

El 338: Computer Systems Engineering (Operating Systems & Computer Architecture)

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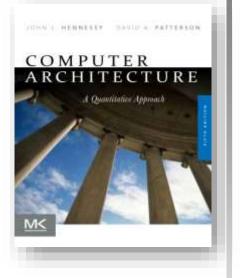


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Computer Architecture A Quantitative Approach, Fifth Edition

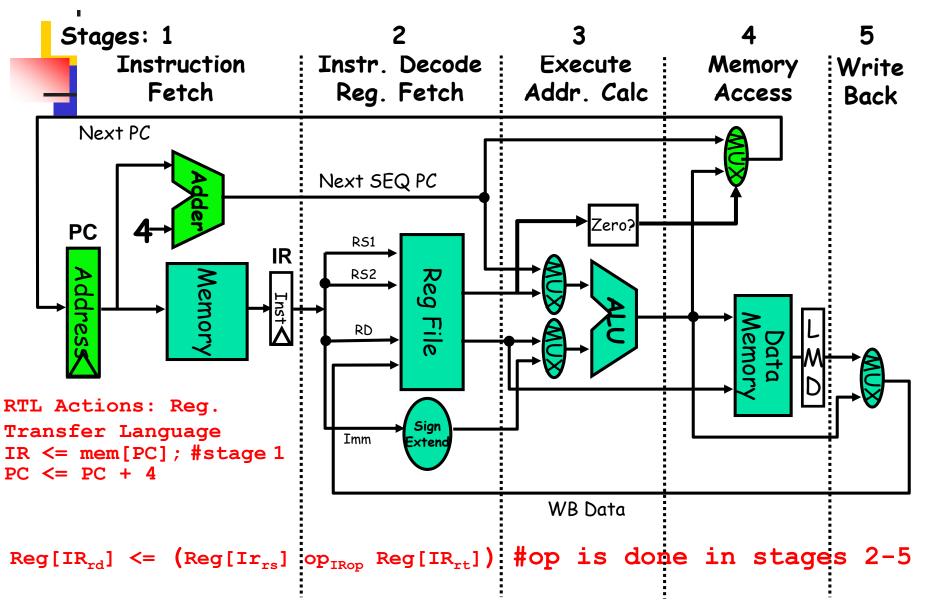


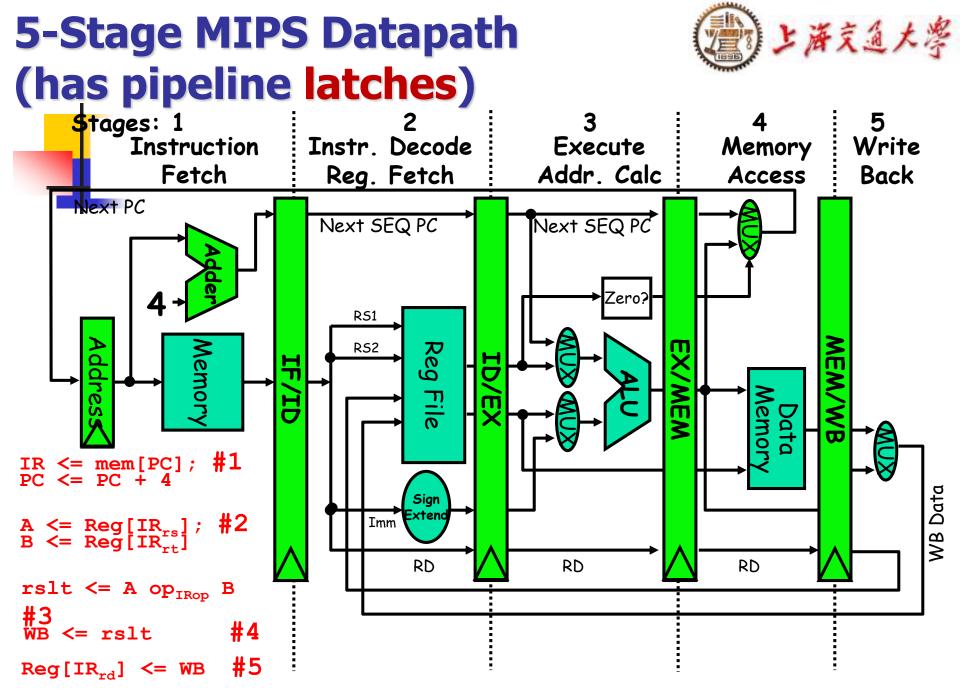
Appendix C

Pipelining

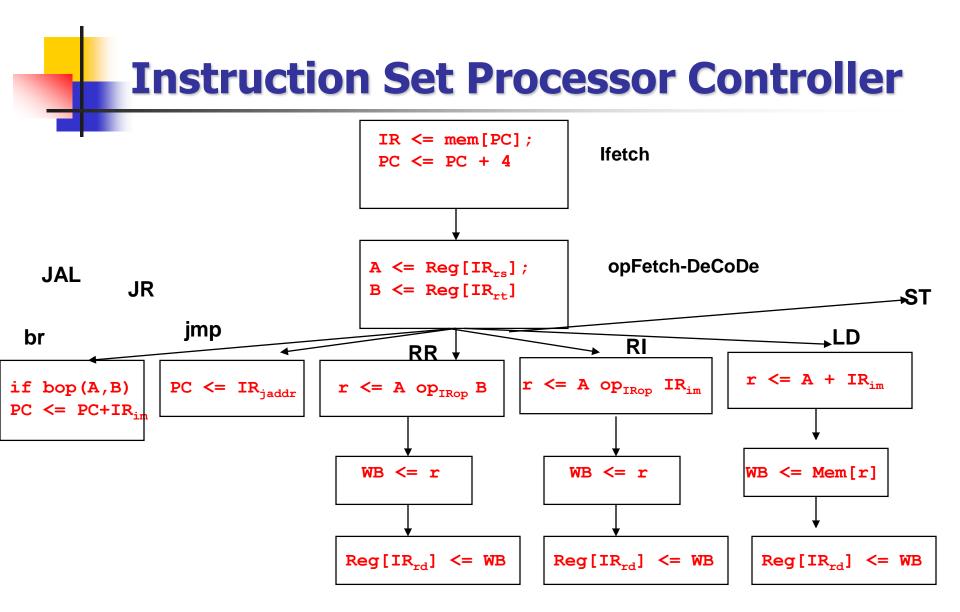
5 Steps of a (pre-pipelined) MIPS Datapath

