Pipelining: Basic and Intermediate Concepts

Appendix C

- Basics of Pipelining
- Implementation of Pipeline
- Hazards and their Solutions
- Exception Handling
- □ Pipeline with Floating-Point Instructions
- Dynamic Scheduling of Pipelines

Principles of Pipelining

What is Pipelining?

An implementation technique where multiple instructions are overlapped in execution

- Each step completes a part of instruction
- All stages must be ready to proceed at the same time
- Throughput of a pipeline How often an instruction exits a pipeline? Number of instructions completed per unit time
- Pipeline Processor Cycle

Time required to move an instruction one step down the pipeline

> **Determined by the slowest stage** Pipe stage or pipe segment



Introduction to Pipelining

For perfectly balanced set of stages

Time/Instruction in a pipelined processor =

<u>Time/instruction on an unpipelined machine</u>

Number of Pipe Stages

Or Speedup from pipelining = Number of Pipe Stages

- Limitations
 Pipeline stages are not perfectly balanced
 Pipelining involves some overhead
- Pipelining yields reduction in average execution time/instruction
 By decreasing CPT
 - By decreasing CPI
- A speedup technique that is not visible to programmers



- The Basics of the RISC-V Instruction Set
- All operations are performed on registers and the entire register is involved
- Only load/store instructions access memory
- Processor comprises of only a few instruction formats and has single length instructions
- Focus would be on three classes of integer subset of RISC architecture instructions

Integer ALU Instructions Load/Store word Instructions Branch Instructions

* A Simple Implementation of a RISC Instruction Set Implementation on a non-pipelined machine An instruction takes at most 5-clock cycles



- IF (Instruction Fetch Cycle)
 Send contents of PC to memory
 Fetch current instruction from memory
 Update PC by adding 4
- ➤ ID (Instruction Decode/ Register Fetch Cycle)

 Decode operation code

 Fetch registers given by the source specifiers

 Do equality test on registers for a possible branch

 Sign-extend the immediate field

 Compute (possible) branch target address
- Fixed field decoding allows all the above operations to be performed in parallel
 Some of the operations may not be required



1000	31	25	24		20	19		15	14	12	11		7 6		0	
K	funct7			rs2			rs1		fund	ct3		rd		opcode		R-type
ŝ																
Ś	imm[11:0]						rs1		fund	ct3		rd		opcode		I-type
語の方															,	
	imm[11:5]			rs2			rs1		fund	ct3	im	m[4:0]		opcode		S-type
	imm[31:12]											rd		opcode		U-type

•R-type: register-register

•I-type: short immediates and loads

•S-type: stores

•U-type: long immediates

Four major types of instructions



- **EX** (Execution/Effective Address Cycle)
- **ALU** operates on operands
 - Any one of the following operations is performed
 - **Memory reference instruction**
 - Effective address is calculated
 - **Register-Register ALU instruction**
 - Performs ALU operation on operands
 - Register-immediate ALU instruction
 - Performs operations on operand and signextended immediate data
 - **Conditional branch**
 - Determine whether the condition is true
- MEM (Memory Access Cycle)
- Active only for load/store instructions



Load: Read operand from memory

Store: Store a register content into memory

- WB (Write Back Cycle)
- Register-Register ALU instructions or Load instructions are the only active instructions
 Writes the result from ALU or from memory

Overall execution cycles

Branch Instructions: 3 cycles (12%)

Store Instructions: 4 cycles (10%)

