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Technical Report No. UCB/EECS-2016-130
http://www.eecs.berkeley.edu/Pubs/TechRpts/2016/EECS-2016-130.html

July 8, 2016
Acknowledgement

The authors would like to thank Scott Beamer, Brian Case, David Ditzel, and Eric Love for their valuable feedback. Research partially funded by DARPA Award Number HR0011-12-2-0016, the Center for Future Architecture Research, a member of STARnet, a Semiconductor Research Corporation program sponsored by MARCO and DARPA, and ASPIRE Lab industrial sponsors and affiliates Intel, Google, HPE, Huawei, LGE, Nokia, NVIDIA, Oracle, and Samsung. Any opinions, findings, conclusions, or recommendations in this paper are solely those of the authors and does not necessarily reflect the position or the policy of the sponsors.
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Abstract—This report makes the case that a well-designed Reduced Instruction Set Computer (RISC) can match, and even exceed, the performance and code density of existing commercial Complex Instruction Set Computers (CISC) while maintaining the simplicity and cost-effectiveness that underpins the original RISC goals [12].

We begin by comparing the dynamic instruction counts and dynamic instruction bytes fetched for the popular proprietary ARMv7, ARMv8, IA-32, and x86-64 Instruction Set Architectures (ISAs) against the free and open RISC-V RV64G and RV64GC ISAs when running the SPEC CINT2006 benchmark suite. RISC-V was designed as a very small ISA to support a wide range of implementations, and has a less mature compiler toolchain. However, we observe that on SPEC CINT2006 RV64G executes on average 16% more instructions than x86-64, 3% more instructions than IA-32, 9% more instructions than ARMv8, but 4% fewer instructions than ARMv7.

CISC x86 implementations break up complex instructions into smaller internal RISC-like micro-ops, and the RV64G instruction count is within 2% of the x86-64 retired macro-op count. RV64GC, the compressed variant of RV64G, is the densest ISA studied, fetching 8% fewer dynamic instruction bytes than x86-64. We observed that much of the increased RISC-V instruction count is due to a small set of common multi-instruction idioms. Exploiting this fact, the RV64G and RV64GC effective instruction count can be reduced by 5.4% on average by leveraging macro-op fusion. Combining the compressed RISC-V ISA extension with macro-op fusion provides both the densest ISA and the fewest dynamic operations retired per program, reducing the motivation to add more instructions to the ISA. This approach retains a single simple ISA suitable for both low-end and high-end implementations, where high-end implementations can boost performance through microarchitectural techniques.

Compiler tool chains are a continual work-in-progress, and the results shown are a snapshot of the state as of July 2016 and are subject to change.

I. INTRODUCTION

The Instruction Set Architecture (ISA) specifies the set of instructions that a processor must understand and the expected effects of each instruction. One of the goals of the RISC-V project was to produce an ISA suitable for a wide range of implementations from tiny microcontrollers to the largest supercomputers [14]. Hence, RISC-V was designed with a much smaller number of simple standard instructions compared to other popular ISAs, including other RISC-inspired ISAs. A simple ISA is clearly a benefit for a small resource-constrained microcontroller, but how much performance is lost for high-performance implementations by not supporting the numerous instruction variants provided by popular proprietary ISAs?

A casual observer might argue that a processor’s performance increases when it executes fewer instructions for a given program, but in reality, the performance is more accurately described by the Iron Law of Performance [8]: \[ \text{seconds} = \frac{\text{cycles}}{\text{instruction}} \times \frac{\text{seconds}}{\text{instruction}} \times \text{cycles} \]

The ISA is just an abstract boundary; behind the scenes the processor may choose to implement instructions in any number of ways that trade off cycles, or CPI, and frequency.

For example, a fairly powerful x86 instruction is the repeat move instruction (rep movs), which copies C bytes of data from one memory location to another:

```c
for (i=0; i < C; i++)
  d[i] = s[i];
```

Implementations of the x86 ISA break up the repeat move instruction into smaller operations, or micro-ops, that individually perform the required operations of loading the data from the old location, storing the data to the new location, incrementing the address pointers, and checking to see if the end condition has been met. Therefore, a raw comparison of instruction counts may hide a significant amount of work and complexity to execute a particular benchmark.

In contrast to the process of generating many micro-ops from a single ISA instruction, several commercial microprocessors perform macro-op fusion, where several ISA instructions are fused in the decode stage and handled as one internal operation. As an example, compare-and-branch is a very commonly executed idiom, and the RISC-V ISA includes a full register-register magnitude comparison in its branch instructions. However, both ARM and x86 typically require two ISA instructions to specify a compare-and-branch. The first instruction performs the comparison and sets a condition code, and the second instruction performs the jump-on-condition-code. While it would seem that ARM and x86 would have a penalty of one additional instruction on nearly every loop compared to RISC-V, the reality is more complicated. Both ARM and Intel employ the technique of macro-op fusion, in which the processor front-end detects these two-instruction compare-and-branch sequences in the instruction stream and “fuses” them together into a single macro-op, which can then be handled as a single compare-and-branch instruction by the processor back-end to reduce the effective dynamic instruction count [1].

1The reality can be even more complicated. Depending on the micro-architecture, the front-end may fuse the two instructions together to save decode, allocation, and commit bandwidth, but break them apart in the execution pipeline for critical path or complexity reasons [6].

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In contrast to the process of generating many micro-ops from a single ISA instruction, several commercial microprocessors perform macro-op fusion, where several ISA instructions are fused in the decode stage and handled as one internal operation. As an example, compare-and-branch is a very commonly executed idiom, and the RISC-V ISA includes a full register-register magnitude comparison in its branch instructions. However, both ARM and x86 typically require two ISA instructions to specify a compare-and-branch. The first instruction performs the comparison and sets a condition code, and the second instruction performs the jump-on-condition-code. While it would seem that ARM and x86 would have a penalty of one additional instruction on nearly every loop compared to RISC-V, the reality is more complicated. Both ARM and Intel employ the technique of macro-op fusion, in which the processor front-end detects these two-instruction compare-and-branch sequences in the instruction stream and “fuses” them together into a single macro-op, which can then be handled as a single compare-and-branch instruction by the processor back-end to reduce the effective dynamic instruction count [1].

1 The reality can be even more complicated. Depending on the micro-architecture, the front-end may fuse the two instructions together to save decode, allocation, and commit bandwidth, but break them apart in the execution pipeline for critical path or complexity reasons [6].
Macro-op fusion is a very powerful technique to lower the effective instruction count. One of the main contributions of this report is to show that macro-op fusion, in combination with the existing compressed instruction set extensions for RISC-V, can provide the effect of a richer instruction set for RISC-V without requiring any ISA extensions, thus enabling support for both low-end implementations and high-end implementations from a single simple common code base. The resulting ISA design can provide both a low number of effective instructions executed and a low number of dynamic instruction bytes fetched.

II. METHODOLOGY

In this section, we describe the benchmark suite and methodology used to obtain dynamic instruction counts, dynamic instruction bytes, and effective instructions executed for the ISAs under consideration.

