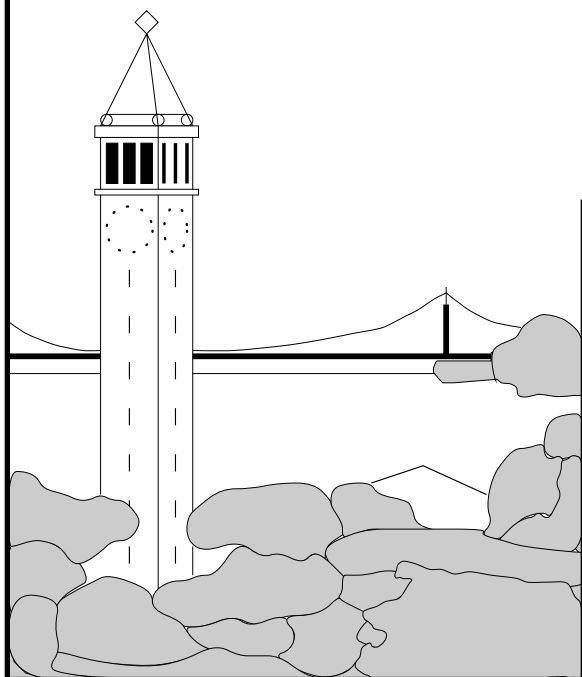


# **A Media-Enhanced Vector Architecture for Embedded Memory Systems**

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for Embedded Memory Systems**

by Christoforos Kozyrakis

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**Research Project**

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# A Media-Enhanced Vector Architecture for Embedded Memory Systems

**Christoforos Kozyrakis**

M.S. Report

## **Abstract**

*Next generation portable devices will require processors with both low energy consumption and high performance for media functions. At the same time, modern CMOS technology creates the need for highly scalable VLSI architectures. Conventional processor architectures fail to meet these requirements. This paper presents the architecture of Vector IRAM (VIRAM), a processor that combines vector processing with embedded DRAM technology. Vector processing achieves high multimedia performance with simple hardware, while embedded DRAM provides high memory bandwidth at low energy consumption. VIRAM provides flexible support for media data types, short vectors, and DSP features. The vector pipeline is enhanced to hide DRAM latency without using caches. The peak performance is 3.2 GFLOPS (single precision) and maximum memory bandwidth is 25.6 GBytes/s. With a target power consumption of 2 Watts for the vector pipeline and the memory system, VIRAM supports 1.6 GFLOPS/Watt. For a set of representative media kernels, VIRAM sustains on average 88% of its peak performance, outperforming conventional SIMD media extensions and DSP processors by factors of 4.5 to 17. Using a clustered implementation approach, the modular design can be scaled without complicating control logic. We demonstrate that scaling the architecture leads to near linear application speedup. We also evaluate the effect of scaling the capacity and parallelism of the on-chip memory system to die area and sustained performance.*



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# 1 Introduction

Over the past few years, technology drivers for microprocessors have changed significantly. High-end systems for technical and scientific applications used to direct the evolution of processor architecture. Now, consumer-level systems drive technology, due to their large volume and attendant profits. Within this environment, important application and technology trends have evolved. Media processing – such as video processing, speech recognition and 3D graphics – is increasing in importance and will soon dominate the processing cycles consumed in computer-based systems [11]. Unlike traditional applications, media kernels are characterized by large amounts of data parallelism, tolerance to latency, demand for high memory bandwidth, and, often, limited temporal locality [12].

At the same time, the popularity of portable electronics and mobile applications is shifting the system focus from the desktop computer to personal mobile computing devices [23]. These devices require processors with low energy consumption and a high degree of integration (“system-on-a-chip”) to increase battery life and reduce size and cost. Providing more natural human interfaces for these portable devices through speech and image recognition will require greater performance for media functions.

Current high-performance microprocessors based on superscalar and out-of-order execution are poor matches for this new environment, as they have been optimized for applications with complex control flow and small working sets. To extract irregular instruction-level parallelism (ILP) from sequential application code dynamically, they expend considerable chip area on sophisticated control logic and speculation buffers, which adds to cost, design complexity, and power consumption. To reduce average memory latencies, they use large multilevel caches, often including an array of expensive and power-hungry off-chip SRAM memories. Although caches are effective for applications that exhibit locality, they increase memory latency and reduce effective memory bandwidth for codes that do not.

We expect these superscalar designs to scale poorly into future CMOS technologies. The structures used to support dynamic ILP scale super-linearly with issue width. Worse, many of these structures require global interactions which could impact cycle time given that interconnect delays will limit communication speeds across future chip designs. Although it may be possible to pipeline and cluster logic to remove long wires, this will further increase design and compiler complexity for these designs.

This paper presents the architecture of the Vector IRAM (VIRAM) microprocessor. VIRAM provides high multimedia performance with low energy consumption by integrating vector processing with embedded DRAM technology. Vector processing allows simple, energy-efficient hardware to provide rapid execution of multimedia kernels. By eliminating off-chip memory accesses, embedded DRAM technology provides both high sequential and

random memory bandwidth to large working sets with low energy consumption. The component count for the whole system is decreased by integrating the processor and the memory on the same die.

The major innovations in VIRAM compared to previous vector architectures include flexible and scalable support for multimedia data types, optimizations for short vectors, the design of a high-bandwidth memory system based on embedded DRAM, and support for virtual memory and software speculative vector execution. The vector pipeline is designed to hide the latency of DRAM accesses without a cache structure or the need for long vectors. VIRAM supports 3.2 GFLOPS (single-precision) peak performance and 25.6 GByte/s peak memory bandwidth. For a set of representative media kernels, 88% of the peak performance is sustained on the average. The target power consumption for the vector unit and the memory system is 2 Watts, achieved by using the modest clock frequency of 200 MHz that allows a 1.2 V power supply. The 1.6 GFLOPS/Watt provided by VIRAM enable computational intensive applications like speech recognition to run on portable, battery-operated devices. An alternative implementation could use a higher power supply and a 400 MHz clock frequency, a feasible target in 0.18  $\mu\text{m}$  CMOS technology, to double the peak and sustained performance.

The vector unit implementation is based on multiple identical (parallel) clusters, leading to a modular and highly scalable design. Scaling the number of clusters leads to near linear application speedup without the need for recompilation. To observe performance improvements for applications with indexed or strided memory accesses, increasing the computational power of the vector unit must be accompanied by a proportional increase of the on-chip memory system performance. Memory system performance can be improved by providing a large number of independent memory banks or with a smaller number of banks, each of them organized as a collection of sub-banks. Independent banks allow memory accesses to be issued and executed in parallel, while sub-banks allow memory accesses to overlap their execution. The use of sub-banks is of great importance for systems with reduced on-chip memory capacity, which usually employ a small number of banks for area efficiency.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents the microarchitecture of VIRAM, including the pipeline structure and the memory system. In Section 3, we discuss media processing and DSP support, energy consumption characteristics, and the scaling properties of the design. Section 4 presents the performance of the base VIRAM design and three scaled designs for a set of important media kernels. We also discuss the effect of scaling the memory system capacity and parallelism on die area and sustained performance. In Section 5, we discuss alternative or similar architectural approaches for media processing or embedded systems.



## 2 The Architecture

VIRAM is a vector microprocessor for media processing with on-chip main memory. Figure 1 presents the block diagram of VIRAM. It contains a scalar unit, a vector coprocessor, and a network interface all connected via a memory controller to the on-chip memory system. It is being designed in a  $0.18\ \mu\text{m}$  embedded DRAM technology with a target clock rate of 200 MHz. The relatively low clock rate for this technology allows the low 1.2 V power supply, used to reduce energy and power consumption.

The scalar unit<sup>1</sup> is a two-way superscalar core that implements the MIPS-IV instruction set [21]. It includes two integer datapaths, a decoupled floating-point unit, and a non-blocking load/store unit. The scalar unit includes two-way set-associative primary instruction and data caches, each holding 16 KBytes. A general coprocessor interface is provided to facilitate the exchange of instructions and data with a coprocessor.

The vector unit is attached to the scalar unit as a loosely-coupled coprocessor. It executes a set of instructions defined as an extension to the basic MIPS ISA [27] that implement a vector register architecture. Vector arithmetic instructions perform a set of identical operations on the elements of vector operands located in the vector register file. VIRAM provides integer (fixed-point) and floating-point operations for 16-bit, 32-bit, and 64-bit data widths. The vector instruction set also defines operations on 8-bit integers, which are not implemented in order to reduce design complexity. Vector load and store instructions move data between the register file and the multi-bank DRAM system. The instruction set also provides vector editing instructions such as compress and expand, extract operations for high-speed reductions, and special instructions for memory management and exception handling. The number of elements processed by a vector instruction is specified by the vector length control register and can be set to any value between zero and the maximum number of vector elements in a register.

To enhance performance, the scalar and the vector unit do not operate in lock-step. The vector unit includes instruction buffers that allow the scalar core to run ahead. The two units are synchronized on vector unit exceptions, when vector unit state is read by the scalar core, and on explicit synchronization instructions.

### 2.1 Vector Register File

The vector register file has a capacity of 8 KBytes and contains 32 general-purpose vector registers, each holding up to 32 64-bit elements. Vector registers can be subdivided to hold 64 32-bit elements or 128 16-bit elements. If an application has vectors that exceed

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<sup>1</sup>The scalar unit is designed by Sandcraft Inc., Santa Clara, CA.