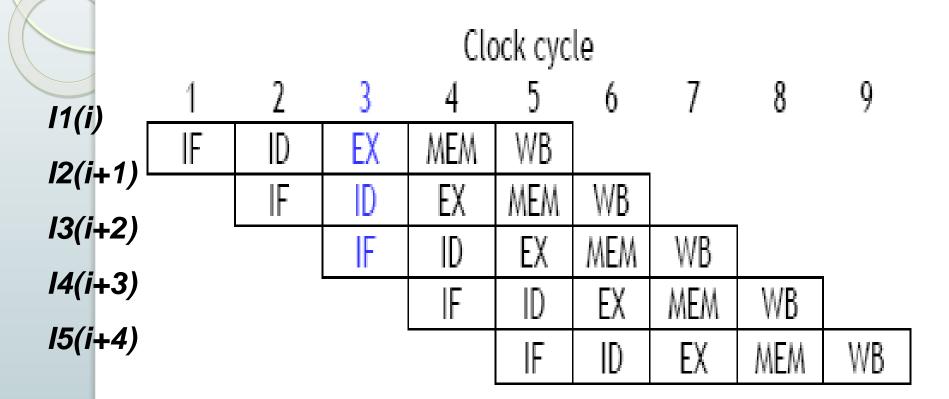
All other Instructions: 5 cycles

Average CPI is 4.66 clock cycles (approx.)
 Not an optimal implementation

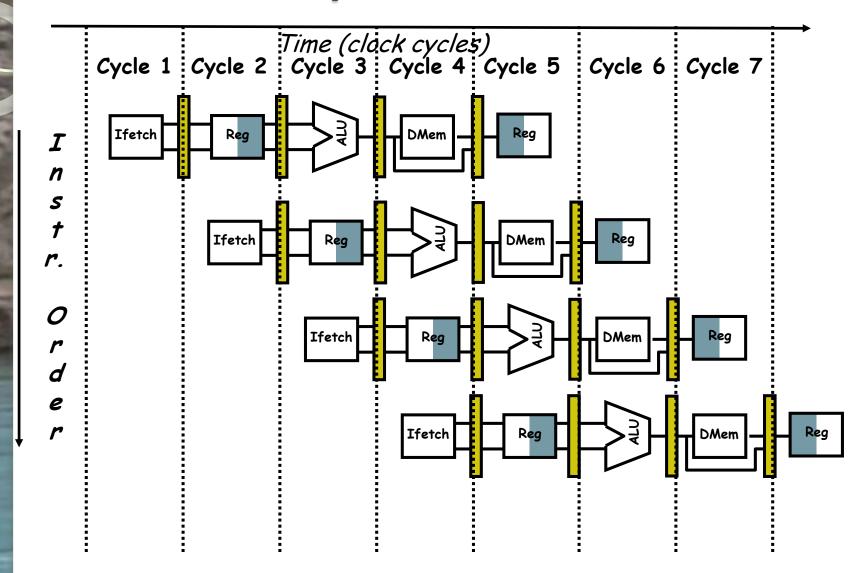


- * The Classic 5-stage Pipeline for a RISC Processor
- **⇒** Start a new instruction every clock cycle
- Instructions overlap should not conflict with use of resources
- Data path pipeline shows no conflicts due to three features
- Separate instruction and data caches Memory bandwidth is 5-times the bandwidth required in a non-pipelined machine
- Register File is accessed in two stages
 Two reads and one write in every cycle
 Write is performed in first half and read is
 performed in the second half of the cycle
- © PC is incremented in every cycle to start a new instruction

Simple RISC Pipeline



Visualizing Pipelining – Series of data paths shifted in time





- Separate ALU is required to calculate branch target address in ID
- Instructions should not interfere with each other Introduce pipeline registers between successive stages. Pipeline registers also carry intermediate results from one stage to another
- Basic Performance Issues in Pipelining
- Throughput increases but every instruction takes longer to execute as compared to a non-pipelined machine