A. SPEC CINT2006

We used the SPEC CINT2006 benchmark suite for comparing the different ISAs. SPECInt2006 is composed of 35 different workloads across 12 different benchmarks with a focus on desktop and workstation-class applications such as compilation, simulation, decoding, and artificial intelligence. These applications are largely CPU-intensive with working sets of tens of megabytes and a required total memory usage of less than 2 GB.

B. GCC Compiler

We used GCC for all targets as it is widely used and the only compiler available for all systems. Vendor-specific compilers will surely provide different results, but we did not analyze them here. All benchmarks were compiled using the latest GNU gcc 5.3 with the parameters shown in Table I. The 400.perlbench benchmark requires specifying -std=gnu98 to compile under gcc 5.3. We used the Speckle suite to compile and execute SPECInt using reference inputs to completion. The benchmarks were compiled statically to make it easier to analyze the binaries. Unless otherwise specified, data was collected using the perf utility while running the benchmarks on native hardware.

C. RISC-V RV64

The RISC-V ISA is a free and open ISA produced by the University of California, Berkeley and first released in 2010. For this report, we will use the standard RISC-V RV64G ISA variant, which contains all ISA extensions for executing 64-bit “general-purpose” code. We will also explore the “C” Standard Extension for Compressed Instructions (RVC). All instructions in RV64G are 4-bytes in size, however, the C extension adds 2-byte forms of the most common instructions. The resulting RV64GC ISA is very dense, both statically and dynamically.

We cross-compiled RV64G and RV64GC benchmarks using the compiler settings shown in Table I. The RV64GC benchmarks were built using a compressed glibc library. The benchmarks were then executed using the spike ISA simulator running on top of Linux version 3.14, which was compiled against version 1.7 of the RISC-V privileged ISA. A side-channel process grabbed the retired instruction count at the beginning and end of each workload. We did not analyze RV32G, as there does not yet exist an RV32 port of the Linux operating system.

For the 483.xalancbmk benchmark, 34% of the RISC-V instruction count is taken up by an OS kernel spin-loop waiting on the test-harness I/O. These instructions are an artifact of our testing infrastructure and were removed from any further analysis.

D. ARMv7

The 32-bit ARMv7 benchmarks were compiled and executed on an Samsung Exynos 5250 (Cortex A-15). The march=native flag resolves to the ARMv7e ISA and the mtune=native flag resolves to the cortex-a15 processor.

E. ARMv8

The 64-bit ARMv8 benchmarks were compiled and executed on a Snapdragon 410c (Cortex A-53). The march flag was set to the ARMv8-a ISA and the mtune flag was set to the cortex-a53 processor. The errata flags for -mfix-cortex-a53-835769 and -mfix-cortex-a53-843419 are set. The 1 GB of RAM on the 410c board is not sufficient to run some of the workloads from 401.bzip2, 403.gcc, and 429.mcf. To manage this issue, we used a swapfile to provide access to a larger pool of memory and only measured user-level instruction counts for the problematic workloads.

F. IA-32

The architecture targeted is the i686 architecture and was compiled and executed on an Intel Xeon E5-2667v2 (Ivy Bridge).

G. x86-64

The x86-64 benchmarks were compiled and executed on an Intel Xeon E5-2667v2 (Ivy Bridge). The march flag resolves to the Ivybridge ISA.

H. Instruction Count Histogram Collection

Histograms of the instruction counts for RV64G, RV64GC, and x86-64 were collected allowing us to more easily compare the hot loops across ISAs. We were also able to compute the dynamic instruction bytes by cross-referencing the histogram data with the static objdump data. x86-64 histograms were collected by writing a histogram-building tool for the Intel Pin dynamic binary translation tool. Histograms for RV64G and RV64GC were collected using an existing histogram tool built into the RISC-V spike ISA simulator.
I. SIMD ISA Extensions

Although a vector extension is planned for RISC-V, there is no existing vector facility. To compare against the scalar RV64G ISA, we verified that the ARM and x86 code were compiled in a manner that generally avoided generating any SIMD or vector instructions for the SPECInt2006 benchmarks. An analysis of the x86-64 histograms showed that, with the exception of the memset routine in 403.gcc and a strcmp routine in 471.omnetpp, no SSE instructions were generated that appeared in the 80% most executed instructions.

To further reinforce this conclusion, we built a gcc and glibc x86-64 toolchain that explicitly forbade MMX and AVX extensions. Vectorization analysis was also disabled. The resulting instruction counts for SPECInt2006 were virtually unchanged.

Although the MMX and AVX extensions may be disabled in gcc, it is not possible to disable SSE instruction generation as it is a mandatory part of the x86-64 floating point ABI. However, we note that the only significant usage of SSE instructions were 128-bit SSE stores found in the memset routine in 403.gcc (≈20%) and a very small usage (<2%) of packed SIMD found in strcmp in 471.omnetpp.

III. RESULTS

All comparisons between ISAs in this report are based on the geometric mean across the 12 SPECInt2006 benchmarks.

A. Instruction Counts

TABLE I: Compiler options for gcc 5.3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ISA</th>
<th>compiler</th>
<th>flags</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RV64G</td>
<td>riscv64-unknown-gnu-linux-g++</td>
<td>-O3 -static</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RV64GC</td>
<td>riscv64-unknown-gnu-linux-g++</td>
<td>-O3 -nrvc -mno-save-restore -static</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IA-32</td>
<td>g+++5</td>
<td>-O3 -m32 -march=ivybridge -mtune=native -static</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x86-64</td>
<td>g+++5</td>
<td>-O3 -march=ivybridge -mtune=native -static</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARMv7ve</td>
<td>g++</td>
<td>-O3 -march=armv7ve -mtune=cortex-a15 -static</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ARMv8-a</td>
<td>g+++5</td>
<td>-O3 -march=armv8-a -mtune=cortex-a53 -static</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Figure 1 (and Table II), RV64G executes 16% more instructions than x86-64, 3% more instructions than ARMv8, and 4% fewer instructions than ARMv7. The raw instruction counts can be found in Figure V.

B. Micro-op Counts

The number of x86-64 retired micro-ops was also collected and is reported in Figure I. On average, the Intel Ivy Bridge processor used in this study emitted 1.14 micro-ops per x86-64 instruction, which puts the RV64G instruction count within 2% of the x86-64 retired micro-op count.

C. Dynamic Instruction Bytes

TABLE III: Total dynamic bytes normalized to x86-64.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>benchmark</th>
<th>x86-64</th>
<th>ARMv7</th>
<th>ARMv8</th>
<th>RV64G</th>
<th>RV64GC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>400.perlbench</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>401.bzip2</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>403.gcc</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>429.mcf</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>445.gobmk</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>456.hmmer</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>458.sjeng</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>462.libquantum</td>
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<td>1.90</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>464.h264ref</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>471.omnetpp</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>473.astar</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>483.xalancbmk</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>geomean</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The total dynamic instruction bytes fetched is reported in Figure 2 (and Table III). RV64G, with its fixed 4-byte instruction size, fetches 23% more bytes per program than x86-64. Unexpectedly, x86-64 is not very dense, averaging 3.71 bytes per instruction (with a standard deviation of 0.34 bytes). Like RV64G, both ARMv7 and ARMv8 use a fixed 4-byte instruction size.