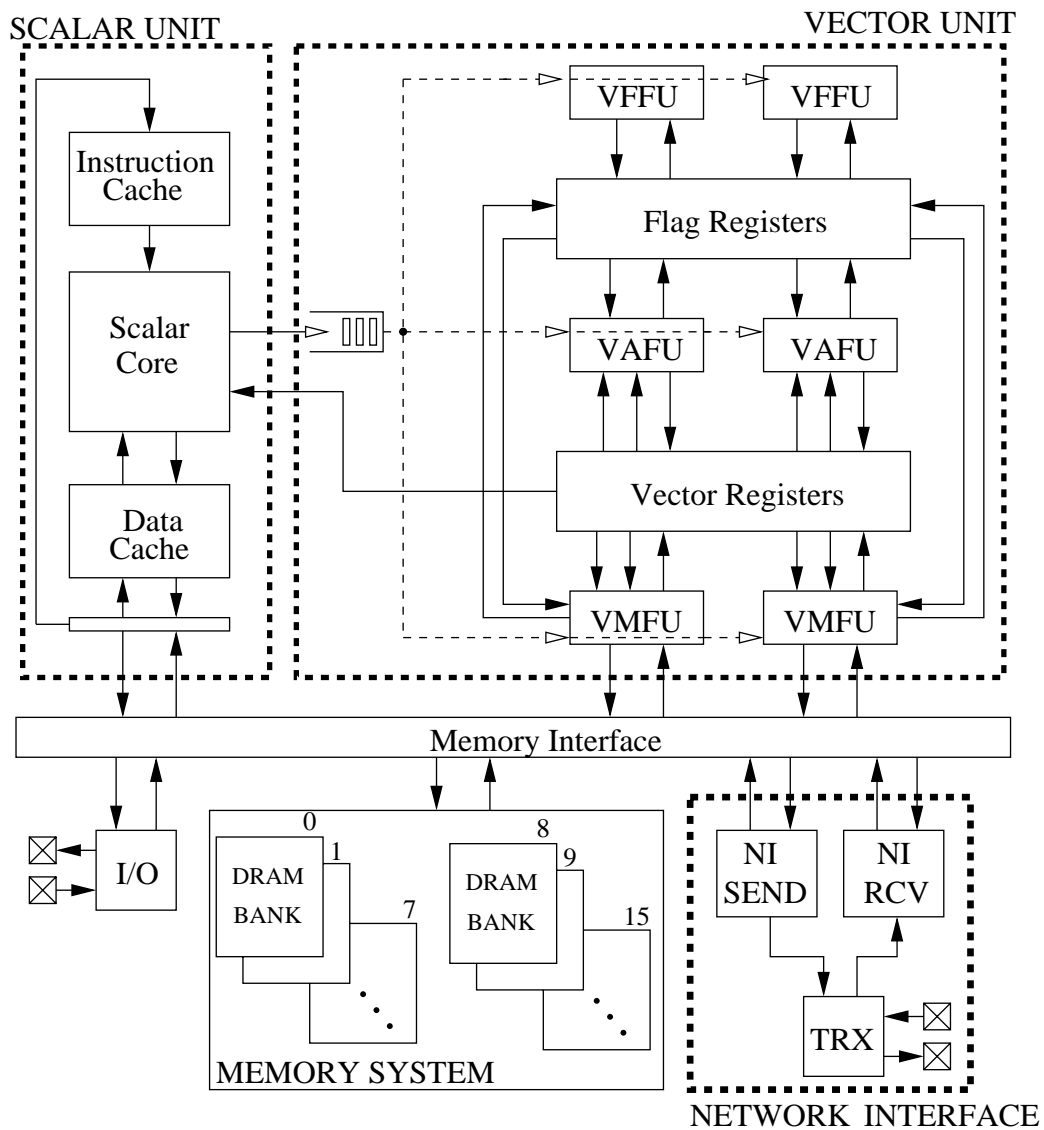


Figure 1: The Block diagram of VIRAM.

the length of a vector register, strip-mining must be used. The vector register file provides operands for arithmetic operations, indices for indexed memory accesses and storage for temporary vector results.

There are also 32 vector flag registers, each containing a single bit per vector element. Flag registers are used to support conditional (predicated) vector execution, vector exception processing, and software vector speculation [2]. Almost all vector instructions are conditional on a flag register that specifies which elements are active in an operation. The flag register file has a capacity of 512 Bytes.

Two scalar register files are included in the vector unit. The first one stores control information used for exception handling, memory management, and I/O configuration. It also holds the base addresses and stride values for vector memory accesses. The second one holds scalar operands used with vector operations (vector-scalar form). Although the registers in the scalar unit could be used to provide scalar operands to vector instructions and base addresses for vector memory references, separate register files are necessary in order to comply with the MIPS coprocessor interface specification [21]. The interface does not allow vector coprocessor instructions to read registers in the scalar core, but provides special move instructions that exchange data between two scalar register files in the vector and scalar units. Hence, every vector-scalar operation requires two instructions: one coprocessor move and one vector instruction. The scalar register file in the vector unit provides storage for scalar operands so that the number of coprocessor move operations is minimized to one per scalar operand needed, instead of one per vector-scalar instruction issued.

## **2.2 Vector Functional Units**

There are six vector functional units in VIRAM: two arithmetic, two flag processing, and two load-store. All vector functional units have multiple parallel datapaths to process multiple vector elements per cycle. Each arithmetic and memory unit has four 64-bit datapaths that can be subdivided to perform eight 32-bit or sixteen 16-bit operations in parallel every cycle.

Both vector arithmetic units support integer, fixed-point, and logical operations, but, to reduce area, only one provides floating-point operations. The vector floating-point unit supports fused multiply-add. All operations are fully pipelined, excluding division, square root and double precision floating-point multiplication. Divide and square root operations produce a single result bit per cycle. Multiplication has a latency of three cycles for integers, four cycles for single precision, and seven cycles for double precision floating-point numbers. Apart from some instructions used to support fixed-point arithmetic, such as shift-&-add, that have a two cycle latency, the rest complete in a single cycle. The arithmetic units

also process vector extract operations used for fast reductions.

Flag processing units provide boolean operations on flag registers and also support population count and priority encoding operations on flag vectors. Boolean operations on flags have single cycle latency, while population count and priority encoding take two cycles. All flag operations are fully pipelined.

The two load-store or memory units move data between the vector register file and the memory system using one of three types of vector memory access: *unit stride* which accesses contiguous memory locations, *strided* which accesses locations separated by a fixed distance, and *indexed* which uses a vector register to provide pointers to memory (scatter-gather). Both memory units can perform unit stride operations, but only one can process strided and indexed. A maximum of four independent addresses per cycle can be generated for a strided or indexed access references. Vector memory operations transfer 8, 16, 32 or 64 bits per element. The only alignment restriction is that each element must be naturally aligned. Each load-store unit exchanges up to 256 bits of data per cycle with the memory system.

Vector memory accesses are not cached, but hardware maintains coherence between the scalar cache and vector accesses. Coherence is achieved by generating invalidation requests for cached data written by the vector unit. The data cache also uses a write-through update policy. To reduce the invalidation bandwidth requirements for the data cache, invalidation requests are first filtered in the vector unit using replica of the data cache tags. Filtering eliminates invalidation requests for data not located in the data cache. Memory consistency between the scalar and vector units is maintained in software by using explicit synchronization instructions (memory barriers) and ordered vector stores [27]. Enforcing memory consistency in hardware would result in execution serialization and limit performance even for applications that have no memory consistency problems.

## 2.3 Vector Pipeline for Embedded DRAM

The main memory of VIRAM is based on embedded DRAM, which has significantly different performance characteristics than SRAM cache or SRAM main memory. An on-chip multi-bank DRAM system can combine high capacity with main memory bandwidths on the order of several tens of GBytes/s, but random access latency is at least 20 ns to 30 ns (4–6 processor cycles), even for the most aggressive embedded DRAM technology [10]<sup>2</sup>. The latency of the processor-DRAM interconnect further increases access latency. In addition, DRAM has longer bank busy times than SRAM due to the potential need for restore,

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<sup>2</sup>The random access latency for external DRAM is still considerably higher, typically between 100 ns and 200 ns [31].

precharge and row access operations.

High memory latency can reduce performance for an in-order vector pipeline even when high memory bandwidth is available. Consider the pipeline presented in Figure 2(a), used in many traditional vector architectures like the Cray C90 [9].

The vector unit holds issue of each instruction until it can start execution. Once issued, a vector arithmetic instruction reads elements from the vector register file (VR), processes them in several pipeline stages (X0, X1, ...) and writes back the result a few cycles later (VW). A load instruction generates (G) and translates (T) addresses early, but can only write back results at the end of the long DRAM access.

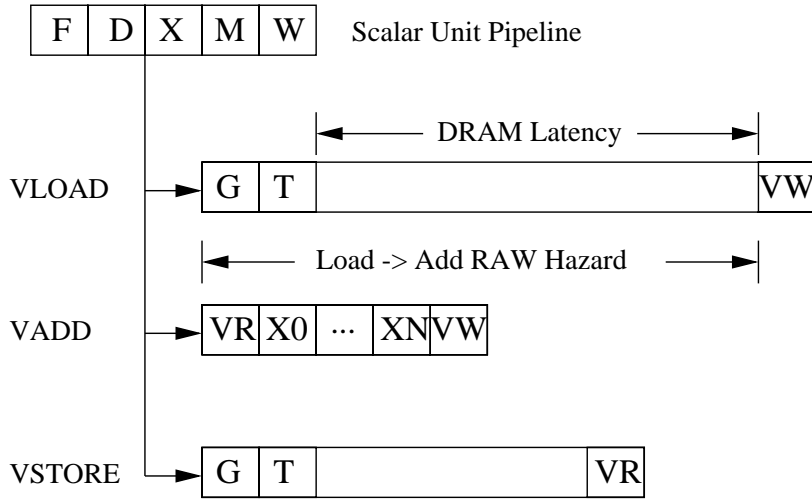
For the simple loop in Figure 3, instruction (3) will be stalled for several cycles after it is issued, waiting for instructions (1) and (2) to fetch its operands from memory. Instruction (3) is held in the issue stage, blocking the following instructions from being issued. The same stall will occur on every iteration, leading to a large performance loss.