Limits the depth of the pipeline

Imbalance among pipe stages contribute to overheads

Clock cycle time is determined from the delay of the slowest stage

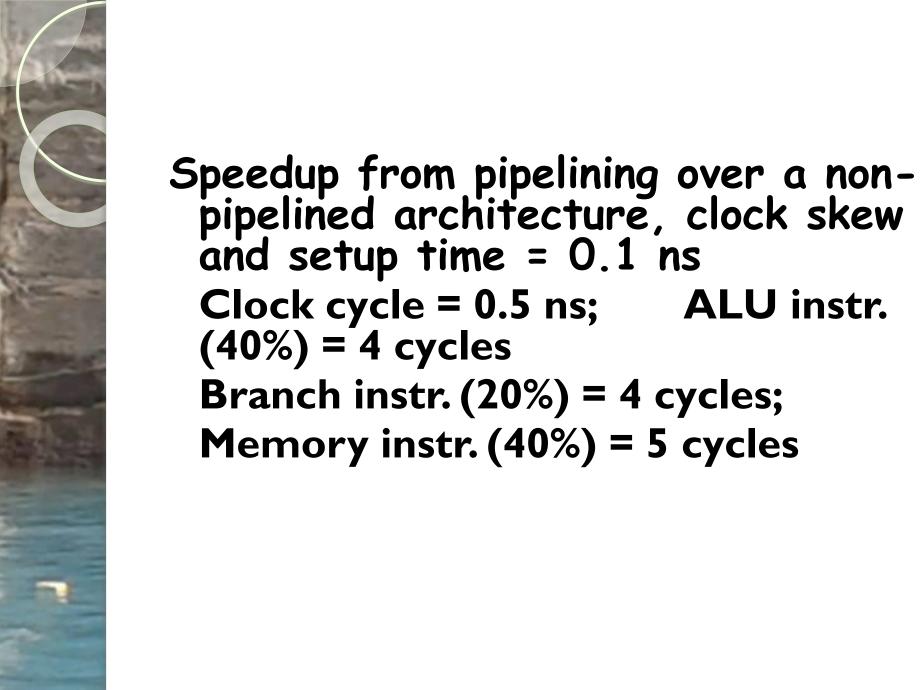


- Pipeline register delay and clock skew are other overheads
- Pipeline registers add setup time
 Time that a register input must be stable before a clock signal that triggers a write occurs
- Clock skew is the maximum delay between the time when the clock arrives at any two registers
 Imposes a lower limit on the clock cycle time



Example

 Consider the unpipelined processor in the previous section. Assume that it has a 4 GHz clock (or a 0.5 ns clock cycle) and that it uses four cycles for ALU operations and branches and five cycles for memory operations. Assume that the relative frequencies of these operations are 40%, 20%, and 40%, respectively. Suppose that due to clock skew and setup, pipelining the processor adds 0.1 ns of overhead to the clock. Ignoring any latency impact, how much speedup in the instruction execution rate will we gain from a pipeline?



Answer The average instruction execution time on the unpipelined processor is

Average instruction execution time = Clock cycle × Average CPI
=
$$0.5 \text{ ns} \times [(40\% + 20\%) \times 4 + 40\% \times 5]$$

= $0.5 \text{ ns} \times 4.4$
= 2.2 ns

In the pipelined implementation, the clock must run at the speed of the slowest stage plus overhead, which will be 0.5 + 0.1 or 0.6 ns; this is the average instruction execution time. Thus, the speedup from pipelining is

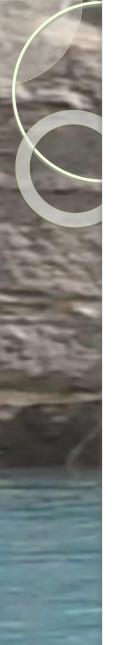
Speedup from pipelining =
$$\frac{\text{Average instruction time unpipelined}}{\text{Average instruction time pipelined}}$$

= $\frac{2.2 \text{ ns}}{0.6 \text{ ns}}$ = 3.7 times

The 0.1 ns overhead essentially establishes a limit on the effectiveness of pipelining. If the overhead is not affected by changes in the clock cycle, Amdahl's Law tells us that the overhead limits the speedup.

