisions can consume key communication resources, causing instructions to become "stranded" with no way to access needed data. In light of these problems, algorithms are needed that operate more globally and consider both functional unit and communication resources in the scheduling process. It is proposed in this thesis that randomized instruction scheduling algorithms might fulfill these needs.

### **1.2 Randomized Instruction Scheduling**

The instruction scheduling problem can also be considered a large combinatorial optimization problem. The idea is to systematically search for a schedule that optimizes some cost function, such as the length of the schedule. Many combinatorial optimization algorithms are random in nature. Popular ones include hill-climbing, random sampling, genetic algorithms, and simulated annealing.

Combinatorial optimization algorithms offer some potential advantages over traditional deterministic scheduling algorithms. First, they consider a vastly larger number of schedules, so they should be more likely to find an optimal schedule. Second, they operate on a global scale and do not get hung up on locally bad decisions. Third, they can be tailored to optimize for any conceivable cost function instead of just schedule length. And finally, they can consider any and all types of limited machine resources, including both functional unit and communication constraints. The primary disadvantage is that they can take longer to run, up to three orders of magnitude longer than list scheduling.

In this thesis, an implementation of the simulated annealing algorithm is investigated as a potential randomized instruction scheduling algorithm. The results indicate that this implementation may not be the best choice for a randomized instruction scheduling algorithm. While the algorithm performs consistently well on communication-rich machines, it often fails to find good schedules for its intended targets, communication-constrained machines.

This thesis presents the results of systematic studies designed to find good parameters for the simulated annealing algorithm. The algorithm is extensively tested on a small sampling of programs and communication-constrained machines for which it is expected to perform well. These studies identify some parameter trends that influence the algorithm's performance, but no parameters gave consistently good results for all programs on all machines. In particular, machines with more severe communication constraints elicited poorer schedules from the algorithm.

## **1.3 Background**

Many modern instruction scheduling algorithms for VLIW ("horizontal") machines find their roots in early microcode compaction algorithms. Davidson et al. [7] compare four such algorithms: first-come-first-served, critical path, branch-and-bound, and list scheduling. They find that first-come-first-served and list scheduling often perform optimally and that branch-and-bound is impractical for large microprograms. Tokoro, Tamura, and Takizuka [19] describe a more sophisticated microcode compaction algorithm in which microinstructions are treated as 2-D templates arranged on a grid composed of machine resources vs. cycles. The scheduling process is reduced to tessellation of the grid with variable-sized 2-D microinstruction templates. They provide rules for both local and global optimization of template placement.

Researchers recognized early on that that *global* scheduling algorithms are necessary for maximum compaction. Isoda, Kobayashi, and Ishida [9] describe a global scheduling technique based on the generalized data dependency graph (GDDG). The GDDG represents both data dependencies and control flow dependencies of a microprogram. Local GDDG transformation rules are applied in a systematic manner to compact the GDDG into an efficient microprogram. Fisher [8] also acknowledges the importance of global microcode compaction in his trace scheduling technique. In trace scheduling, microcode is compacted along traces rather than within basic blocks. Traces are probable execution paths through a program that generally contain many more instructions than a single basic block, allowing more compaction options.

Modern VLIW instruction scheduling efforts have borrowed some microcode compaction ideas while generating many novel approaches. Colwell et al. [6] describe the use of trace scheduling in a compiler for a commercial VLIW machine. Lam [11] develops a VLIW loop scheduling technique called software pipelining, also described earlier by Rau [15]. In software pipelining, copies of loop iterations are overlapped at constant intervals to provide optimal loop throughput. Nicolau [13] describes percolation scheduling, which utilizes a small core set of local transformations to parallelize programs. Moon and Ebcioglu [12] describe a global VLIW scheduling method based on global versions of the basic percolation scheduling transformations.

Other researchers have considered the effects of constrained hardware on the VLIW scheduling problem. Rau, Glaeser, and Picard [16] discuss the complexity of scheduling for a practical horizontal machine with many functional units, separate "scratch-pad" register files, and limited interconnect. In light of the difficulties, they conclude that the best solution is to change the hardware rather than invent better

scheduling algorithms. The result is their "polycyclic" architecture, an easily schedulable VLIW architecture. Capitanio, Dutt, and Nicolau [5] also discuss scheduling algorithms for machines with distributed register files. Their approach utilizes simulated annealing to partition code across hardware resources and conventional scheduling algorithms to schedule the resulting partitioned code. Smith, Horowitz, and Lam [17] describe a architectural technique called "boosting" that exposes speculative execution hardware to the compiler. Boosting allows a static instruction scheduler to exploit unique code transformations made possible by speculative execution.

### **1.4 Thesis Overview**

This thesis is organized into six chapters. Chapter 1 contains the introduction, a survey of related research, and this overview.

Chapter 2 gives a high-level overview of the scheduler test system. The source input language *pasm* is described as well as the class of machines for which the scheduler is intended.

Chapter 3 introduces the main data structure of the scheduler system, the program graph, and outlines the algorithms used to construct it.

Chapter 4 outlines the generic simulated annealing search algorithm and how it is applied in this case for instruction scheduling.

Chapter 5 presents the results of parameter studies with the simulated annealing scheduling algorithm. It also provides some analysis of the data and some explanations for its observed performance.

Chapter 6 contains the conclusion and suggestions for some areas of further work.

## **Chapter 2**

## **Scheduler Test System**

The scheduler test system was developed to evaluate instruction scheduling algorithms on a variety of microprocessors. As shown in Figure 2-1, the system is organized into three phases: parse, analysis, and schedule.

The **parse** phase accepts a user-generated program as input. This program is written in a high-level source language,  $\mu asm$ , which is described in Section 2.1 of this chapter. Barring any errors in the source file, the parse phase outputs a sequence of machine-independent assembly instructions. The mnemonics and formats of these assembly instructions are listed in Appendix B.

The analysis phase takes the sequence of assembly instructions from the parse phase as its input. The sequence is analyzed using simple dataflow techniques to infer data dependencies and to expose parallelism in the code. These analyses are used to construct the sequence's *program graph,* a data structure that can represent data dependencies and control flow for simple programs. The analyses and algorithms used to construct the program graph are described in detail in Chapter 3.

The schedule phase has two inputs: a *machine description,* written by the user, and a program graph, produced by the analysis phase. The machine description specifies the processor for which the scheduler generates code. The scheduler can target a certain class of processors, which is described in Section 2.2 of this chapter. During the **schedule** phase, the instructions represented by the program graph are placed into a schedule that satisfies all the data dependencies and respects the limited



Figure 2-1: Scheduler test system block diagram.

resources of the target machine. The **schedule** phase outputs a scheduled sequence of wide instruction words, the final output of the scheduler test system.

The schedule phase can utilize many different scheduling algorithms. The simulated annealing instruction scheduling algorithm, the focus of this thesis, is described in Chapter 4.

### **2.1 Source Language**

The scheduler test system uses a simple language called  $\mu asm$  (micro-assembler) to describe its input programs. The *pasm* language is a high-level, strongly-typed language designed to support "streaming computations" on a VLIW style machine. It borrows many syntactic features from the C language including variable declarations, expression syntax, and infix operators. The following sections detail specialized language features that differ from those of C. The complete grammar specification of *puasm* can be found in Appendix A.

#### **2.1.1 Types**

Variables in *pasm* can have one of five base types: int, half2, byte4, float, or cc. These base types can be modified with the type qualifiers unsigned and double.

The base types int and float are 32-bit signed integer and floating point types. The base types half2 and byte4 are 32-bit quantities containing two signed 16-bit integers and 4 signed 8-bit integers, respectively. The cc type is a 1-bit condition code.

The type qualifier unsigned can be applied to any integer base type to convert it to an unsigned type. The type qualifier double can be applied to any arithmetic type to form a double width (64-bit) type.

#### **2.1.2 I/O Streams**

Streaming computations typically operate in compact loops and process large vectors of data called *streams.* Streams must be accessed sequentially, and they are designated as either read-only or write-only. */pasm* supports the stream processing concept with the special functions istream and ostream, used as follows:

$$
variable = \texttt{istream}(stream \#, value-type),
$$
  

$$
\texttt{ostream}(stream \#, value-type) = value.
$$

In the above, *variable* is a program variable, *value* is a value produced by an expression in the program, *stream*  $#$  is a number identifying a stream, and *value-type* is the type of the value to be read from or written to the stream.

#### **2.1.3 Control Flow**

In an effort to simplify compilation, *pasm* does not support the standard looping and conditional language constructs of C. Instead,  $\mu asm$  features control flow syntax which maps directly onto the generic class of VLIW hardware for which it is targeted.

Loops in *pasm* are controlled by the loop keyword as follows:

$$
\texttt{loop }loop\text{-}variable = start\text{ , } finish\text{ } \set{ \text{ loop-body } },
$$

where *loop-variable* is the loop counter, and *start* and *finish* are integers delineating the range of values (inclusive) for the loop counter.

All conditional expressions in  $\mu asm$  are handled by the ?: conditional ternary operator, an operation naturally supported by the underlying hardware. The language has no if-then capability, requiring all control paths through the program to be executed. The conditional operator is used as follows:

$$
value = condition ? value 1: value 2.
$$

If *condition* is true, *valuel* is assigned to *value,* otherwise *value2* is assigned to *value.* The *condition* variable must be of type cc.

#### **2.1.4 Implicit Data Movement**

Assignment expressions in  $\mu asm$  sometimes have a slightly different interpretation than those in C. When an expression that *creates* a value appears on the righthand side of an assignment expression, the parser generates normal code for the assignment. However, if the right-hand side of an assignment expression merely *references* a value (e.g., a simple variable name), the parser translates the assignment into a data movement operation. For example, the assignment expression

$$
a = b + c;
$$

is left unchanged by the parser, as the expression  $\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}$  creates an unnamed intermediate value that is placed in the data location referenced by a. On the other hand, the expression

$$
\mathtt{ostream}(0, \mathtt{int}) = d;
$$

is implicitly converted to the expression

$$
ostream(0, int) = pass(d);
$$

in which the pass function creates a value on the right-hand side of the assignment. The pass function is an intrinsic  $\mu asm$  function that simply passes its input to its output. The pass function translates directly to the pass assembly instruction, which is used to move data between register files. The pass instruction also has special significance during instruction scheduling, as discussed in Chapter 4.

#### **2.1.5 Example Program**

An example *pasm* program is shown in Figure 2-2. The program processes two 100element input streams and constructs a 100-element output stream. Each element

```
int elemO, elemi;
cc gr;
loop count = 0, 99 // loop 100 times
\sqrt{ }elemO = istream(O,int); read element from stream 0
 elem0 = istream(0,int);<br>
elem1 = istream(1,int);<br>
// read element from stream 1
 gr = elem0 > elem1; // which is greater?
  ostream(0, int) = gr ? elem0 : elem1; // output the greater\mathcal{F}
```
Figure 2-2: Example  $\mu asm$  program.

of the output stream is selected to be the greater of the two elements in the same positions of the two input streams.

### **2.2 Machine Description**

The scheduler test system is designed to produce code for a strictly defined class of processors. Processors within this class are composed of only three types of components: functional units, register files, and busses. Functional units perform the computation of the processor, register files store intermediate results, and busses route data from functional units to register files. Processors are assumed to be clocked, and all data is one 32-bit "word" wide.

Each processor component has input and output ports with which they are connected to other components. Only certain connections are allowed: functional unit outputs must connect to bus inputs, bus outputs must connect to register file inputs, and register file outputs must connect to functional unit inputs. The general flow of data through such a processor is illustrated in Figure 2-3.

A processor may contain many different instances of each component type. The various parameters that distinguish components are described in Sections 2.2.1, 2.2.2, and 2.2.3.

While such a restrictive processor structure may seem artificially limiting, a wide



Figure 2-3: General structure of processor.

variety of sufficiently "realistic" processors can be modeled within these limitations. Examples are presented in Section 2.2.4.

#### **2.2.1 Functional Units**

Functional units operate on a set of input data words to produce a set of output data words. The numbers of input words and output words are determined by the number of input ports and output ports on the functional unit.

Functional unit operations correspond to the assembly instruction mnemonics listed in Appendix B. A functional unit may support anywhere from a single assembly instruction to the complete set.