Using the RISC-V “C” Compressed ISA extension, RV64GC fetches 8% fewer dynamic instruction bytes relative to x86-64, with an average of 3.00 bytes per instruction. There are only three benchmarks (401.bzip2, 403.gcc, 464.h264ref) where RV64GC fetches more dynamic bytes than x86-64, and two of those three benchmarks make heavy use of memset and memcpy. RV64GC also fetches considerably fewer bytes than either ARMv7 or ARMv8.

IV. DISCUSSION

We discuss briefly the three outliers where RISC-V performs poorly, as well as general trends observed across all of the
Fig. 1: The total dynamic instruction count is shown for each of the ISAs, normalized to the x86-64 instruction count. The x86-64 retired micro-op count is also shown to provide a comparison between x86-64 instructions and the actual operations required to execute said instructions. By leveraging macro-op fusion (in which some common multi-instruction idioms are combined into a single operation), the “effective” instruction count for RV64GC can be reduced by 5.4%.

Fig. 2: Total dynamic bytes normalized to x86-64. RV64G, ARMv7, and ARMv8 use fixed 4 byte instructions. x86-64 is a variable-length ISA and for SPECInt averages 3.71 bytes / instruction. RV64GC uses two byte forms of the most common instructions allowing it to average 3.00 bytes / instruction.

benchmarks for RISC-V code. A more detailed analysis of the individual benchmarks can be found in the Appendix.

401.bzip2: Array indexing is implemented using unsigned int (32-bit) variables. This represents a case of poor coding style, as the C code should have been written to use the standard size_t type to allow portability to different address widths. Because RV64G lacks unsigned arithmetic operations on sub-register-width types, and the RV64G ABI behavior is to sign-extend all 32-bit values into signed 64-bit registers, a two-instruction idiom is required to clear the upper 32-bits when compiler analysis cannot guarantee that the high-order bits are not zero.

403.gcc: 30% of the RISC-V instruction count is taken up by a memset loop. x86-64 utilizes a movdqa instruction (aligned double quad-word move, i.e., a 128-bit store) and a four-way unrolled loop to move 64 bytes in 7 instructions versus RV64G’s 4 instructions to move 16 bytes.

464.h264ref: 25% of the RISC-V instruction count is taken up by a memcpy loop. Those 21 RV64G instructions together account for 1.1 trillion fetches, compared to a single x86-64 “repeat move” instruction that is executed 450 billion times.

Remaining benchmarks
Consistent themes of the remaining benchmarks are as follows:
- RISC-V’s fused compare-and-branch instruction allows it to execute typical loops using one less instruction compared to the ARM and x86 ISAs, both of which separate out the comparison and the jump-on-condition
Fig. 3: Cumulative distribution function for the 100 most frequent RISC-V instructions of each of the 35 SPECInt workloads. Each line corresponds to one of the 35 SPECInt workloads. Some SPECInt benchmarks only have one workload. A (*) marker denotes the start of a new contiguous instruction sequence (that ends with a taken branch).
into two distinct instructions.

- Indexed loads are an extremely common idiom. Although x86-64 and ARM implement indexed loads (register-register addressing mode) as a single instruction, RISC-V requires up to three instructions to emulate the same behavior.

In summary, when RISC-V is using fewer instructions relative to other ISAs, the code likely contains a significant number of branches. When RISC-V is using more instructions, it is often due to a significant number of indexed memory operations, unsigned integer array indexing, or library routines such as memcpy or memset.

We note that both memcpy and memset are ideal candidates for vectorization, and that some of the other indexed memory operations can be subsumed into vector memory load and store instructions when the RISC-V vector extension becomes available. However, in this report we focus on making improvements to a purely scalar RISC-V implementation.

V. A Devil’s Argument: Add Indexed Loads to RISC-V?

The indexed load is a common idiom for array[offset]. Given the data discussed previously, it is tempting to ponder the addition of indexed loads to RISC-V.

```c
// rd = array[offset]
// where rs1 = & (array), rs2 = offset
add rd, rs1, rs2
ld rd, 0(rd)
```

A simple indexed load fulfills a number of requirements of a RISC instruction:

- reads two source registers
- writes one destination register
- performs only one memory operation
- fits into a 4-byte instruction
- has the same side-effects as the existing load instruction

This is a common instruction in other ISAs. For example, ARM calls this a “load with register offset” and includes a small shift to scale the offset register into a data-type aligned offset:

```c
// if (cond) Rt = mem[Rn +/- (Rm << shift)]
LDR(type{cond}) Rt, [Rn +/- Rm{|, shift}]
```

ARM also includes post- and pre-indexed versions that increment the base address register which requires an additional write port on the register file.

The x86 ISA provides indexed loads that include both the scaling shift and an immediate offset:

```c
// rsi = mem[rdx + rax*n + b]
mov b(%rdx,%rax,n),%rsi
```

VI. The Angelic Response: Use Macro-op Fusion!

While the indexed load is perhaps a compelling addition to a RISC ISA, the same effect can be obtained using the RISC-V “C” Compressed Extension (RVC) coupled with macro-op fusion. Given the usage of RVC, the indexed load idiom in RISC-V becomes a two-×two-byte instruction sequence. This sequence can be fused in the processor front-end to effect the same outcome as having added 4-byte indexed loads to RISC-V proper.

There are other reasons to eschew indexed loads in the ISA. First, it would be odd to not maintain symmetry by also adding an indexed store instruction. Indeed, the gcc compiler assumes that loads and stores utilize the same addressing modes. Unfortunately, while indexed loads can be quite simple and cheap, indexed stores require a third register read port to access the store data. For RISC-V, indexed stores would be the first and only three-opand integer instruction.

The rest of this section will explore macro-op fusion and measure the potential reduction in “effective” instruction counts.

A. Fusion Pair Candidates

The following idioms are additional good candidates for macro-op fusion. Note that for macro-op fusion to take place, the first instruction’s destination register must be clobbered by the subsequent instruction in the idiom such that only a single architectural register write is observed. Also note that the RVC compressed ISA is not necessary to utilize macro-op fusion: a pair of 4-byte instructions (or even a 2-byte and a 4-byte pair) can be fused with the same benefits.

