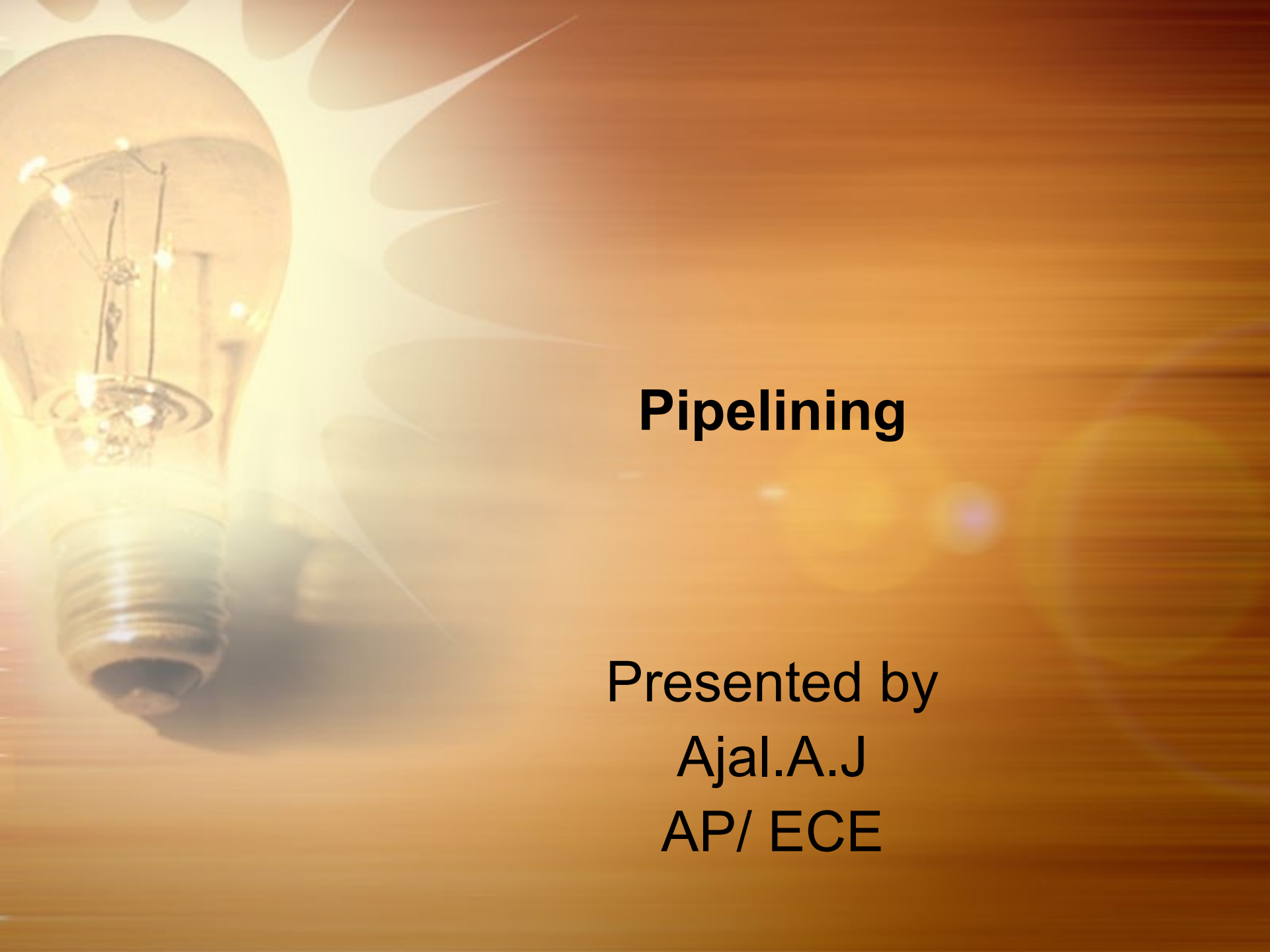


Pipeline Hazards

Module IV (12 hours)

Parallel Processing :Enhancing performance with pipelining-overview, Designing instruction set for pipelining, pipelined datapath, Hazards in pipelining.

Flynn's classification, Multicore processors and Multithreading, Multiprocessor systems-Interconnection networks, Multicomputer systems, Clusters and other message passing architecture.



Pipelining

Presented by

Ajal.A.J

AP/ ECE

Pipelining

- Break instructions into steps
- Work on instructions like in an assembly line
- Allows for more instructions to be executed in less time
- A n-stage pipeline is n times faster than a non pipeline processor (in theory)

What is Pipelining?

5

- Like an Automobile Assembly Line for Instructions
 - ▢ Each step does a little job of processing the instruction
 - ▢ Ideally each step operates in parallel

- Simple Model

- ▢ Instruction Fetch
- ▢ Instruction Decode
- ▢ Instruction Execute

F1	D1	E1		
	F2	D2	E2	
		F3	D3	E3

pipeline

- **It is technique of decomposing a sequential process into suboperation, with each suboperation completed in dedicated segment.**
- Pipeline is commonly known as an **assembly line** operation.
- It is similar like assembly line of car manufacturing.
- First station in an assembly line set up a chassis, next station is installing the engine, another group of workers fitting the body.

Pipeline Stages



We can divide the execution of an instruction into the following 5 “classic” stages:

IF: Instruction Fetch

ID: Instruction Decode, register fetch

EX: Execution

MEM: Memory Access

WB: Register write Back

RISC Pipeline Stages

- Fetch instruction
- Decode instruction
- Execute instruction
- Access operand
- Write result



□ Note:

Slight variations depending on processor

Without Pipelining

- Normally, you would perform the fetch, decode, execute, operate, and write steps of an instruction and then move on to the next instruction

Clock Cycle 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Instr 1



Instr 2



With Pipelining

- The processor is able to perform each stage simultaneously.
- If the processor is decoding an instruction, it may also fetch another instruction at the same time.



Pipeline (cont.)

- Length of pipeline depends on the longest step
- Thus in RISC, all instructions were made to be the same length
- Each stage takes 1 clock cycle
- In theory, an instruction should be finished each clock cycle

Stages of Execution in Pipelined MIPS

5 stage instruction pipeline

1) I-fetch: Fetch Instruction, Increment PC

2) Decode: Instruction, Read Registers

3) Execute:

Mem-reference: Calculate Address

R-format: Perform ALU Operation

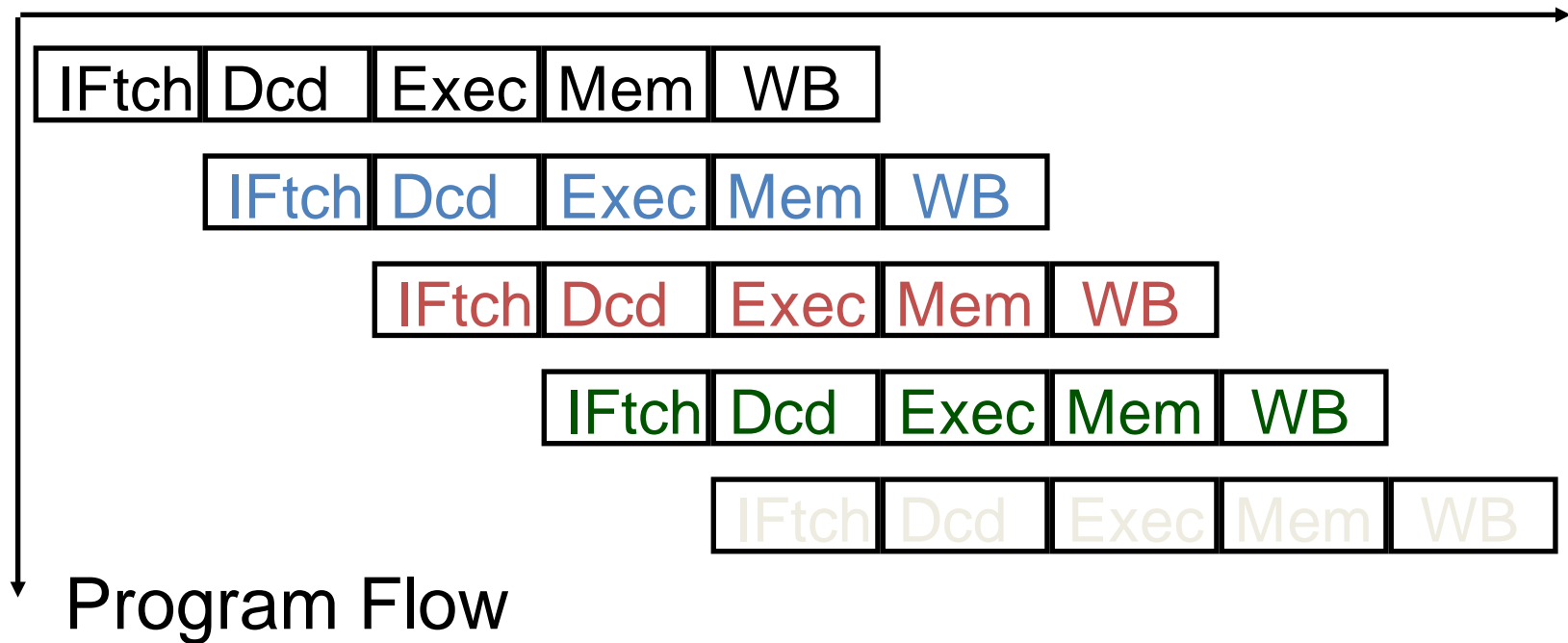
4) Memory:

Load: Read Data from Data Memory

Store: Write Data to Data Memory

5) Write Back: Write Data to Register

Pipelined Execution Representation



- To simplify pipeline, every instruction takes same number of steps, called stages
- One clock cycle per stage

Pipeline Problem

- Problem: An instruction may need to wait for the result of another instruction

Pipeline Solution :

- Solution: Compiler may recognize which instructions are dependent or independent of the current instruction, and rearrange them to **run the independent one first**

How to make pipelines faster

- **Superpipelining**

- ▮ Divide the stages of pipelining into more stages

- Ex: Split “fetch instruction” stage into two stages

- Super scalar pipelining

- Run multiple pipelines in parallel

Super duper pipelining

Automated consolidation of data from many sources,

Dynamic pipeline

- Dynamic pipeline: **Uses buffers to hold instruction bits in case a dependent instruction stalls**

Pipelining

Lessons

- Pipelining doesn't help latency (execution time) of single task, it helps throughput of entire workload
- Multiple tasks operating simultaneously using different resources
- *No theoretical* speedup = Number of pipe stages
- Time to “fill” pipeline and time to “drain” it reduces speedup
- Pipeline rate limited by slowest pipeline stage
- Unbalanced lengths of pipe stages also reduces speedup

Performance limitations

- Imbalance among pipe stages
 - ▮ limits cycle time to slowest stage
- Pipelining overhead
 - ▮ Pipeline register delay
 - ▮ Clock skew
- Clock cycle $>$ clock skew + latch overhead
- Hazards

Pipeline Hazards

Pipeline Hazards

- There are situations, called hazards, that prevent the next instruction in the instruction stream from executing during its designated cycle
- There are three classes of hazards
 - Structural hazard
 - Data hazard
 - Branch hazard

Structural Hazards. They arise from resource conflicts when the **hardware cannot support** all possible combinations of instructions in simultaneous overlapped execution.

Data Hazards. They arise when an instruction depends on the **result of a previous instruction** in a way that is exposed by the overlapping of instructions in the pipeline.

Control Hazards. They arise from the **pipelining of branches and other instructions** that change the PC.

What Makes Pipelining Hard?

- **Power failing,**
- **Arithmetic overflow,**
- **I/O device request,**
- **OS call,**
- **Page fault**

Pipeline Hazards

- **Structural hazard**

- Resource conflicts when the hardware cannot support all possible combination of instructions simultaneously

- **Data hazard**

- An instruction depends on the results of a previous instruction

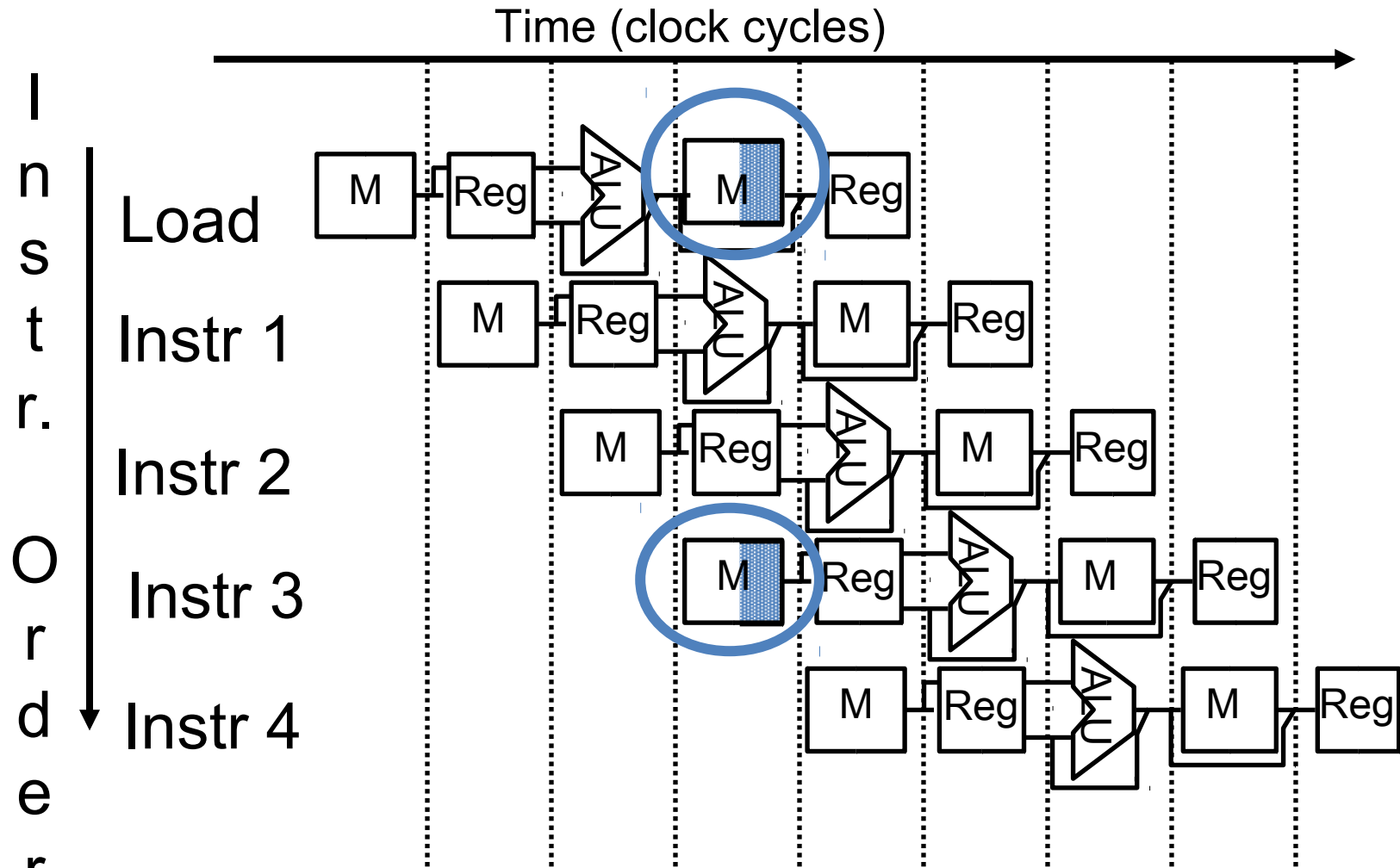
- **Branch hazard**

- Instructions that change the PC

Structural hazard

- Some pipeline processors have shared a single-memory pipeline for data and instructions