Principles of Pipelining

- □ The Major Hurdles of Pipelining Pipeline Hazards Hazards are situations that prevent the next instruction in the instruction stream from executing during its designated clock cycle Reduce performance from the ideal speedup gained by pipelining
- There are three classes of pipeline hazards
- Structural Hazards
 - Occurs due to resource conflicts
 - Hardware cannot support all possible combinations of instructions simultaneously in overlapped execution
- Data Hazards
 - When an instruction depends on the results of a previous instruction in a way that is exposed by the overlapping of instructions in the pipeline



Pipeline Hazards

- Control Hazards
 - Arise from the pipelining of branches and other instructions that change the PC
- Hazards can make it necessary to stall the pipeline
- Stall in a pipelined machine requires that some instructions are allowed to proceed while others are delayed
- All instructions issued later in the pipeline than the stalled instruction are also stalled
- Instructions issued earlier must continue
- No new instructions are fetched during the stall



- Performance of Pipelines with Stalls
- Pipeline speedup =

 <u>Average Instruction time w/o pipeline</u>

 Average Instruction time with pipeline
 - = <u>CPI w/o pipelining * clock cycle w/o pipelining</u> CPI with pipelining * clock cycle with pipelining

Ideal CPI = <u>CPI without pipelining</u> ≈ I Pipeline depth

Pipeline Speedup =

<u>Clock cycle w/o pipelining * Ideal CPI * Pipeline depth</u> Clock cycle with pipelining * (Ideal CPI + pipeline stall cycles)

Pipeline Hazards

> Pipeline Speedup =

<u>Ideal CPI * Pipeline depth</u>

Ideal CPI + pipeline stall cycles

> Pipeline Speedup =

Pipeline depth

I + pipeline stall cycles

If there are no stalls, the speedup is given by
 The number of pipe stages



Structural Hazards

If some combinations of instruction cannot be accommodated due to resource conflicts, there is a structural hazard in the processor

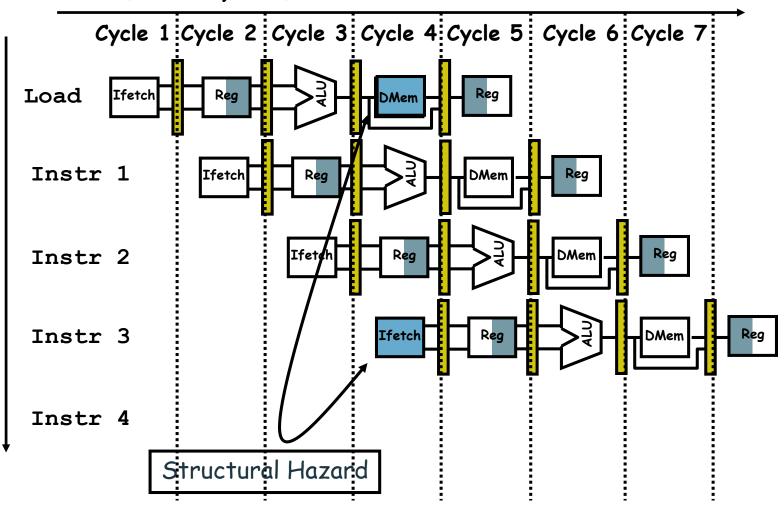
There are two types of structural hazards

- Arises when some functional unit is not fully pipelined
 A sequence of instructions that all use that
 functional unit cannot be sequentially initiated
- Some resource has not been duplicated enough to allow all combinations of instructions in the pipeline to execute

The pipeline will stall one of the instructions until the required unit becomes available