Load Effective Address (LEA)

The LEA idiom computes the effective address of a memory location and places the address into a register. The typical use-case is an array offset that is 1) shifted to a data-aligned offset and then 2) added to the array’s base address.

```c
// & (array[offset])
slli rd, rs1, {1,2,3}
add rd, rd, rs2
```

Indexed Load

The Indexed Load idiom loads data from an address computed by summing two registers.

```c
// rd = array[offset]
add rd, rs1, rs2
ld rd, 0(rd)
```

This pattern can be combined with the LEA idiom to form a single three-instruction fused indexed load:

2 Despite the claims that ARM is a RISC ISA (it’s literally the ‘R’ in their name, after all!), ARM’s load with register offset (LDR) is just one example of how CISC-y ARM can be. The LDR with pre/post-indexing instruction can be masked off by a condition, it can perform up to two separate memory loads to two different registers, it can modify the base address source register, and it can throw exceptions. Better yet, LDR can write to the PC register in ARMv7 (and earlier) and thus turn the LDR into a (conditional) branch instruction that can even change the ISA mode! In other words, a single post-indexed LDR instruction using the stack pointer as the base address and writing to multiple registers, one of which is the PC, can be used to implement a stack-pop and return from function call.

3 The Intel i860 [10] took the asymmetric approach of only adding register indexing to loads and only supporting post-increment addressing for stores and floating-point memory operations.
Clear Upper Word

The Clear Upper Word idiom zeros the upper 32-bits of a 64-bit register. This often occurs when software is written using unsigned int as an array index variable; the compiler must clear the upper word to avoid potential overflow issues.

```c
// rd = rsi & 0xffffffff
slli rd, rsi, 32

// rd = rsi & 0xffffffff
slli rd, rsi, 32
srli rd, rd, 32
```

We also measure the occurrences of the Clear Upper Word idiom followed by a small left shift by a few bits for aligning the register to a particular data offset size, which appears as follows in assembly code:

```assembly
slli rd, rsi, 32
srli rd, rd, (29,30,31,32)
```

Load Immediate Idioms (LUI-based idioms)

The load upper immediate (LUI) instruction is used to help construct immediate values that are larger than the typical 12 bits available to most RISC-V instructions. There are two particular idioms worth discussing. The first loads a 32-bit immediate into a register:

```assembly
// rd = imm[31:0]
lui rd, imm[31:12]
addi rd, rd, imm[11:0]
```

Although the most common form is LUI/ADDI, it is perfectly reasonable to fuse any integer register-immediate instruction that follows a LUI instruction.

The second LUI-based idiom loads a value in memory statically addressed by a 32-bit immediate:

```assembly
// rd = *(imm[31:0])
lui rd, imm[31:12]
ld rd, imm[11:0](rd)
```

Both of these LUI-based idioms are fairly trivial additions to any RISC pipeline. However, we note that their appearance is SPECInt is less than 1% and so we do not explore them further in this report.

Load Global (and other AUIPC-based idioms)

The AUIPC instruction adds an immediate to the current PC address. Although similar to the use of the LUI instruction, AUIPC allows for accessing data at arbitrary locations.

```assembly
// ld rd, symbol[31:0]
auipc rd, symbol[31:12]
```

AUIPC is also used for jumping to routines more than 1 MB in distance (AUIPC+JALR). However, the AUIPC instruction is executed incredibly rarely in SPECInt2006 given our compiler options in Table I and so AUIPC idioms are not explored in this report. They will occur more frequently in dynamically linked code.

We note also that the RISC-V manual for the “M” multiply-divide extension already indicates several idioms for multiply/divide instruction pairings to enable microarchitectural fusing for wide multiplies, to return both high and low words of a product in one multiply, and for division, to return both quotient and remainder from one division operation.

B. Results of Macro-op Fusion

Using the histogram counts and disassembly data from RV64GC executions, we computed the number of macro-op fusion opportunities available to RISC-V processors. This was a two-step process. The first step was to automatically parse the instruction loops for fusion pairs. However, as the RISC-V gcc compiler is not aware of macro-op fusion, this automated process only finds macro-op fusion pairs that exist serendipitously. The second step was to manually analyze the 80% most-executed loops of all 35 workloads for any remaining macro-op fusion opportunities. The typical scenario involved the compiler splitting apart potential fusion pairs with an unrelated instruction or allocating a destination register that failed to clobber the side-effect of the first instruction in the idiom pair. This latter scenario required verifying that a clobber could have been safely performed:

```
1 add a4, a4, a5
2 ld a3, 0(a4)
3 li a4, 1
```

Code 1: A potential macro-op fusion opportunity from 403.gcc ruined by oblivious register allocation. As the ld is the last reader of a4 it can safely clobber it.

As 57% of fusion pairs were found via the manual process, compiler optimizations will be required to take full advantage of macro-op fusion in RISC-V.

Figure 1 shows the results of RV64GC macro-op fusion relative to the other ISA instruction counts. Macro-op fusion enables a 5.4% reduction in effective instructions, allowing RV64GC to execute 4.2% fewer operations relative to x86-64’s micro-op count.

Table IV shows the breakdown of the different SPECInt2006 workloads and the profitability of different idioms. Although macro-op fusion provides an average of 5.4% reduction in effective instructions (in other words, 10.8% of instructions are part of a fusion pair), the variance between benchmarks is significant: half of the benchmarks exhibit less than 2% reduction while three experience a roughly 10% reduction and 401.bzip2 experiences a nearly 20% reduction.

C. A Design Proposal: Adding Macro-op Fusion to the Berkeley Rocket in-order core

Macro-op fusion is not only a technique for high-performance super-scalar cores. Even single-issue cores with no compressed ISA support like the RV64GC 5-stage Rocket processor can benefit. To support macro-op fusion, Rocket
can be modified to fetch and decode up to two 4-byte instructions every cycle. If fusion is possible, the two instructions are passed down the pipeline as a single macro-op and the PC is incremented by 8 to fetch the next two instructions. In this manner, Rocket could reduce the latency of some idioms and effectively execute fewer instructions by fusing them in the decode stage.

Handling exceptions will require some care. If the second instruction in a fusion pair causes an exception, the trap must be taken with the result of the first instruction visible in the architectural register file. This may be fairly straightforward for many micro-architectures such as Rocket - the value to be written back to the destination register can be changed to the intermediate value and the Exception Program Counter can be pointed to the second instruction. However, some implementations may find it easier to re-execute the pair in a “don’t fuse” mode to achieve the correct behavior.

**D. Additional RISC-V Macro-op Fusion Pairs**

Although we only explore three fusion pairs in this report (as they should be relatively trivial – and profitable – for virtually all RISC-V pipelines), there are a number of other macro-op fusion pairs whose profitability will depend on the specific micro-architecture and benchmarks. A few are briefly discussed in this section.

**Wide Multiply/Divide & Remainder**

Given two factors of size xen, a multiply operation generates a product of size \(2 \times xlen\). In RISC-V, two separate instructions are required to get the full \(2 \times xlen\) of the product - MULH and MUL (to get the high-order \(xlen\) bits and the lower-order \(xlen\) bits separately).