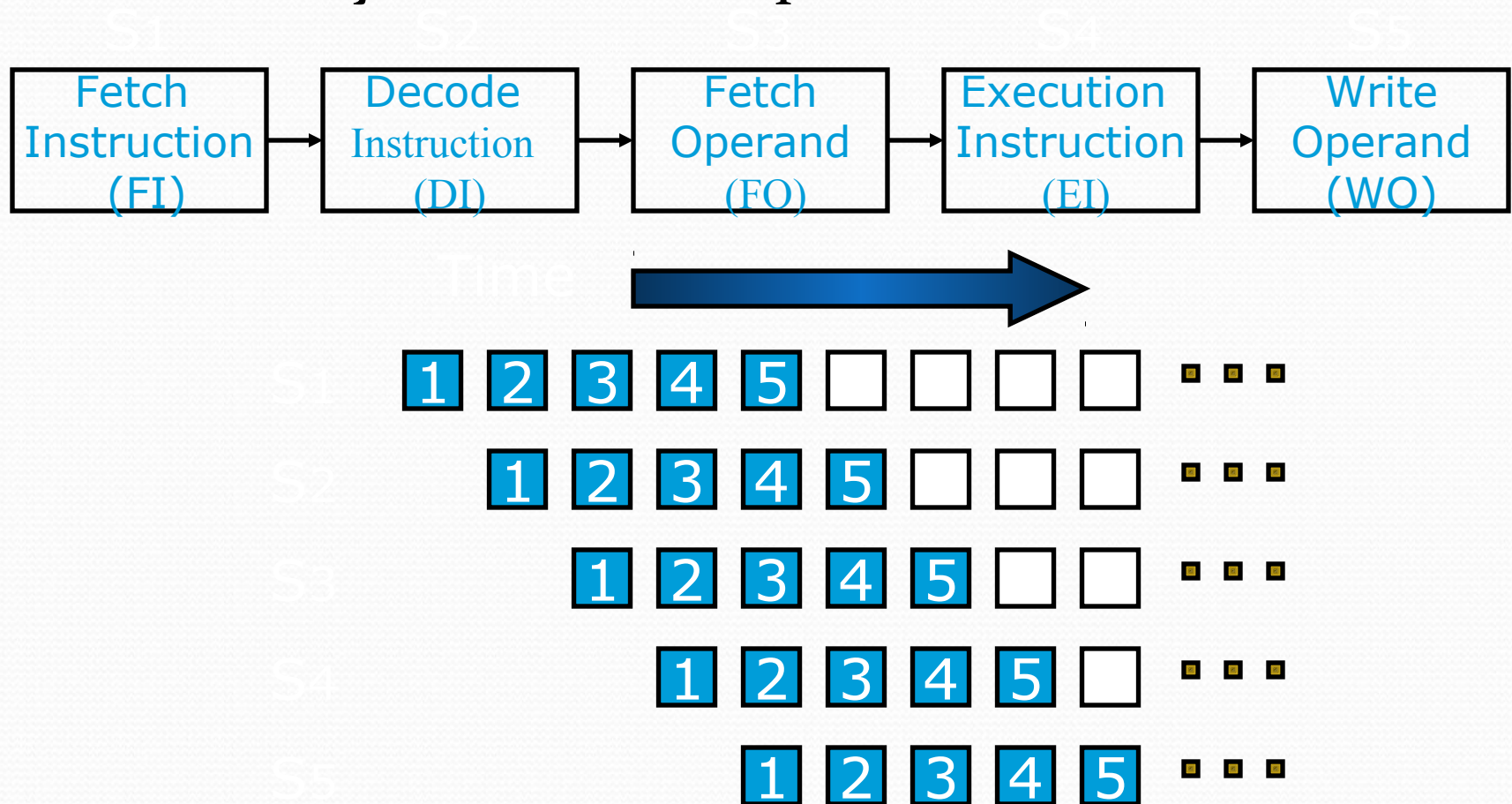
Single Memory is a Structural Hazard



- Can't read same memory twice in same clock cycle

Structural hazard

Memory data fetch requires on FI and FO



Structural hazard

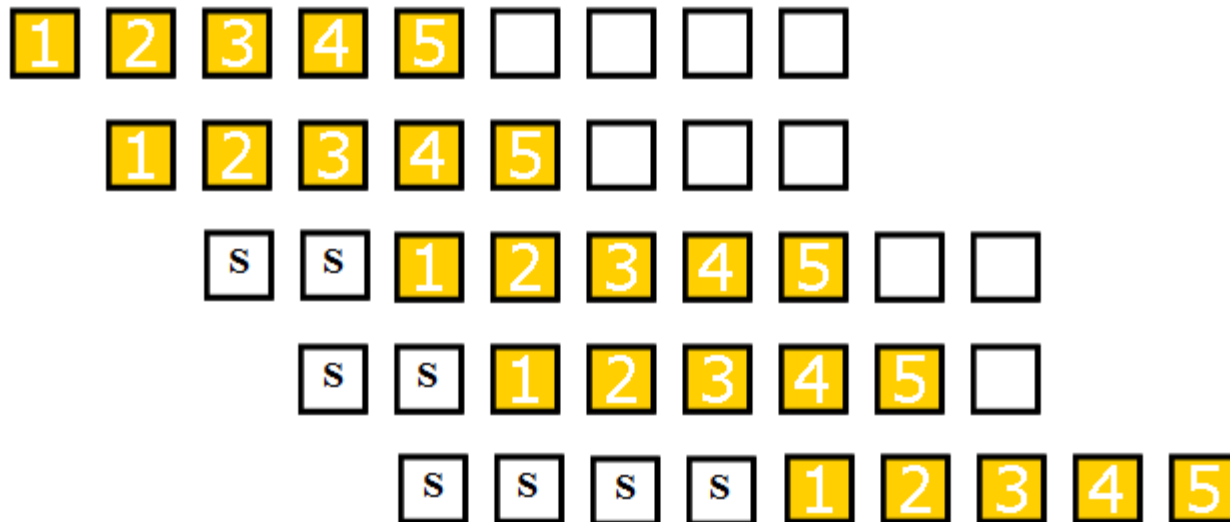
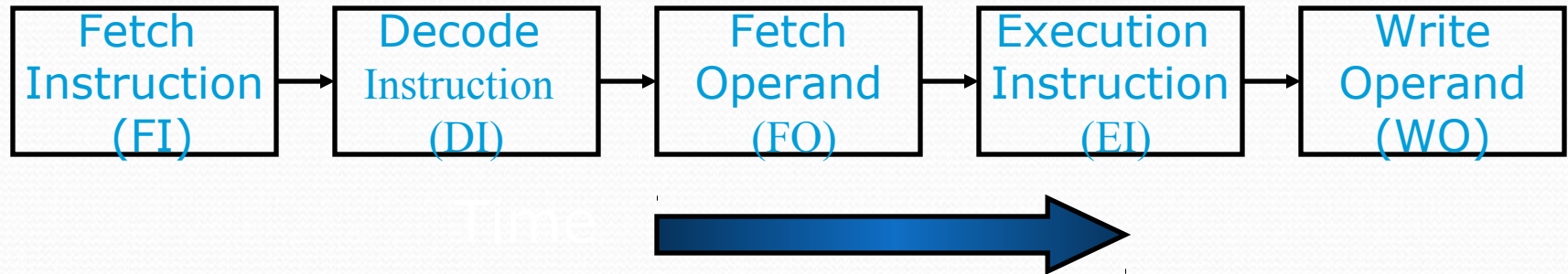
- To solve this hazard, we “stall” the pipeline until the resource is freed
- A stall is commonly called pipeline bubble, since it floats through the pipeline taking space but carry no useful work