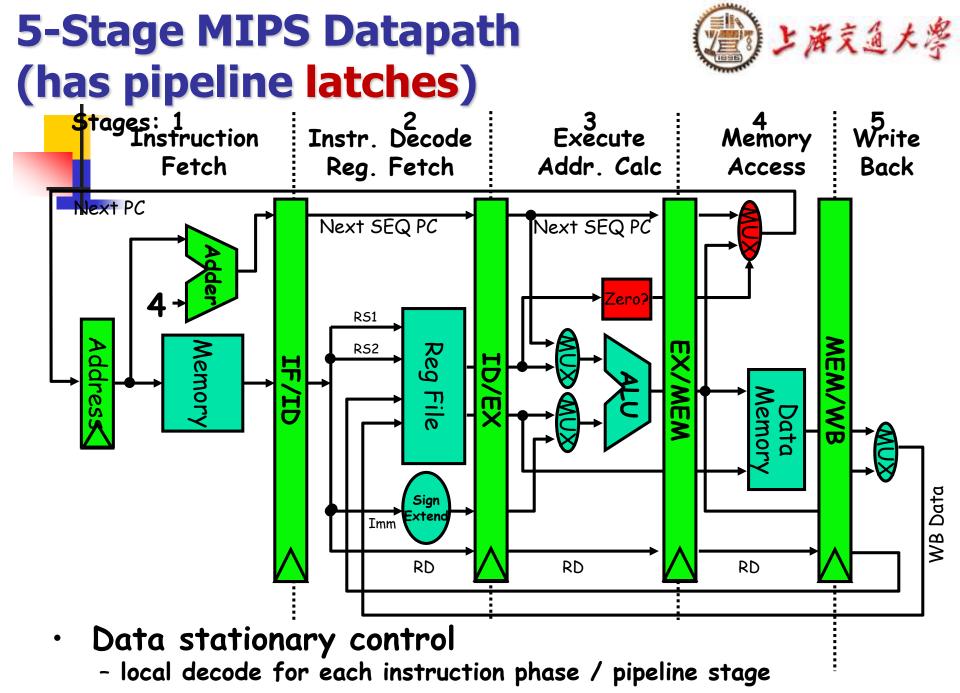






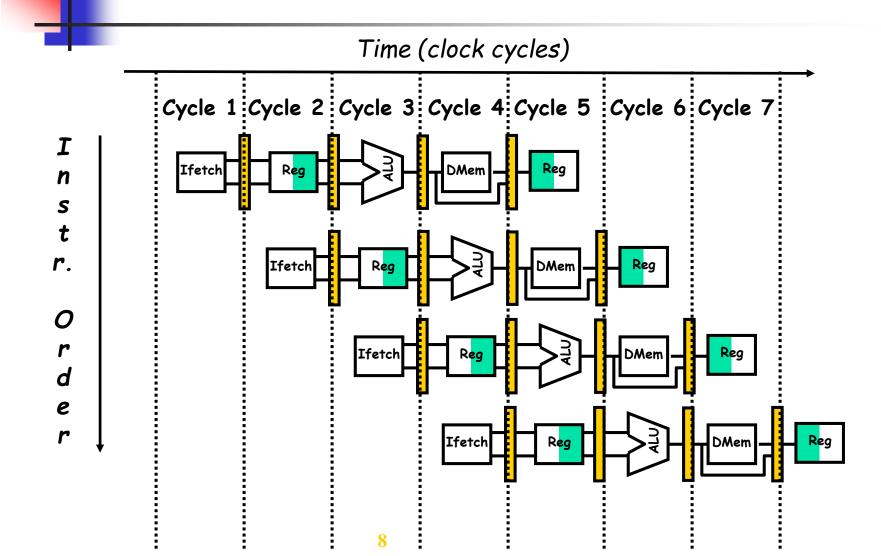








Visualizing Pipelining





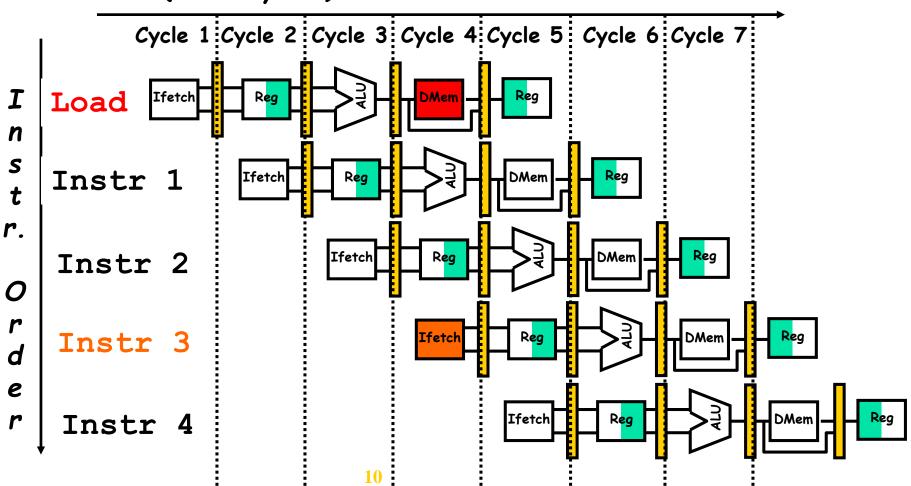
Pipelining is not quite that easy!

- Limits to pipelining: Hazards prevent next instruction from executing during its designated clock cycle
 - <u>Structural hazards</u>: HW cannot support this combination of instructions (having a single person to fold and put clothes away at same time)
 - <u>Data hazards</u>: Instruction depends on result of prior instruction still in the pipeline (having a missing sock in a later wash; cannot put away)
 - <u>Control hazards</u>: Caused by delay between the fetching of instructions and decisions about changes in control flow (branches and jumps).

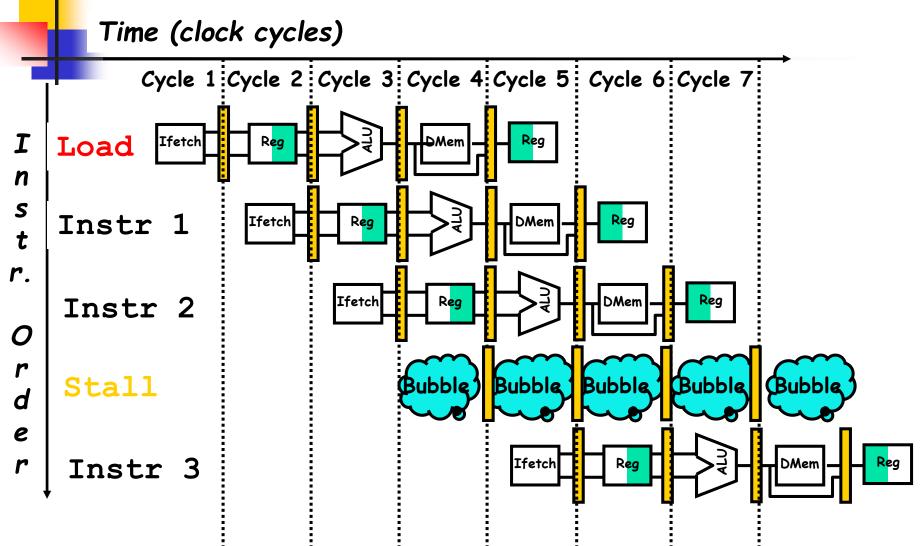


One Memory_Port / Structural_Hazards

Time (clock cycles)



One Memory Port/Structural Hazards



How do you "bubble" the pipe?



Code SpeedUp Equation for Pipelining

 $CPI_{pipelined} = Ideal CPI + Average Stall cycles per Inst$

 $Speedup = \frac{Ideal \ CPI \times Pipeline \ depth}{Ideal \ CPI + Pipeline \ stall \ CPI} \times \frac{Cycle \ Time_{unpipelined}}{Cycle \ Time_{pipelined}}$

For simple RISC pipeline, Ideal CPI = 1:

Speedup =
$$\frac{\text{Pipeline depth}}{1 + \text{Pipeline stall CPI}} \times \frac{\text{Cycle Time}_{\text{unpipelined}}}{\text{Cycle Time}_{\text{pipelined}}}$$



Example: Dual-port vs. Single-port

- Machine A: Dual ported memory ("Harvard Architecture")
- Machine B: Single ported memory, but its pipelined implementation has a 1.05 times faster clock rate
- Ideal CPI = 1 for both
- Assume loads are 20% of instructions executed

SpeedUp_A = Pipeline Depth/(1 + 0) x (clock_{unpipe}/clock_{pipe}) = Pipeline Depth

SpeedUp_B = Pipeline Depth/ $(1 + 0.2 \times 1) \times (clock_{unpipe}/(clock_{unpipe}) / 1.05)$