One Memory Port/Structural Hazard



Pipeline Hazards

Data Hazards

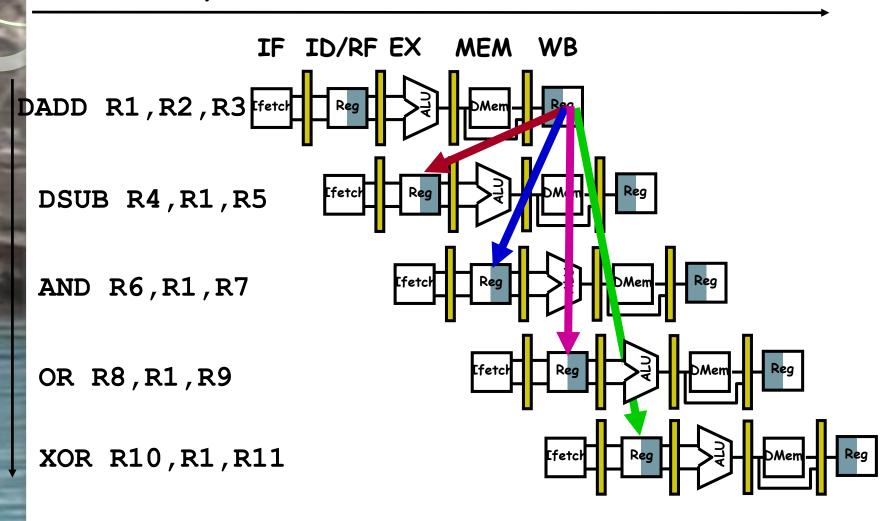
Occur when the order of access to operands is changed by the pipeline versus the normal order encountered by sequentially executing instructions

- Occur because instructions are overlapped in execution
- Assume i occurs before j and both use register x
- > Three different types of data hazards occur
- 1. Read after Write (RAW) When the read of register x by j occurs before write by I
- j would use the wrong value of x
- 2. Write after Read (WAR) Read of x by i takes place after a write by j to x i uses the wrong value of x



- This hazard is not possible in a simple, five stage integer pipeline
- It may occur When instructions are reordered In dynamically scheduled pipelines
- 3. Write after Write (WAW) Write by i into x takes place after write to x by j All later instructions get the wrong value of x
- This hazard is not possible in a simple, five stage, integer pipeline
- Focus only on RAW hazards
- Example code and the hazards that may occur

Data Hazards





Solution

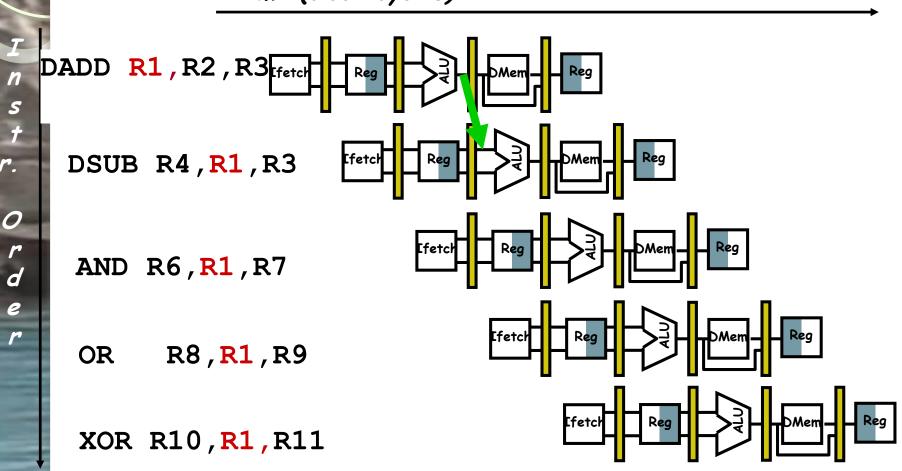
Simple hardware technique called forwarding, bypassing or short-circuiting