Structural Hazards limit performance

- Example: if 1.3 memory accesses per instruction (30% of instructions execute loads and stores) and only one memory access per cycle then
 - ▢ Average CPI ≥ 1.3
 - ▢ Otherwise datapath resource is more than 100% utilized

Structural Hazard Solution: Add more Hardware

Structural hazard



Data hazard

Example:

ADD $R_1 \leftarrow R_2 + R_3$

SUB $R_4 \leftarrow R_1 - R_5$

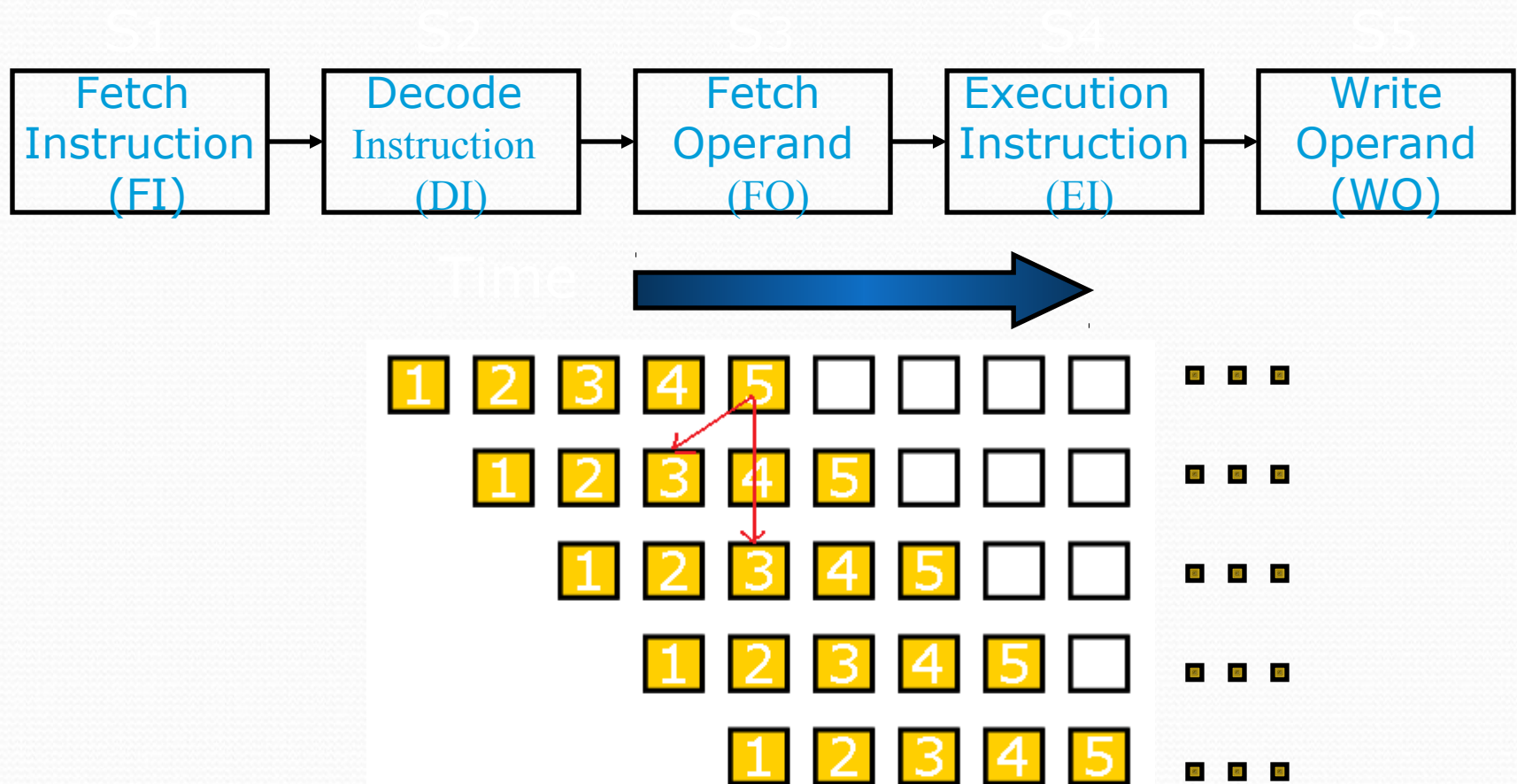
AND $R_6 \leftarrow R_1 \text{ AND } R_7$