- = (Pipeline Depth/1.20) x 1.05 {105/120 = 7/8}
- = 0.875 x Pipeline Depth

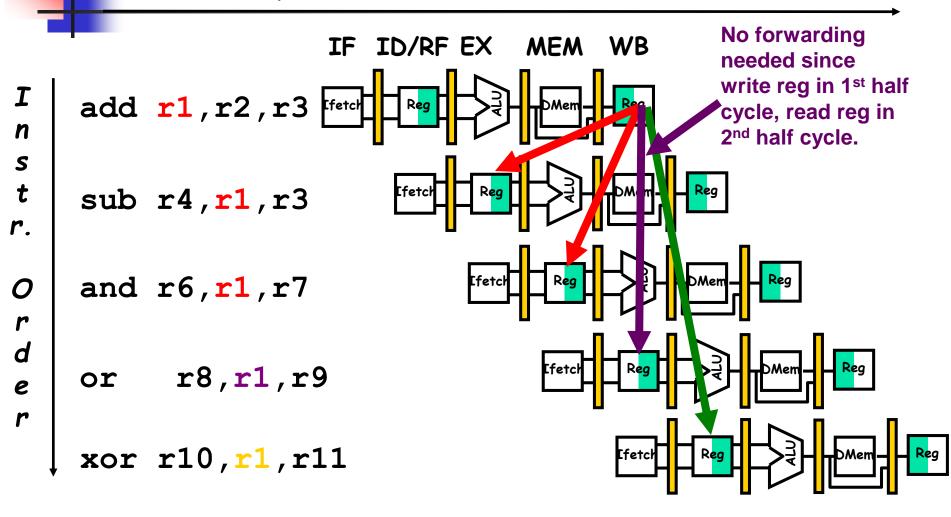
SpeedUp_A / SpeedUp_B = Pipeline Depth/($0.875 \times Pipeline Depth$) = 1.14

Machine A is 1.14 times faster

Data Hazard on Register R1 (If No Forwarding)



Time (clock cycles)





Three Generic Data Hazards

Read After Write (RAW) Instr₁ tries to read operand before Instr₁ writes it

$$\begin{array}{c} I: add r1, r2, r3 \\ J: sub r4, r1, r3 \end{array}$$

 Caused by a "(True) Dependence" (in compiler nomenclature). This hazard results from an actual need for communicating a new data value.



Three Generic Data Hazards

Write After Read (WAR) Instr, writes operand <u>before</u> Instr, reads it

- Called an "anti-dependence" by compiler writers. This results from reuse of the name "r1".
- Cannot happen in MIPS 5 stage pipeline because:
 - All instructions take 5 stages, and
 - Register reads are always in stage 2, and
 - Register writes are always in stage 5



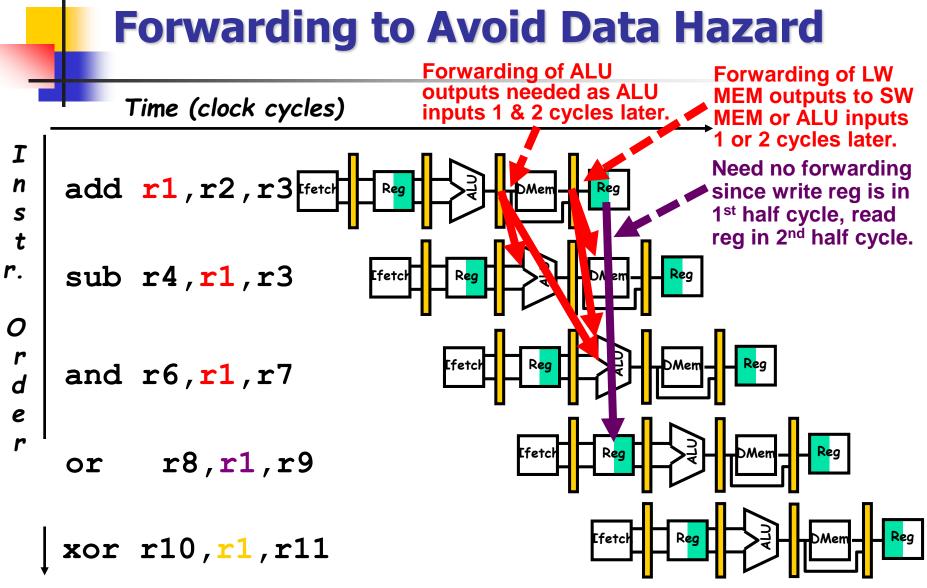
Three Generic Data Hazards

Write After Write (WAW) Instr_J writes operand <u>before</u> Instr_I writes it.