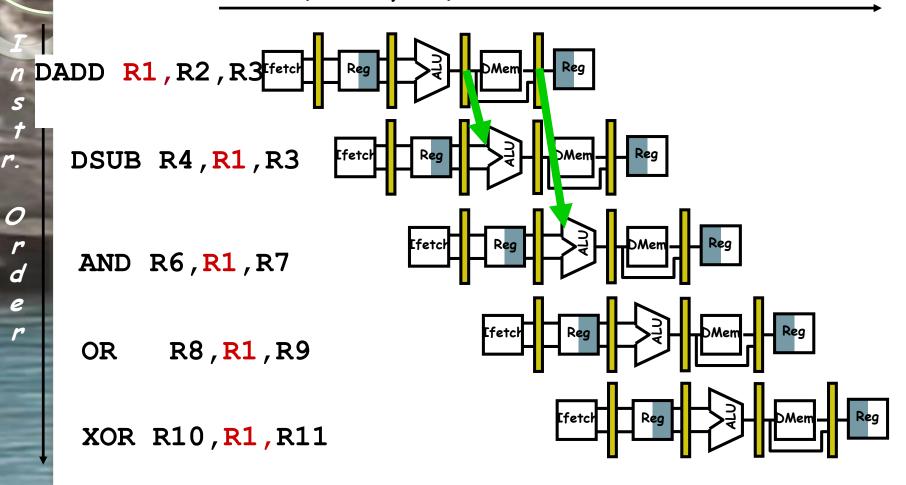
Key insight

Result is needed by successive instructions only after it has been produced Minimizing data hazards by forwarding

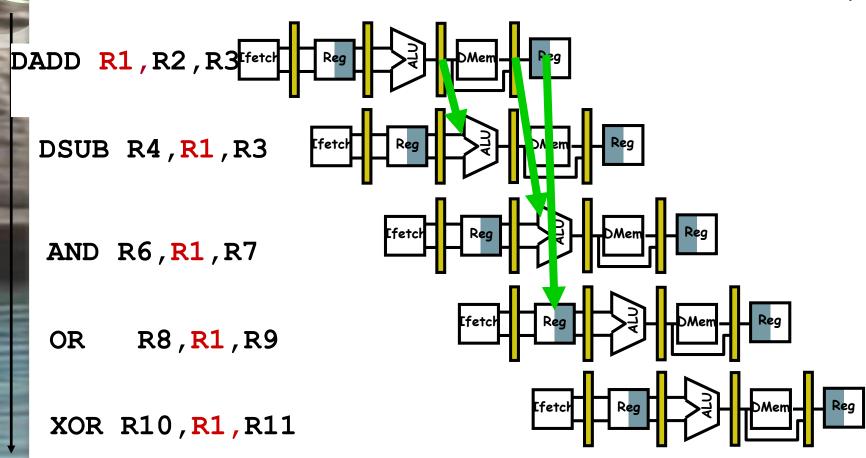
- Data hazards requiring stalls Load instruction followed by an instruction that uses the load output
- Add pipeline interlock to preserve the correct execution pattern

Pipeline interlock detects hazard and stalls the pipeline until the hazard is cleared - CPI increases