Memory latency can be tolerated by using static instruction scheduling techniques such as software prefetching, loop unrolling and software pipelining. But loop unrolling and software pipelining are of little use in the presence of short vectors and lead to significant code size increase. Furthermore, static scheduling does not perform well in the presence of statically unpredictable branches or function calls into separately compiled code.

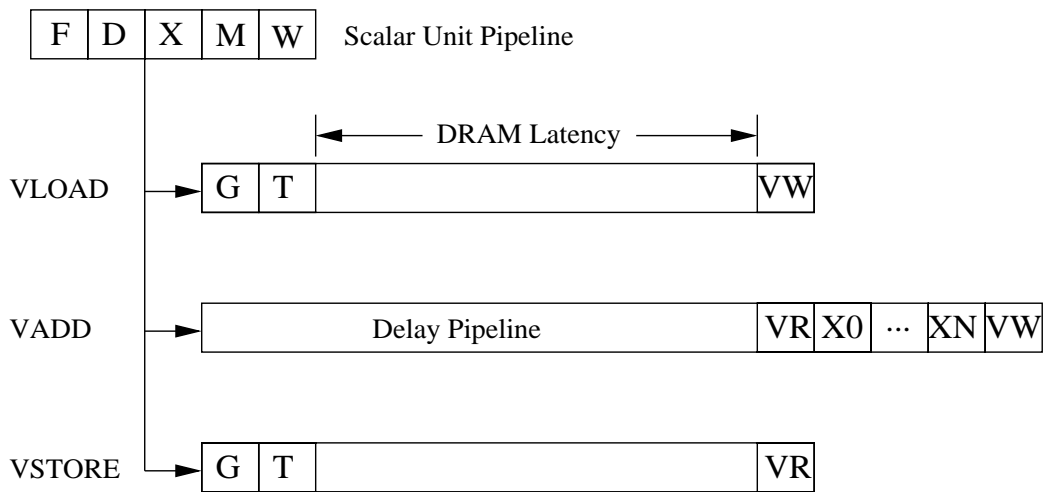
We handle DRAM latency by modifying the vector pipeline to include the memory access latency. The execution of arithmetic operations is delayed by a fixed number of clock cycles after issue to match the latency of a worst-case memory access, as presented in Figure 2(b). We call this the *delayed vector pipeline*. For the loop in Figure 3, instruction (3) will be issued into a pipelined instruction buffer where it will be held until its operands are available, thus freeing the issue stage to issue the following store instruction which can immediately begin generating store addresses. The latency of memory accesses is effectively hidden in all iterations. The instruction buffer has nine stages for VIRAM that account for address generation and translation, DRAM access, and interconnect latency.

The worst-case memory reference requires precharge, row, and column accesses to DRAM memory. The delayed pipeline accounts for the latency of all three operations, even though the first two are not performed when the proper row is available (open) at the sense amplifiers of the DRAM bank. A set of accesses to contiguous memory locations will appear at a DRAM bank as one precharge and one row access, followed by a set of back-to-back column accesses.

Although the delayed pipeline hides memory latency in most common cases, it exposes the memory latency in others, such as reading a vector element into a scalar register or calculating addresses for an indexed vector memory reference. To reduce the frequency of scalar accesses to vector elements, we incorporate hardware support for partially vectorized loops



(a)



(b)

Figure 2: Vector pipeline models.

```

for (i=0; i<N; i+=VectorLength) {
  (1) vector load  reg1, addrA
  (2) vector load  reg2, addrB
  (3) vector add   reg3, reg1, reg2
  (4) vector store reg3, addrC
}

```

Figure 3: Simple example of application kernel.

including compress, expand, and vector extract operations, and support for software vector speculation. For the other cases, we rely on software instruction scheduling to minimize the impact of the memory latency.

An interesting trade-off in the design of the delayed pipeline is the alignment of the read stage (VR) in the pipeline for arithmetic and store operations and the write stage (VW) in the pipeline for load operations. If these stages are aligned, as shown in Figure 2(b), an arithmetic operation issued a cycle after a load operation can use the loaded data without experiencing any stalls. On the other hand, executing the vector register file earlier in the pipeline for arithmetic and load instructions leads to smaller bank busy time for store operations and reduces the cost of moving the result of a vector arithmetic instruction to the scalar unit. Since for most multimedia applications it is easy to schedule load operations several cycles before the arithmetic instructions that use their results, arithmetic and store operations in VIRAM read the vector register file three pipeline stages prior to the point that load operations write the register file.

The memory latency could also be hidden with a decoupled vector pipeline [14], which also tolerates large variability in access latency. The delayed pipeline was preferred because it has simpler control, it does not require large hardware data buffers, and because there is little latency variation in VIRAM. The decoupled pipeline should also have increased energy consumption, because it has to write and read a data buffer on every memory reference. For the specific architecture and memory system of VIRAM, the data buffer needed for the decoupled pipeline would be a four-ported 8 KByte SRAM block. This is comparable to the size and design complexity of the vector register file. Section 4 presents performance results that demonstrate the effectiveness of the delayed pipeline for multimedia applications.

## 2.4 Instruction Chaining

The vector unit is fully interlocked, meaning the hardware generates stalls to preserve dependencies on vector registers. Chaining, the extension of forwarding to vector architectures [22], allows overlapping the execution of dependent instructions. The second instruc-

tion is allowed to access earlier element positions concurrently with the first instruction's access to later element positions in the same vector register. VIRAM supports chaining on all three types of hazards: RAW, WAR and WAW. Although the case of chaining RAW hazards is the most common and critical for performance, WAR chaining reduces pressure on vector register usage and WAW chaining accelerates applications with multiple concurrent conditional updates on the same register (vectorized if-then-else statements).

Chaining is implemented within the vector register file. The new value of any element can be read on the same cycle it is written. Additional bypass paths in the functional units could reduce the chaining latency by one cycle but would increase control complexity, die area, and energy consumption.

## 2.5 Support for Short Vectors

We have optimized VIRAM's performance for the case of short vectors to increase the range of applications that achieve speedups through vectorization. Unlike with many vector supercomputers, the startup of all vector instructions is fully pipelined. There is no dead time between instructions, and the vector pipelines can be saturated even with very short vectors. The delayed pipeline can tolerate long memory latency even with short vector lengths.

Post-incrementing addressing is supported for unit-stride and strided memory accesses to reduce the address manipulation overhead for short vectors. Due to limitations in the coprocessor interface, incrementing a vector base address would otherwise require one scalar addition and move instructions that would transfer the value in a base address register of the vector unit. The instruction bandwidth consumed for such operations would limit the performance in the case of short vectors, where each vector instruction has shorter completion time and higher instruction bandwidth is required to keep the functional units busy.

Finally, VIRAM monitors the maximum vector length used by an application to reduce the overhead of saving and restoring state during a context switch. Only the vector register elements actually used by the application need to be saved or restored on a context switch.

## 2.6 Vector Unit Implementation

The vector instruction set has been designed to support a clustered implementation of the vector unit. Each hardware cluster, called a *lane*, includes one 64-bit datapath from each arithmetic unit, part of the vector and flag register files, and two 64-bit ports to the memory system. The register files are partitioned so that each lane stores the register elements that are processed by the local datapaths. The elements of a vector register are partitioned among lanes in a round-robin fashion. All lanes are identical and are given the same control signals



on every cycle. VIRAM has four 64-bit lanes as shown in Figure 4. Each functional unit has a total datapath width of 256 bits and spans across all lanes. Each lane includes eight 64-bit elements from every vector register and the corresponding masks from the flag register file.

There are several advantages to this implementation approach compared to a centralized one. Communication between functional unit datapaths and the vector registers can be accommodated using local interconnect within each lane. The register file design is simplified, as the bandwidth requirements are equally divided among four independent element partitions. Design complexity is reduced because a single lane design can be replicated. Vector lanes are also important in scaling and improving the energy efficiency for this architecture. These issues are discussed in Section 3.

The register file partition in each lane still needs to sustain eight read and four write operations for 64-bit elements per cycle. We split the SRAM block into two interleaved banks [3] to halve the port requirements per bank. By performing all writes in the first half of the clock cycle and all reads in the second, we require only four bit lines and four word lines per storage cell. Register bank access conflicts have little performance impact for most applications [3].

## 2.7 Memory System

The basis of the memory system is the DRAM bank. Each bank can store 2 MBytes and has a 256-bit synchronous interface<sup>3</sup> with separate input and output signals. The interface is a simplified version of the SDRAM interface that supports a restricted set of operations such as precharge, row access (activate), column access (256-bit read/write access). No burst access modes or auto-refresh is supported.