OR $R_8 \leftarrow R_1 \text{ OR } R_9$

XOR $R_{10} \leftarrow R_1 \text{ XOR } R_{11}$

Data hazard

FO: fetch data value WO: store the executed value

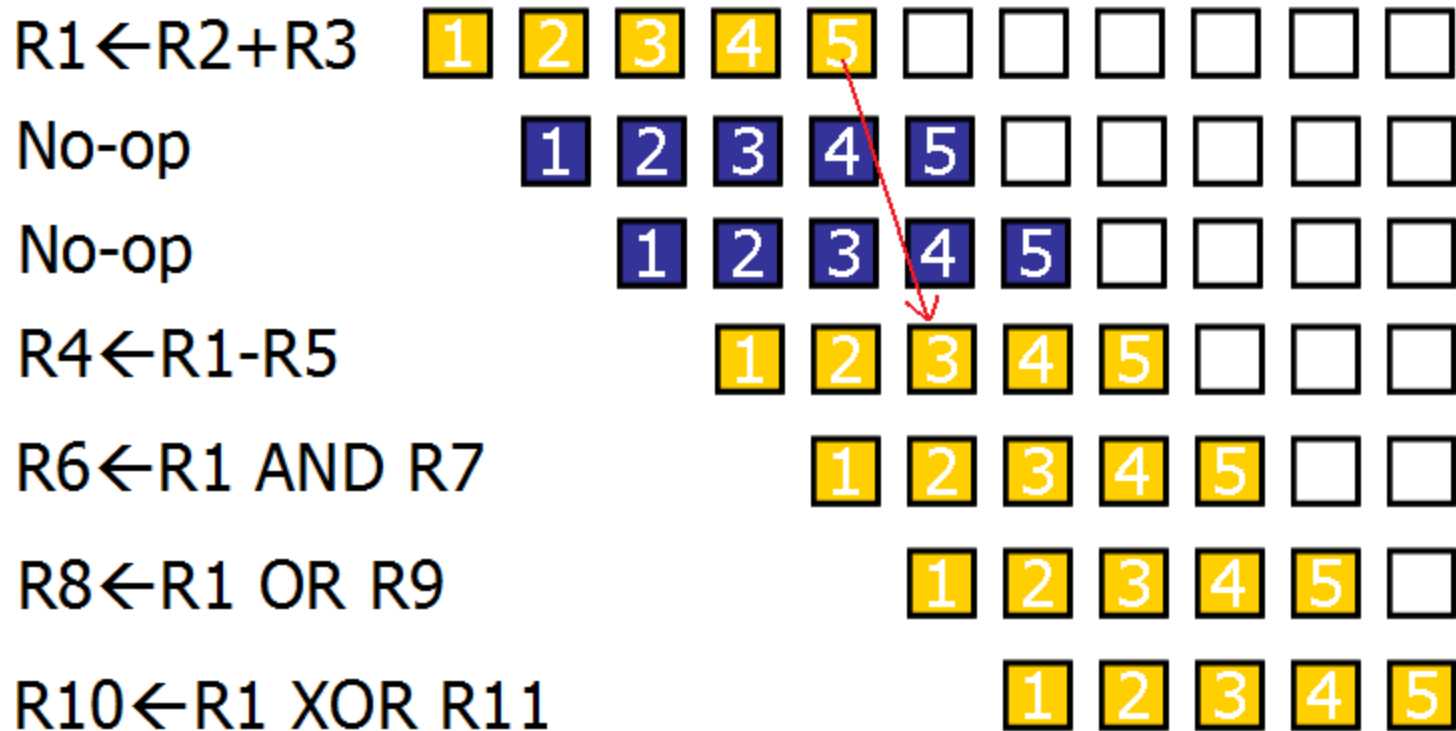


Data hazard

- Delay load approach inserts a no-operation instruction to avoid the data conflict

ADD	$R_1 \leftarrow R_2 + R_3$
No-op	
No-op	
SUB	$R_4 \leftarrow R_1 - R_5$
AND	$R_6 \leftarrow R_1 \text{ AND } R_7$
OR	$R_8 \leftarrow R_1 \text{ OR } R_9$
XOR	$R_{10} \leftarrow R_1 \text{ XOR } R_{11}$

Data hazard



Data hazard

- It can be further solved by a simple hardware technique called *forwarding (also called bypassing or short-circuiting)*
- The insight in forwarding is that the result is not really needed by SUB until the ADD execute *completely*
- If the forwarding hardware detects that the previous ALU operation has written the register corresponding to a source for the current ALU operation, control logic selects the results in ALU instead of from memory

Data hazard

$R1 \leftarrow R2 + R3$

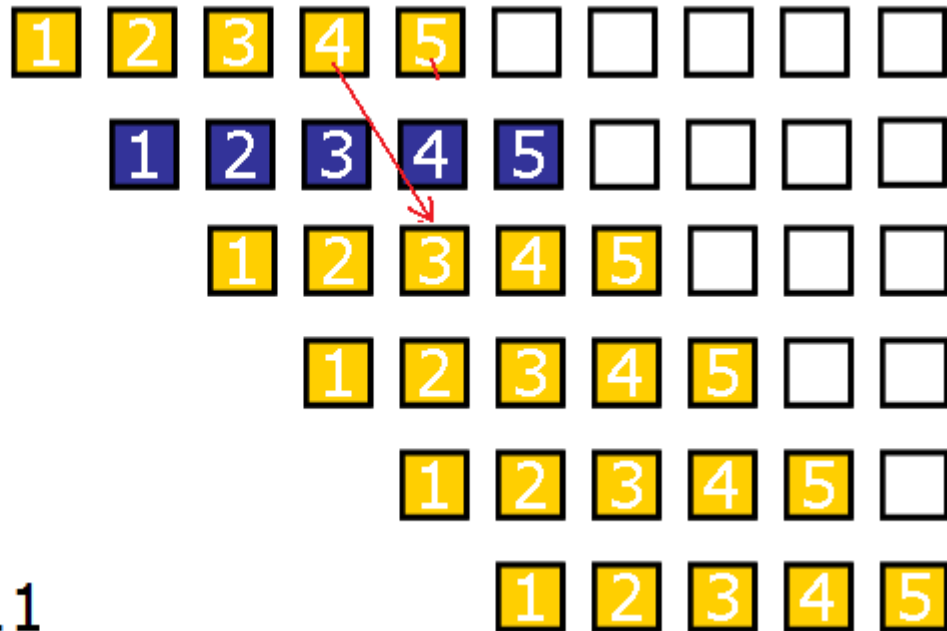
No OP

$R4 \leftarrow R1 - R5$

$R6 \leftarrow R1 \text{ AND } R7$

$R8 \leftarrow R1 \text{ OR } R9$

$R10 \leftarrow R1 \text{ XOR } R11$



Data Hazard Classification

- Three types of data hazards
 - RAW : Read After Write
 - WAW : Write After Write
 - WAR : Write After Read
- RAR : Read After Read
 - Is this a hazard?

Read After Write (RAW)

- A read after write (RAW) data hazard refers to a situation where an instruction refers to a result that has not yet been calculated or retrieved.
- This can occur because even though **an instruction is executed after a previous instruction**, the previous instruction has not been completely processed through the pipeline.

example:

```
i1.      R2  <-  R1 + R3  
i2.      R4  <-  R2 + R3
```

Write After Read (WAR)

- A write after read (WAR) data hazard represents a problem with concurrent execution.

For example:

```
i1.    R4 <- R1 + R5  
i2.    R5 <- R1 + R2
```


Write After Write (WAW)

- A write after write (WAW) data hazard may occur in a concurrent execution environment.

example:

```
i1.    R2 <- R4 + R7  
i2.    R2 <- R1 + R3
```

We must delay the WB (Write Back) of i2 until the execution of i1

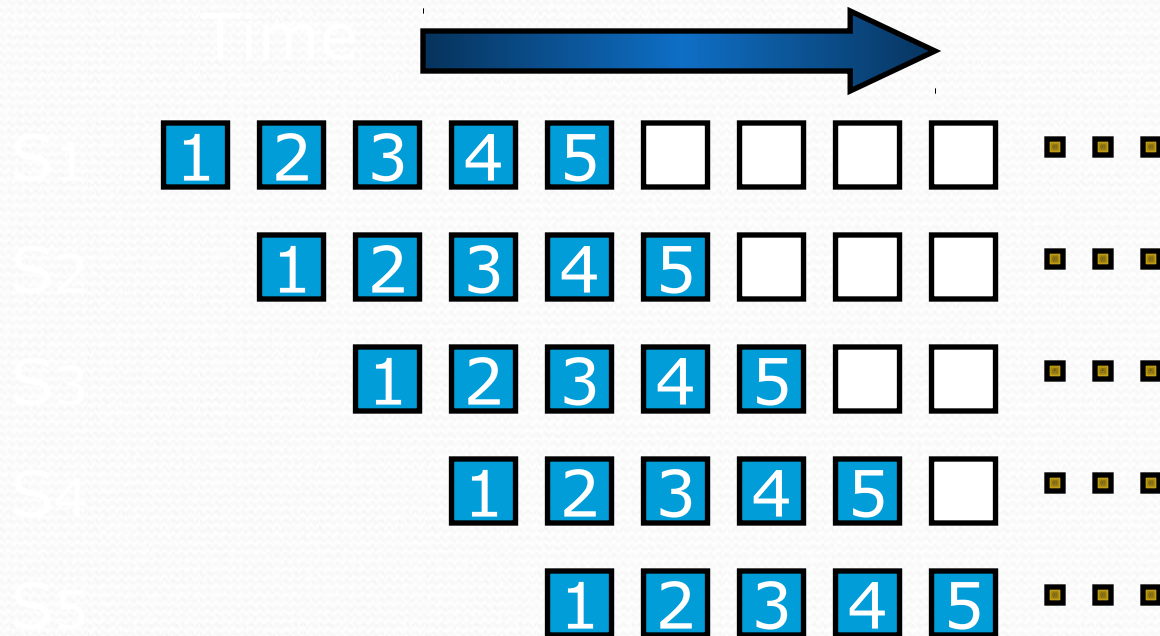
Branch hazards

- Branch hazards can cause a greater performance loss for pipelines
- When a branch instruction is executed, it **may or may not change** the PC
- **If a branch changes the PC to its target address, it is a *taken* branch Otherwise, it is *untaken***