✓ I: sub r1,r4,r3 ✓ J: add r1,r2,r3 K: mul r6,r1,r7

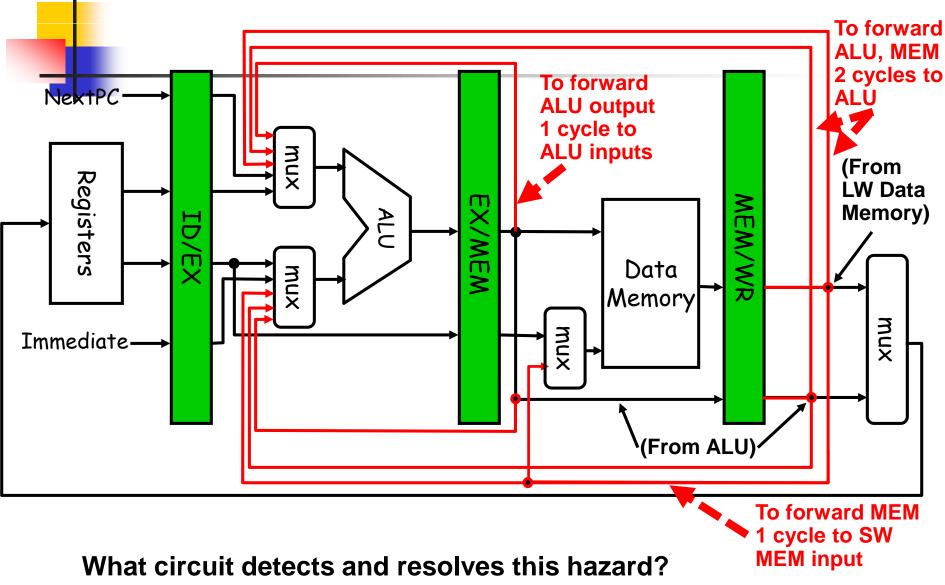
- Called an "output dependence" by compiler writers
 This also results from the reuse of name "r1".
- Cannot happen in MIPS 5 stage pipeline because:
 - All instructions take 5 stages, and
 - Register writes are always in stage 5
- Will see WAR and WAW in more complicated pipes





HW Datapath Changes (in red) for Forwarding

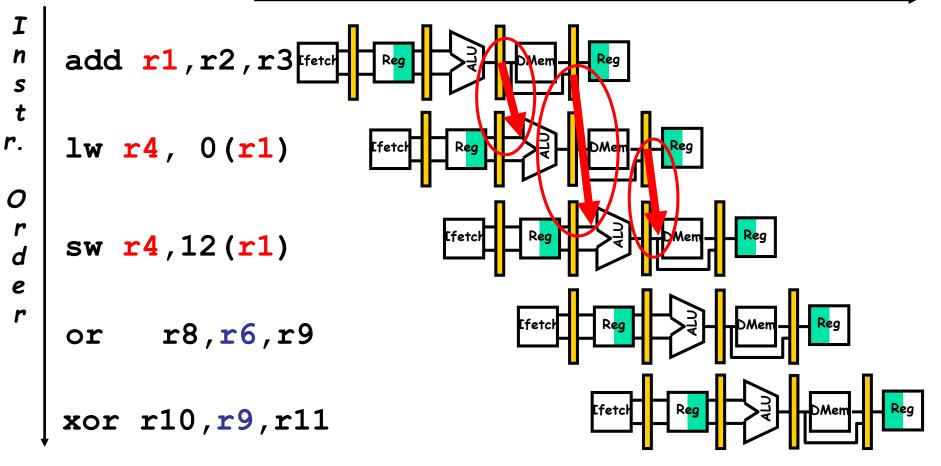






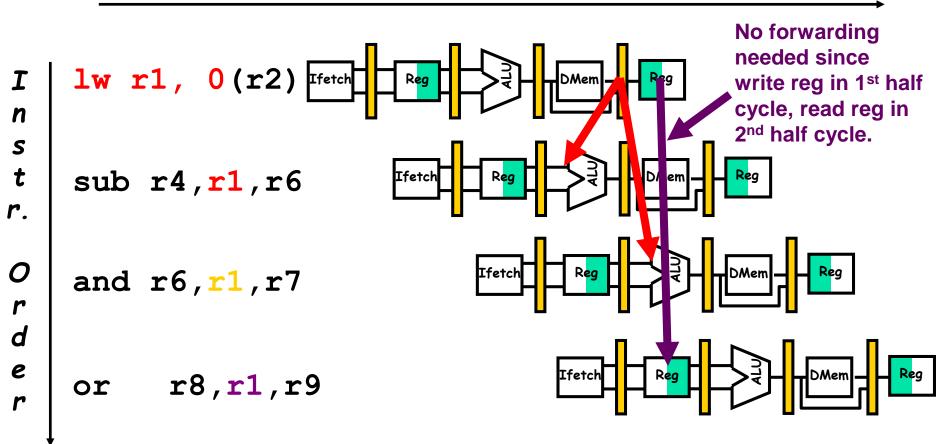
Forwarding Avoids ALU-ALU & LW-SW Data Hazards

Time (clock cycles)

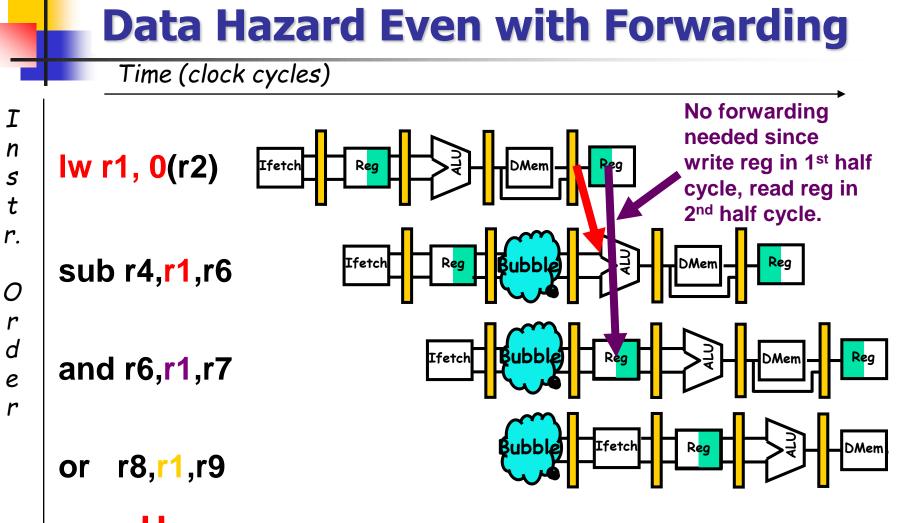


(ご) と済え急大学 LW-ALU Data Hazard Even with Forwarding

Time (clock cycles)







How is this hazard detected?