Bank accesses are pipelined and addresses can be received at the maximum rate of one per clock cycle (5 ns). The DRAM cycle time for random read/write accesses is 20 ns. Peak sequential bandwidth per bank is 6.4 GBytes/s, while the worst case random bandwidth is 1.6 Gbytes/sec. The memory system consists of eight to sixteen banks, leading to total capacity of 16–32 MBytes, depending on our final die size. To simplify interconnect and to address manufacturing issues, banks are divided into two wings which are placed above and below the scalar and vector units, as shown in Figure 5.

To connect the vector lanes and the memory banks, there are two pairs of crossbars, one pair per wing. Each pair includes separate load and store crossbars, both 256 bits wide. The data transferred may either be from contiguous memory locations or belong to four independent 64-bit words from different DRAM banks. Each crossbar can deliver one to four

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<sup>3</sup>The 2 MByte DRAM bank is designed by IBM. The bank is asynchronous and the synchronous interface is implemented in a “wrapper” logic block used to interface each macro to the rest of the system.

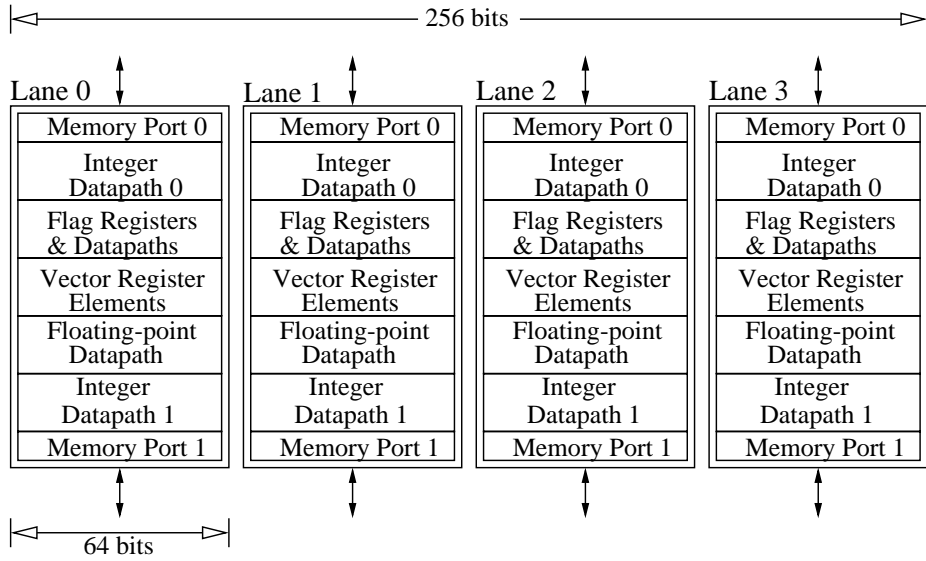


Figure 4: Clustering of functional unit datapaths and register file partitions into lanes.

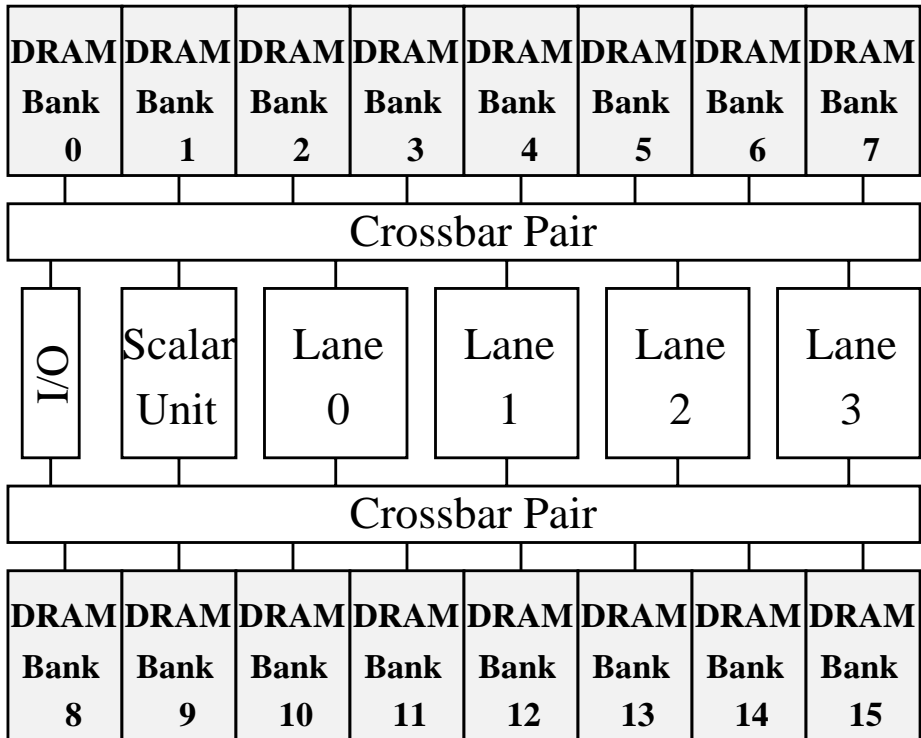


Figure 5: DRAM banks and vector lanes placement in VIRAM's floorplan (drawing not to scale).

independent addresses per cycle to the banks of each wing. The combined peak bandwidth of the crossbar structure is 25.6 GBytes/sec. Both memory units have equal access to either memory wing.

The scalar unit and the I/O interfaces communicate with memory by “stealing” cycles on the crossbar from the vector unit. As their bandwidth demands are relatively low, sharing does not create performance problems. The scalar core needs to access the memory system only on cache refills and write accesses. In addition, bandwidth intensive computations on data with limited locality are typically handled in the vector unit. To reduce the latency of cache refills, we allow accesses from the scalar core to “skip” the precharge and row access stages in the memory pipeline, if their data reside in open rows in the DRAM system. DRAM refresh accesses are periodically generated in the vector unit using a set of refresh counters. Refresh accesses also steal cycles from regular vector memory references and have the higher priority from any other access type.

The support for multiple addresses in the memory system and including memory latency in the vector unit pipeline structure allows VIRAM to sustain a large number of pending accesses to memory with simple, pipelined hardware. Memory accesses for 72 64-bit elements with up to 45 independent addresses may be in progress on any cycle. Such numbers are prohibitively expensive to support for other architectures.

## 2.8 Memory Management and Exception Processing

VIRAM provides full support for demand-paged virtual memory: a fully associative TLB with 48 two-page entries caches virtual to physical address translations. The page sizes supported are 4, 16, 64, and 256 KBytes, and 1, 4, and 16 MBytes. There are two multiported micro-TLB structures to supply the necessary address translation bandwidth for vector memory accesses. The first one is two-ported – one port per load-store unit – and caches translations for unit stride accesses. The second one caches translations for strided and indexed accesses and has four ports, one per address generated for such accesses each clock cycle. The two micro-TLB structures have four single-page entries each and use least-recently-used replacement (LRU) policy. Micro-TLB misses are handled in hardware with accesses to the main TLB, while misses in the main TLB are handled by a software page table walk.

TLB miss exceptions and virtual memory exceptions are not precise, but they are *restartable*. The vector unit postpones execution on such an exception in order to allow a software handler to observe its state and perform the proper exception processing tasks. When the exception has been served, the vector unit is allowed to continue execution at the point it was interrupted. In the case of a context switch, vector unit state can be saved and

restored. The vector unit can be processing instructions for a different process than the one running in the scalar unit. Therefore, periodical operating system handlers or processes that do not use the vector unit do not require saving or restoring vector unit state.

Vector arithmetic exceptions, both integer and floating-point, are not raised immediately when the exceptional condition occurs. They are noted instead in dedicated flag registers [2], and an application can raise them by using trap barrier instructions. The flag registers provide the information necessary for user-level handlers, such as exception type and the vector elements that caused it.

## 2.9 Support for Speculative Vector Execution

Software speculative execution is supported to improve the scheduling of conditionally executed vector statements by moving instructions above mask dependencies and branches in the same way speculative execution is used to increase ILP for a superscalar processor by moving instructions above control dependencies [2]. It is also used to allow vectorization of loops with data dependent exit conditions. While hardware speculation relies solely on hardware to speculate dependencies and correct any mispredictions, in software speculative execution the hardware provides the necessary support for explicit speculation of dependencies by the programmer or the compiler.

The VIRAM architecture supports software speculative execution by providing speculative versions of load operations and arithmetic instructions that may cause exceptions. A speculative vector load operation executes normally, but if there is an address error, zero is written in the proper vector element, and the corresponding mask is set in a dedicated flag register for speculative load address errors. No address error exceptions are raised during the execution of a speculative load. A speculative vector arithmetic instruction executes normally as well, but writes exception flags into dedicated flag registers for speculative arithmetic exceptions. These flag registers are different from those used to note the arithmetic exceptions from regular, non-speculative, instructions.

To vectorize loops with data dependent exit conditions, one can use speculative instructions to execute loop iterations before the correct number of iterations is known<sup>4</sup>. When the exit condition is met, speculatively generated exceptions must be raised on discarded as appropriate. The hardware provides an instruction that raises speculative load address errors and merges the speculative arithmetic exception flags with those for non-speculative instructions for the vector elements that correspond to iterations that were correctly exe-

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<sup>4</sup>Because no speculative store instruction is supported, speculative results should be kept in registers. Memory should be updated only when the speculation has been resolved, and the correct number of iterations is known.

cluded. The flags for the remaining elements are discarded.