A functional unit completes all of its operations in the same fixed amount of time, called the *latency.* Latency is measured in clock cycles, the basic unit of time used throughout the scheduler system. For example, if a functional unit with a 2 cycle latency reads inputs on cycle 8, then it produces outputs on cycle 10.

Functional units may be fully pipelined, or not pipelined at all. A fully pipelined unit can read a new set of input data words on every cycle, while a non-pipelined unit can only read inputs after all prior operations have completed.

In the machine description, a functional unit is completely specified by the number of input ports, the number of output ports, the latency of operation, the degree of pipelining, and a list of supported operations.

#### **2.2.2 Register Files**

Register files store intermediate results and serve as delay elements during computation. All registers are one data word wide. On each clock cycle, a register file can write multiple data words into its registers, and read multiple data words out of its registers. The numbers of input and output ports determine how many words can be written or read in a single cycle.

In the machine description, a register file is completely specified by the number of input ports, the number of output ports, and the number of registers contained within it.

#### **2.2.3 Busses**

Busses transmit data from the outputs of functional units to the inputs of register files. They are one data word wide, and provide instantaneous (0 cycle) transmission time. In this microprocessor model, bus latency is wrapped up in the latency of the functional units. Aside from the number of distinct busses, no additional parameters are necessary to describe busses in the machine description.

#### **2.2.4 Example Machines**

In this section, four example machine descriptions are presented. Each description is given in two parts: a list of component parameterizations and a diagram showing connectivity between components. For the sake of simplicity, it assumed that the possible set of functional unit operations is ADD, SUB, MUL, DIV, and SHFT. The basic characteristics of the four machines are summarized in Table 2.1.

The first machine is a simple scalar processor (Figure 2-4). It has one functional unit which supports all possible operations and a single large register file. The functional unit latency is chosen to be the latency of the longest instruction, DIv.

The second machine is a traditional VLIW machine with four functional units (Figure 2-5) [20]. This machine distributes operations across all four units, which have variable latencies. It has one large register file through which the functional

				# Functional $\vert \#$ Register $\vert \#$ Busses $\vert$ Communication	
	$\rm Units$	Files		Connectedness	
Scalar				FULL	
<b>Traditional VLIW</b>			6	<b>FULL</b>	
Distributed VLIW				FULL	
Multiply-Add			5	CONSTRAINED	

Table 2.1: Summary of example machine descriptions.

units can exchange data.

The third machine is VLIW machine with distributed register files and full interconnect (Figure 2-6). Functional units store data locally in small register files and route data through the bus network when results are needed by other units.

The fourth machine is a *communication-constrained* machine with an adder and a multiplier connected in a "multiply-add" configuration (Figure 2-7). Unlike the previous three machines, communication-constrained machines are not *fully-connected.* A fully-connected machine is a machine in which there is a *direct data path* from every functional unit output to every functional unit input. A direct data path starts at a functional unit output, connects to a bus, passes through a register file, and ends at a functional unit input. In this machine, data from the multiplier must pass through the adder before it can arrive at any other functional unit. Thus, there is no direct data path from the output of the multiplier to the input of any unit except the adder.





Figure 2-4: Simple scalar processor.





Figure 2-5: Traditional VLIW processor.



 $\mathcal{A}^{\pm}$ 



Figure 2-6: Distributed register file VLIW processor.





Figure 2-7: Communication-constrained (multiply-add) VLIW processor.

## **2.3 Summary**

This chapter describes the basic structure of the scheduler test system. The scheduler test system produces instruction schedules for a class of processors. It takes two inputs from the user: a program to schedule, and a machine on which to schedule it. Schedule generation is divided into three phases: parse, analysis, and schedule. The **parse** phase converts a program into assembly instructions, the **analysis** phase processes the assembly instructions to produce a program graph, and the schedule phase uses the program graph to produce a schedule for a particular machine.

Input programs are written in a simple C-like language called *pasm. pasm* is a stream-oriented language that borrows some syntax from C. It also has support for special features of the underlying hardware, such as zero-overhead loops and conditional select operations.

Machines are described in terms of basic components that are connected together. There are three types of components: functional units, register files, and busses. Functional units compute results that are stored in register files, and busses route data between functional units and register files. Although restrictive, these simple components are sufficient to describe a wide variety of machines.

## **Chapter 3**

## **Program Graph Representation**

It is common to use a graph representation, such as a directed acyclic graph (DAG), to represent programs during compilation [10, 1]. During the analysis phase, the scheduler test system produces an internal graph representation of a program called a *program graph.* A program graph is effectively a DAG with some additions for representing the simple control flow of *pasm.*

Several factors motivated the design of the program graph as an internal program representation. First, an acceptable representation must expose much of the parallelism in a program. The scheduler targets highly parallel machines, and effective instruction scheduling must exploit all available parallelism.

Second, a representation must allow for simple code motion across basic blocks. Previous researchers have demonstrated that scheduling across basic blocks can be highly effective for VLIW style machines [8, 13]. In this case, since  $\mu asm$  has no conditionally executed code, the representation need only handle the special case of code motion into and out of loops.

Finally, a representation must be easily modifiable for use in the simulated annealing algorithm. As described fully in Chapter 4, the simulated annealing instruction scheduling algorithm dynamically modifies the program graph to search for efficient schedules.

The basic program graph, described in Section 3.1, represents the structure of a program and is independent of the machine on which the program is scheduled. When

used in the simulated annealing instruction scheduling algorithm, the program graph is labeled with annotations that record scheduling information. These annotations are specific to the target machine class and are described in Section 3.2.

## **3.1 Basic Program Graph**

The basic program graph is best introduced by way of example. Figures 3-la and 3-1b show a simple *µasm* program and the assembly instruction sequence produced by the parse phase of the scheduler test system. Because the program has no loops, the program graph for this program is simply a DAG, depicted in Figure 3-1c. The nodes in the DAG represent assembly instructions in the program, and the edges designate data dependencies between operations.



Figure 3-1: Example loop-free  $\mu asm$  program (a), its assembly listing (b), and its program graph (c).

#### **3.1.1 Code Motion**

DAGs impose a partial order on the instructions (nodes) in the program (program graph). An ordering of the nodes that respects the partial order is called a *valid order* of the nodes, and instructions are allowed to "move" relative to one another as long as a valid order is maintained. Generally, there are many different valid orders

for instructions in a program, as shown in Figure 3-2. However, there is always at least one valid order, the *program order,* which is the order in which the instructions appear in the original assembly program.

In Chapter 4 it is shown how the scheduler utilizes code motion within the program graph constraints to form instruction schedules.



Figure 3-2: Two different valid orderings of the example DAG.

#### **3.1.2 Program Graph Construction**

Constructing a DAG for programs with no loops is straightforward. First, nodes are created for each instruction in the program, and then directed edges are added where data dependencies exist. Table-based algorithms are commonly used for adding these directed edges [18]. A simple table-based algorithm for adding edges to an existing list of nodes is given in Figure 3-3. The table records the nodes that have created the most recent values for variables in the program.

The simple DAG construction algorithm can be modified to produce program graphs for programs with loops. The program in Figure 3-4 has one loop, and the program graph construction process is illustrated in Figure 3-5. First, nodes are created for each instruction in the program, including loop instructions. Second, the nodes are scanned in program order using a table to add forward-directed data dependency edges. Third, the nodes within the loop body are scanned a second

```
build-dag (L)
  for each node N in list L do
    I = instruction associated with node N
    for each source operand S of instruction I do
      M = TABLE[S]add edge from node M to node N
    for each destination operand D of instruction I do
      TABLE[D] = N
```
Figure 3-3: Table-based DAG construction algorithm.

time with the *same* table to add backward-directed data dependency edges (back edges). Program graphs use dependency cycles to represent looping control flow. Finally, special loop dependency edges are added to help enforce code motion rules for instructions around loops. These special loop dependency edges and the code motion rules are explained in Section 3.1.3.

int a,b;	istream RO, #0			
$a = istream(0, int);$ loop count = $0,99$	$100p$ #100			
	istream R1, #1			
	iadd32 RO, RO, R1			
$b = istream(1, int);$	isub32 R2, R0, R1			
$a = a + b$ ;				
ostream(0,int) = $a - b$ ; ostream R2, #0				
a				

Figure 3-4: Example *pasm* program with loops (a) and its assembly listing (b).

The construction process outlined above can be generalized to programs with arbitrary numbers of nested loops. In general, each loop body within a program must be scanned twice. Intuitively, the first scan determines the initial values for variables within the loop body, and the second scan introduces back edges for variables redefined during loop iteration. An algorithm for constructing program graphs (without loop dependency edges) is presented in Figure 3-6.

Clearly, program graphs are not DAGs; cycles appear in the program graph where



Figure 3-5: Program graph construction process: nodes (a), forward edges (b), back edges (c), loop dependency edges (d).

data dependencies exist between loop iterations. However, a program graph can be treated much like a DAG if back edges are never allowed to become forward edges in any ordering of the nodes. When restricted in this manner, back edges effectively become special forward edges that are simply marked as backward. In all further discussions, back edges are considered so restricted.

#### **3.1.3 Loop Analysis**

Program graphs are further distinguished from DAGs by special loop nodes which mark the boundaries of loop bodies. These nodes govern how instructions may move into or out of loop bodies.

An instruction can only be considered inside or outside of a loop with respect to some valid ordering of the program graph nodes. If, in some ordering, a node in the program graph follows a loop start node and precedes the corresponding loop end node, then the instruction represented by that node is considered to be inside

```
build-program-graph(L)
  for each node N in list L do
    I = instruction associated with node N
    if I is not a loop end instruction
      for each source operand S of instruction I do
        M = TABLE[S]add edge from node M to node N
      for each destination operand D of instruction I do
        TABLE[D] = N
    else
      L2 = list of nodes in loop body of I, excluding I
      build-dag (L2)
```
Figure 3-6: Program graph construction algorithms.

that loop. Otherwise, it is considered outside the loop. A node's *natural loop* is the innermost loop that it occupies when the nodes are arranged in program order.

Compilers commonly move code out of loop bodies as a code optimization [1]. Fewer instructions inside a loop body generally result in faster execution of the loop. In the case of wide instruction word machines, code motion into loop bodies may also make sense [8]. Independent code outside of loop bodies can safely occupy unused instruction slots within a loop, making the overall program more compact.

However, not all code can safely be moved into or out of a loop body without changing the outcome of the program. The program graph utilizes a combination of static and dynamic analyses to determine safe code motions.

#### **Static Loop Analysis**

Static loop analysis determines two properties of instructions with respect to all loops in a program: *loop inclusion* and *loop exclusion.* If an instruction is *included* in a loop, then that instruction can never move out of that loop. If an instruction is *excluded* from a loop, then that instruction can never move into that loop. If it is neither, then that instruction is free to move into or out of that loop.

A program graph represents static loop inclusion and exclusion with pairs of loop dependency edges. Loop inclusion edges behave exactly like data dependency edges,

forcing an instruction to always follow the loop start instruction *and* to always precede the loop end instruction. Loop exclusion edges are interpreted slightly differently. They require an instruction to always follow a loop end instruction *or* to always precede a loop start instruction. Figure 3-7 demonstrates loop dependency edges.



Figure 3-7: Loop inclusion (a) and loop exclusion (b) dependency edges.

Static loop analysis uses the following simple rules to determine loop inclusion and loop exclusion for nodes in a program graph:

- 1. If a node has side effects, then it is *included* in its natural loop and *excluded* from all other loops contained within its natural loop.
- 2. If a node references (reads or writes) a back edge created by a loop, then it is *included* in that loop.

The first rule ensures that instructions that cause side effects in the machine, such as loop start, loop end, istream, or ostream instructions, are executed exactly the number of times intended by the programmer. Figure 3-8 depicts a simple situation in which this rule is used to insert loop inclusion and loop exclusion edges into a program graph. The program has multiple istream instructions that are contained within two nest loops. As a result of static loop analysis, the first istream instruction (node 0) is excluded from the outermost loop (and, consequently, all loops contained within it). The second istream instruction (node 2) is included in the outermost loop and excluded from the innermost loop, while the third istream instruction (node 4) is simply included in the innermost loop.



Figure 3-8: Static loop analysis (rule 1 only) example program (a), labeled assembly listing (b), and labeled program graph (c).