Branch hazards

- There are **FOUR** schemes to handle branch hazards
 - **Freeze scheme**
 - **Predict-untaken scheme**
 - **Predict-taken scheme**
 - **Delayed branch**

5-Stage Pipelining

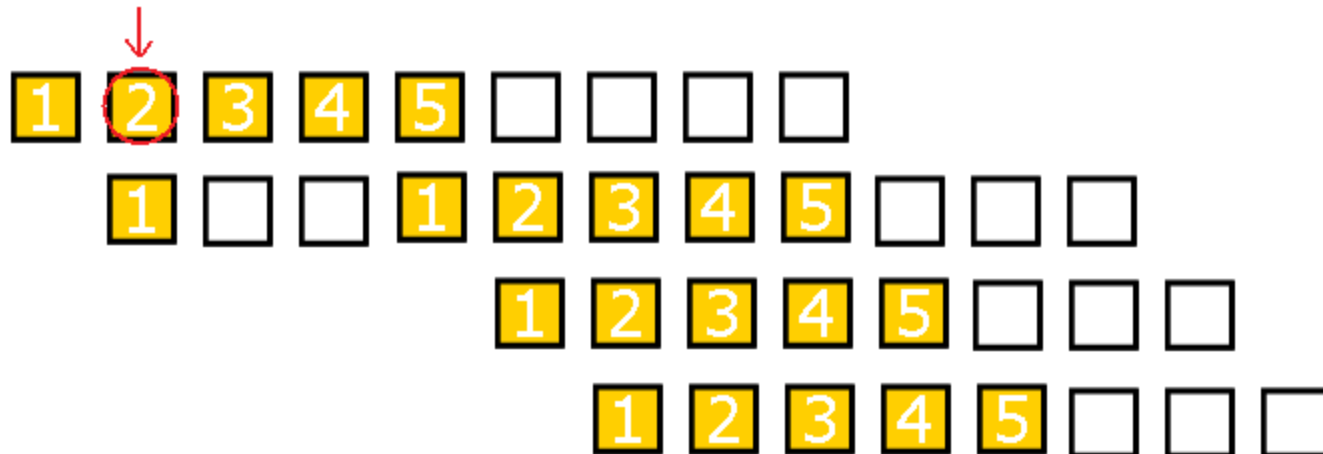


Branch Untaken (Freeze approach)

- The simplest method of dealing with branches is to redo the fetch following a branch

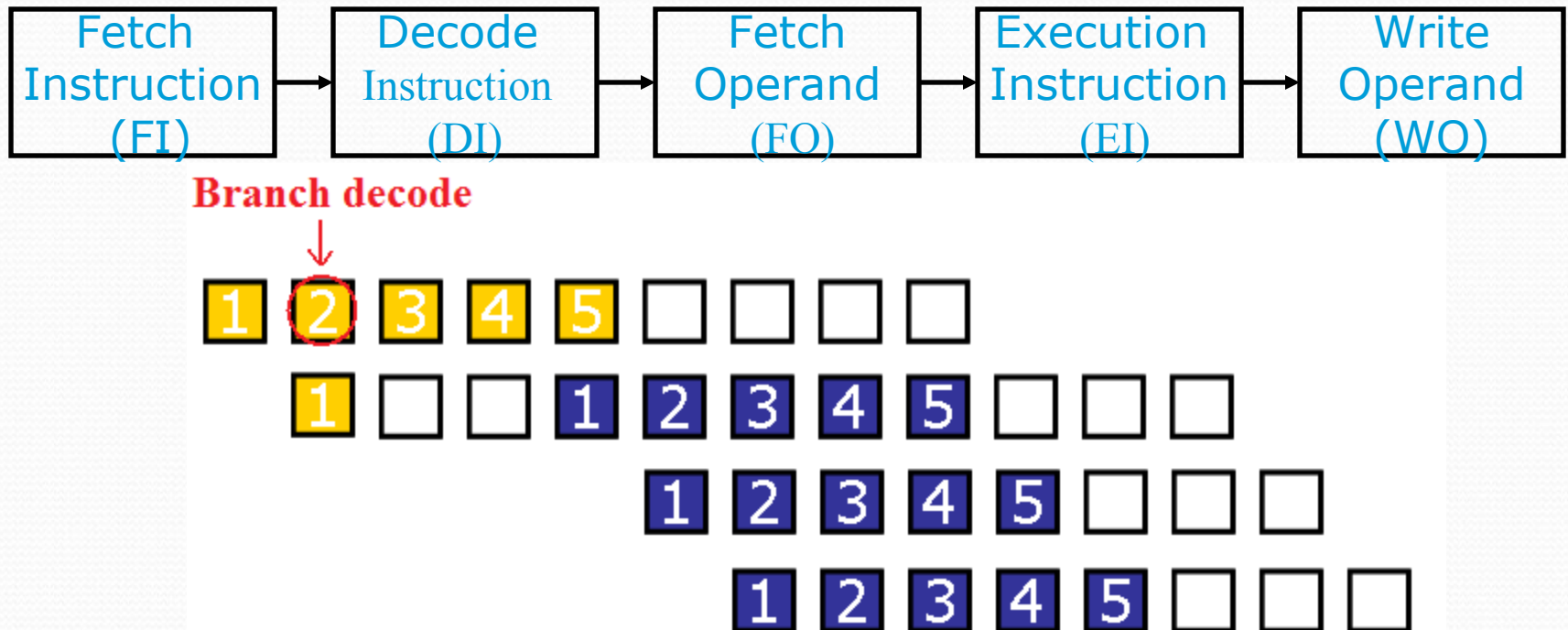


Branch decode



Branch Taken (Freeze approach)

- The simplest method of dealing with branches is to redo the fetch following a branch



Branch Taken

(Freeze approach)

- The simplest scheme to handle branches is to *freeze* the pipeline holding or deleting any instructions after the branch until the branch destination is known
- The attractiveness of this solution lies primarily in its simplicity both for hardware and software

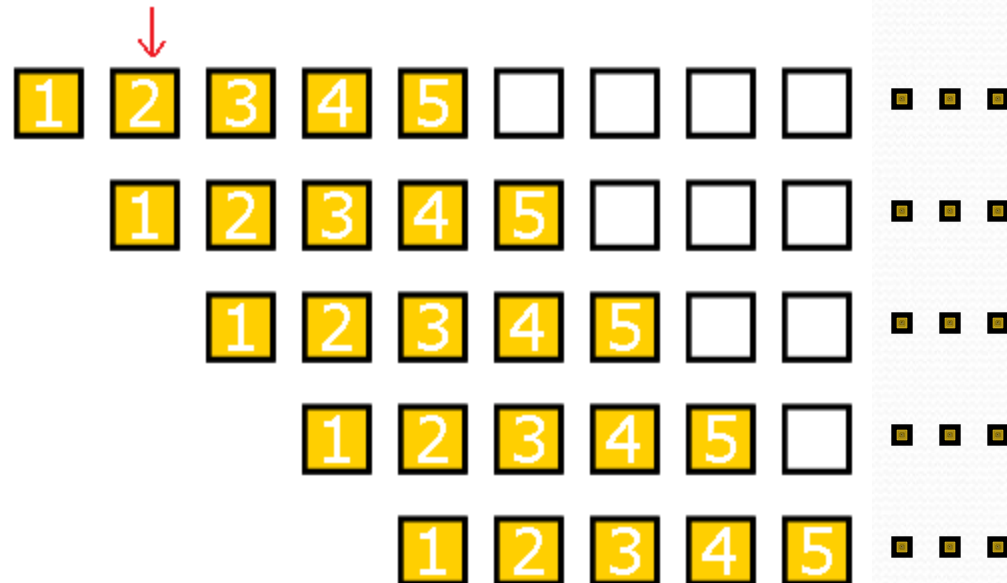
Branch Hazards (Predicted-untaken)