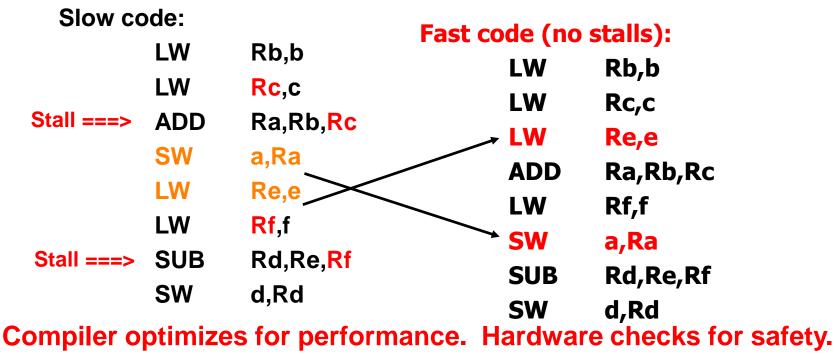
Software Scheduling to Avoid Load Hazards



Try producing fast code with no stalls for

$$\mathbf{d} = \mathbf{e} - \mathbf{f};$$

assuming a, b, c, d ,e, and f are in memory.



Important technique !



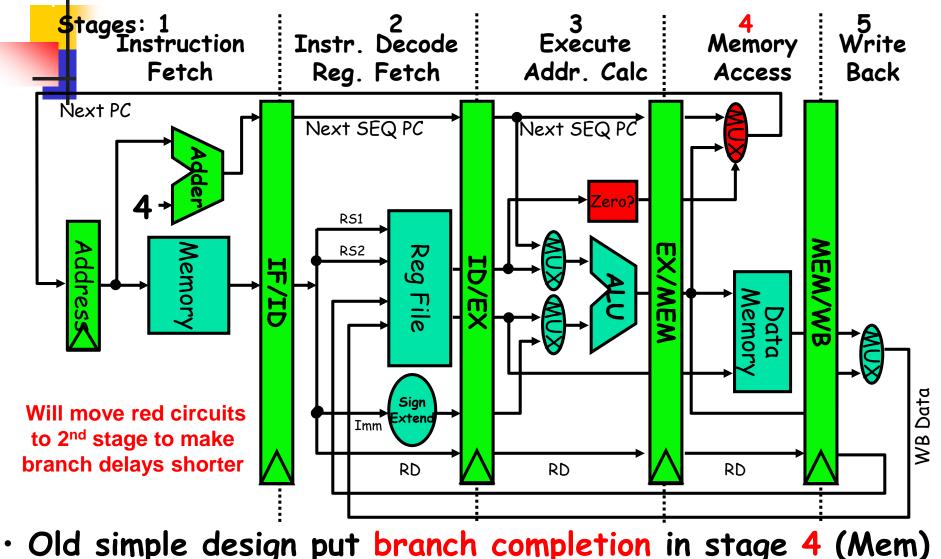
Outline

MIPS – An ISA for Pipelining

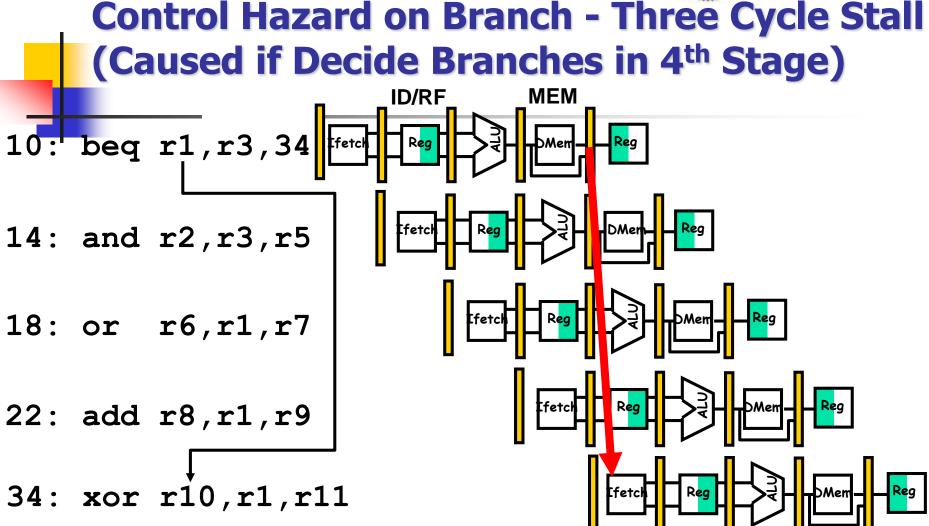
- 5 stage pipelining
- Structural and Data Hazards
- Forwarding
- Branch Schemes
- Exceptions and Interrupts
- Conclusion

5-Stage MIPS Datapath (has pipeline latches)