The second rule forces instructions that read or write variables updated inside a loop to also remain inside that loop. Figure 3-9 shows a simple situation in which this rule is enforced. The program contains two iadd32 instructions, which are connected **by** a back edge created **by** the outermost loop. Thus, both nodes are included in this loop. Note that the first add instruction (node 4) is not included in its natural loop (the innermost loop). Inspection of the program reveals that moving node 4 from its natural loop does not change the outcome of the program.

These two rules are not sufficient to prevent all unsafe code motions with regard to loops. It is possible to statically restrict all illegal code motions, but at the expense



Figure 3-9: Static loop analysis (rule 2 only) example program (a), labeled assembly listing (b), and labeled program graph (c).

of some legal ones. However, dynamic loop analysis offers a less restrictive way to disallow illegal code motions, but at a runtime penalty.

#### **Dynamic Loop Analysis**

Some code motion decisions can be better made dynamically. For example, consider the program and associated program graph in Figures 3-10a and 3-10b. As a result of static loop analysis, nodes 3 and 7 are included in the outer loop but are free to move into the inner loop. Inspection of the program graph reveals that either node 3 or node 7 can safely be moved into the inner loop, but not both. Although the inner loop is actually independent from the outer loop, moving both nodes into the inner loop causes the outer loop computation to be repeated too many times. Such problems can occur whenever a complete dependency cycle is moved from one loop to another.

Dynamic loop analysis seeks to prevent complete cycles in the program graph


Figure 3-10: Dynamic loop analysis example program (a), labeled assembly listing (b), and labeled program graph (c).

from changing loops as a result of code motion. Checks are dynamically performed before each potential change to the program graph ordering. Violations of the cycle constraint are disallowed.

Central to dynamic loop analysis is the notion of the *innermost shared loop* of a set of nodes. The innermost shared loop of a set of nodes is the innermost loop in the program that contains all the nodes in the set. There is always one such loop for any subset of program graph nodes; it is assumed that the entire program itself is a special "outermost" loop, and all nodes share at least this one loop.

When moving a node on a computation cycle, dynamic loop analysis ensures that the innermost shared loop for all nodes on the cycle is the same as that when the nodes are arranged in program order. Otherwise, the move is not allowed.

# **3.2 Annotated Program Graph**

Often, a DAG (or some other data structure) is used to guide the code generation process during compilation [1]. In addition, for complex machines, a separate scoreboard structure may be used to centrally record resource usage. However, to facilitate dynamic modification of the schedule, it is often useful to embed scheduling information in the graph structure itself. Embedding such information in a basic program graph results in an *annotated program graph.*

Scheduling information is recorded as annotations to the nodes and edges of the basic program graph. These annotations are directly related to the type of hardware on which the program is to be scheduled. For the class of machines described in Section 2.2, *node annotations* record information about functional unit usage, and *edge annotations* record information about communication between functional units.

#### **3.2.1 Node Annotations**

Annotated program graph nodes contain two annotations: **unit and cycle. The** annotations represent the instruction's functional unit and initial execution cycle.

Node annotations lend concreteness to the notion of ordering in the program graph. By considering the unit and cycle annotations to be two independent dimensions, the program graph can be laid out on a grid in "space-time" (see Figure 3-11). This grid is a useful way to visualize program graphs during the scheduling process.

## **3.2.2 Edge Annotations**

Edges in an annotated program graph represent the flow of data from one functional unit to another. They contain annotations that describe a direct data path through the machine. Listed in the order encountered in the machine, these annotations are unit-out-port, bus, reg-in-port, register, reg-out-port, and **unit-in-port.** Figure 3-12 illustrates the relationship between edge annotations and the actual path of data through the machine.



Figure 3-11: Program graph laid out on grid.

Assigning values to the annotations of an edge that connects two annotated nodes is called *routing data.* Two annotated nodes determine a source and destination for a data word. Many paths may exist between the source and destination, so routing data is generally done by systematically searching all possibilities for the first valid path.

Valid paths may not exist if the machine does not have the physical connections, or if the machine resources are already used for other routing. If no valid paths exist for routing data, then the edge is considered *broken.* Broken edges have unassigned annotations.

#### **3.2.3** Annotation Consistency

The data routing procedure raises the topic of annotation consistency. Annotations must be assigned such that they are consistent with one another. For example, an edge cannot be assigned resources that are already in use by a different edge or resources that do not exist in the machine.

Similarly, two nodes generally can not be assigned the same **cycle** and unit an-



Figure 3-12: Edge annotations related to machine structure.

notations. An exception to this rule occurs when the two nodes are *compatible.* Two nodes are considered compatible if they compute identical outputs. For example, common subexpressions in programs generate compatible program graph nodes. Such nodes would be allowed to share functional unit resources, effectively eliminating the common subexpression.

Additionally, nodes can not be assigned annotations that cause an invalid ordering of the program graph nodes. By convention, only edge annotations are allowed to be unassigned (broken). This restriction implies that data dependency constraints are always satisfied in properly annotated program graphs.

## **3.3 Summary**

This chapter introduces the program graph, a data structure for representing data and simple control flow for programs. The scheduler test system uses the program graph to represent programs for three reasons: (1) it exposes much program parallelism, (2) it allows code motion into and out of loops, and (3) it is easily modifiable.

A program graph consists of nodes and edges. As in a DAG representation, nodes correspond to instructions in the program, and edges correspond to data dependencies between instructions. In addition, special loop nodes and edges represent program control flow.

Program graphs are constructed with a simple table-based algorithm, similar to a table-based DAG construction algorithm. Loop edges are created by a static loop analysis post-processing step. Dynamic loop analysis supplements the static analysis to ensure that modifications to the program graph to not result in incorrect program execution.

An annotated program graph is a program graph that has been augmented for use in a scheduling algorithm. Two types of annotations are used: node annotations and edge annotations. Node annotations record on which cycle and unit an instruction is scheduled, and edge annotations encode data flow paths through the machine.

# **Chapter 4**

# **Scheduling Algorithm**

This chapter describes a new instruction scheduling algorithm based on the simulated annealing algorithm. This algorithm is intended for use on communicationconstrained VLIW machines.

## **4.1 Simulated Annealing**

Simulated annealing is a randomized search algorithm used for combinatorial optimization. As its name suggests, the algorithm is modeled on the physical processes behind cooling crystalline materials. The physical structure of slowly cooling (i.e., annealing) material approaches a state of minimum energy despite small random fluctuations in its energy level during the cooling process. Simulated annealing mimics this process to achieve function minimization by allowing a function's value to fluctuate locally while slowly "cooling down" to a globally minimal value.

The pseudocode for an implementation of the simulated annealing algorithm is given in Figure 4-1. This implementation of the algorithm takes *T,* the current temperature, and  $\alpha$ , the temperature reduction factor, as parameters. These parameters, determined empirically, guide the cooling process of the algorithm, as described later in this section.

The simulated annealing algorithm uses three data-dependent functions: **initialize,** energy, and reconfigure. The **initialize** function provides an initial data point

```
D = initialize()
E = energy(D)repeat until 'cool'
  repeat until reach 'thermal equilibrium'
    newD = reconfigure(D)
    newE = energy(D)if newE < E
      P = 1.0else
      P = exp(-(newE - E)/T)if (random number in [0,1) < P)
      D = newDE = newET = alpha*T
```
Figure 4-1: The simulated annealing algorithm.

from which the algorithm starts its search. The **energy** function assigns an energy level to a particular data point. The simulated annealing algorithm attempts to find the data point that minimizes the **energy** function. The **reconfigure function** randomly transforms a data point into a new data point. The algorithm uses the **reconfigure** function to randomly search the space of possible data points. These three functions, and their definitions for instruction scheduling, are detailed further in Section 4.2.

#### **4.1.1 Algorithm Overview**

The simulated annealing algorithm begins **by** calculating an initial data point and initial energy using **initialize and energy,** respectively. Then, it generates a sequence of data points starting with the initial point **by** calling **reconfigure. If** the energy of a new data point is less than the energy of the current data point, the new data point is accepted unconditionally. If the energy of a new data point is greater than the energy of the current data point, the new data point is conditionally accepted

with some probability that is governed by the following equation:

$$
p(accept) = e^{-\frac{\Delta E}{T}}, \tag{4.1}
$$

where T is the current "temperature" of the algorithm, and  $\Delta E$  is the magnitude of the energy change between the current data point and the new one. If a new data point is accepted, it becomes the basis for future iterations; otherwise the old data point is retained.

This iterative process is repeated at the same temperature level until "thermal equilibrium" has been reached. Thermal equilibrium occurs when continual energy decreases in the data become offset by random energy increases. Thermal equilibrium can be detected in many ways, ranging from a simple count of data reconfigurations to a complex trend detection scheme. In this thesis, exponential and window averages are commonly used to detect when the energy level at a certain temperature has reached steady-state.

Upon reaching thermal equilibrium, the temperature must be lowered for further optimization. Lower temperatures allow fewer random energy increases, reducing the average energy level. In this implementation, the temperature parameter *T* is reduced by a constant multiplicative factor  $\alpha$ , typically between 0.85 and 0.99.

Temperature decreases continue until the temperature has become sufficiently "cool," usually around temperature zero. Near this temperature, the probability of accepting an energy increase approaches zero, and the algorithm no longer accepts random increases in the energy level. The algorithm terminates when it appears that no further energy decreases can be found.

It is interesting to note that the inner loop of the algorithm is similar to a simple "hill-climbing" search algorithm. In the hill-climbing algorithm, new data points are accepted only if they are better than previous data points. The simulated annealing algorithm relaxes this requirement by accepting less-fit data points with an exponentially decreasing probability. This relaxation permits the algorithms to avoid getting trapped in local minima. As the temperature decreases, the behavior of the simulated

annealing algorithm approaches that of the hill-climbing search.

# **4.2 Simulated Annealing and Instruction Scheduling**

Application of the simulated annealing algorithm to any problem requires definition of the three data-dependent functions **initialize, energy, and reconfigure** as well as selection of the initial parameters  $T$  and  $\alpha$ . The function definitions and initial parameters for the problem of optimal instruction scheduling are provided in the following sections.

### **4.2.1 Preliminary Definitions**

A data point for the simulated annealing instruction scheduler is a *schedule.* **A** schedule is a consistent assignment of annotations to each node and edge in an annotated program graph. Schedules may be valid or invalid. A valid *schedule* is a schedule in which the annotation assignment satisfies all dependencies implied by the program graph, respects the functional unit resource restrictions of the target hardware, and allows all data to be routed (i.e., there are no broken edges). The definition of annotation consistency in Section 3.2.3 implies that a schedule can only be invalid if its program graph contains broken edges.

#### **4.2.2 Initial Parameters**

The initial parameters  $T$  and  $\alpha$  govern the cooling process of the simulated annealing algorithm. A proper rate of cooling is crucial to the success of the algorithm, so good choices for these parameters are important.

The initial temperature  $T$  is a notoriously data-dependent parameter [14]. Consequently, it is often selected automatically via an initial data-probing process. The data-probing algorithm used in this thesis is shown in Figure 4-2. It is controlled by an auxiliary parameter *P,* the initial acceptance probability. The parameter *P* is

intended to approximate the probability with which an average energy increase will be initially accepted by the simulated annealing algorithm. Typically, *P* is set very close to one to allow sufficient probability of energy increases early in the simulated annealing process.

The data probing algorithm reconfigures the initial data point a number of times and accumulates the average change in energy  $\Delta E_{avg}$ . Inverting Equation (4.1) yields the corresponding initial temperature:

$$
T_{initial} = \frac{-\Delta E_{avg}}{\ln P}.\tag{4.2}
$$

```
probe-initial-temperature (D,P)
  E = energy(D)total = 0repeat 100 times
    D2 = \text{reconfigure}(D)E2 = energy(D2)deltaE = abs(E - E2)total = total + deltaavgDeltaE = total / 100T = -avgDeltaE / ln(P)return T
```
Figure 4-2: Initial temperature calculation via data-probing.

The initial parameter  $\alpha$  is generally less data-dependent than *T*. In this thesis, values for  $\alpha$  are determined empirically by trial-and-error. The results of these experiments are discussed later in Chapter 5.