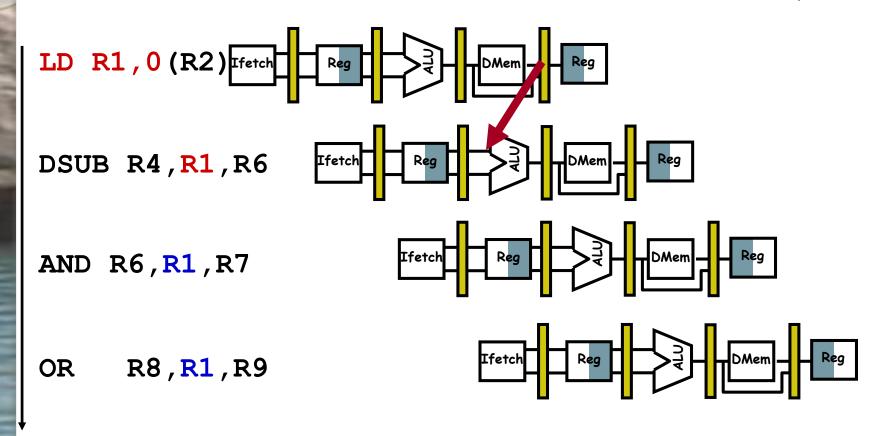




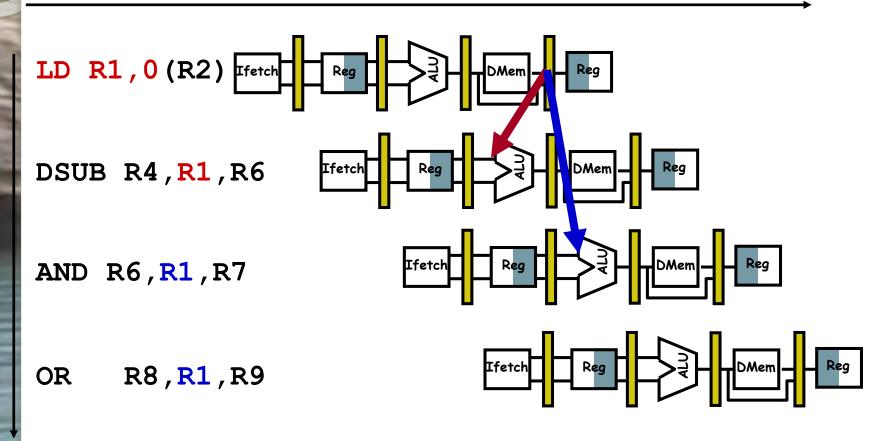
Forwarding to Avoid Data Hazard



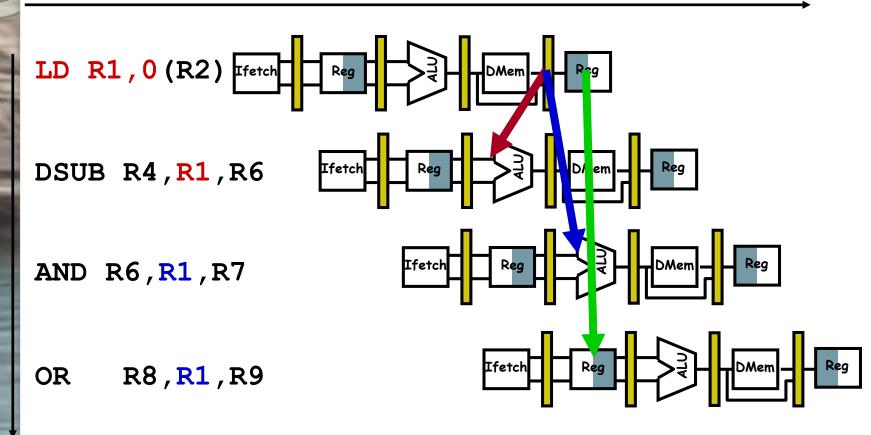
Data Hazard Even with Forwarding



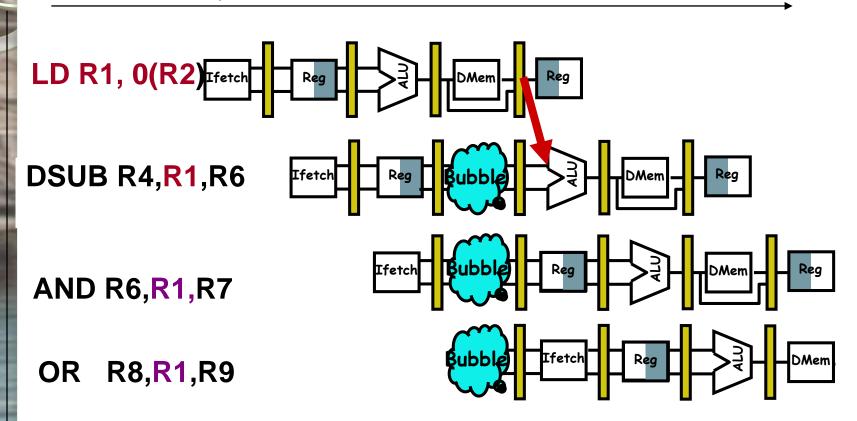
Data Hazard Even with Forwarding



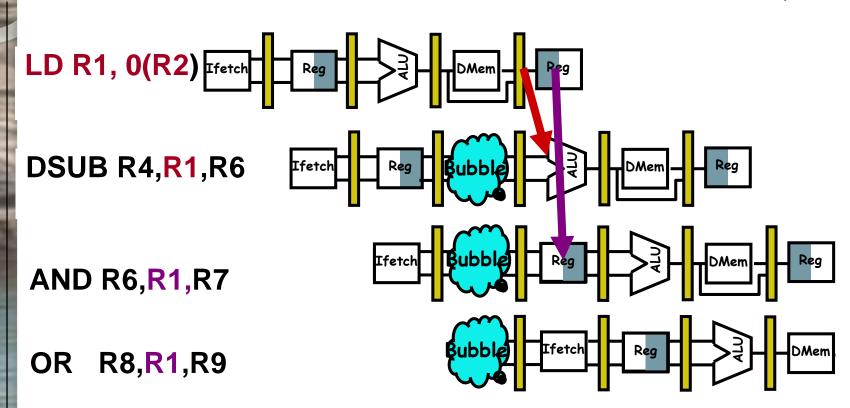
Data Hazard Even with Forwarding



Resolving the Load Data Hazard



Resolving the Load Data Hazard





- **Branch Hazards** Causes more performance loss than data hazards Taken or untaken branches Fall through and content of PC
- **Reducing Pipeline Branch Penalties** Four simple compile time schemes, where predictions are static Compile time guesses

Static

Fixed for each branch during the entire execution

- Freeze the pipeline Simplest
- Hold all instructions after the branch until the branch direction is known



Predict the branch as not taken and allow the pipeline to continue

Do not change the machine state until the branch outcome is definitely known

- Predict the branch as taken 3
- Begin fetching and executing at the target as soon as the target address is computed
- The simple pipeline of RISC-V has the same penalty for all three situations

These schemes make more sense in machines with deeper pipeline

Use delayed branch technique Used in many early RISC processors Works well in simpler pipelines

The predict-not-taken scheme

Untaken branch instruction	IF	ID	EX	MEM	WB				
Instruction $i + 1$		IF	ID	EX	MEM	WB			
Instruction $i + 2$			IF	ID	EX	MEM	WB		
Instruction $i + 3$				IF	ID	EX	MEM	WB	
Instruction $i + 4$					IF	ID	EX	MEM	WB
Taken branch instruction	IF	ID	EX	MEM	WB				
Instruction $i + 1$		IF	idle	idle	idle	idle			(S)(h)
Branch target		5,307	IF	ID	EX	MEM	WB		
Branch target + 1				IF	ID .	EX	MEM	WB	