- **A higher performance, and only slightly more complex, scheme is to treat every branch as not taken**
- It is implemented by continuing to fetch instructions as if the branch were normal instruction
- **The pipeline looks the same if the branch is not taken**
- **If the branch is taken, we need to redo the fetch instruction**

Branch Untaken (Predicted-untaken)



Branch decode



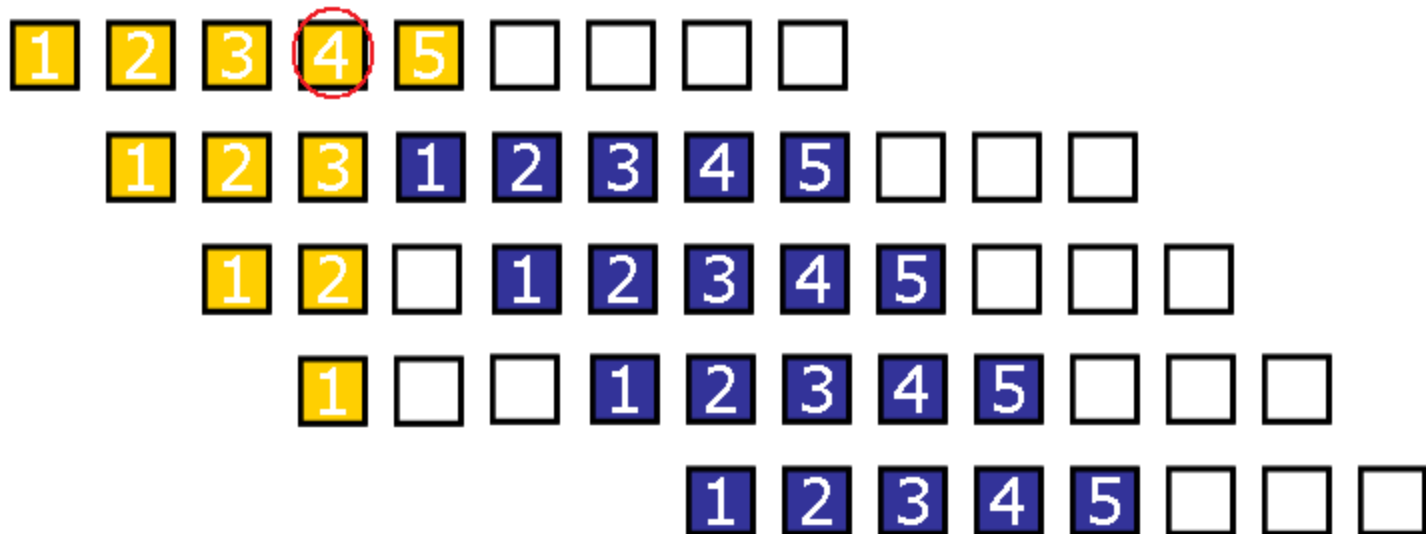
Branch Taken (Predicted-untaken)



Branch decode



Branch Taken



Branch Taken (Predicted-taken)

- **An alternative scheme is to treat every branch as taken**
- **As soon as the branch is decoded and the target address is computed, we assume the branch to be taken and begin fetching and executing the target**

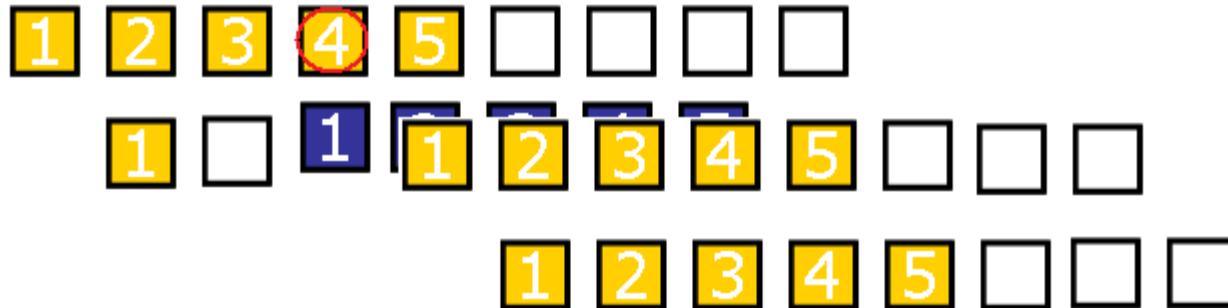
Branch Untaken (Predicted-taken)



Branch decode



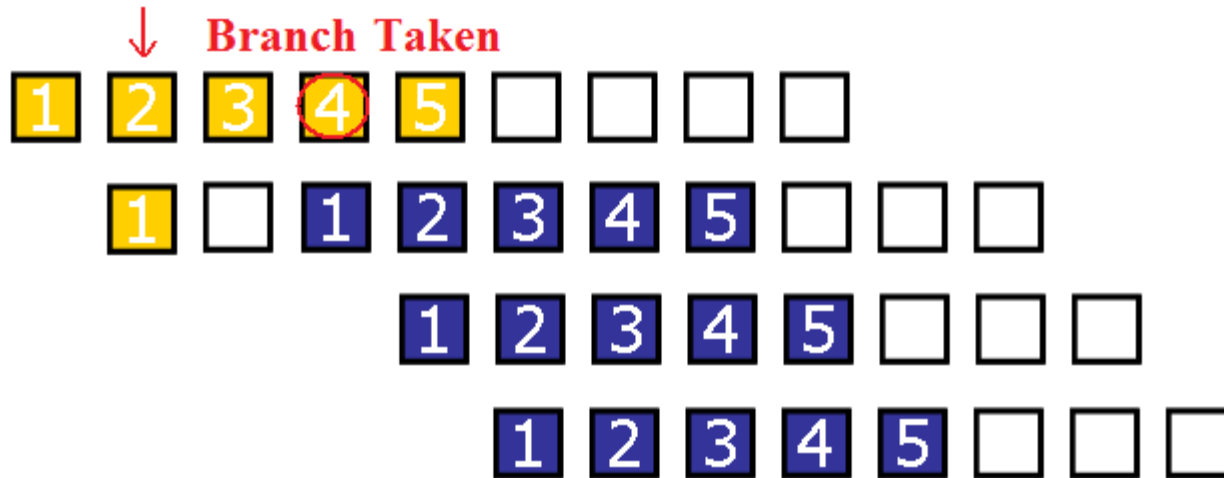
Branch Untaken



Branch taken (Predicted-taken)