## **2.10 Network Interface and I/O**

While VIRAM's main application area is portable multimedia systems, support for parallel systems is also provided. The network interface allows message-passing over four bidirectional links, each capable of a 100 MByte/s transfer rate in each direction. VIRAM chips can be connected with these links to create parallel systems of arbitrary topology. They also allow a VIRAM chip to be used along with a hard disk drive as the building block for scalable data servers like ISTORE [7].

The structure of the network interface is similar to those in the Alewife [24] and Fugu [26] systems. It is memory-mapped as a virtual resource and allows applications to send short or long messages without invoking the operating system. Short messages can be created by storing data directly into a message buffer in the network interface. For long messages, one or more DMA descriptors must be placed in the same buffer. A DMA engine will replace each descriptor with the appropriate memory blocks before the message is transmitted over a communication link. The DMA engines for sending and receiving messages in memory use virtual addresses. Both polling and user-level interrupt based message reception is supported. Protection is provided by bounding the duration of interrupt disable periods and user-level exception handlers.

VIRAM also includes a system and a debugging interface. The system bus follows the basic SysAD protocol for MIPS processors [20], extended to support split transactions. Its peak bandwidth is 800 MBytes/s and it can be used to connect to various peripheral devices and external DRAM. A separate DMA engine is available for data exchange over the system interface.

## **3 Discussion**

### **3.1 Support for Media Processing**

The vector processing model is a good match for multimedia applications, since most media kernels process arrays or streams of pixels or samples in a SIMD fashion [12][13]. VIRAM offers additional support for media processing by providing operations on the narrow data types frequently used in such applications and by implementing several features of digital signal processors (DSP).

The data width of the vector unit can be changed to either 16-bit, 32-bit, or 64-bit by writing to a control register. The narrower data widths allow more elements to be stored

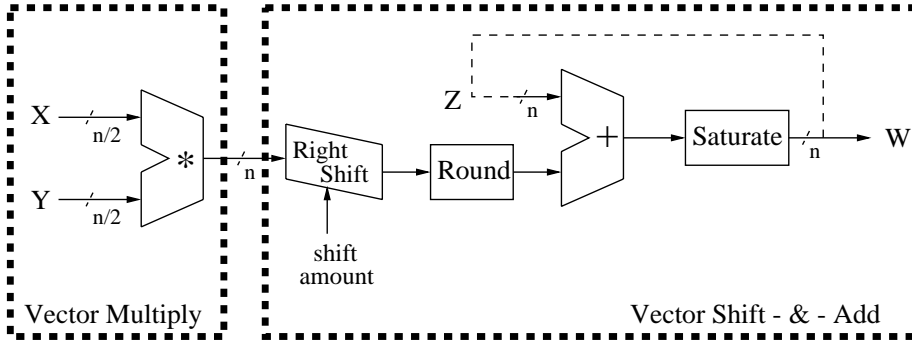


Figure 6: The implementation of multiply-accumulate DSP operations in VIRAM.

in each vector register and more parallel operations in the vector unit datapaths. The peak performance of VIRAM in terms of operations per cycle doubles each time the data width is halved. Using a narrower data type reduces the dynamic instruction count as well, since each instruction specifies a larger number of element operations.

DSP processors provide special features for accelerating media kernels. Several of those are subsumed by the vector processing model. *High-speed multiply-accumulate* operations can be achieved by chaining vector multiply and add instructions or using vector floating-point fused multiply-add. *Auto-increment addressing* is equivalent to strided vector memory operations. Each vector instruction represents a *zero overhead loop*. The multi-bank DRAM system provides *high sequential and random memory bandwidth*.

Some remaining DSP features, like support for fixed-point operations, require special architectural care. We provide hardware support for *saturating arithmetic* to 8-bit, 16-bit or 32-bit data widths. To implement *accurate multiply-accumulate* operations, a shift-&-add operation is provided which shifts right and rounds the first operand, before adding it to the second. All common DSP rounding modes, including round to even, are supported. Figure 6 presents how integer multiply and shift-&-add instructions are used to implement multiply-accumulate operations.

*High-speed reductions* are supported with a special vector extract instruction. This operation extracts the second half of a vector register and places it into the first half of another. It also halves the vector length for the following operation. This requires no inter-lane communication for vector lengths larger than the number of lanes. Inter-lane communication for shorter vector lengths is accelerated with a special bypassing path for reductions. Together with regular vector arithmetic instructions (e.g. vector add), a variety of fast, tree-based reductions can be implemented. Fast reductions are particularly important for short vector dot-products which are a crucial component of many DSP applications.

Finally, we provide instructions that support the element permutation necessary in order

to perform one step of a butterfly exchange on a vector register. These instructions utilize the same hardware resources used for implementing fast reductions and provide significant speedup for applications like FFT. They can also be used to synthesize multiple short vectors into a longer one.

### 3.2 Energy Efficiency

Low energy consumption is important for embedded microprocessors, particularly in portable, battery-operated devices. Vector architectures have several inherent features that lead to lower energy requirements compared to other high-performance architectures such as superscalar and VLIW.

Instruction fetch, decode, and dispatch is performed once for a vector of operations, significantly reducing control logic energy requirements. Vector instructions provide the hardware with explicit dependence information about element operations, hence no complex speculation, prediction, or re-order structure is needed to discover parallelism. Vector instructions also naturally partition operations among vector lanes, with mostly local communication within the lanes, thereby reducing interconnect energy.

By accessing main memory directly, no energy is wasted in caching data that has only spatial locality, as is common in data-streaming media applications. Vector instructions also access memory and vector register banks in a regular pattern which avoids energy consumption in bank arbitration circuitry and enables power optimizations such as selective bank activation.

Because vectors support highly parallel execution with low overhead, we can employ voltage scaling to reduce energy per operation [6]. By doubling the number of vector lanes, clock frequency can be halved without affecting the peak performance in terms of operations per cycle. Lowering the clock frequency allows a proportional decrease in the power supply voltage. Energy consumption is proportional to  $C \cdot V_{dd}^2$ , where  $C$  is the total capacitance being charged/discharged and  $V_{dd}$  is the power supply voltage. Even though datapath and control capacitance ( $C$ ) can be doubled (worst-case) by increasing the number of lanes, the square factor of  $V_{dd}$  leads to reduced energy consumption for the same performance. We design VIRAM to run at 200 MHz with a 1.2 V power supply and a target power consumption of 2 W for the vector unit and the memory system.

Conditional execution provides another opportunity for reducing energy consumption by controlling circuit activation and clock gating at a fine granularity. By reading the mask register early in the pipeline, we can disable datapaths corresponding to masked-off element operations.

A final source of energy efficiency in VIRAM is the on-chip main memory. By elimi-

nating the need to drive off-chip, high capacitance buses for memory references, the energy consumed in the memory system can be reduced by as much as a factor of four [16]. The energy consumption of the memory system is also reduced by using low-swing interconnect technology [41] in the design of the memory crossbar.

Despite the modest clock rate, the highly parallel design of VIRAM can support 3.2 GOPS (32-bit operations) or 1.6 GOPS/Watt. StrongArm SA-110 [28], the leading microprocessor in power/performance efficiency, achieves 0.11 GOPS/Watt, when clocked at 200 MHz with a 2.2 V power supply. SA-110 was designed in a 0.35  $\mu\text{m}$  CMOS process, its peak performance for 32-bit integer multiply-add operations is 0.1 GOPS, and its typical power consumption is 0.895 Watts. The next generation StrongArm processor [40], designed in a 0.18  $\mu\text{m}$  process at 600 MHz with a 1.3 V power supply, is expected to support 0.6 GOPS/Watt. VIRAM, an academic research project, outperforms both generations of StrongArm in terms of power/performance efficiency by factors of 2.6 to 14.5.

### 3.3 Design Scalability

Scalability is an important consideration for processor architectures as transistor budgets, the speed of integrated circuits and requirements for performance improvements increase according to Moore's law. There are two equally important sides to scaling an architecture: *scaling performance* and *scaling design complexity*. Vector architectures have several advantages when we consider future scaling of the design, both in terms of performance and design complexity.

Conventional architectures scale performance by increasing the operation frequency and the number of arithmetic units in the design. The simplicity of vector unit hardware (simple issue logic, increased locality within a lane) makes it easy to scale clock frequency. Still, this may not be the most appropriate method for a energy-conscious design. Allocating additional arithmetic units allows the execution of more vector instructions in parallel. One would probably add memory units as well to keep the design balanced. However, each extra functional unit requires additional vector register file ports which increases design complexity.

Vector performance can be readily scaled up by adding parallel lanes, or scaled down by removing lanes. This performance scaling can be made transparent to compiled code. The balance between arithmetic and functional units is maintained when scaling the number of lanes, as each lane contains both arithmetic datapaths and memory ports. Vector lengths larger than the number of lanes are required to observe significant application speedup. For many image processing kernels, the maximum application vector length is equal to the width of an image or frame, typically in the order of hundreds of elements. Therefore, the number



of lanes in VIRAM can be doubled a few times and still lead to proportional improvements in application performance.

Vector architectures are also capable of scaling into future fabrication technologies which will be much more sensitive to interconnect delays. The majority of communication in the vector unit is held local to each lane, hence cycle time should not be affected when scaling up the number of lanes. Vector performance is largely insensitive to vector instruction broadcast latency which can be pipelined across the lanes. The memory crossbar and the inter-lane networks to support extraction operations represent the main places where wire-delay scaling will be visible in future technologies. Since vector architectures can tolerate latency if sufficient fine-grain parallelism is available [2], the interconnect can be pipelined to reduce the effects of wire delay scaling. Instruction chaining can be used to limit the effect of the extra latency to one occurrence per application kernel or loop.