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{MULH}[SU] & \quad \text{rdh, rs1, rs2} \\
\text{MUL} & \quad \text{rdl, rs1, rs2}
\end{align*}
\]

In fact, the RISC-V user-level manual also explicitly recommends this sequence as a fusion pair. Likewise, the RISC-V user-level manual also recommends fusing divide/remainder instructions:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{DIV[U]} & \quad \text{rdq, rs1, rs2} \\
\text{REM[U]} & \quad \text{rdq, rs1, rs2}
\end{align*}
\]

**Load-pair/Store-pair**

ARMv8 uses load-pair/store-pair to read from (or write to) up to 128 contiguous bits in memory into (or from) two separate registers in a single instruction. This can be re-created in RISC-V by fusing back-to-back loads (or stores) that read (or write) to contiguous addresses in memory. Note that this can still be fused in decode as the address of the load does not need to be known, only that the pair of loads read the same base register and their immediates differ only by the size of the memory operation:

\[
\begin{align*}
// & \quad \text{ldpair rd1, rd2, [imm(rs1)]} \\
\text{ld} & \quad \text{rd1, imm(rs1)} \\
\text{ld} & \quad \text{rd2, imm+8(rs1)}
\end{align*}
\]

As load-double is available in RVC, the common case of moving 128-bits can be performed by a single fused 4-byte sequence. To make the pairing even easier to detect, RVC also contains loads and stores that implicitly use the stack pointer as the common base address. In fact, register save/restore sequences are the dominant case of the load/store multiple idiom.

As discussed in Section VII, load-pair instructions are not cheap - they require two write-ports on the register file. Likewise, store-pair instructions require three read-ports. In addition to the register file costs, processors with complex load/store units may suffer from additional complexity.

**Post-indexed Memory Operations**

Post-indexed memory operations allow for a single instruction to perform a load (or store) from a memory address and then to increment the register holding the base memory address.

\[
\begin{align*}
// & \quad \text{ldia rd, imm(rs1)} \\
\text{ld} & \quad \text{rd, imm(rs1)} \\
\text{add} & \quad \text{rs1, rs1, 8}
\end{align*}
\]

A couple of things are worth noting. First, both instructions are compressible, allowing this fusion pair to typically fit into a single 4-byte sequence. Second, two write-ports are required for post-indexed loads, making this fusion not profitable for all micro-architectures.

**VII. ARMv8 Micro-op Discussion**

As shown in Figure 1, the ARMv8 gcc compiler emits 9% fewer instructions than RV64G. However, the ARMv8 instruction count is not necessarily an accurate measure of the amount of “work” an ARMv8-compatible processor must perform. ARMv8 is implemented on a wide range of micro-architectures; each design may make different decisions on how to map the ARMv8 ISA to its particular pipeline. The
TABLE V: ARMv8 memory instruction counts. Data is shown for normal loads (ld), loads with increment addressing (ldia), load-pairs (ldp), and load-pairs with increment addressing (ldpia). Data is also shown for the corresponding stores. Many of these instructions are likely candidates to be broken up into micro-op sequences when executed on a processor pipeline. For example, ldia and ldp require two write ports and the ldpia instruction requires three register write ports.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>benchmark</th>
<th>% of total ARMv8 instruction count</th>
<th>ld</th>
<th>ldia</th>
<th>ldp</th>
<th>ldpia</th>
<th>st</th>
<th>stia</th>
<th>stp</th>
<th>stpia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>400.perlbench</td>
<td>18.18 0.06 3.87 1.02</td>
<td>6.14</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>401.bzip2</td>
<td>22.85 1.71 0.53 0.02</td>
<td>8.28</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>403.gcc</td>
<td>16.80 0.11 2.89 1.04</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>429.mcf</td>
<td>26.61 0.01 3.21 0.07</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>445.gobmk</td>
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<td>6.14</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>456.hmmer</td>
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<td>13.75</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>458.sjeng</td>
<td>17.37 0.00 1.30 0.26</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>462.libquantum</td>
<td>14.00 0.00 0.15 0.06</td>
<td>1.85</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>464.h264ref</td>
<td>28.36 0.01 6.61 1.85</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>5.91</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>471.omnetpp</td>
<td>19.16 0.45 2.56 1.55</td>
<td>8.43</td>
<td>1.54</td>
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<td>473.astar</td>
<td>24.08 0.01 0.84 0.15</td>
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<tr>
<td>483.xalancbmk</td>
<td>20.94 4.84 1.82 0.68</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>0.67</td>
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<td>0.67</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arithmetic mean</td>
<td>20.09 0.09 2.16 0.62</td>
<td>5.39</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fig. 4: The geometric mean of the instruction counts of the twelve SPECInt benchmarks is shown for each of the ISAs, normalized to x86-64. The x86-64 micro-op count is reported from the micro-architectural counters on an Intel Ivy Bridge processor. The RV64GC macro-op count was collected as described in Section VI-B. The ARMv8 micro-op count was synthetically created by breaking up load-increment-address, load-pair, and load-pair-increment-address into multiple micro-ops.

Cortex-A53 processor used in this report does not provide a retired micro-op counter, so we must make an educated guess as to how a reasonable ARMv8 processor would break each ISA instruction into micro-ops.

Figure 4 shows a summary of the total dynamic instruction count of the different ISAs, as well as the effective operation counts of x86-64, RV64GC, and our best guess towards the ARMv8 micro-op count. To generate our synthetic ARMv8 micro-op count, we assumed that any instruction that writes multiple registers would be broken down into additional micro-ops (one micro-op per register write-back destination).

Table V provides the details behind our synthetic ARMv8 micro-op count. We first chose a set of ARMv8 instructions that are likely candidates for being broken up into multiple micro-ops. In particular, ARMv8 supports memory operations with increment addressing modes and load-pair/store-pair instructions. Two write-ports are required for the load-pair instruction (ldp) and for loads with increment addressing (ldia), while three write-ports are required for load-pair with increment addressing (ldpia). We then modified the QEMU ARMv8 ISA simulator to count these instructions that are likely candidates for generating multiple micro-ops.

Although we show the breakdown of all load and store instructions in Table V we assume for Figure 1 that only ldia, ldp, and ldpia increase the micro-op count for our hypothetical ARMv8 processor. Cracking these instructions into multiple micro-ops leads to an average increase of 4.09% in the operation count for ARMv8. As a comparison, the Cortex-A72 out-of-order processor is reported to emit “less than 1.1 micro-ops” per instruction and breaks down “move-and-branch” and “load/store-multiple” into multiple micro-ops.

We note that it is possible to “brute-force” these ARMv8 instructions and handle them as a single operation within the processor backend. Many ARMv8 integer instructions require three read ports, so it is likely that most (if not all) ARMv8 cores will pay the area overhead of a third read port for the complex store instructions. Likewise, they can pay the cost to add a second (or even third) write port to natively support the load-pair and increment addressing modes. Of course, there is nothing that prevents a RISC-V core from taking on this complexity, adding the additional register ports, and using macro-op fusion to emulate the same complex idioms that ARMv8 has chosen to declare at the ISA level.

VIII. RECOMMENDATIONS

A number of lessons can be learned from analyzing RISC-V’s performance on SPECInt.
A. Programmers

Although it is not legal to modify SPEC for benchmarking, an analysis of its hot loops highlight a few coding idioms that can hurt performance on RISC-V (and often other) platforms.