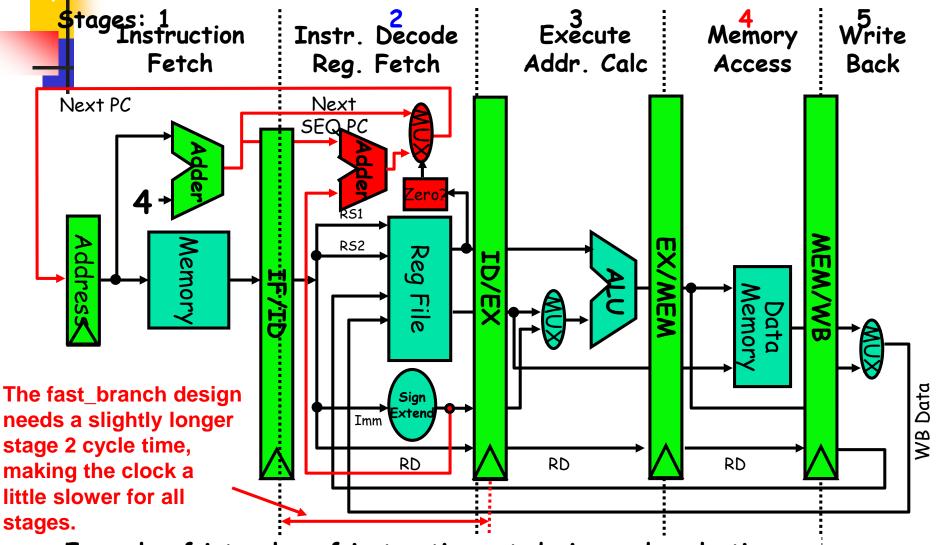
What can be done with the 3 instructions between beq & xor? Code between beq&xor must not start until know beq not branch => 3 stalls Adding 3 cycle stall after every branch (1/7 of instructions) => CPI += 3/7. BAD!



Branch Stall Impact if Commit in Stage 4

- If CPI = 1 and 15% of instructions are branches, Stall 3 cycles => new CPI = 1.45 (1+3*.15) Too much!
- Two-part solution:
 - Determine sooner whether branch taken or not, AND
 - Compute taken branch address earlier
- MIPS branch tests if register = 0 or ≠ 0
- Original 1986 MIPS Solution:
 - Move zero_test to ID/RF (Inst Decode & Register Fetch) stage(2) (4=MEM)
 - Add extra adder to calculate new PC (Program Counter) in ID/RF stage
 - Result is 1 clock cycle penalty for branch versus 3 when decided in MEM

New Pipelined MIPS Datapath: Faster Branch



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• Example of interplay of instruction set design and cycle time.



Four Branch Hazard Alternatives

- **#1: Stall until branch direction is clearly known**
- **#2: Predict Branch Not Taken Easy Solution**
 - Execute the next instructions in sequence
 - PC+4 already calculated, so use it to get next instruction
 - Nullify bad instructions in pipeline if branch is actually taken
 - Nullify easier since pipeline state updates are late (MEM, WB)
 - 47% MIPS branches not taken on average



Four Branch Hazard Alternatives

#3: Predict Branch Taken

- 53% MIPS branches taken on average
- But have not calculated branch target address in MIPS
 - MIPS still incurs 1 cycle branch penalty
 - Some other CPUs: branch target known before outcome



Last of Four Branch Hazard Alternatives

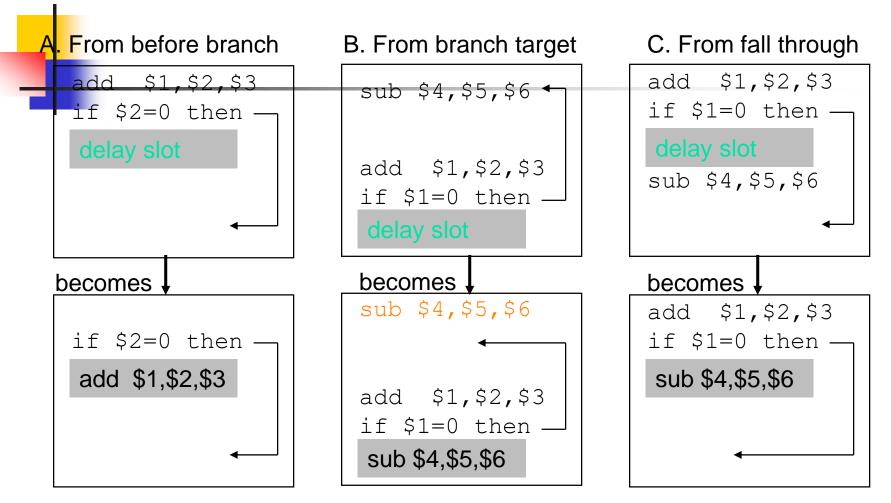
#4: Delayed Branch (Used Only in 1st MIPS "Killer Micro")

Define branch to take place AFTER a following instruction

branch instruction	
$sequential successor_1$	
sequential $successor_2$	Branch delay of length n
• • • • • • • •	
$sequential successor_n$	
branch target if taken	

- 1 slot delay allows proper decision and branch target address in 5 stage pipeline
- MIPS 1st used this (Later versions of MIPS did not; pipeline deeper)