The memory system can be scaled by allocating additional DRAM banks, increasing this way both memory capacity and bandwidth. The performance of the memory system can be improved without increasing the overall capacity by modifying the DRAM bank interface. To reduce access latency, each bank is organized as set of sub-banks connected through a bus to a shared interface. Exposing the existence of sub-banks through the bank interface allows accesses to different sub-banks in the same bank to overlap. Effective memory bandwidth is therefore increased. Such accesses would otherwise lead to a bank conflict and would be serialized.

The rapidly increasing complexity of superscalar processor design [19][35] is a disadvantage when considering utilizing future high density fabrication processes. In contrast, VIRAM has a modular design both in the vector unit and memory system that can be readily scaled to larger designs. Control logic complexity grows only slowly with system size whereas the design complexity of a superscalar, out-of-order design is a super-linear function of issue width.

## 4 Performance

Table 1 presents the peak performance for arithmetic operations for the various integer and floating-point data types supported in the vector unit. These numbers do not include the processing power of the scalar core. In general, peak performance doubles when data width is halved. Peak floating-point performance depends on whether fused multiply-add can be utilized by the application. Double precision floating-point performance for multiply and multiply-add operations is lower than that for additions, because multiplication is not fully pipelined for this data type.

We used a detailed performance model for our architecture to measure the sustained per-

Data Type	Data Width	Peak Performance
Integer	16b	6.4 GOPS
	32b	3.2 GOPS
	64b	1.6 GOPS
Floating-point (multiply-add)	32b	3.2 GFLOPS
	64b	0.8 GFLOPS
Floating-point (multiply)	32b	1.6 GFLOPS
	64b	0.4 GFLOPS
Floating-point (add)	32b	1.6 GFLOPS
	64b	0.8 GFLOPS

Table 1: The peak performance of VIRAM.

formance of VIRAM for a set of media kernels. The model simulates the vector unit and the memory system in a cycle accurate fashion, excluding minor details such as DRAM refresh cycles. We used the following set of representative media kernels: image composition, iDCT, color conversion, convolution, and matrix-vector multiplication. Composition or alpha blending merges two 8-bit single channel images using a weight factor. iDCT performs the 2D inverse discrete cosine transform on 8x8 blocks of 8-bit single channel images using the AAN algorithm [1]. Color space conversion translates 24-bit RGB images to a YUV representation. Convolution applies a 3x3 box filter on an image. Finally, we implemented matrix-vector ( $V \times M$ ) and vector-matrix ( $V^T \times M$ ) multiplication both for integer and floating-point numbers. The matrix size used was 1000x1000. The kernels were coded directly in assembly and scheduled manually. Software pipelining was used for image composition, color conversion, and convolution. For iDCT and matrix-vector multiplication, loop unrolling was also used.

## 4.1 Base System Performance

Table 2 presents the sustained performance of VIRAM for each kernel in terms of GOPS or GFLOPS and percentage of peak performance. The type and width of arithmetic operations for each kernel are also listed. A memory system with sixteen DRAM banks (32 MBytes) was used. Sustained performance ranges from 48.5% to 100% of the peak with an average of 88.8%. VIRAM efficiently exploits the data parallelism available in these applications, and DRAM latency is hidden by the delayed pipeline. For iDCT, performance is limited by the large number of bank conflicts and the restriction of four addresses per cycle for strided

Kernel	Data Type	GOPS or GFLOPS	% of Peak
Composition	Int (16b)	6.40	100.0%
iDCT	Int (16b)	3.10	48.5%
Color Conversion	Int (32b)	3.07	96.0%
Convolution	Int (32b)	3.16	98.7%
$M \times V$ Multiply	Int (32b)	2.77	86.5%
$V^T \times M$ Multiply	Int (32b)	3.00	93.7%
$M \times V$ Multiply	FP (32b)	2.80	87.5%
$V^T \times M$ Multiply	FP (32b)	3.19	99.6%
<b>Average</b>			<b>88.8%</b>

Table 2: The sustained performance of VIRAM for the media kernels.

	VIRAM	MMX [8]	VIS [33]	TMS320C82 [18]
Composition	0.13	-	2.22 (17.0x)	-
iDCT	0.75	3.75 (5.0x)	-	5.70 (7.6x)
Color Conversion	0.77	8.00 (10.4x)	-	-
Convolution	1.21	5.49 (4.5x)	6.19 (5.1x)	6.5 (5.3x)

Table 3: Performance comparison between VIRAM, MMX, VIS, and TMS320C82. All numbers are in cycles per pixel. The values in parentheses are the ratios of VIRAM’s performance to that of the corresponding architecture. Ratios greater than 1.0 indicate higher performance for VIRAM.

accesses<sup>5</sup>. For matrix-vector multiplication, the  $M \times V$  form is limited by the use of extract operations for implementing reductions. These operations execute in one of the arithmetic units but are not included in the arithmetic operation count for the kernel. The rest of the kernels achieve operations throughput within a few percentage points from the peak.

To compare with other architectures, we present performance in terms of cycles per pixel. Table 3 compares VIRAM to two general purpose architectures with SIMD extensions and one DSP processor. MMX [29] and VIS [38] are 64-bit SIMD media extensions used with the Pentium and UltraSparc processors respectively. The performance results for MMX and VIS assume that all data is located in the primary cache<sup>6</sup>. This is an optimistic

<sup>5</sup>For the 16-bit data type, an arithmetic instruction can process 16 vector elements per clock cycle, while a strided or indexed access can only proceed at the rate of four elements per cycle.

<sup>6</sup>SRAM caches usually have access latency and bank busy time of one or two processor cycles.

Kernel	1 Lane System	2 Lane System	4 Lane System	8 Lane System
Composition	1.60 (100%)	3.20 (100%)	6.40 (100%)	10.24 (80%)
iDCT	0.96 (60%)	1.85 (58%)	3.10 (48%)	3.63 (27%)
Color Conversion	0.79 (99%)	1.56 (98%)	3.07 (96%)	5.90 (92%)
Convolution	0.8 (100%)	1.59 (99%)	3.16 (99%)	6.05 (95%)
$M \times V$ Multiply	0.73 (91%)	1.45 (91%)	2.77 (87%)	4.78 (75%)
$V^T \times M$ Multiply	0.79 (99%)	1.55 (97%)	3.00 (94%)	5.8 (91%)
$M \times V$ Multiply	0.75 (94%)	1.48 (93%)	2.80 (88%)	4.91 (77%)
$V^T \times M$ Multiply	0.79 (99%)	1.59 (99%)	3.19 (99%)	6.38 (99%)
<b>Average Efficiency</b>	<b>92.1%</b>	<b>90.8%</b>	<b>88.8%</b>	<b>78.2%</b>

Table 4: The Sustained performance for VIRAM configurations with one, two, four, and eight lanes. The values in parentheses are the achieved percentages of the peak performance for the corresponding configuration.

assumption, especially in the case of streaming media applications where temporal data locality is limited. TMS320C82 [18] combines a RISC core with two 32-bit DSP cores architected for media processing. All three systems can perform multiple narrow operations on wider datapaths in parallel. Despite accessing directly the DRAM main memory instead of a SRAM primary cache, VIRAM outperforms the SIMD extensions by factors of 4.5 to 17. A factor of four results from the use of four 64-bit lanes, leading to datapaths four times wider than those in MMX and VIS. The remaining improvement is due to the benefits from implementing a complete vector instruction set, such as support for vector memory references. VIRAM outperforms TMS320C82 by factors of 5.3 and 7.5 for convolution and iDCT respectively, demonstrating that the architecture efficiently supports DSP processors features.

## 4.2 Scaled System Performance

To demonstrate the scaling properties of our architecture, we simulated three additional VIRAM systems with one, two and eight lanes respectively. Scaling the number of lanes adds both datapaths and memory ports to the system. We also scale the number of addresses per cycle generated for strided and indexed accesses, and the number of addresses that can be transferred by each crossbar to match the number of lanes. The rest of the system is the same as the four-lane VIRAM we have presented. The same executables were used with all four configurations. Table 4 presents the sustained performance for each configuration and Figure 7 shows the speedup over the single lane system. Excluding iDCT, the speedup is

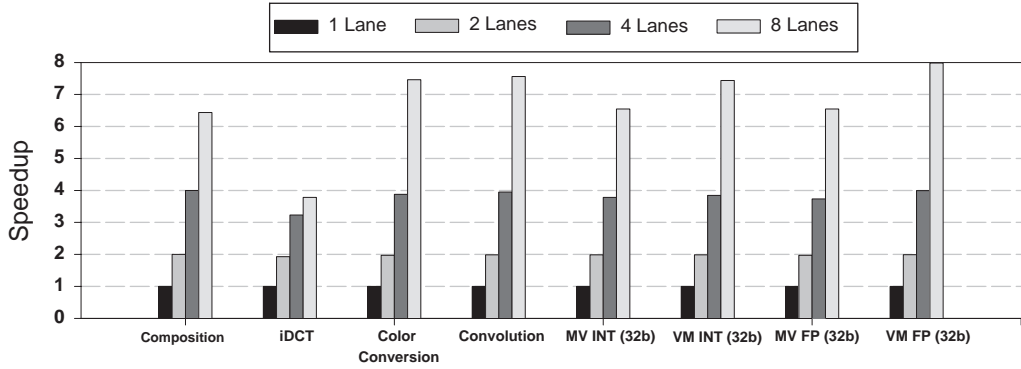


Figure 7: The speedup of four VIRAM configurations over the single lane system.