### **4.2.3 Initialize**

The initialize function generates an initial data point for the simulated annealing algorithm. In the domain of optimal instruction scheduling, the initialize function takes a program graph as input and produces an annotation assignment for that program graph (i.e., it creates a schedule).

```
cycle = 0for each node N in program graph P do
    N->cycle = cycleN->unit = random unit
    cycle = cycle + N-\text{V}->latency + 1
for each edge E in program graph P do
  if data can be routed for edge E
    assign edge annotations to E
  else
    mark E broken
```
Figure 4-3: Maximally-bad initialization algorithm.

The goal of the **initialize** function is to *quickly* produce a schedule. The schedules need not be near-optimal or even valid. One obvious approach is to use a fast, suboptimal scheduling algorithm, such as a list scheduler, to generate the initial schedule. This approach is easy if the alternate scheduling algorithm is available, but may have the unwanted effect of biasing the simulated annealing algorithm toward schedules close to the initial one. Initializing the simulated annealing algorithm with a data point deep inside a local minimum can cause the algorithm to become stuck near that data point if the initial temperature is not high enough.

Another approach is to construct a "maximally bad" (within reasonable limits) schedule. Such a schedule lies outside all local minima and allows the simulated annealing algorithm to discover randomly which minima to investigate. Maximally bad schedules can be quickly generated using the algorithm shown in Figure 4-3. This algorithm traverses a program graph in program order and assigns a unique start cycle and a random unit to each node in the program graph. A second traversal assigns edge annotations, if possible.

### **4.2.4 Energy**

The energy function evaluates the optimality of a schedule. It takes a schedule as input and outputs a positive real number. Smaller energy values are assigned to more desirable schedules. Energy evaluations can be based on any number of schedule properties including critical path length, schedule density, data throughput, or hardware resource usage. Penalties can be assigned to undesirable schedule features such as broken edges or unused functional units. Some example energy functions are described in the following paragraphs.

#### **Largest-start-time**

The **largest-start-time** energy function is shown in Figure 4-4. The algorithm simply computes the largest start cycle of all operations in the program graph. Optimizing this energy function results in schedules that use a minimum number of VLIW instructions, often resulting in fast execution. However, this function is not well suited to the simulated annealing algorithm, as it is very flat and exhibits infrequent, abrupt changes in magnitude. In general, flat functions provide no sense of "progress" to the simulated annealing algorithm, resulting in a largely undirected, random search.

```
1st = 0for each node N in program graph P
  if N->cycle > 1st
    1st = N->cyclereturn 1st
```
Figure 4-4: Largest-start-time energy function.

#### **Sum-of-start-times**

The **sum-of-start-times** energy function appears in Figure 4-5. Slightly more sophisticated than **largest-start-time,** this algorithm attempts to measure schedule length while remaining sensitive to small changes in the schedule. Since all nodes contribute to the energy calculation (rather than just one as in **largest-start-time),** the function output reflects even small changes in the input schedule, making it more suitable for use in the simulated annealing algorithm.

```
m = 0for each node N in program graph P
  m = m + N->cycle
return m
```
Figure 4-5: **Sum-of-start-times** energy function.

#### **Sum-of-start-times (with penalty)**

Figure 4-6 shows the sum-of-start-times energy function with a penalty applied for broken program graph edges. Assessing penalties for undesirable schedule features causes the simulated annealing algorithm to reject those schedules with high probability. In this case, the simulated annealing algorithm would not likely accept schedules with broken edges (i.e., invalid schedules).

```
m= 0
for each node N in program graph P
 m = m + N->cycle
brokenedgecount = 0
for each edge E in program graph P
  if E is broken
    brokenedgecount = brokenedgecount + 1
return m * (1 + brokenedgecount*brokenedgepenalty)
```
Figure 4-6: **Sum-of-start-times** (with penalty) energy function.

### **4.2.5 Reconfigure**

The **reconfigure** function generates a new schedule by slightly transforming an existing schedule. There are many possible schedule transformations, the choice of which affect the performance of the simulated annealing algorithm.

In this thesis, good reconfigure functions for simulated annealing possess two required properties:

*reversibility* The simulated annealing algorithm should be able to undo any reconfigurations that it applies during the course of optimization.

*completeness* The simulated annealing algorithm should be able to generate any data point from any other data point with a finite number of reconfigurations.

The reconfiguration functions used in this thesis are based on a small set of primitive schedule transformations that together satisfy the above conditions. Those primitives and the reconfiguration algorithms based on them are described in detail in the next sections.

## **4.3 Schedule Transformation Primitives**

All reconfiguration functions used in this thesis are implemented as a composition of three primitive schedule transformation functions: **move-node, add-pass-node,** and **remove-pass-node.** Conceptually, these functions act only on nodes in an annotated program graph. In practice, they explicitly modify the annotations of a single node in the program graph, and in doing so may implicitly modify the annotations of any number of edges. Annotation consistency is always maintained.

## **4.3.1 Move-node**

The move-node function moves (i.e., reannotates) a node from a source cycle and unit to a destination cycle and unit, if the move is possible. The program graph is left unchanged if the move is not possible. A move is considered possible if it does not violate any data or loop dependencies and if the destination is not already occupied by an incompatible operation. The **move-node** function attempts to reroute all data along affected program graph edges. If data rerouting is not possible, the affected edges become broken. Pseudocode for and an illustration of **move-node** appear in Figure 4-7.

#### **4.3.2 Add-pass-node**

The **add-pass-node** function adds a new data movement node along with a new data edge to a source node in a program graph. The new node is initially assigned node annotations identical to the source node, as they are considered compatible. Pseudocode for and an illustration of add-pass-node appear in Figure 4-8.

## **4.3.3 Remove-pass-node**

The remove-pass-node function removes a data movement node along with its corresponding data edge from the program graph. Pass nodes are only removable if they occupy the same cycle and unit as the node whose output they pass. Pseudocode for and an illustration of remove-pass-node appear in Figure 4-9.



Figure 4-7: The move-node schedule transformation primitive.



Figure 4-8: The add-pass-node schedule transformation primitive.



Figure 4-9: The remove-pass-operation schedule transformation primitive.

## **4.4 Schedule Reconfiguration Functions**

The schedule transformation primitives described in the previous section can be composed in a variety of ways to generate more complex schedule reconfiguration functions. Three such functions are described in the following sections.

### **4.4.1 Move-only**

The **move-only** reconfiguration function moves one randomly selected node in a program graph to a randomly selected cycle and unit. Move-only consists of just one successful application of the move-node transformation primitive, as shown in the pseudocode of Figure 4-10.

The **move-only** reconfiguration function satisfies the two requirements of a simulated annealing reconfiguration function only in special cases. The first requirement, reversibility, is clearly always satisfied. The second requirement, completeness, is satisfied only for spaces of schedules with *isomorphic* program graphs. Two program graphs P1 and P2 are considered isomorphic if for every node and edge in P1, there exist corresponding nodes and edges in P2. Further, the corresponding nodes and edges must be connected in an identical fashion. This limited form of completeness can be shown with the following argument.

Consider two schedules **S1** and **S2** (for the same original program) with isomorphic program graphs P1 and P2. Completeness requires that there exist a sequence of reconfigurations that transform S1 into **S2** or, equivalently, P1 into P2. One such sequence can be constructed in two stages. In the first stage, schedule **S1** is translated in time by moving each node in P1 from its original cycle  $C$  to cycle  $C + C_{finalS2}$ , where  $C_{finalS2}$  is the last cycle used in schedule S2. These moves are applied in reverse program order. In the second stage, each node of the translated program graph P1 is moved to the cycle and unit of its corresponding node in P2. These moves are applied in program order.

Move-only is a useful reconfiguration function for scheduling fully-connected machine configurations. These machines never require additional data movement nodes to generate valid schedules, so the program graph topology need not change during the course of scheduling.

```
move-only(P)schedule random node N from program graph P
  repeat
    select random unit U
    select random cycle C
  until move-node(N, C, U) succeeds
```
Figure 4-10: Pseudocode for move-only schedule reconfiguration function.

#### **4.4.2 Aggregate-move-only**

While the **move-only** function satisfies (nearly) the two requirements of a good reconfiguration function, it does have a possible drawback. For large schedules, moving a single node is a relatively small change. However, it seems reasonable to assume that the simulated annealing algorithm might accelerate its search if larger changes were made possible by the reconfigure function. The **aggregate-move-only** function is an attempt to provide such variability in the size of the reconfiguration. The pseudocode is shown in Figure 4-11.

Aggregate-move-only applies the move-only function a random number of times. The maximum number of applications is controlled by the parameter *M,* which is a fraction of the total number of nodes in the program graph. For example, at  $M =$ 2 the maximum number of **move-only** applications is twice the number of program graph nodes. At  $M = 0$ , aggregate-move-only reduces to move-only. Defined in this way, **aggregate-move-only** can produce changes to the schedule that vary in magnitude proportional to the schedule size. Aggregate-move-only can also produce changes to the schedule that would be unlikely to occur using **move-only,** as it allows chains of move-node operations, with potentially large intermediate energy increases, to be accepted unconditionally.

Aggregate-move-only performs identically to move-only with respect to the simulated annealing requirements for good reconfigure functions.

```
aggregate-move-only(P,M)
 Y = number of nodes in P
 select random integer X from range [1, M*Y + 1]
 repeat X times
   move-only(P)
```
Figure 4-11: Pseudocode for aggregate-move-only schedule reconfiguration function.

## **4.4.3 Aggregate-move-and-pass**

Enforcing the completeness requirement for non-isomorphic program graphs requires the use of the other two transformation primitives, add-pass-node and **remove**pass-node. These primitives change the topology of a program graph by adding data movement nodes between two existing nodes.

The aggregate-move-and-pass function, shown in Figure 4-12, randomly applies one of the two pass-node primitives or the aggregate-move-only function. It is controlled by three parameters: the aggregate move parameter  $M$ , the probability *R* of applying a pass node transformation, and the probability *S* of adding a pass node given that a pass node transformation is applied.

The aggregate-move-and-pass function is clearly reversible, and it satisfies a stronger completeness requirement. It is complete for all schedules that have isomorphic program graphs after removal of all pass nodes, as shown in the following argument.

Consider two schedules **S1** and **S2** (for the same original program) with program graphs P1 and P2 that are isomorphic after removing all pass nodes. A sequence of reconfigurations to transform P1 into P2 can be constructed in five stages. In the first stage, all pass nodes are removed from P1, possibly resulting in broken edges. In the second stage, schedule **S1** is translated in time just as in the argument for moveonly. In the third stage, each node of the translated program graph P1 is moved to the cycle and unit of its corresponding node in P2. In the fourth stage, a pass node is added to the proper node in P1 for each pass node in P2. In the final stage, these newly added pass nodes are moved to the cycles and units of their corresponding pass

nodes in P2.

```
aggregate-move-and-pass (P, M, R, S)
  if random number in [0,1) >= R
    aggregate-move-only (P,M)
  else
    if random number in [0,1) < Sselect random node N in P
      add-pass-node (N)
    else
      select random pass node N in P
      remove-pass-node (N)
```
Figure 4-12: Pseudocode for aggregate-move-and-pass schedule reconfiguration function.

## **4.5 Summary**

This chapter describes the simulated annealing algorithm in general and its specific application to the problem of optimal instruction scheduling.

The simulated annealing algorithm is presented along with the three problemdependent functions **initialize, energy, and reconfigure** that are required to implement it.

Straightforward implementations of **initialize** and **energy** for the problem of optimal instruction scheduling are given. Versions of reconfigure based on the three schedule transformation primitives move-node, add-pass-node, and removepass-node are proposed. The reversibility and completeness properties of these functions are discussed.

# **Chapter 5**

# **Experimental Results**

In theory, the simulated annealing instruction scheduling algorithm outlined in the previous chapter is able to find optimal instruction schedules given enough time. In practice, success within a reasonable amount of time depends heavily upon good choices for the algorithm's various parameters. Good choices for these parameters, in turn, often depend on the inputs to the algorithm, making the problem of parameter selection a vexing one. This chapter presents the results of parameter studies designed to find acceptable values for these parameters.

## **5.1 Summary of Results**

The experiments in this chapter investigate five parameters: the initial acceptance probability  $P$ , the temperature reduction factor  $\alpha$ , the aggregate move fraction  $M$ , the pass node transformation probability *R,* and the pass node add probability S. These parameters are varied for a selection of input programs and machine configurations to find values that may apply in more general situations.