Branch target + 2		sesci a ato			IF	ID	EX	MEM	WB
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- The execution cycle with a branch delay of length 1 is Branch instruction
 Sequential successor1
 Branch target if taken
- Sequential successor is in the branch delay slot
 This instruction is always executed
- Job of the compiler is to make the successor instruction valid and useful
- Delayed branch technique is useful for simple pipelines where hardware prediction was too expensive

Technique complicates implementation when there is dynamic branch prediction



Behavior of a delayed branch scheme

Untaken branch instruction	IF	ID	EX	MEM	WB				
Branch delay instruction $(i + 1)$		IF	ID	EX	MEM	WB		_	
Instruction $i + 2$			IF	ID	EX	MEM	WB		
Instruction $i + 3$				<u>I</u> F	ID	EX	MEM	WB	
Instruction i + 4					IF	ID	EX	MEM	WB
Taken branch instruction	IF	ID	EX	MEM	WB				
Branch delay instruction $(i + 1)$		IF	ID	EX	MEM	WB			
Branch target			IF	ID	EX	MEM	WB		
Branch target + 1				IF	ID	EX	MEM	WB	
Branch target + 2					IF	ID	EX	MEM	WB
-									



Pipeline Hazards

Performance of Branch Schemes

Pipeline Speedup =

Pipeline depth

I + Pipeline stall cycles from branches

Pipeline Speedup = Pipeline depth

I + Branch frequency * Branch penalty

 Both conditional and unconditional branch contribute to the stalls



- With the increase in the pipeline depth Branch penalty increases
 - Delayed branch schemes are not sufficient
- > More aggressive means of predicting branches
- Two classes
- Low-cost static schemes
 Relies on information available at compile time
 Predict branches dynamically
- Static Branch Prediction
 Use profile information from earlier runs
- Misprediction rate is higher for integer programs as compared to floating-point programs