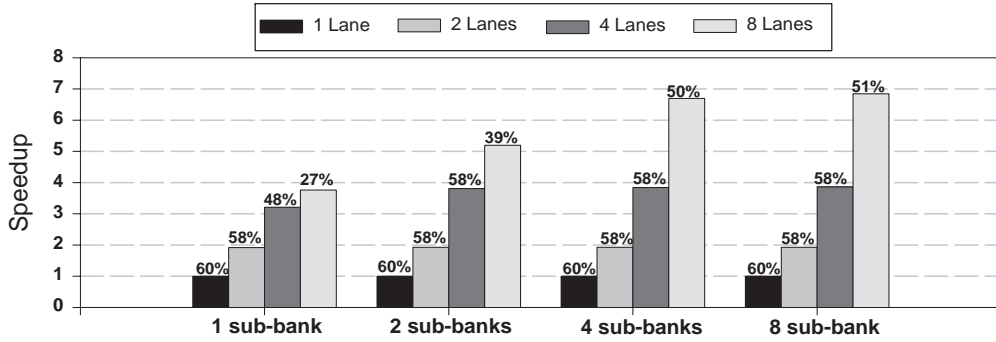


Figure 8: The speedup for iDCT with four different DRAM bank designs, each with a different number of sub-banks. The percentage of peak performance achieved for each configuration is presented above the speedup column.

near linear, which shows that increasing the number of lanes leads to proportional increases in application performance without rescheduling and recompilation.

For iDCT, speedup is severely limited by bank conflicts in the memory system. As explained in Section 2, conflicts can be reduced by modifying the DRAM bank interface to expose the existence of sub-banks. Figure 8 shows the speedup for iDCT for systems with one, two, four and eight sub-banks per bank. Excluding the sub-banks, each configuration is the same with the one described in the previous paragraph, and the same executable was used. The system with four lanes and one sub-bank per bank is the one described in Section 2. Four sub-banks provide sufficient parallelism in the memory system to achieve near linear speedup and sustained performance between 50% and 60% of the peak. At this point, the main performance bottleneck is the number of addresses generated per cycle for strided

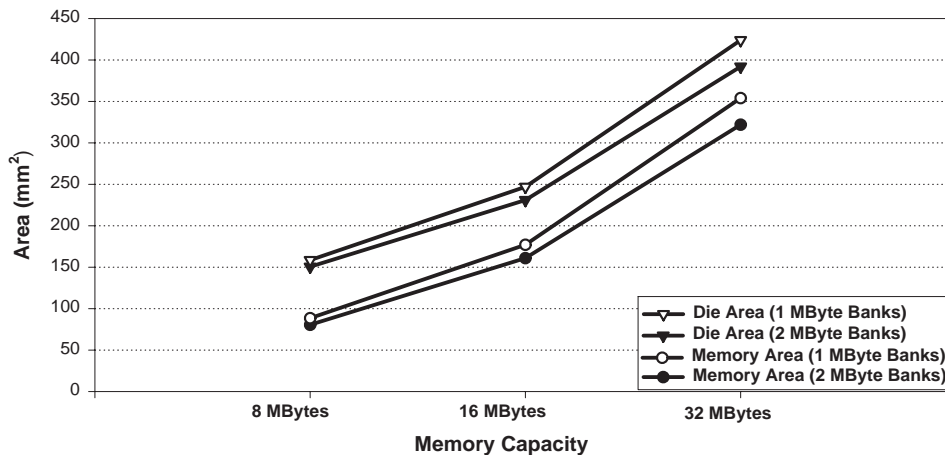


Figure 9: The area for memory and the total die area for VIRAM systems with memory capacity of 8, 16, and 32 MBytes. The area for systems using 1 and 2 MByte banks as the basic building block is presented.

accesses. Scaling the number of addresses for strided and indexed accesses is an expensive enhancement since it requires additional resources for address generation and translation, scalar cache invalidations, and crossbar address paths.

### 4.3 Memory System Scaling

Apart from scaling the computational power of the architecture, scaling the memory capacity is also of great interest. With die cost being a super-linear function of die area [22], matching the memory capacity of a VIRAM chip to the application requirements is important for consumer-level applications systems. The initial commercial implementations of VIRAM will probably have less than 32 MBytes of memory on-chip to reduce cost. In this section, we examine the effect of scaling down the memory capacity to die area and sustained performance.

Memory capacity can be decreased by reducing the number of independent DRAM banks in the system. Figure 9 shows the area occupied by DRAM memory and the total die area for VIRAM configurations with memory capacity of 8, 16, and 32 MBytes. Area values for memory systems using 1 and 2 MByte DRAM banks as the building block are presented. All configurations have four lanes in the vector unit. The numbers presented reflect the IBM 0.18  $mm^2$  embedded DRAM technology used to implement VIRAM, which is based on a logic process and is optimized for low latency. Memory density for this technol-

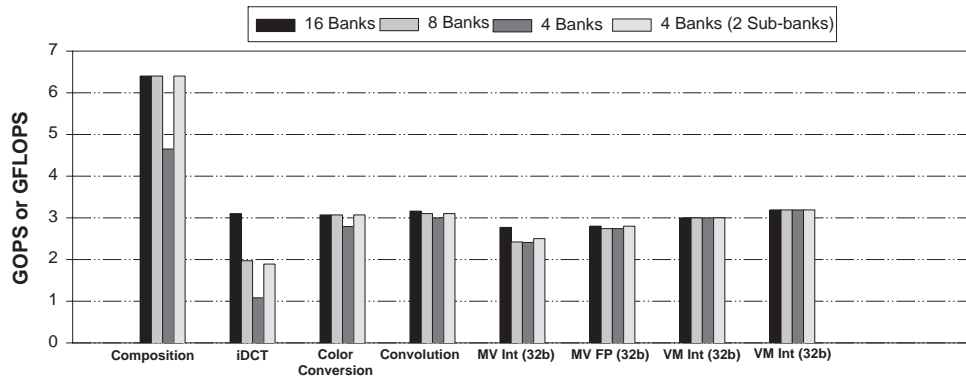


Figure 10: The performance of VIRAM for systems with 16, 8, and 4 memory banks. For the 4 bank system we also present performance with two sub-banks per bank. For all the other cases, one sub-bank per bank is assumed.

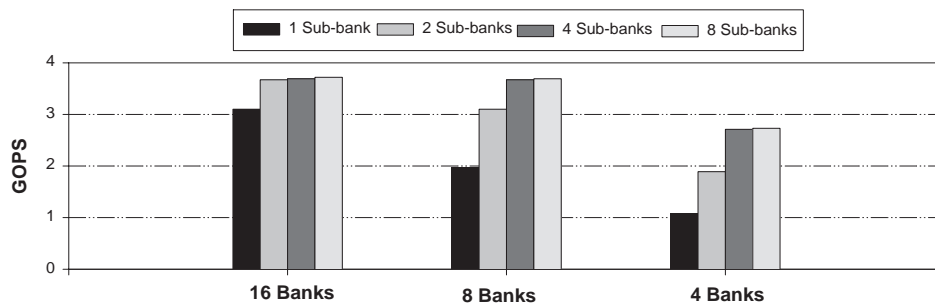


Figure 11: The performance of VIRAM for iDCT for systems with 16, 8, and 4 memory banks and 1 to 8 sub-banks per bank.

ogy is 1.8 to 2 times lower than that of embedded DRAM technologies optimized for area. While using another process will lead to different area values, we believe that the trends observed will be similar.

A VIRAM system with 32 MBytes of DRAM requires almost  $400 \text{ mm}^2$ . On the other hand, a system with 8 MBytes takes up  $150 \text{ mm}^2$ , a reasonable die size for commercial microprocessors. For any memory capacity, using 2 MByte banks is more efficient than using a larger number of 1 MByte banks. Larger banks amortize better the fixed area overhead per bank for control and test logic. Systems using the 1 MByte bank are 5% to 10% larger than those using the 2 MByte one. A smaller number of banks also simplifies the memory controller design in the vector unit as well.

Number of Banks	Bank Capacity (MBytes)	Memory Capacity (MBytes)	Memory Area ( $mm^2$ )	Die Area ( $mm^2$ )
8	1.00	8	88.4	158.4
8	1.25	10	106.2	176.2
8	1.50	12	124.0	194.0
8	1.75	14	143.1	213.1
8	2.00	16	160.9	230.9
16	1.00	16	176.9	246.9
16	1.25	20	212.4	282.4
16	1.50	24	248.1	318.1
16	1.75	28	286.4	356.4
16	2.00	32	321.9	391.9

Table 5: The memory and die area for a four lane VIRAM system using DRAM banks with capacity between 1 and 2 MBytes. Bank capacity is incremented by 0.25 MBytes. The area of systems with 8 and 16 DRAM banks. is presented.

Figure 10 presents how scaling the number of banks affects the performance of a four lane VIRAM system. By eliminating DRAM banks, the parallelism in the memory system is reduced. Less addresses can be issued and processed in parallel, and it becomes more difficult to hide DRAM bank busy time. Still, the performance for most kernels is not affected, even with the four bank system. For image composition, a kernel with three independent address streams, performance is significantly reduced with four banks due to the large number of memory conflicts<sup>7</sup>. Exposing the existence of two sub-banks per bank is enough to restore the original performance in this case. The use of sub-banks in systems with few banks is more critical for applications with strided or indexed accesses like iDCT. Figure 11 presents the performance for iDCT as a function of the number of banks and sub-banks per bank. For the four bank system, eight sub-banks do not provide sufficient parallelism and performance is 12% lower than that for the 16 bank system with one sub-banks per bank. Multiple sub-banks allow accesses to the same bank to overlap, but they do not allow accesses to be issued in parallel.