Scheduling Branch Delay Slots



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- A is the best choice, fills delay slot & reduces instruction count (IC)
- In B, the sub instruction may need to be copied, increasing IC
- In B and C, must be okay to execute an extra sub when branch fails



Delayed Branch Not Used in Modern CPUs

- Compiler effectiveness 1/2 for single branch delay slot:
 - Fills about 60% of branch delay slots
 - About 80% of instructions executed in branch delay slots useful in computation
 - Only half of (60% x 80%) slots usefully filled; cannot fill 2 or more



Delayed Branch Not Used in Modern CPUs

- Delayed Branch downside: As processor designs use deeper pipelines and multiple issue, the branch delay grows and needs many more delay slots
 - Delayed branching soon lost effectiveness and popularity compared to more expensive but more flexible dynamic approaches
 - Growth in available transistors soon permitted dynamic approaches that keep records of branch locations, taken/not-taken decisions, and target addresses
 - Multi-issue 2 => 3 delay slots needed, 4 => 7 slots, 8 => 15 slots



Evaluating Branch Alternatives

Pipeline speedup = $\frac{\text{Pipeline depth}}{1 + \text{Branch frequency} \times \text{Branch penalty}}$ Assume 4% unconditional jump, 10% conditional branch-taken, 6% conditional branch-not-taken, base CPI = 1. Scheduling Branch CPI speedup vs. speedup vs. penalty no-pipe 5 cycles stall_pipeline Scheme Stall pipeline (Stage 4) 3 1.60 3.1 1.00 Predict taken (Stage 2) 1 1.20 4.2 1.33 Predict not taken (St.2) 1 1.14 4.4 1.40 Delayed branch (Stg 2) 0.5 1.10 4.5 1.45 (Sample 1.60 = 1 + 3(4 + 10 + 6)) (4.5 = 5/1.10) (1.45 = 1.6/1.1)calcu- 1.20=1+1(4+10+6)% (to calculate taken target)

lations) 1.14=1+1(4+10)% (refetch for jump, taken-branch)

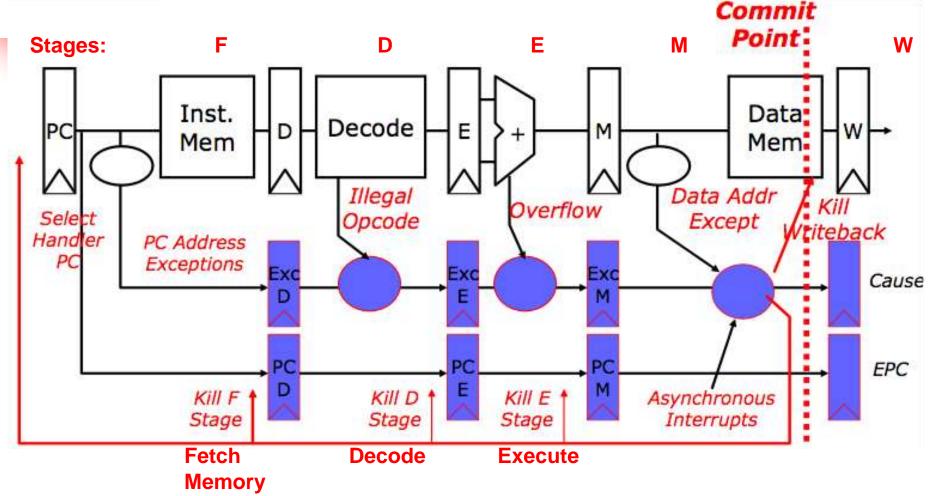


Another Problem with Pipelining

- Exception: An unusual event happens to an instruction during its execution {caused by instructions executing}
 - Examples: divide by zero, undefined opcode
- Interrupt: Hardware signal to switch the processor to a new instruction stream {not directly caused by code}
 - Example: a sound card interrupts when it needs more audio output samples (an audio "click" happens if it is left waiting)
- Precise Interrupt Problem: Must seem as if the exception or interrupt appeared <u>between</u> 2 instructions (I_i and I_{i+1}) although several instructions were executing at the time
 - All instructions up to and including I_i are totally completed
 - No effect of any instruction after I_i is allowed to be saved
- After a precise interrupt, the interrupt (exception) handler either aborts the program or restarts at instruction I_{i+1}

Precise Exceptions in Static Pipelines





Key observation: "Architected" states change only in memory (M) and register write (W) stages.



And In Conclusion: Control and Pipelining

- Quantify and summarize performance
 - **Ratios, Geometric Mean, Multiplicative Standard Deviation**
- F&P: Benchmarks age, disks fail, single-point failure
- Control via State Machines and Microprogramming
- Just overlap tasks; easy if tasks are independent
- Speed Up < Pipeline Depth; if ideal CPI is 1, then:</p>

Speedup = $\frac{\text{Pipeline depth}}{1 + \text{Pipeline stall CPI}} \times \frac{\text{Cycle Time}_{\text{unpipelined}}}{\text{Cycle Time}_{\text{pipelined}}}$

- Hazards limit performance on computers by stalling:
 - Structural: need more HW resources
 - Data (RAW,WAR,WAW): need forwarding, compiler scheduling
 - Control: delayed branch or branch (taken/not-taken) prediction
- Exceptions and interrupts add complexity