The initial acceptance probability  $P$  and temperature reduction factor  $\alpha$  are examined together in an experiment described in Section 5.3. It is found that, given sufficiently high starting temperature, the solution quality and algorithm runtime are directly influenced by the value of  $\alpha$ . Values of  $P \geq 0.8$  gave sufficiently high starting temperatures, and values of  $\alpha \geq 0.95$  gave best final results.

The aggregate move fraction *M* is considered in the experiment of Section 5.4. It is found that large aggregate moves do not reduce the number of reconfigurations needed to reach a solution or the overall run time of the algorithm. In fact, large reconfigurations may even have a negative effect. Thus, an aggregate move fraction of  $M = 0$  is recommended.

The pass node transformation probability *R* and the pass node add probability *S* are investigated in Section 5.5. It is found that low values of  $S(0.1 - 0.3)$  and midrange values of  $R$  (0.3 - 0.5) provide the best chance of producing valid schedules with no broken edges. However, the parameter *R* did exhibit some input-dependent behavior. In comparison with hand schedules, no combination of *R* and *S* resulted in optimal schedules that made good use of the machine resources.

## **5.2 Overview of Experiments**

In all experiments, the sum-of-start-times (with penalty) energy function and the aggregate-move-and-pass reconfigure function are used. The invalid edge penalty is set at 100.0.

Experiments are conducted using two source input programs: paradd8.i and paraddl6. i. Both programs are very similar, although paraddl6. i is approximately twice as large as paradd8.i. These programs are chosen to investigate how the parameter settings influence the performance of the simulated annealing algorithm on increasing program sizes. The source code for these programs appears in Appendix C.

The experiments in Sections 5.3 and 5.4 use two fully-connected machine configurations: small\_single\_bus.md and large-multi\_bus.md. The first machine has four functional units (adder, multiplier, shifter, and divider) and distributed register files connected with a single bus. The second machine has sixteen functional units (four of each from the first machine) and distributed register files connected with a full crossbar bus network. These machines are chosen to see how the parameter settings affect the performance of the algorithm on machines of varying complexity.



Figure 5-1: Nearest neighbor communication pattern.

The machine description files for these machines appear in Appendix D.

The pass node experiment in Section 5.5 uses two communication-constrained machine configurations: cluster\_with\_move.md and cluster\_without\_move.md.

The first communication-constrained machine has twenty functional units organized into four clusters with five functional units each. Each cluster has an adder, a multiplier, a shifter, a divider, and a data movement (move) unit. Within a cluster, the functional units communicate directly to one another via a crossbar network. Between clusters, units must communicate through move units. Thus, for data to move from one cluster to another, it must first be passed through a move unit, adding a one cycle latency to the operation.

The second communication-constrained machine has sixteen functional units similarly organized into four clusters. Clusters cannot communicate within themselves, but must write their results into other clusters. Thus, data is necessarily transferred from cluster to cluster during the course of computation.

In both communication-constrained machines, clusters are connected in a nearestneighbor fashion, as depicted in Figure 5-1. Because of the move units, cluster\_with\_move.md is considered more difficult to schedule than cluster\_without\_move.md.

It should be noted that each data point presented in the following sections results from a single run of the algorithm. Due to its randomized nature, the algorithm is expected occasionally to produce anomalous results. Such anomalous results are reflected by outliers and "spikes" in the data. Ideally, each data point should represent an average of many runs of the algorithm with an associated variance, but the algorithm's long runtimes do not permit this much data collection.

## **5.3 Annealing Experiments**

Empirically determining cooling parameters is often done when using the simulated annealing algorithm [14]. In this implementation of the algorithm, the cooling process is controlled by two parameters: the initial acceptance probability *P* and the temperature reduction factor  $\alpha$ . The following experiments attempt to find values for these parameters which yield a minimum energy in a reasonable amount of time. These experiments are carried out only on fully-connected machine configurations, as the parameters needed for communication-constrained machines are yet to be determined. It is hoped that the parameter values found in this experiment carry over to other programs and machine configurations.

The programs paradd8. i and paradd16. i are tested on machine configurations small\_single\_bus.md and large\_multi\_bus.md. As the temperature probing algorithm is sensitive to the initial state of the algorithm, both list-scheduler and maximally-bad initialization strategies are used, resulting in eight sets of data.

For each set of data, P is varied from 0.05 to 0.99, and  $\alpha$  is varied from 0.5 to 0.99. All other parameters  $(M, R, \text{ and } S)$  are set to zero. For each pair of P and  $\alpha$ , the minimum energy found and the number of reconfigurations required to find it are recorded.

The results for paradd8. i are plotted in Figure 5-2, and those for paradd16. i in Figure 5-3. All the raw data from the experiment can be found in Appendix E.

### **5.3.1 Analysis**

The parameter  $\alpha$  has perhaps the largest effect on the scheduling outcomes. As shown in the graphs, the number of reconfigurations (and consequently the runtime of the algorithm) exhibits an exponential dependence on the  $\alpha$  parameter. In addition, the quality of the scheduling result, as measured in the graphs of minimum energy, is strongly correlated with high  $\alpha$  values, which is not unexpected given its effect on runtime. The value of 0.99 gave best results, but at an extreme cost in the number of reconfigurations. A slightly lower value of 0.95 is probably sufficient in most cases.

The dependence on parameter  $P$  is less dramatic. In the minimum energy graphs that demonstrate some variation in  $P$ , it appears that there is some threshold after which  $P$  has a positive effect. This threshold corresponds to some sufficient temperature that allows the algorithm enough time to find a good minimum. In most cases, this threshold value occurs at  $P = 0.8$  or higher.

The influence of parameters  $\alpha$  and P is more clearly illustrated in plots of energy vs. time. Figure 5-4 shows four such plots for the program paraddl6. i on machine configuration small\_single\_bus.md. In these plots, the "time" axis is labeled with the temperatures at each time, so that the absolute temperature values are evident. In these plots, it seems that *P* controls the amplitude of the energy oscillation, and  $\alpha$  controls the number of reconfigurations (more data points indicate more reconfigurations).

The initialization strategy has little effect on the scheduling outcomes. At some low temperatures, the experiments initialized with the list scheduler seem to get hung up on the initial data point, but this behavior disappears at higher temperatures. This result is in line with expectations; list schedulers perform fine on fully-connected machines like the ones in this experiment.

The difference in machine complexity has the expected result: the smaller machine takes less time to schedule than the more complex one.

The most surprising result is that the smaller program takes more reconfigurations to schedule than the larger one. This anomaly may be due to the temperature probing procedure used to determine starting temperature. The probing process may have been calculating relatively higher starting temperatures for the smaller program.



Figure **5-2:** Annealing experiments for paradd8. i.



**Figure 5-3: Annealing experiments for paraddl6. i.**



Figure 5-4: Energy vs. small\_single\_bus.md. time (temperature) for paradd16.i on machine

# **5.4 Aggregate Move Experiments**

The aggregate-move reconfiguration function is intended to accelerate the simulated annealing search process by allowing larger changes in the data to occur. The size of the aggregate-move is controlled by the aggregate-move fraction *M.* This experiment attempts to determine a value of *M* that results in good schedules in a short amount of time.

The programs paradd8. i and paradd16. i are tested on machine configurations small\_single\_bus.md and large\_multi\_bus.md. Only maximally-bad initialization is used, as the results from the Annealing Experiments indicate that list-scheduler initialization does not make much difference for these programs and machine configurations.

For each set of data, M is varied from 0.0 to 2.0. Parameters  $P$  and  $\alpha$  are set to 0.8 and 0.95, respectively. All other parameters *(R* and S) are set to zero. For each value of *M,* the minimum energy found, the number of reconfigurations used to find it, and the clock time are recorded.

The results for paradd8. i are plotted in Figure 5-5, and those for paradd16. i in Figure 5-6. All the raw data from the experiment can be found in Appendix E.

#### **5.4.1 Analysis**

Variation of the parameter *M* does not have a significant effect on the minimum energy found by the algorithm. In the only experiment where there is some variation, setting *M* greater than zero results in worse performance. Increasing *M* also causes increased runtimes and does not reduce the number of reconfigurations with any regularity, if at all. In general, the aggregate-move reconfiguration function does not achieve its intended goal of accelerating the simulated annealing process. Thus,  $M = 0$  (i.e., a single move at a time) seems the only reasonable setting to use.



Figure **5-5: Aggregate-move experiments for paradd8. i.**



Figure **5-6:** Aggregate-move experiments for paraddl6. i.

## **5.5 Pass Node Experiments**

The add-pass-node and remove-pass-node schedule transformation primitives are key to the success or failure of the simulated annealing instruction scheduling algorithm. In order to create efficient schedules for its intended targets, communicationconstrained processors, the algorithm must insert the proper number of pass nodes at the proper locations in the program graph. In doing so, the algorithm must maintain a delicate balance between too many pass nodes and not enough. Insert too many, and the schedule can expand to twice, or even more, its optimal size. Insert too few, and the schedule may become invalid; data is not routed to where it needs to be.

Adding and removing pass nodes is controlled by two parameters, denoted *R* and *S.* The parameter *R* is the probability that the algorithm attempts to add or remove a pass node from the program graph. The parameter *S* is the probability with which the algorithm adds a pass node given that it has already decided to add or remove one. Thus, the overall probability of adding a pass node is *RS,* and the overall probability of removing a pass node is  $R(1-S)$ . This experiment attempts to find values for R and *S* which provide the necessary balance to produce efficient schedules.

The programs paradd8. i and paraddl6. i are tested on communication-constrained machine configurations cluster\_with-move .md and cluster\_without \_move .md. Both maximally-bad and list-scheduler initialization are used.

For each set of data,  $R$  and  $S$  are varied from 0.1 to 0.9. Parameters  $P$ ,  $\alpha$ , and *M* are set to 0.8, 0.95, and 0, respectively. For each pair of values, the minimum energy, the actual schedule length, the number of broken edges, and the number of pass nodes is recorded. The clock time is not reported here (see Appendix E), but these experiments took much longer to run than the fully-connected experiments at the same temperature parameters.

The results for paradd8. i are plotted in Figure 5-5, and those for paraddl6. i in Figure 5-6. All the raw data from the experiment can be found in Appendix E.

#### **5.5.1 Analysis**

These experiments illustrate the potential problem with using the list scheduler for initialization. The simulated annealing algorithm selects an answer close to the initial data point in all experiments initialized with the list scheduler, as revealed by the absence of broken edges in every experiment (the list scheduler always produces an initial schedule with no broken edges). In some cases, the simulated annealing algorithm is able to improve the list scheduling answer, but such improvements are rare.

The results of the list-scheduler-initialized experiments could indicate that the initial temperature was not set high enough to allow the algorithm to escape from the local minimum created by the list scheduler. This explanation would be valid if the maximally-bad-initialized experiments produce much better answers than the listscheduler-initialized ones. However, the graphs show that, in almost all cases, the maximally-bad-initialized experiments produce minimum energies that are equivalent or worse than those of the list-scheduler-initialized experiments. Thus, it cannot be determined if the temperature is not set high enough in the list-scheduler-initialized experiments, as the algorithm rarely, if ever, bests the list scheduler's answer.

Lower values of *S* (0.1–0.3) generally do a better job of eliminating broken edges from the schedule, as evidenced by the graphs of broken edge counts. The graphs also show that, as *S* increases, the number of pass nodes in the final schedule generally increases along with the minimum energy. After a point, excess pass nodes cause the schedules to become intolerably bad regardless of the number of broken edges. Smaller values of  $S$  typically do better on machine cluster\_without\_move.md, which is reasonable as this machine requires fewer pass operations to form efficient hand schedules.

Mid-range values of  $R$  (0.3-0.7) result in the fewest broken edges, however its influence on minimum energy and the number of pass nodes is less clear. These measures peak at low values of  $R$  for the program paradd8. i, but they peak at midrange values of *R* for the program paraddl6. i. These results suggest that *R* might

be more input-dependent than the other parameters.

In general, the algorithm performs better on the cluster\_without\_move.md machine than on the cluster\_with\_move.md machine, as is expected. In some instances, the algorithm finds solutions that are identical to hand-scheduled results for the cluster\_without\_move.md machine. In no case does the algorithm match handscheduled results on the cluster\_with-move.md machine. Most of the automatically generated schedules for this machine utilize only one or two clusters, while efficient hand-scheduled versions make use of all four clusters to reduce schedule length.