An alternative way to decrease memory capacity is scale the capacity of the DRAM banks. Most embedded DRAM manufacturers provide a variety of DRAM banks sizes or even compilers that can generate custom bank configurations. These banks usually differ in

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<sup>7</sup>Most of these conflicts could be eliminated with intelligent memory allocation by an optimizing compiler that is aware of the memory system structure.



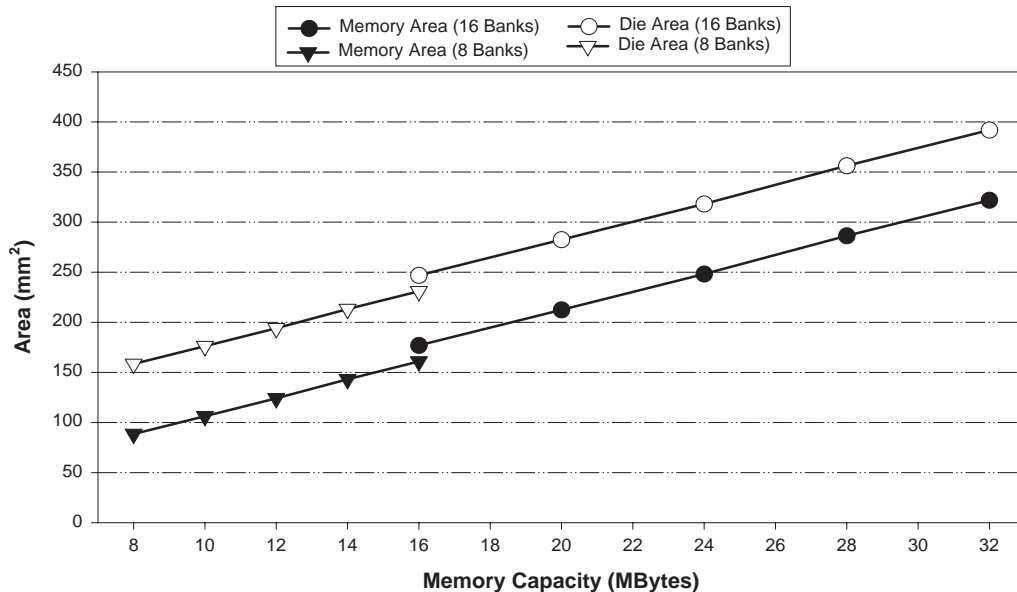


Figure 12: The memory and die area for a four lane VIRAM system using DRAM banks with capacity between 1 and 2 MBytes. Bank capacity is incremented by 0.25 MBytes. The area of systems with 8 and 16 DRAM banks is presented.

the number DRAM rows they contain. Using banks with reduced capacity is less area efficient than reducing the number of (larger) banks, due to the area overhead for control and test logic per bank. On the other hand, keeping the number of banks constant does not affect the memory system parallelism and performance. The use of smaller banks also allows scaling the memory capacity in late stages of the design process with minimal implications to the rest of the system. Table 5 and Figure 12 present the DRAM memory and die area for VIRAM systems with 8 or 16 banks, where the bank capacity varies between 1 and 2 MBytes at increments of 0.25 MBytes. The total memory capacity of the system is between 8 and 32 MBytes and die area varies between 160 and 390  $mm^2$ . Die area scales linearly with memory capacity. Performance, on the other hand, is only affected by the number of banks in the memory system, not by bank capacity.

## 5 Related Work

Several other research efforts have focused on architectural enhancements for media-centric applications. The majority of these systems are based on one of the following approaches: VLIW, SIMD, reconfigurable logic, and stream processing.

VLIW systems, such as Trimedia [37] and VelociTI [39], exploit both regular and irregular parallelism at compile time. For vectorizable code running from a high latency memory system, they require much greater instruction bandwidth and more sophisticated compiler technology when scheduling loops in the presence of high memory latency. VLIW machines must also adopt a clustered approach if they are to scale, which further complicates the compilation task. The compiler will be aware of both intra- and inter-cluster communication latencies. Increased code size is another disadvantage of VLIW systems.

SIMD extensions to existing processor architectures [29, 30] are essentially narrow vector designs without support for vector memory operations. They have limited scalability because each instruction specifies a fixed number of operations. To utilize additional hardware resources in the future, one has to either increase the superscalar issue width or modify the instruction set to increase the width of SIMD operations. Most extensions do not support SIMD memory operations, therefore exposing data alignment to user software [32]. Certain instructions, such as random permutations, will not scale well due to interconnect delay scalability problems. Recent simulation studies have demonstrated that, for media applications, a two-way in-order superscalar processor with a vector unit can outperform a four-way out-of-order design with SIMD extensions by a factor of three [25].

Reconfigurable processors like PipeRench [17], based on FPGA technology, can provide large speedups on some media applications. Reconfigurable systems excel at very narrow bit width operations but incur large die area and power consumption overheads when implementing wide arithmetic structures such as multipliers.

Imagine [34] is a stream processor which also relies on vector parallelism to reduce instruction bandwidth and to cluster functional units. It has small register files local to each functional unit backed up by a 64 KByte global stream register file. VIRAM has a vector register file distributed across lanes backed up by the on-chip memory. Whereas VIRAM provides lanes with arbitrary random access to the larger on-chip memory, Imagine restricts arithmetic clusters to access the stream register file using only sequential streams. Imagine is an attached processor that has been designed to process long streams residing in a separate memory space from the host processor. In contrast, the VIRAM vector unit is tightly coupled to the scalar unit sharing the same instruction stream and memory space, and it has been designed to accelerate even short vector operations.

VIRAM is most similar to the T0 vector microprocessor [4] which was also targeted towards multimedia. T0 had a much simpler SRAM memory system and lacked support for virtual memory, floating-point arithmetic, and partitionable datapaths. Other vector machines include vector super-computers like the SGI/Cray SV1 [15] which have been optimized for super-computer applications rather than low-energy embedded media applications.

Embedded DRAM processors, such as the M32R/D [36], are also available. These merely integrate a simple RISC pipeline in an existing DRAM chip with limited enhancements for utilizing the increased memory bandwidth. In previous work, we have demonstrated the limited performance benefits of this approach [5]. The memory capacity of such processors is usually limited to 4 MBytes, and the memory system organization is similar to that of traditional DRAM chips.

The architecture we present in this paper is targeted towards multimedia applications for embedded, mobile systems. Its pipeline and memory system are designed for embedded DRAM. Unlike other approaches, energy efficiency and scalability of both performance and physical design are major points of focus.

## 6 Conclusions

Microprocessor architectures for next generation portable devices must provide both high-performance for media functions and reduced energy consumption. In addition, the scaling characteristics of CMOS technology require modular designs, that have mostly local interconnect or can tolerate communication latency. Conventional microprocessors fail to meet these requirements.

In this paper we presented VIRAM, a vector microprocessor with embedded memory, optimized for multimedia applications. VIRAM addresses the requirements of future portable devices by integrating vector processing and embedded DRAM. Vector processing provides high performance for media functions with simple, scalable hardware, while embedded DRAM provides high memory capacity and bandwidth at low energy consumption.

Media processing is enhanced in VIRAM by providing flexible support for both narrow and wide data types and a set of DSP features like saturated arithmetic and fast reductions. The vector pipeline is optimized for short vectors and can tolerate high memory latency. Conditional execution, software vector speculation, and virtual memory are also supported. The memory system consists of multiple synchronous DRAM banks interconnected with a high bandwidth crossbar structure. The vector unit design is modular. It is implemented using multiple identical lanes, each one containing one datapath from every functional unit, two memory ports and a register file partition. Performance can be scaled by increasing the number of lanes without complicating control or issue logic. The highly parallel design can provide high performance at low operational frequency and power supply, thus enabling high energy efficiency.

VIRAM is designed for  $0.18\mu\text{m}$  technology with a 200 MHz clock frequency and 1.2 V power supply. The target power consumption for the vector unit and the memory system is 2 Watts. Peak performance is 6.4 GOPS (16-bit operations) or 3.2 GFLOPS (single-

precision). For a set of important media kernels, VIRAM achieves on average 88% performance efficiency and outperforms DSP processors or architectures with SIMD media extensions by factors of 4.5 to 17.

While the base design includes four lanes, we demonstrated that performance scales almost linearly with the number of lanes in the system. For applications with indexed and strided accesses, scaling the memory system performance in parallel with increasing the computational power is necessary to observe performance benefits. Memory system performance can be improved by allocating more memory banks or exposing the existence of sub-banks within each banks. Sub-banks are also important for improving the performance of VIRAM systems with reduced memory capacity, which use a small number of banks for area efficiency.

Future work includes completing the physical design of VIRAM, and evaluating its performance and energy characteristics using an actual demonstration system that includes VIRAM with several peripheral devices. The microprocessor presented in this paper is one possible implementation of the VIRAM instruction set architecture. We intend to investigate through simulations alternative organizations, both for the vector unit and the memory system. All architectural and implementation alternatives will be evaluated both for performance and energy efficiency. Some of the interesting issues are the number, mix, and capabilities of functional units, the timing parameters of the memory system, and support for density-time implementations of vector conditional execution.

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**“What we have to learn, we learn by doing it”**

Aristotle, *Nicomachean Ethics*, 350 B.C.

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