- Avoid unsigned 32-bit integers for array indices. The size_t type should be used for array indexing and loop counting.
- Avoid multi-dimensional arrays if the sizes are known and fixed. Each additional dimension in the array is an extra level of indirection in C, which is another load from memory.
- C standard aliasing rules can prevent the compiler from making optimizations that are otherwise “obvious” to the programmer. For example, you may need to manually ‘lift’ code out of a loop that returns the same value every iteration.
- Use the -fno-tree-loop-if-convert flag to gcc to disable a problematic optimization pass that generates poor code.
- Profile your code. An extra, unnecessary instruction in a hot loop can have dramatic effects on performance.

B. Compiler Writers

Table IV shows that a significant amount of potential macro-op fusion opportunities exist, but relying on serendipity leaves over half of the performance on the table. Any pursuit of macro-op fusion in a RISC-V processor will require modifying the compiler to increase the amount of fuse-able pairs in compiler-generated code.

The good news is that the gcc compiler already supports an instruction scheduling hook for macro-op fusion. However, macro-op fusion also requires a different register allocation scheme that aggressively overwrites registers once they are no longer live, as shown in Code 1.

Finally, there will always be more opportunities to improve the code scheduling. In at least one critical benchmark (462.libquantum), store data generation was lifted outside of an inner branch and executed every iteration, despite the actual store being gated off by the condition and rarely executed. That one change would reduce the RISC-V instruction count by 10%!

C. Micro-architects

Macro-op fusion is a potentially quite profitable technique to decrease the effective instruction count of programs and improve performance. What constitutes the set of profitable idioms will depend significantly on the benchmark and the target processor pipeline. For example, in-order processors may be far more amenable to fusions that utilize multiple write-back buffers, the ISA instruction count of a program can be much greater than the effective instruction count.

IX. Future Work

This work is just the first step in continuing to evaluate and assess the quality of the RISC-V code generation. Future work should look at new benchmarks and new languages. In particular, just-in-time (JIT) and managed languages may exhibit different behaviors, and thus favor different idioms, than the C and C++ code used by the SPECInt benchmark suite [5]. Even analyzing SPECfp, which includes benchmarks written in Fortran, would explore a new dimension of RISC-V. Unfortunately, much of the future work is predicated on porting and tuning new run-times to RISC-V.

X. Conclusion

Our analysis using the SPEC CINT2006 benchmark suite shows that the RISC-V ISA can be both denser and higher performance than the popular, existing commercial CISC ISAs. In particular, the RV64G ISA on average executes 16% more instructions per program than x86-64 and fetches 23% more instruction bytes. When coupled with the RISC-V Compressed ISA extension, the dynamic instruction bytes per program drops significantly, helping RV64GC fetch 8% fewer instruction bytes per program relative to x86-64. Finally, an RV64 processor that supports macro-op fusion, coupled with a fusion-aware compiler, could see a 5.4% reduction in its “effective” instruction count, helping it to execute 4.2% fewer effective instructions relative to x86-64’s macro-op count.

There are many reasons to keep an instruction set elegant and simple, especially for a free and open ISA. Macro-op fusion allows per implementation tuning of the effective ISA without burdening subsequent generations of processors with optimizations that may not make sense for future programs, languages, and compilers. It also allows asymmetric optimizations that are anathema to compiler writers and architectural critics.

Macro-op fusion has been previously used by commercial ISAs like ARM and x86 to accelerate idioms created by legacy ISA decisions like the two-instruction compare-and-branch sequence. For RISC-V, we have the power to change the ISA, but it is actually better not to! Instead, we can leverage macro-op fusion in a new way – to specialize processors to their designed tasks, while leaving the ISA – which must try to be all things to all people – unchanged.

Acknowledgments

The authors would like to thank Scott Beamer, Brian Case, David Ditzel, and Eric Love for their valuable feedback.

Research partially funded by DARPA Award Number HR0011-12-2-0016, the Center for Future Architecture Research, a member of STARnet, a Semiconductor Research Corporation program sponsored by MARCO and DARPA, and ASPIRE Lab industrial sponsors and affiliates Intel, Google, HPE, Huawei, LGE, Nokia, NVIDIA, Oracle, and Samsung. Any opinions, findings, conclusions, or recommendations in...
this paper are solely those of the authors and does not necessarily reflect the position or the policy of the sponsors.

REFERENCES


APPENDIX

This section covers in more detail the behavior of some of the most commonly executed loops for SPECInt 2006. More information about individual benchmarks can be found at http://www.spec.org/cpu2006/docs/

This section also includes the raw dynamic instruction counts used in this study, shown in Table VI

A. 400.perlbench

400.perlbench benchmarks the interpreted Perl language with some of the more OS-centric elements removed and file I/O reduced.

Although libc_malloc and _int_free routines make an appearance for a few percent of the instruction count, the only thing of any serious note in 400.perlbench is a significant amount of the instruction count spent on stack pushing and popping. This works against RV64G as its larger register pool requires it to spend more time saving and restoring more registers. Although counter-intuitive, this can be an issue if functions exhibit early function returns and end up not needing to use all of the allocated registers.

B. 401.bzip2

401.bzip2 benchmarks the bzip2 compression tool, modified to perform the compression and decompression entirely in memory.

Code 2: The mainSort routine in 401.bzip. Line 7 accounts for >3% of the RV64G instruction count.

Aside from the 403.gcc (memset) and 464.h264ref (memcpy) benchmarks, 401.bzip2 is RV64G’s worst performing benchmark. 401.bzip2 spends a significant amount of instructions manipulating arrays using unsigned 32-bit integers. Code 2 shows that the index into the block array is an unsigned 32-bit integer. As RISC-V does not have unsigned arithmetic, and the RV64 ABI specifies that the 64-bit registers
stores signed values, extra instructions are required to clear the upper 32-bits of the index variable before the load access can be performed. This behavior is consistent with the MIPS and Alpha ISAs. On the other hand, ARMv8 and x86-64 provide addressing modes that only read (or write to) parts of the full 64-bit register.

As the majority of 401.bzip2 is composed of array accesses, it is little surprise that RISC-V’s lack of indexed loads, load effective address, and low word accesses translates to 33% more RV64G instructions relative to x86-64. However, when using macro-op fusion, nearly 40% of instructions can be combined to reduce the effective instruction count by 20%, which puts RV64G as using 3% fewer operations than the x86-64 AMD Opteron processor. Despite being a “SPECint” benchmark, 403.gcc executes an optimization pass that performs constant propagation of floating-point constants, which requires IEEE floating-point support and can lead to significant execution time spent in soft-float routines if hardfloat support is not available.

30% of RISC-V’s instruction count is devoted to the memset routine. The critical loop for memset is shown in Code 3. ARMv8 and x86-64 use a single instruction to move 128 bits. Their critical loop is also unrolled to better amortize the loop bookkeeping instructions. ARMv8 is an instruction shorter than x86-64 as it rolls the address update into one of its “store-pair” post-indexing instructions.