The failure to match hand-scheduled results could be explained by cosidering the ease of transformation from one schedule to another given certain energy and temperature levels. At high temperature levels, moving instructions between clusters, while incurring a large energy penalty, is generally easy to do since high temperatures allow temporary increases in energy level. However, at the high energy levels generally associated with high temperatures, instructions are not compacted optimally, and equivalent energy levels can occur whether instructions are distributed across clusters or not. Thus, at high temperature and energy levels, instructions *can* become distributed across clusters, but have no reason to do so.

At low temperature levels, moving instructions between clusters becomes more difficult. Such moves produce broken edges and large energy penalties, which are rejected at low temperatures. Additionally, low temperatures imply low energy levels, at which instructions are more compacted. When schedules become compact, lowering the energy level further can only be accomplished by distributing instructions across clusters. Thus, at low temperature and energy levels, instructions *cannot* become distributed across, but must do so in order to further optimize the schedule.

In light of the above analysis, truly optimal schedules can only be obtained if the algorithm happens upon the correct cluster distribution at a medium-high temperature and does not (or cannot) change it as the temperature decreases. Such a scenario seems unlikely to happen, as demonstrated by these experiments.



Pass node experiments for paradd8.i **Figure** 5-7:  $cluster\_without\_move$ .md. on machine


Pass node experiments for paradd8. **i** Figure **5-8: cluster\_with\_move. md.** on machine



Pass node experiments for paraddi6. i Figure **5-9: cluster\_without-move .md.** on machine



Figure **5-10:** Pass node experiments for paradd16.i on machine cluster\_with\_move.md.

### **Chapter 6**

## **Conclusion**

This thesis presents the design and preliminary analysis of a randomized instruction scheduling algorithm based on simulated annealing. It is postulated that such an algorithm should be able to produce good schedules for processor configurations that are difficult to schedule with traditional scheduling algorithms. This postulate remains unresolved as the algorithm has not been found to perform consistently for any setting of its five main parameters. As a result, this thesis presents only the results of a parameter study of the proposed algorithm.

#### **6.1 Summary of Results**

- \* As expected, the algorithm performs better the longer it is allowed to run. Setting initial acceptance probability  $P \geq 0.8$  and temperature reduction factor  $\alpha \geq 0.95$  generally allow the algorithm enough time to find optimal schedules for fully-connected machines.
- \* The algorithm tends to run longer for more complex, larger machine configurations.
- \* The algorithm tends to run longer for *smaller* programs. This anomaly is probably an artifact of the data probing procedure used to determine an initial temperature for the simulated annealing algorithm.
- The aggregate move parameter *M* has only negative effects on scheduling efficiency, both in terms of algorithm runtime and schedule quality. Disabling the aggregate move function  $(M = 0)$  gave best results.
- There are good ranges for the pass node add/remove probability *R* (0.3-0.7) and the pass node add probability  $S(0.1-0.3)$  that result in very few or no broken edges in schedules for communication-constrained machines. These ranges are fairly consistent across programs and machines, but not perfect.
- \* There are no consistent values of *R* and *S* that yield a good pass node "balance." The numbers of pass nodes in the schedules tend to increase with  $S$ , but vary widely with *R* for different programs and machines.
- \* The algorithm occasionally produced schedules for cluster\_without \_move .md that matched the performance of hand-scheduled code. The algorithm never matched the hand schedules for cluster\_with\_move.md.

#### **6.2 Conclusions**

- The algorithm *can* work. The schedules produced for the "easy" communicationconstrained machine matched the hand-scheduled versions for good settings of *R* and S. These schedules often beat the list scheduler, which made poorer schedules for the communication-constrained machines.
- \* The pass node parameters are very data-dependent. In these experiments, they tended to depend more on the hardware configuration than the input program, but equal dependence can be expected for both. If the hardware is very communication-constrained, then many pass nodes may be needed for scheduling. However, if the program's intrinsic communication pattern mirrors the communication paths in the machine, then fewer pass nodes may be needed. Similarly, even if the machine is only mildly communication-constrained, a program could be devised to require a maximum number of pass nodes.
- \* The temperature probing algorithm is not entirely data-independent. The anomaly in runtimes for programs of different sizes suggests that the probing process gives temperatures that are relatively higher for the short program than the larger one.
- \* The algorithm has problems moving computations from one cluster to another when a direct data path is not present. Most of the schedules produced for the "hard" communication-constrained machine are confined to one or two clusters only. (The list scheduler schedules only a single cluster as well). Only once *ever* did the algorithm find the optimal solution using four clusters.

These problems are probably due to the formulation of the simulated annealing data-dependent functions. Different **energy and reconfigure** functions may be able to move computations more efficiently.

• The algorithm is too slow, regardless of the schedule quality. Many of the datapoints for the communication-constrained tests took over four hours to compute, which is far too long to wait for programs that can be efficiently handscheduled in minutes. Perhaps such a long runtime is tolerable for extremely complex machines, but such machines are likely impractical.

#### **6.3 Further Work**

- Data-probing algorithms can be devised for the pass node parameters. Coming up with an accurate way to estimate the need for pass nodes in a schedule could make the algorithm much more consistent. Of course, the only way of doing this may be to run the algorithm and observe what happens. Dynamically changing pass-node parameters may work in this case, although simulated annealing generally does not use time varying reconfigure functions.
- \* Different reconfiguration primitives can be created for the scheduler. There are many scheduling algorithms based on different sets of transformations. Different transformations may open up a new space of schedules that are unreachable with

the primitives used in this thesis. In particular, none of the primitives in this thesis allow code duplication, a common occurrence in other global instruction scheduling algorithms.

- Different energy functions may give better results. The functions used in this thesis focus on absolute schedule length, while more intelligent ones may optimize inner-loop throughput or most-likely trace length. In addition, more sophisticated penalties can be used. For example, a broken edge that would require two pass nodes to reconnect could receive a higher penalty than one that requires only a single pass node. Broken edges that can never be reconnected (e.g., no room for pass node because of precedence constraints) could be assigned an even greater penalty. Additionally, energy penalties could be assigned to inefficient use of resources, perhaps encouraging use of all machine resources even for non-compact schedules.
- \* A different combinatorial optimization algorithm could be used. Simulated annealing is good for some problems, but not for others. Randomized instruction scheduling still has promise even if simulated annealing is not the answer.

# **Appendix A**

# *pasm* **Grammar**





## **Appendix B**

# **Assembly Language Reference**





### **Appendix C**

## **Test Programs**

#### **C.1** paradd8.i

```
// paradd8.i
// add a sequence of numbers using tree of adds
// uses eight istreams
int num0, num1, num2, num3, num4, num5, num6, num7;
num0 = istream(0, int);num1 = istream(1, int);num2 = istream(2, int);num3 = istream(3, int);num4 = istream(4, int);num5 = istream(5, int);num6 = istream(6, int);num7 = istream(7,int);
num0 = num0 + num1;num1 = num2 + num3;num2 = num4 + num5;
num3 = num6 + num7;num0 = num0 + num1;num1 = num2 + num3;num0 = num0 + num1;
```
#### **C.2** paraddl6.i

```
// paraddl6.i
// add a sequence of 16 numbers using tree of adds
// uses eight istreams
int num0, num1, num2, num3, num4, num5, num6, num7;
int sum0, sum1;
numO = istream(O,int);
num1 = istream(1, int);num2 = istream(2, int);num3 = istream(3, int);num4 = istream(4, int);num5 = istream(5, int);num6 = istream(6, int);num7 = istream(7,int);
numO = numO + numl;
num1 = num2 + num3;
num2 = num4 + num5;
num3 = num6 + num7;
num0 = num0 + num1;num1 = num2 + num3;sum0 = num0 + num1;num0 = istream(0, int);num1 = istream(1, int);num2 = istream(2, int);num3 = istream(3,int);
num4 = istream(4, int);num5 = istream(5, int);num6 = istream(6, int);num7 = istream(7,int);
num0 = num0 + num1;num1 = num2 + num3;
num2 = num4 + num5;
num3 = num6 + num7;
num0 = num0 + num1;num1 = num2 + num3;
```
 $sum1 = num0 + num1;$ sumO = sumO + **sumi;**