Branch decode



Delayed Branch

- A fourth scheme in use in some processors is called *delayed branch*
- **It is done in compiler time. It modifies the code**
- *The general format is:*

branch instruction

Delay slot

branch target if taken

Delayed Branch

- Optimal

(a) From before

DADD R1, R2, R3

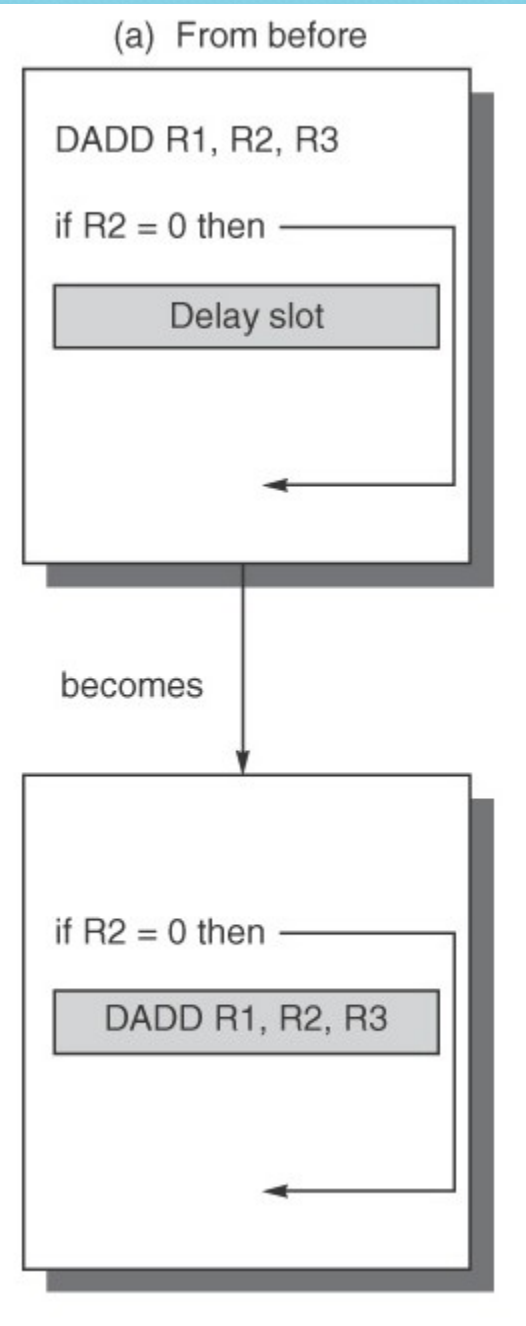
if R2 = 0 then

Delay slot

becomes

if R2 = 0 then

DADD R1, R2, R3



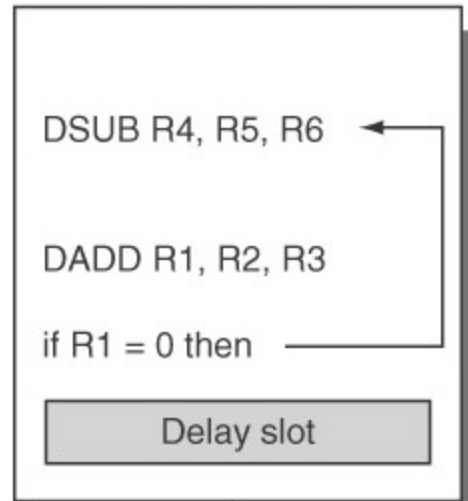
Delayed Branch

If the optimal is not available:

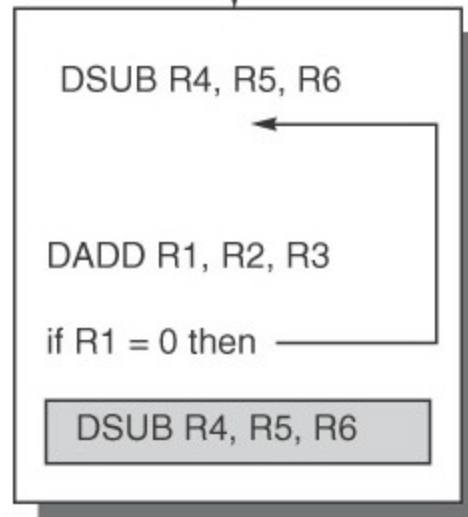
(b) Act like predict-taken
(in complier way)

(c) Act like predict-untaken
(in complier way)

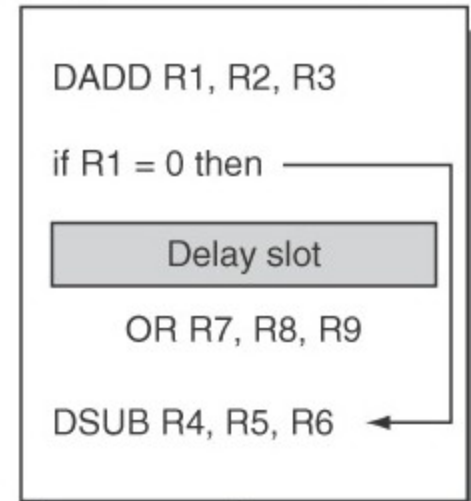
(b) From target



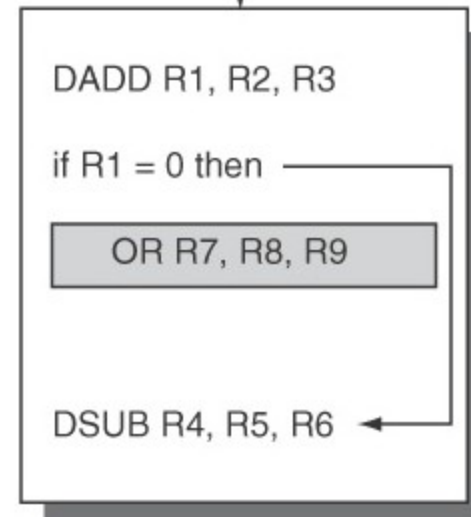
becomes



(c) From fall-through



becomes



Delayed Branch

- Delayed Branch is limited by
 - (1) **the restrictions on the instructions that are scheduled into the delay slots (for example: another branch cannot be scheduled)**
 - (2) **our ability to predict at compile time whether a branch is likely to be taken or not**

Branch Prediction

- A pipeline with branch prediction uses some additional logic to guess the outcome of a conditional branch instruction before it is executed

Branch Prediction

- Various techniques can be used to predict whether a branch will be taken or not:
 - Prediction never taken
 - Prediction always taken
 - Prediction by opcode
 - Branch history table
- The first three approaches are static: they do not depend on the execution history up to the time of the conditional branch instruction. The last approach is dynamic: they depend on the execution history.

Important Pipeline Characteristics

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□ Latency

- ▮ Time required for an instruction to propagate through the pipeline
- ▮ Based on the Number of Stages * Cycle Time
- ▮ Dominant if there are lots of exceptions / hazards, i.e. we have to constantly be re-filling the pipeline

□ Throughput

- ▮ The rate at which instructions can start and finish
- ▮ Dominant if there are few exceptions and hazards, i.e. the pipeline stays mostly full

□ Note we need an increased memory bandwidth over the non-pipelined processor

Exceptions

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- An exception is when the normal execution order of instructions is changed. This has many names:
 - ▢ **Interrupt**
 - ▢ **Fault**
 - ▢ **Exception**
- Examples:
 - ▢ I/O device request
 - ▢ Invoking OS service
 - ▢ Page Fault
 - ▢ Malfunction
 - ▢ Undefined instruction
 - ▢ Overflow/Arithmetic Anomaly
 - ▢ Etc!

Eliminating hazards- Pipeline bubbling

- *Bubbling the pipe line*, also known as a *pipe line break* or a *pipe line stall*, is a method for preventing data, structural, and branch hazards from occurring.
- instructions are fetched, control logic determines whether a hazard could/will occur. If this is true, then the control logic inserts **NOPs** into the pipeline. Thus, before the next instruction (which would cause the hazard) is executed, the previous one will have had sufficient time to complete and prevent the hazard

No: of NOPs = stages in pipeline

- If the number of NOPs is equal to the number of stages in the pipeline, the processor has been cleared of all instructions and can proceed free from hazards. All forms of stalling introduce a delay before the processor can resume execution.