D. 429.mcf

429.mcf executes a routine for scheduling bus routes (“network flows”). The core routine is a simulation of simplex, an optimization algorithm using linear programming. The performance of 429.mcf is typically memory-bound.

RV64G emits the fewest instructions of all of the tested ISAs. For RV64G, the top 31% of 429.mcf is contained in just 14 instructions - and five of those instructions are branches. The other ISAs typically require two instructions to describe a conditional branch, explaining their higher instruction counts.

E. 445.gobmk

445.gobmk simulates an AI analyzing a Go board and suggesting moves. Written in C, it relies significantly on structs (and macros) to provide a quasi-object-oriented programming style. This translates to a significant number of indexed loads which penalizes RV64G’s instruction count relative to other ISAs.

A memset routine makes up around 1% of the benchmark, in which x86-64 leverages a movdqa instruction to write 128 bits at a time.

An example of sub-optimal RV64G code generation is shown in Code 4. Although only one conditional if statement is described in the C code to guard assignments to two variables (smallest_dist and best_index), the compiler emits two separate branches (one for each variable). Compounding on this error, the two variables are shuttled between registers t4 and t6 and a0 and a3 three separate times each.

Code 3: The memset routine in 403.gcc.

403.gcc benchmarks the gcc 3.2 compiler generating code for the x86-64 AMD Opteron processor. Despite being a “SPECint” benchmark, 403.gcc executes an optimization pass that performs constant propagation of floating-point constants, which requires IEEE floating-point support and can lead to significant execution time spent in soft-float routines if hardfloat support is not available.

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D. 429.mcf

429.mcf executes a routine for scheduling bus routes (“network flows”). The core routine is a simulation of simplex, an optimization algorithm using linear programming. The performance of 429.mcf is typically memory-bound.

RV64G emits the fewest instructions of all of the tested ISAs. For RV64G, the top 31% of 429.mcf is contained in just 14 instructions - and five of those instructions are branches. The other ISAs typically require two instructions to describe a conditional branch, explaining their higher instruction counts.

E. 445.gobmk

445.gobmk simulates an AI analyzing a Go board and suggesting moves. Written in C, it relies significantly on structs (and macros) to provide a quasi-object-oriented programming style. This translates to a significant number of indexed loads which penalizes RV64G’s instruction count relative to other ISAs.

A memset routine makes up around 1% of the benchmark, in which x86-64 leverages a movdqa instruction to write 128 bits at a time.

An example of sub-optimal RV64G code generation is shown in Code 3. Although only one conditional if statement is described in the C code to guard assignments to two variables (smallest_dist and best_index), the compiler emits two separate branches (one for each variable). Compounding on this error, the two variables are shuttled between registers t4 and t6 and a0 and a3 three separate times each.
This is a common instruction in `456.hmmer` which describes a shift, a register-register add, a register-immediate add, a load from memory, and a final addition between the load data and the eax register. However, despite x86-64’s lower instruction count (due largely to the memory addressing modes), the x86-64 retired micro-op count is 26% more than the RV64G instruction count.

As an interesting final note, the end of the P7Viterbi function contains an expensive floating-point divide by 1000.0, to scale the integer scores to floating-point scores at the end of an integer arithmetic routine. Although rarely executed, this can be punishing for micro-architectures that do not support floating-point divide in hardware.

G. 458.sjeng

458.sjeng benchmarks an AI playing Chess using alpha-beta tree searches, game-board evaluations, and pruning.

The following section of code demonstrates a lost potential fusion opportunity which shows the importance of a more intelligent compiler register allocation scheme. By using register `t1` in line 2, the add/lw pair cannot be fused as the side-effect to `t1` must remain visible. A better implementation would use `a1` in place of `t1`, which would allow the add/lw pair to be fused as the side-effect from the add will now be clobbered. Note that `t1` is clobbered in line 5, so the proposed transformation is safe.

H. 462.libquantum

462.libquantum simulates a quantum computer executing Shor’s algorithm. On RV64G, 80% of the dynamic instructions is spent on 6 instructions, and 90% is spent on 18 instructions. On x86-64, 11 instructions account for 88% of the dynamic instructions. The hot loop is simulating a Toffoli gate.

Although RV64G emits fewer instructions for libquantum relative to all other ISAs, sub-optimal code is still being generated. The store data generation instruction `(xor a4, a4, a2)` is executed every iteration, regardless of the outcome of the inner-most branch. Moving

---

**Code 4: Sub-optimal RV64G code generation in 445.gobmk, accounting for 3.5%**.

The bad code generation can be rectified by turning off the tree-loop-if-convert optimization pass. The compiler attempts to use conditional moves to remove branches in the inner-most branch to facilitate vectorization, but as RISC-V lacks conditional move instructions, this optimization pass instead interferes with the other passes and instead, as a final step, emits a poor software imitation of a conditional move for each variable assignment. By using the `-fno-tree-loop-if-convert` flag to gcc, the total instruction count of 445.gobmk is reduced by 1.5%.

**F. 456.hmmer**

456.hmmer benchmarks a hidden Markov model searching for patterns in DNA sequences. Nearly 100% of the benchmark is contained within just 70 instructions, all within the optimized P7Viterbi function.

RV64G outperforms all other ISAs with the exception of x86-64. The P7Viterbi function contains a significant number of short branches around a store with the branch comparison typically between array elements. For x86-64, the load from memory and the comparison can be rolled into a single instruction.

```c
if ((sc = ip[k-1] + tpim[k-1]) > mc[k]) mc[k] = sc;
```

This is a common instruction in `456.hmmer` which describes a shift, a register-register add, a register-immediate add, a load from memory, and a final addition between the load data and the eax register. However, despite x86-64’s lower instruction count (due largely to the memory addressing modes), the x86-64 retired micro-op count is 26% more than the RV64G instruction count.

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```c
1 if ((sc = ip[k-1] + tpim[k-1]) > mc[k]) mc[k] = sc;
```

**Code 5: An example of a typical idiom from P7Viterbi function in 456.hmmer.**

Due to x86-64’s CISC memory addressing modes, even ‘simple’ instructions like add can become quite expressive:

```
add 0x4(%rbx,%rdx,4),%eax
```

---

8This floating-point divide can be quite a surprising find in the SPEC Integer benchmark suite. Although it is rarely executed, the cost to emulate it in software (and its neighbors `fcvt` and `flw`) can become noticeable.
that instruction inside the conditional with its store will save 10\% on the dynamic instruction count! It is possible the compiler is attempting to generate a conditional-store idiom (a forward branch around a single instruction). This is a potential macro-op fusion opportunity for RISC-V pipelines (a forward branch around a single instruction). This is a potential macro-op fusion opportunity for RISC-V pipelines (a forward branch around a single instruction).

10\% on the dynamic instruction count! It is possible the compiler uses a conditional store instruction instead of a branch. While this can be quite profitable in many cases (it can reduce pressure on the branch predictor), this particular branch is heavily biased to be not-taken causing an extra instruction to be executed every iteration. It also appears the compiler failed to coalesce the two branches together causing an extra three instructions to be emitted. Finally, all ARM branches are a two-instruction idiom requiring an extra compare instruction to set-up the condition code for the branch-on-condition-code instruction.

This poor code generation from ARMv7 is rectified in ARMv8, which is essentially identical to the RV64G code (modulo the extra instruction for branching).

Finally, we would be remiss to not mention that this loop is readily amenable to vectorization. Each loop iteration is independent and a single conditional affects whether the element store occurs or not. With proper coaxing from the Intel icc compiler, an Intel Xeon can demonstrate a stunning 10,000x performance improvement on libquantum over the baseline SPEC machine (the geometric mean across the other benchmarks is typically 35-70x for Intel Xeons).

## I. 464.h264ref

The 464.h264ref benchmark is a reference implementation of the h264 video compression standard. 25\% of the RV64G dynamic instructions is devoted to a memcpy routine. It features a significant number of multi-dimensional arrays that forces extra loads to find the address of the actual array element.

Within the memcpy routine, the ARMv7 code exploits load-multiple/store-multiple instructions to move eight 32-bit registers of data per memory instruction (32 bytes per loop iteration). The ldms/stms instructions also auto-increment the base address source operand. ARMv8 has no load-multiple/store-multiple and instead relies on load-pair/store-pair to move eight registers in a 10 instruction loop. However, the registers are twice as wide (32 bits versus 64 bits), allowing ARMv8 to make up some ground at having lost the load/store-multiple instructions.8

RV64G lacks any complex memory instructions, and instead emits a simple unrolled sequence of 21 instructions that moves 72 bytes. Meanwhile, x86-64 uses a single rep movsq (repeat move 64-bits) instruction to execute 60\% fewer instructions relative RV64G.

8One potential advantage of load/store pair instructions over the denser load/store-multiple is that it is possible to implement load/store pair as a single micro-op at the cost of more register file ports.

```c
    // int control1, control2
    for(0;i<reg->size;i++)
    {
        /* Flip the target bit of a basis state if both control bits are set */
        if(reg->node[i].state & (( MAX_UNSIGNED ) 1 << control1))
            if(reg->node[i].state & (( MAX_UNSIGNED ) 1 << control2))
            {
                reg->node[i].state ^= (( MAX_UNSIGNED ) 1 << target);
            }
    }

    // ARMv7 assembly
    36e6f: ldr a4, [ip, #0]
    36e68: and a5, a4, a1
    36e6c: mov a4, a5, a2
    36e6e: lne a5, a1, 36ef4
    36ef2: xli a4, 0, 65h
    36ef4: addi a5, a5, 16
    36ef6: lne a3, a5, 36e66
    // ARMv8 assembly
    3114c: ldr r2, [ip, #0]
    31150: and r3, r2, r1
    31154: cmp r4, r2, r0
    3115c: eor r2, r2, r8
    31160: cmp eq r4, r0
    31164: eor r3, r3, r9
    3116c: str r2, [ip, #0]
    31170: add ip, ip, #16
    31174: cmp ip, lr
    3117c: lne lllic
    // ARMv8 assembly
    4029c8: cmp x4, x3, #0x10
    4029c4: sb x4, x3
    4029b0: b.ne 4029c4
    // x86-64 assembly
    401ab0: mov [rax, 401ac]
    401abc: jne 401ac
    401ac: mov [rdx, 401ad]
    401aa: inc rdx
    401ac: add 0x10, [rax]

    Code 7: The hot loop for 462.libquantum.
```
471.omnetpp performs a discrete event simulation of an Ethernet network. It makes limited use of the `strncpy` routine (less than 2%).

Integer-only processors looking to benchmark their SPECInt performance may be in for a surprise - the most executed loops of 471.omnetpp, accounting for 10% of the RV64G instruction count, involves floating-point operations and floating-point comparisons!

RV64G emits 4.6% more instructions than x86-64 - about 30 billion more instructions. Although 471.omnetpp is fairly branch heavy, many of the branch comparisons are performed between memory locations, allowing x86-64 to combine the load and the branch comparison into a single instruction. Thus, both RV64G and x86-64 require two instructions to perform a memory load, compare the data to a value in another register, and branch on the outcome.

Code 8: The memcpy loop for 464.h264ref.

J. 471.omnetpp

471.omnetpp performs a discrete event simulation of an Ethernet network. It makes limited use of the `strncpy` routine (less than 2%).

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Code 8: The memcpy loop for 464.h264ref.

Code 9: The most executed segment in 471.omnetpp (3.5% for RV64G). RV64G is spending extra instructions to compute the address of the FP value it will compare for a branch.

Code 10: A section of the x86-64 `strcpy` routine, accounting for 1.36% of the total instruction count.

Code 11: A section of the RV64G and ARMv8 `strcpy` routine. ARMv8 is one less instruction thanks to some clever addressing (the load and store share the same base register) and the use of an indexed store. However, RISC-V, coupled with macro-op fusion, could use the same technique to improve its own performance.
471.omnetpp is the only SPECInt benchmark for the gcc 5.3.0 compiler options used in this study that emitted packed SIMD operations. These come from the __strcmp_sse3 routine. Meanwhile, it takes 50% more instructions for RV64G to implement strcmp.


**K. 473.astar**

473.astar implements a popular AI path-finding routine. 90% of the instruction count for 473.astar is covered by about 240 RV64G instructions and about 220 x86-64 instructions. Unsurprisingly, 473.astar is very branch heavy, allowing RV64G to surpass the other ISAs with the fewest emitted instructions.

**L. 483.xalancbmk**

The 483.xalancbmk benchmarks transformations between XML documents and other text-based formats. The reference input generates a 60 MB text file.

Unadjusted, the 483.xalancbmk benchmark is the worst performer for RISC-V at nearly double the instruction count relative to x86-64. The 34% most executed instructions are in a spin-loop in which the simulator waits for the tethered host to service the proxied I/O request.

```
.lhtif tty_write:
   loop:
   div a5, a5, zero
   ld a5, 24(£0)
   beq a5, loop
```

Code 12: 34% of executed instructions in 483.xalancbmk

The divide-by-zero instruction is an interesting quirk of the early Berkeley silicon RISC-V implementations: it was the lowest energy instruction that also tied up the pipeline for a number of cycles. A Wait For Interrupt instruction has since been added to RISC-V to allow processors to sleep while they wait on external agents. However, WFI is a hint that can be implemented as a NOP (that is how WFI is handled by the spike ISA simulator).

The tethered Host-Target Interface itself is also an artifact of early Berkeley processors which will eventually be removed entirely from the RISC-V Privileged ISA Specification. To prevent the conclusions from being polluted by a simulation platform artifact, the htif_tty_write spin loop has been removed from the data presented in this report.

```
4003E:   lbu a5, 0(a1)
40040:   addi a4, a4, 1
40042:   addi a1, a1, 1
40044:   sb a5, -1(a4)
40048:   bne u a4, a7,4003C
```

Code 13: the top 9% of executed user-level instructions in 483.xalancbmk