## **Appendix D**

### **Test Machine Descriptions**

#### **D.1** small\_single\_bus .md

```
cluster small_single_bus
{
 unit ADDER
  €
    inputs [2] ;
    outputs[1];
    operations =
(FADD, IADD32, IADD16, IADD8, UADD32, UADD16, UADD8,
                   FSUB, ISUB32, ISUB16, ISUB8, USUB32, USUB16, USUB8,
                   FABS, IABS32, IABS16, IABS8, IANDL32, IANDL16, IANDL8,
                   IORL32, IORL16, IORL8, IXORL32, IXORL16, IXORL8,
                   INOTL32, INOTL16, INOTL8,
                   FEQ, IEQ32, IEQ16, IEQ8, FNEQ, INEQ32, INEQ16, INEQ8,
                   FLT, ILT32, ILT16, ILT8, ULT32, ULT16, ULT8,
                   FLE, ILE32, ILE16, ILE8, ULE32, ULE16, ULE8,
                   ISELECT32, ISELECT16, ISELECT8, PASS,
                   IAND, IOR, IXOR, INOT, CCWRITE);
    latency = 2;
   pipelined = yes;
    area = 30;
  \mathbf{y}; unit MULTIPLIER \mathbf{y}unit MULTIPLIER
 \left\{ \right.inputs [2] ;
    outputs[2] ;
    operations = (FMUL, IMUL32, IMUL16, IMUL8, UMUL32, UMUL16, UMUL8, PASS);
   latency = 3;pipelined = yes;
   area = 300;
 };
 unit SHIFTER\mathfrak{c}
```

```
inputs [2];
  outputs [2];
  operations = (USHIFT32, USHIFT16, USHIFT8,
                USHIFTF32, USHIFTF16, USHIFTF8,
                 USHIFTA32, USHIFTA16, USHIFTA8,
                 UROTATE32, UROTATE16, UROTATE8,
                FNORMS, FNORMD, FALIGN, FTOI, ITOF, USHUFFLE, PASS);
  latency = 1;
  pipelined = yes;
  area = 200;
};
unit DIVIDER
\mathcal{L}inputs [2];
  outputs [2];
  operations = (FDIV, FSQRT, IDIV32, IDIV16, IDIV8, UDIV32, UDIV16, UDIV8);
  latency = 5;pipelined = no;
  area = 300;\};
unit MC
{
  inputs [0];
  outputs [0];
  operations = (COUNT, WHILE, STREAM, END);
  latency = 0;
  pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;};
unit INPUTO {
  inputs [0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (INO);
  latency = 0;
 pipelined = yes;
 area = 0;};
unit INPUT1 {
  inputs [0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (IN1);
  latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;};
unit INPUT2 {
  inputs [0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (IN2);
```

```
latency = 0;
  pipelined = yes;
area = 0;<br>};
unit INPUT3 {
  inputs [0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (IN3);
  latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit INPUT4 {
  inputs [0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (IN4);
  latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit INPUT5 {
  inputs [0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (IN5);
  latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit INPUT6 {
  inputs [0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (IN6);
  latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit INPUT7 {
  inputs [0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (IN7);
  latency = 0;
  pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit OUTPUTO {
  inputs [1];
  outputs [0];
  operations = (OUTO);
```

```
latency = 0;
    pipelined = yes;
    area = 0;};
  unit OUTPUT1 {
    inputs [1];
    outputs [0];
    operations = (OUT1);
    latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
    area = 0;\};
  regfile OUTPUTREG
  {
    inputs [1];
    outputs [1];
    size = 8;area = 8;\};
  regfile DATAREGFILE
  {
    inputs [1];
    outputs [1];
    size = 8;area = 64;
  \};
  ADDER[1],
  MULTIPLIER [1],
  SHIFTER [1] ,
  DIVIDER [1] ,
  INPUTO [1] ,
  INPUT1 [1],
  INPUT2 [1],
  INPUT3 [1],
  INPUT4[1],
  INPUT5 [1],
  INPUT6[1],INPUT7 [1],
  OUTPUTO[1],
  OUTPUT1 [1],
  MC [1] ,
  BUS [10],
  DATAREGFILE [8],
  OUTPUTREG [2];
// unit -> network connections
  ( ADDER[0:0].out[0], MULTIPLIER[0:0].out[0],
    SHIFTER[0:0].out[0], DIVIDER[0:0].out[0]),
```

```
( MULTIPLIER [0:0] .out [1], SHIFTER [0:0] .out [1],
```

```
DIVIDER[0:0].out[1] ) -> BUS[0:1].in[0];INPUTO [0] .out [0]
BUS[2] .in[O];
  INPUT1[0].out[0] -> BUS[3].in[0]
  INPUT2 [0].out[0]
BUS[4] .in[O];
  INPUT3[0].out[0]
BUS[5] .in[O];
  INPUT4[0].out[0] -> BUS[6].in[0]INPUT5[0].out[0] \rightarrow BUS[7].in[0]INPUT6 [0] .out [0]
BUS[8] .in[O];
  INPUT7[0].out[0] -> BUS[9].in[0]
// register file -> unit connections
  DATAREGFILE[0:7].out[0:0] \rightarrow ADDER[0:0].in[0:1], MULTIPLIER[0:0].in[0:1],
                                SHIFTER[0:0].in[0:1], DIVIDER[0:0].in[0:1];
  OUTPUTREG[0].out [0] -> OUTPUTO [O].in [O];
  OUTPUTREG[1].out[0] -> OUTPUT[0].in[0];// network -> register file connections
  ( BUS[0:9].out[0] ) -> ( DATAREGFILE[0:7].in[0:0] , OUTPUTREG[0:1].in[0] );
\mathbf{r}
```
#### D.2 large\_multi\_bus.md

```
cluster large_multi_bus
{
 unit ADDER
  {
    inputs[2];
    outputs[1];
    operations =
(FADD, IADD32, IADD16, IADD8, UADD32, UADD16, UADD8,
                  FSUB, ISUB32, ISUB16, ISUB8, USUB32, USUB16, USUB8,
                  FABS, IABS32, IABS16, IABS8, IANDL32, IANDL16, IANDL8,
                   IORL32, IORL16, IORL8, IXORL32, IXORL16, IXORL8,
                   INOTL32, INOTL16, INOTL8,
                  FEQ, IEQ32, IEQ16, IEQ8, FNEQ, INEQ32, INEQ16, INEQ8,<br>FLT, ILT32, ILT16, ILT8, ULT32, ULT16, ULT8,
                          ILT32, ILT16, ILT8, ULT32, ULT16, ULT8,
                  FLE, ILE32, ILE16, ILE8, ULE32, ULE16, ULE8,
                  ISELECT32, ISELECT16, ISELECT8, PASS,
                   IAND, IOR, IXOR, INOT, CCWRITE);
   latency = 2;pipelined = yes;
   area = 30;
 \}:
 unit MULTIPLIER
 {
   inputs[2] ;
   outputs[2] ;
   operations = (FMUL, IMUL32, IMUL16, IMUL8, UMUL32, UMUL16, UMUL8, PASS);
   latency = 3;pipelined = yes;
   area = 300;
 \};
 unit SHIFTER
 \mathcal{L}inputs[2];
   outputs[2];
    operations =
(USHIFT32, USHIFT16, USHIFT8,
                  USHIFTF32, USHIFTF16, USHIFTF8,
                  USHIFTA32, USHIFTA16, USHIFTA8,
                  UROTATE32, UROTATE16, UROTATE8,
                  FNORMS, FNORMD, FALIGN, FTOI, ITOF, USHUFFLE, PASS);
   latency = 1;
   pipelined = yes;
   area = 200;
 } ;
 unit DIVIDER
 {
   inputs[2];
   outputs[2];
   operations = (FDIV, FSQRT, IDIV32, IDIV16, IDIV8, UDIV32, UDIV16, UDIV8);
   latency = 5;pipelined = no;
```

```
area = 300;
\};
unit MC
\mathcal{F}inputs [0];
  outputs [0];
  operations = (COUNT, WHILE, STREAM, END);
  latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit INPUTO {
  inputs[0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (INO);
  latency = 0;
  pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit INPUT1 {
  inputs [0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (IN1);
  latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit INPUT2 {
  inputs[0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (IN2);
  latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\}:
unit INPUT3 {
  inputs[0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (IN3);
  latency = 0;
  pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit INPUT4 {
  inputs[0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (IN4);
  latency = 0;
```

```
pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;};
unit INPUT5 {
  inputs [0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (IN5);
  latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit INPUT6 {
  inputs [0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (IN6);
  latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit INPUT7 {
  inputs [0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (IN7);
  latency = 0;
  pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit OUTPUTO {
  inputs [1];
  outputs [0];
  operations = (OUTO);
  latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit OUTPUT1 {
  inputs [1];
  outputs [0];
  operations = (OUTi);
  latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;};regfile OUTPUTREG
{
  inputs [1] ;
  outputs [1];
  size = 8;
```

```
area = 8;
  \};
  regfile DATAREGFILE
  {
    inputs[1];outputs [1] ;
    size = 8;area = 64;
  };
  ADDER[4],
  MULTIPLIER[4] ,
  SHIFTER[4],
  DIVIDER[4],
  INPUTO[1] ,
  INPUT1 [1] ,
  INPUT2[1],INPUT3 [1],
  INPUT4[1],
  INPUT5 [1],
  INPUT6[1],
  INPUT7 [1] ,
  OUTPUTO [I],
  OUTPUT1 [1],
  MC[1],
  BUS [36],
  DATAREGFILE[32],
  OUTPUTREG[2] ;
// unit -> network connections
  ADDER[0:3].out[0], MULTIPLIER[0:3].out[0: 1],
  SHIFTER[0:3].out[0:1], DIVIDER[0:3].out[0:1] -> BUS[0:27].in[0];
  INPUTO[O] .out [0] -> BUS[28] .in[O];
  INPUT1[0].out[0] -> BUS[29].in[0];
  INPUT2[0] .out[0] -> BUS[30] .in[O];
  INPUT3[O].out[0] -> BUS[31].in[O];
  INPUT4[0] .out[0] -> BUS[32] .in[O];
  INPUT5[0] .out[0] -> BUS[33] .in[0];
  INPUT6[0] .out[0] -> BUS[34] .in[O];
  INPUT7[0] .out[0] -> BUS[35] .in[O];
// register file -> unit connections
  DATAREGFILE[0:31].out[0:0] -> ADDER[0:3].in[0:1], MULTIPLIER[0:3].in[0:1],
                                 SHIFTER[0:3].in[0:1], DIVIDER[0:3].in[0:1];
  OUTPUTREG [O].out [0] -> OUTPUTO [O].in[0];
  OUTPUTREG[1].out[0] -> OUTPUT[0].in[0];
// network -> register file connections
  ( BUS[0:35].out[O] ) -> ( DATAREGFILE[0:31].in[0:0] , OUTPUTREG[0:1].in[O] );
}
```
#### D.3 cluster with move md

```
cluster cluster_with_move
{
 unit ADDER
 {
   inputs[2];
   outputs [1] ;
   operations = (FADD, IADD32, IADD16, IADD8, UADD32, UADD16, UADD8,
                 FSUB, ISUB32, ISUB16, ISUB8, USUB32, USUB16, USUB8,
                 FABS, IABS32, IABS16, IABS8, IANDL32, IANDL16, IANDL8,
                 IORL32, IORL16, IORL8, IXORL32, IXORL16, IXORL8,
                  INOTL32, INOTL16, INOTL8,
                 FEQ, IEQ32, IEQ16, IEQ8, FNEQ, INEQ32, INEQ16, INEQ8,
                 FLT, ILT32, ILT16, ILT8, ULT32, ULT16, ULT8,
                 FLE, ILE32, ILE16, ILE8, ULE32, ULE16, ULE8,
                 ISELECT32, ISELECT16, ISELECT8, PASS,
                 IAND, IOR, IXOR, INOT, CCWRITE);
   latency = 2;pipelined = yes;
   area = 30;
 \}unit MULTIPLIER
 {
   inputs[2];
   outputs[2];
   operations = (FMUL, IMUL32, IMUL16, IMUL8, UMUL32, UMUL16, UMUL8, PASS);
   latency = 3;
   pipelined = yes;
   area = 300;\};
 unit SHIFTER
 {
   inputs[2];
   outputs[2];
   operations = (USHIFT32, USHIFT16, USHIFT8,
                 USHIFTF32, USHIFTF16, USHIFTF8,
                 USHIFTA32, USHIFTA16, USHIFTA8,
                 UROTATE32, UROTATE16, UROTATE8,
                 FNORMS, FNORMD, FALIGN, FTOI, ITOF, USHUFFLE, PASS);
   latency = 1;
   pipelined = yes;
   area = 200;
 \cdotunit DIVIDER
 {
   inputs[2];
   outputs[2];
   operations = (FDIV, FSQRT, IDIV32, IDIV16, IDIV8, UDIV32, UDIV16, UDIV8);
   latency = 5;pipelined = no;
```

```
area = 300;
  \};
 unit MOVER
  {
inputs [1];
outputs [1];
operations = (PASS);
latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
area = 100;};
 unit MC
  {
    inputs [0];
   outputs [0];
   operations = (COUNT, WHILE, STREAM, END);
   latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
   area = 0;\};
 unit INPUTO {
   inputs[0];
   outputs [1];
   operations = (INO);
   latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
   area = 0;\};
 unit INPUT1 {
   inputs [0];
   outputs [1];
   operations = (IN1);
   latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
   area = 0;\}unit INPUT2 {
   inputs [0];
   outputs [1];
   operations = (IN2);
   latency = 0;
   pipelined = yes;
   area = 0;\};
 unit INPUT3 {
   inputs [0];
   outputs [1];
   operations = (IN3);
```

```
latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit INPUT4 {
  inputs [0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (IN4);
  latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit INPUT5 {
  inputs [0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (IN5);
  latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit INPUT6 {
  inputs [0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (IN6);
  latency = 0;
  pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit INPUT7 {
  inputs [0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (IN7);
  latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit OUTPUTO {
  inputs [1];
  outputs [0];
  operations = (OUTO);
  latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit OUTPUT1 {
  inputs [1];
  outputs [0];
  operations = (OUT1);
```

```
latency = 0;
    pipelined = yes;
    area = 0;};
  regfile OUTPUTREG
  {
    inputs [1] ;
    outputs [1];
    size = 8;area = 8;\}regfile DATAREGFILE
  {
    inputs [1] ;
    outputs [1];
    size = 8;area = 64;};
  ADDER [4] ,
  MULTIPLIER[4],
  SHIFTER[4],
  DIVIDER[4],
  MOVER[4],
  INPUTO[1],
  INPUT1[1],
  INPUT2[1],
  INPUT3[1],
  INPUT4[I],
  INPUT5[1],
  INPUT6[1],INPUT7[I],
  OUTPUTO [I],
  OUTPUT1 [I],
  MC[1] ,
  BUS[44],
  DATAREGFILE[36],
  OUTPUTREG[2] ;
// 9 busses per cluster, 7 for internal data, 2 for moved data x 4 clusters
// + 6 busses for input units = 42 busses total
// unit -> network connections
  // cluster 0 contains units 0 of each type
 // cluster 0 uses bus 0:6 for internal data, bus 7,38 for moved data
  ADDER[0].out[0], MULTIPLIER[0].out[0],
 SHIFTER[0].out [0], DIVIDER[0].out[0] -> BUS[0:3].in[0];
 MULTIPLIER[0] .out[1], SHIFTER [0].out [1], DIVIDER[0] .out [1] -> BUS[4:6].in[0];
 MOVER[0].out[0] -> ( BUS[15].in[0], BUS[41].in[0]);
```

```
// cluster 1 contains units 1 of each type
```

```
// cluster 1 uses bus 8:14 for internal data, bus 15,39 for moved data
  ADDER[1].out [0], MULTIPLIER[1].out [0],
  SHIFTER[1].out[0], DIVIDER[1].out[0] -> BUS[8:11].in[0];
  MULTIPLIER[1].out[1], SHIFTER[1].out[1], DIVIDER[1].out[1] -> BUS[12:14].in[0];
  MOVER[1].out[0] -> (BUS[23].in[0], BUS[38].in[0]);
  // cluster 2 contains units 2 of each type
  // cluster 2 uses bus 16:22 for internal data, bus 23,40 for moved data
  ADDER[2].out[0], MULTIPLIER[2].out[0],
  SHIFTER[2].out[0], DIVIDER[2].out[0] -> BUS[16:19].in[0];
  MULTIPLIER[2].out[1], SHIFTER[2].out [1], DIVIDER[2].out [1] -> BUS[20:22].in[0];
  MOVER[2] .out[O] -> ( BUS[31].in[O], BUS[39].in[0] );
  // cluster 3 contains units 3 of each type
  // cluster 3 uses bus 24:30 for internal data, bus 31,41 for moved data
  ADDER[3].out[0], MULTIPLIER[3].out[0],
  SHIFTER[3].out[0], DIVIDER[3].out[0] -> BUS[24:27].in[0];
  MULTIPLIER[3] .out [1], SHIFTER[3] .out [1], DIVIDER[3].out [1] -> BUS[28:30].in[0];
  Mover[3] .out[0] \rightarrow (BUS[7].in[0], Bus[40].in[0]);
  // input units write to busses 32 - 37
  INPUTO[0].out[0] -> BUS[32].in[0];
  INPUT1[0].out[0] -> BUS[33].in[0];
  INPUT2[0].out[0] -> BUS[34].in[0];
  INPUT3[0] .out[0] -> BUS[35].in[0];
  INPUT4[0] .out[0] -> BUS[36].in[0];
  INPUT5[0] .out[0] -> BUS[37].in[O];
  INPUT6[0].out[0] -> BUS[42].in[0];INPUT7[0] .out[0] -> BUS[43].in[0];
// register file -> unit connections
  // cluster 0
  DATAREGFILE[0:8].out[0:0] -> ADDER[0].in[0:1], MULTIPLIER[0].in[0:1],
                               SHIFTER[0].in[0:1], DIVIDER[0].in[0:1], NOVER[0].in[0];// cluster 1
  DATAREGFILE[9:17].out[0:0] -> ADDER[1].in[0:1], MULTIPLIER[1].in[0:1],
                                SHIFTER[1] .in[0:1], DIVIDER[1] .in[0:1], MOVER[1] .in[0];
  // cluster 2
  DATAREGFILE[18:26].out[0:0] \rightarrow ADDER[2].in[0:1], MULTIPLIER[2].in[0:1],
                                 SHIFTER[2].in[0: 1], DIVIDER[2].in[0: 1], MOVER[2].in[0];
  // cluster 3
  DATAREGFILE[27:35].out[0:0] -> ADDER[3].in[0:1], MULTIPLIER[3].in[0:1],
                                 SHIFTER[3].in[0: 1], DIVIDER[3].in[0: 1], MOVER[3].in[0];
  OUTPUTREG [O].out [0] -> OUTPUTO [O].in [O];
  OUTPUTREG[1].out[0] -> OUTPUT1[0].in[0];
// network -> register file connections
  // cluster 0
```

```
( BUS [: 7] . out [0] , BUS [38] .out [0] ) -> ( DATAREGFILE[0:8] .in[0], OUTPUTREG [0: 1] . in [] );
  // cluster 1
  ( BUS [8:15] .out[0], BUS [39] . out[0] ) -> ( DATAREGFILE[9:17] .in[0], OUTPUTREG [O: 1] . in[O] );
  // cluster 2
  ( BUS[16:23].out[0], <math>BUS[40].out[0]) -> ( DATAREGFILE[18:26].in[0], <math>OUTPUTREG[0:1].in[0]</math>);
  // cluster 3
  ( BUS[24:31] .out[0], BUS[41] .out[0] ) -> ( DATAREGFILE[27:35] .in[O], OUTPUTREG[0:1] .in[O] );
  // global
  (BUS[32:37]. out [0], BUS[42:43].out [0]) -> (DATAREGFILE[0: 35]. in[0:0], OUTPUTREG[0: 1]. in[0]);
}
```
#### **D.4** cluster\_without move .md

```
cluster cluster_without_move
{
 unit ADDER
  {
    inputs[2];
    outputs [1];
    operations = (FADD, IADD32, IADD16, IADD8, UADD32, UADD16, UADD8,
                  FSUB, ISUB32, ISUB16, ISUB8, USUB32, USUB16, USUB8,
                  FABS, IABS32, IABS16, IABS8, IANDL32, IANDL16, IANDL8,
                  IORL32, IORL16, IORL8, IXORL32, IXORL16, IXORL8,
                  INOTL32, INOTL16, INOTL8,
                  FEQ, IEQ32, IEQ16, IEQ8, FNEQ, INEQ32, INEQ16, INEQ8,
                  FLT, ILT32, ILT16, ILT8, ULT32, ULT16, ULT8,
                  FLE, ILE32, ILE16, ILE8, ULE32, ULE16, ULE8,
                  ISELECT32, ISELECT16, ISELECT8, PASS,
                  IAND, IOR, IXOR, INOT, CCWRITE);
   latency = 2;pipelined = yes;
   area = 30;\}:
 unit MULTIPLIER
 {
   inputs[2] ;
   outputs[2] ;
   operations = (FMUL, IMUL32, IMUL16, IMUL8, UMUL32, UMUL16, UMUL8, PASS);
   latency = 3;
   pipelined = yes;
   area = 300;\} :
 unit SHIFTER
 {
   inputs[2];
   outputs[2] ;
   operations = (USHIFT32, USHIFT16, USHIFT8,
                  USHIFTF32, USHIFTF16, USHIFTF8,
                  USHIFTA32, USHIFTA16, USHIFTA8,
                  UROTATE32, UROTATE16, UROTATE8,
                  FNORMS, FNORMD, FALIGN, FTOI, ITOF, USHUFFLE, PASS);
   latency = 1;
   pipelined = yes;
   area = 200;
 \} :
 unit DIVIDER
 {
   inputs[2] ;
   outputs[2] ;
   operations = (FDIV, FSQRT, IDIV32, IDIV16, IDIV8, UDIV32, UDIV16, UDIV8);
   latency = 5;pipelined = no;
```

```
area = 300;
\};
unit MC
{
  inputs [0];
  outputs [0];
  operations = (COUNT, WHILE, STREAM, END);
  latency = 0;
  pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit INPUTO {
  inputs [0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (INO);
  latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit INPUT1 {
  inputs [0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (IN1);
  latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit INPUT2 {
  inputs[0];
  outputs[1];
  operations = (IN2);
  latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit INPUT3 {
  inputs [0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (IN3);
  latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit INPUT4 {
  inputs [0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (IN4);
  latency = 0;
```

```
pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;};
unit INPUT5 {
  inputs [0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (IN5);
  latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit INPUT6 {
  inputs [0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (IN6);
  latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit INPUT7 {
  inputs [0];
  outputs [1];
  operations = (IN7);
  latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit OUTPUTO {
  inputs [1];
  outputs [0];
  operations = (OUTO);
  latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
unit OUTPUT1 {
  inputs [1];
  outputs [0];
  operations = (OUTi);
  latency = 0;pipelined = yes;
  area = 0;\};
regfile OUTPUTREG
{
  inputs [1];
  outputs [1];
  size = 8;
```

```
area = 8;\}:
  regfile DATAREGFILE
  {
    inputs [1];
    outputs [1] ;
    size = 8;area = 64;
  \};
  ADDER[4],
  MULTIPLIER[4],
  SHIFTER[4],
  DIVIDER[4],
  INPUTO [1],
  INPUT1[1],INPUT2[1],INPUT3[1],INPUT4[1],
  INPUT5[1],
  INPUT6[1],
  INPUT7[1],
  OUTPUTO[I],
  OUTPUT1[1],
 MC[1] ,
  BUS[36] ,
  DATAREGFILE[32],
  OUTPUTREG[2];
// 7 busses per cluster, 7 for internal data x 4 clusters
// + 6 busses for input units = 34 busses total
// unit -> network connections
  // cluster 0 contains units 0 of each type
  // cluster 0 writes to bus 0:6, reads from 21:27
  ADDER[0].out[0], MULTIPLIER[0].out[0],
  SHIFTER[0].out [0], DIVIDER[O].out [0] -> BUS[0:3].in[O];
 MULTIPLIER[0].out[1], SHIFTER[0].out[1], DIVIDER[0].out[1] \rightarrow BUS[4:6].in[0];// cluster 1 contains units 1 of each type
  // cluster 1 writes to bus 7:13, reads from 0:6
  ADDER[1].out[0], MULTIPLIER[1].out[0],
  SHIFTER[1].out[0], DIVIDER[1].out[0] -> BUS[7:10].in[0];
 MULTIPLIER[l].out[1], SHIFTER[1].out[1], DIVIDER[1].out[1] -> BUS[11:13].in[0];
  // cluster 2 contains units 2 of each type
  // cluster 2 writes to bus 14:20, reads from 7:13
 ADDER[2] .out[O], MULTIPLIER[2] .out[0],
 SHIFTER[2].out[0], DIVIDER[2].out[0] -> BUS[14:17].in[0];
 MULTIPLIER[2].out [1], SHIFTER[2].out [1], DIVIDER[2].out [1] -> BUS[18:20].in[0];
 // cluster 3 contains units 3 of each type
 // cluster 3 writes to bus 21:27, reads from 14:20
 ADDER[3].out[O], MULTIPLIER[3].out[O],
```

```
SHIFTER[3].out[0], DIVIDER[3].out[0] -> BUS[21 :24].in[0];
  MULTIPLIER[3].out[1], SHIFTER[3].out[1], DIVIDER[3].out[1] \rightarrow BUS[25:27].in[0];
  // input units write to busses 28:33
  INPUTO[0].out[0] -> BUS[28].in[0];INPUT1[0].out[0] -> BUS[29].in[0];INPUT2[0].out[0] -> BUS[30].in[0];
  INPUT3[0].out[0] -> BUS[31].in[0];INPUT4[0].out[0] -> BUS[32].in[0];
  INPUT5[0].out[0] -> BUS[33].in[0];INPUT6[0].out[0] -> BUS[34].in[0];
  INPUT[0].out[0] -> BUS[35].in[0];
// register file -> unit connections
  // cluster 0
  DATAREGFILE[0:7].out[0:0] -> ADDER[0].in[0:1], MULTIPLIER[0].in[0:1],
                               SHIFTER[0].in[0:1], DIVIDER[0].in[0:1];// cluster 1
  DATAREGFILE[8:15].out[0:0] -> ADDER[1].in[0:1], MULTIPLIER[1].in[0:1],
                                SHIFTER[1].in[0:1], DIVIDER[1].in[0:1];
  // cluster 2
  DATAREGFILE[16:23].out[0:0] -> ADDER[2].in[0:1], MULTIPLIER[2].in[0:1],
                                 SHIFTER[2].in[0:1], DIVIDER[2].in[0:1];// cluster 3
  DATAREGFILE[24:31].out[0:0] -> ADDER[3].in[0:1], MULTIPLIER[3].in[0:1],
                                 SHIFTER[3].in[0:1], DIVIDER[3].in[0:1];OUTPUTREG [0].out [0] -> OUTPUTO [0].in [0];
  OUTPUTREG[1].out[0] -> OUTPUT1[0].in[0];
// network -> register file connections
  // cluster 0
  ( BUS[21:27] .out[O], BUS[7:13] .out[0] ) -> (DATAREGFILE[0:7] .in[0],OUTPUTREG[0:1] .in[0]);
  // cluster 1
  ( BUS[0:6] .out[0], BUS[14:20].out[0] ) -> (DATAREGFILE[8:15] .in[0],OUTPUTREG[0:1] .in[0]);
  // cluster 2
  ( BUS[7:13].out[0], BUS[21:27].out[0] ) -> (DATAREGFILE[16:23].in[0],OUTPUTREG[0:1].in[0]);
  // cluster 3
  ( BUS[14:20] .out[O], BUS[0:6] .out[0] ) -> (DATAREGFILE[24:31] .in[0],OUTPUTREG[0:1].in[0]);
 // global
  ( BUS[28:35].out[0] ) -> ( DATAREGFILE[0:31].in[0:0] , OUTPUTREG[0:1].in[0] );
}
```
## **Appendix E**

# **Experimental Data**



### **E.1 Annealing Experiments**


































## **E.2 Aggregate Move Experiments**





## **E.3 Pass Node Experiments**









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